THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

SOCIO-CULTURAL AND ECONOMIC FACTORS INFLUENCING SAUDI NATIONALS' INVOLVEMENT IN THE INDUSTRIAL AND VOCATIONAL SECTORS IN SAUDI ARABIA.

BEING A THESIS SUBMITTED FOR THE DEGREE OF

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BY

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The ones who paid the price of my involvement in postgraduate studies: My father, Gharamah; my mother, Sabrah; my brothers and sister; my wife Salihah and my children, Loloah, Yosser, and Abdulkareem.

I would like also to dedicate this work to all those who work hard and honestly for the progress and prosperity of our society.

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I hereby declare that no portion of the work referred to in this study has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification to this or any other university or institution of learning.

ABSTRACT

Some industrial and vocational jobs, in many parts of Saudi society, are still disdained and not accepted as steady work and there is an obvious lack of Saudi nationals' participation in the labour force in the industrial and vocational sectors. This study, therefore, investigates this phenomenon and some socio-cultural and economic factors behind it. The broad objectives of this research were to investigate social acceptance of industrial and vocational work, the difference between Saudi youths and their fathers in perceptions of this kind of work and the relationship between socio-cultural and economic factors and acceptance of industrial and vocational work in Saudi Arabia's South Province.

Data collection for the study was carried out using two methods: questionnaire, and semi-structured interview. A sample of 200 final year secondary school students and 200 fathers of the secondary school students, representing heads of households, in the Asir province, responded to self-administered questionnaires. A sample of 30 interviewees was selected, representing three groups: secondary school head teachers, directors and administrators of some government and educational sectors, and managers of private sector companies and factories providing industrial and vocational work in Asir Province

Descriptive statistics are presented regarding the major characteristics, occupational background and experience of the respondents, and their involvement in industrial and vocational work. Statistical tests were used to analyse the factors influencing Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors and the difference between students and fathers in relation to this issue. The interviews provide complementary qualitative data which shed further light on the issues raised by the questionnaire responses.

The main findings of the study were that industrial and vocational work and manual work are generally accorded low acceptance, status, and social value in Saudi society. Consequently, the majority of respondents and their families showed very negative attitudes towards vocational and industrial work and greater preference for other occupations, especially clerical work, the military, teaching, medicine, and so on. The results, also, revealed that no there is great difference between students and fathers in their acceptance of involvement in I&V sectors. The most influential factors behind these results were: the low social value and status given to industrial and vocational work; the influence of family, tribe, relatives and personal relationships upon Saudi nationals in relation to their education and their choice of work, especially related to the I&V sector; the gap between general education and I&V education, training and work; the prevailing view that governmental posts offer the best kind of work; dependence on foreign labour; and Saudi nationals lack of awareness about future job opportunities in the private sectors and the situation of the labour market generally.

The study concludes with recommendations which, it is hoped, would contribute to improve the attitudes of Saudi nationals towards industrial and vocational sectors. Suggestions are also made for further research to address the issue of acceptance of industrial and vocational work and related influencing factors.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This research project represents an attempt to assess the impact of socio-economic factors on Saudi nationals' involvement in the industrial and vocational sectors[1]. In this chapter the scope and orientation of the study are laid down. The chapter begins by specifying the research problem. This is followed by an assertion of the importance of carrying out this particular study in the light of the social and economic transformations taking place in the country during recent decades, with regard to the indigenous workforce in the private sector, especially industrial and vocational work. The general objectives and questions of the study are explained, and the scope and limitations of the study are discussed. Finally, the structure of the study is outlined.

1.1 The research problem.

Many factors have contributed to the vast and rapid social and economic changes that have been ongoing in Saudi Arabia for the last few decades. The most prominent of these is the high revenues from oil, especially after the oil price boom in the mid seventies. The enormous wealth of the country has led the policy makers to

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[1] The term 'vocational' in Saudi Arabia is a general term used for work which requires specific skill or training, but which is not professional or managerial in character. It is applied to a wide range of technical and skilled manual occupations, trades and crafts, e.g. factory worker, car mechanic, carpenter, barber.

modernise and diversify the country's economy. Industrialisation was chief amongst the chosen alternatives, taking precedence over agricultural and commercial sector development.

Since 1970, the government has embarked upon a series of ambitious five-year plans in an endeavour to build a modern industrial-oriented country. Putting these plans into effect required enormous efforts, experience, and changes in almost all aspects of life.

On the road to modernisation and industrialisation, it has been realised that there is a need for a well-trained and experienced workforce, in order to run the diverse economic functions of the government and the other sectors, including the manufacturing sector. Therefore, a number of measures have been taken in order to transform the society from a generally nomadic and rural society to an urbanised and advanced one. In the meantime, however, the country has relied heavily on foreign labour and expertise.

Throughout the preliminary development stages, extensive attention was paid to establishing the infrastructure, but the human factor was not forgotten. All government agencies were involved in material construction, yet considerable attention was also paid to developing manpower. Thus, educating the people and offering training programmes were amongst the top priorities. Accordingly, general, technical, and higher education were expanded and provided free of charge.

In spite of all this, the attention paid to human resource development, and the quality of the education and training in the last four development plans were inadequate. Fortunately, manpower development was the focal point of the fifth five-year plan and beyond. Along with this, the development of the private sector and privatisation

programmes constituted major objectives of this plan. Regarding manpower, one of the Fifth Development Plan's key objectives was to *"...develop a Saudi work force whose education and skill profile, remuneration, and attitudes towards work are compatible with the realities of a dynamic labour market, by ensuring that the education and training systems are capable of producing high quality, motivated graduates with a skill mix that matches the manpower requirements of the economy"* (Ministry of Planning, 1990:116).

The dark side of the bright picture above is that Saudi society, which is relatively small and has only recently shifted from an unstructured simple way of life, now has to deal with this relatively advanced new life-style effectively, efficiently and independently.

In fact, the economic prosperity produced by the substantial increase in oil revenue brought with it tremendous changes affecting all aspects of life in Saudi Arabia, including occupational settings and the meaning of work. This generated confused feelings among the youth of that generation towards work, in general, and manual work, in particular, to the effect that they were very hesitant to seek jobs.

Traditionally, Saudi society was founded on two different social strata, regardless of economic and social status (i.e., individuals could be classified socially as well as economically in any social level from either strata).

The first stratum, called g*abeeli*, has been treated traditionally as an upper stratum in terms of its pure tribal heritage and one's belonging to a prominent tribal system. The second, *khodeeri*, has always been treated as a secondary or lower level than the first. Both strata, however, have deep roots in the history of the tribal system of the Arabian Peninsula. The fact that there is a wide spread of socio-economic status

within each group creates the possibility for status inconsistency, since the individual cannot change his tribal heritage. He will remain a *gabeeli* or *khadeeri,* irrespective of his socio-economic status. As summarised by Lipsky *(1959)*: *"A man's status depends upon his ethnic group (tribal background), occupation, religion (sect), age, lineage, reputation, and wealth. Even though the lowly artisan, tinker, smith, or slave may be wealthier than a nearby Arab cultivator of noble tribal origin, he remains lower on the social scale. He can achieve a higher status only within his own ethnic and social group; his son, however, may move up socially by virtue of his father's wealth or such other acquired social assets as religious or technical learning"(p 83).*

Before the impact of the oil economy, Saudi society offered limited occupational activities. For example, nomadic people practised animal herding, and those who lived in the urban centres became familiar with commerce and skills limited to a particular locale. Traditionally, strata differences played an important role in determining an individual's occupational role. A person within the *gabeeli* stratum could not practise specific occupations, such as carpenter, butcher, coppersmith, baker, plumber, tanner, etc. However, members of the *khadeeri* stratum could practise almost all kinds of occupations, including those practised by members of the first stratum, such as farming, commerce, government employment, building, etc. This occupational discrepancy between strata is still reflected deeply in individual attitudes and feelings towards some occupational roles, in particular, and toward work, in general. Some individuals are still reluctant to work at jobs that have been rejected by their own stratum of society. This may vary, however, between rural dwellers and those who live in urban and industrial centres. (e.g., *gabeeli* members who live in urban and industrial centres are more likely to consider occupations previously rejected by their own social stratum, in contrast to *gabeeli* members who still live in rural areas).

Although the Saudi development programmes have depended on foreign experts, professionals and workforce, it is a fact that throughout the last three decades Saudis have gradually replaced foreign employees in government departments and in educational positions. Nowadays foreign employees are hardly found in government offices and even more rarely in general education posts. The problem, however, rests in the private sector and in jobs of a manual nature, which are still dominated by foreigners. There is a tendency amongst the Saudi general public to prefer working for the government to working for the private sector, in almost all industries, particularly in the manufacturing industry. Private organisations usually provide Saudis with better financial benefits than government organisations, particularly for managers and white-collar workers. For example, the average monthly income for government managers is S.R. 7,117, whereas for private sector managers the average monthly income is S.R. 11,122. In addition to this, the provision of more comprehensive fringe benefits in the private sector is obvious compared to the government sector. In spite of this financial difference, the Saudi workforce constitutes only 7.5% of the total employment of the private manufacturing sector (The Consulting Centre for Finance and Investment, 1995).

The massive inflow of the expatriate workforce has important practical implications both for the functioning of the market and for the development of the indigenous labour force in the vocational and industrial sectors. Expatriate labour is affecting the labour market in many ways. For example:

- Imbalances in supply and demand in various segments of the market are being reduced.

- Mobility of Saudi workers is reduced, due to reduction of incentives, in terms of wage and benefit differentials.
- The severity of competition from expatriate skilled workers makes it less attractive for Saudi workers to acquire new skills or causes Saudi workers to dissociate themselves altogether from certain professions.
- The expatriates who are mainly from South-east Asia and who, in general, possess low-level qualifications, in effect, endanger the society's values.
- The impact of expatriates on the Saudi economy can be seen through their remittances to their home countries, which constitute an average of 37% of Saudi Arabia's annual oil revenues (Alturaigi, 1997:7).

Furthermore, despite the economic incentives which have been provided under the development plans, and a government policy of encouraging young Saudis to learn special skills, they are still reluctant to take the initiative. Mackey notes: "*The record of vocational education is even more dismal. In an attempt to attract students into courses on welding, carpentry, refrigeration, car mechanics, electricity and plumbing, the government during the Third Plan paid all educational expenses for the students plus giving them a salary during training. To sweeten the attraction even further, graduates were promised a SR200, 000 (£ 33,000) interest-free loan to set up their own businesses. Yet there were few takers*" (Mackey 1988:185).

It is clear that Saudi Arabia is not faced by major obstacles such as capital, material, political stability and so on. The main constraint on the development of a modern economy and diversified industrial base is the critical shortage of vocational and industrial manpower. Regarding this, Harbison and Myers (1965) pointed out that

"*The wealth of a country is based upon its manpower to develop and to effectively utilise the innate capacity of its people. The economic development of nations, therefore, is ultimately the result of human effort. Indeed, if a country is unable to develop its human resources it cannot build anything else, whether it be a modern political system, a sense of national unity or a prosperous economy*" (p.i).

1.2 Importance and purposes of the study.

During the past two decades, job activities in the Saudi labour market have expanded as a result of major economic trends in the Gulf area. On the whole, these changes gave new hope for economic prosperity and assurances of a good future, particularly for the indigenous people of the area. Unfortunately, the skyrocketing of these possibilities in the 1970s did not last. The economic downturn of the 1980s created a gloomy atmosphere in the labour market, as job availability became scarce in the market as a whole. Out-migration of foreign workers was one effect of this situation. More importantly, local unemployment increased day by day, creating potentially massive social problems that could lead to negative consequences.

There are about 100,000 Saudis entering the job market annually and the government has had high expectations of the private sector in providing both training and placements. According to the Fifth Five Year Plan (1990-1995): "*Approximately 575,000 Saudi nationals of varying levels of education are expected to enter the labour market to fill about 294,000 new jobs, while a total of 281,000 existing positions will be Saudized. It is hoped that the private sector will provide most of these jobs*" (Montagu, 1994:29).

Moreover, the 1990s started with upheaval all over the world that left a blurred picture of the world market and potential effects on the Gulf area. In this unsettled context, the Saudi government launched its Sixth economic development plan (1995-2000), aiming at higher development of the potential for human resources (Alturaigi, 1997:10). However, at this point the road appears to be rocky and future economic complexities are expected to escalate.

In the light of the research problem stated at the opening of this chapter and in the context described above, understanding how Saudi nationals react to work situations is imperative to developing the healthy and effective industrial orientation which a developing country like Saudi Arabia is eager to achieve. A positive perception of vocational and industrial work would appear to be a means to attain better national development and well-being through the industrialisation process, provided it is developed in conjunction with a well planned and appropriate environment.

Therefore, studying the general orientation of the people concerned is an important starting point. Identifying social orientations to work in industrial and vocational sectors would not only help in allocation and recruitment of employees, but would also assist in designing practical programmes with a view to developing healthier attitudes and a sense of achievement. In particular, with the wider and more comprehensive role the private sector is assuming in Saudi Arabia and the need for identifying potential entrepreneurs, such a knowledge of people's work attitudes would help economic planners and policy makers in formulating ambitious but more realistic, attainable and effective plans to develop the vocational and industrial sectors.

More specifically, the present study will attempt to identify the socio-economic factors influencing Saudi nationals' involvement in the industrial and vocational sectors.

Also, this study will provide possible ways to alleviate this problem and provide a better understanding in the on-going public debate over whether there should be a Saudization of manpower in the country. The issue of Saudization is of major concern to many Saudi citizens who are in favour of reducing dependency on foreign labour. Moreover, this study will contribute new knowledge in the sociological field.

1.3 Research Questions.

The following three questions will be used as the guideline for this research project. The answers to these questions will, it is hoped, provide a basis for understanding of the socio-economic factors influencing Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors and, hence, help in formulating effective strategies for manpower planning and development:

I- *Is industrial and vocational work acceptable in Saudi society?*

II- *Is there a difference between Saudi youth and fathers in their perceptions of industrial and vocational work?*

III- *What is the relationship between some socio-cultural and economic factors and acceptance of industrial and vocational work?*

In relation to the socio-cultural and economic factors, there are several sub-questions, as follows:

- ***Social factors:***

  1. What value does the society place on industrial and vocational work?

  2. Is there any relationship between social status or the prestige of the occupation and enrolment in industrial and vocational sectors?

3. Is manual labour socially disdained and office work socially esteemed among Saudi nationals?

4. What is the impact of families' occupational orientations on involvement in industrial and vocational sectors?

5. What is the greater influence on acceptance I&V work; family, tribe, or society in general.

6. Is there a relationship between the family size and acceptance of industrial and vocational work?

7. Is there a relationship between place of residence (urban and rural) and acceptance of industrial and vocational work?

- *Cultural factors:*

8. Are Saudi nationals aware of the importance of industrial and vocational work?

9. Do Saudi nationals prefer general education to industrial and vocational education?

10. Do Saudi nationals prefer working with other Saudis, rather than people of other nationalities?

11. Is there any relationship between family education level and involvement in industrial and vocational sectors?

12. Is there a relationship between students' academic achievement and favourite study subjects and acceptance of I&V work?

13. Is there a relationship between a background in manual work and involvement in industrial and vocational work?

14. Are the mass media helping to increase Saudis' awareness of the value of industrial and vocational work?

15. What is the relationship between views of the school role and acceptance of work in I&V sectors?

- *Economic factors:*

16. What is the impact of foreign labour presence on Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors?

17. Do Saudi youth have a clear idea about the future jobs available for them in industrial and vocational sectors?

18. Do Saudi nationals prefer to work in the government I&V sectors rather than the private I&V sectors?

19. Is there a relationship between income level in the private sector (industrial & vocational) and Saudi nationals' involvement in these sectors?

20. What is the impact of the economic level on Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors?

1.4 Location of the study.

The fieldwork for this study was carried out in the south of Saudi Arabia, specifically, in Asir Province. Asir province was chosen for the fieldwork for several reasons:

- Few social studies have been applied in this province, especially in relation to industrial and vocational work.
- The tribal life which is still lived by many of the population includes traditions and habits which have special implications for industrial and vocational work.
- Asir province has a varied population, that represents three social groups: bedouin, rural, and urban.
- Asir province's population structure allows the researcher to obtain a variety of data and information that is likely to be representative of the South Eastern Region particularly, and of Saudi society generally.

To obtain comprehensive data that would help to interpret socio-culture and some economic factors related to the study problem, the research population was defined as:

1. Students of the secondary schools (final year), in Asir province, which amount to fifty-one schools;
2. Fathers of final year secondary school students, in Asir province, who represent heads of households in the Asir province.

For the selection of the study sample, researcher set the following conditions:

I. The target group of students was drawn only from secondary school final year students who were expected to graduate in 1999/2000. This stage of study is very critical for shaping students' views towards their study and work future.

II. The target group consisted of male students only, for two reasons: (1) male researchers encounter difficulty reaching female students, and (2) limitations exist on women's participation in the industrial and vocational work force in Saudi society.

III. The sample was confined to Saudi citizens. Non-Saudis were excluded, as they might bring a variety of different values from their native culture.

3. The interview sample represented three groups: secondary school head teachers, directors and administrators of some government and educational sectors, and managers of private sector companies and factories providing industrial and vocational work in Asir Province (see Chapter Five).

1.5 Structure of the thesis.

The investigation of the research questions is reported in ten chapters. In addition to this introductory chapter, which was intended to familiarise the reader with the research problem, its importance and purposes, the research is in the following nine chapters:

Chapter two reviews literature related to work attitudes and occupational choice, social attitudes and occupational choice in Saudi Arabia, and previous studies related to the theme of this study. The first part of the chapter is concerned with work attitudes and occupational choice, especially as related to some concepts such as social structure, family, social status and values, classification, and modernization. The second part discusses social attitudes and occupational choice in Saudi Arabia to give background information about occupational

choice in Saudi society and some factors which influence this choice, particularly socio-cultural, educational, and economic factors. In the third part of the chapter, some of the previous studies conducted in various societies are presented, in order to provide a theoretical context for the current study.

Chapter three aims to shed some light on the country's physical features, emergence as a unified state, demographic features, socio-cultural milieu, economy, education, and some aspects of social change which have been affected by rapid economic growth, since the discovery of oil.

Chapter four aims to place the present study in context by providing background information on the labour force, Saudization and labour market in Saudi Arabia. The chapter begins by considering the growth of the Saudi labour force and the efforts made to develop manpower in Saudi Arabia. It goes on to explain the policy of *Saudization* and its application in Saudi Arabia in recent years.

Chapter five gives a description of the procedures that were followed in this research in order to collect the data related to the issue of this study. The chapter begins with the rationale for the selection of the data collection methods. Then, the survey population and the procedures implemented to select the study sample are explained. An explanation is then given of the instruments - questionnaires and interviews - used for data collection, and reliability issues are discussed. The final section is devoted to a description of the statistical techniques used in the analysis of the data.

Chapter six contains a description of the major characteristics, occupational background and experience of the respondents, and their relationships with industrial and

vocational work. The chapter is divided into four parts; the first part is divided into sections according to the general characteristics of samples (students and fathers). The second part is related to respondents' occupational background. This part, also, is divided into sections according to family occupation, family preferred occupation, students' work experiences, and sources of information or occupations and job opportunities. In the third part of this chapter, the experience of respondents and their families with I&V work is explored. The last part includes two sections; the first to find out of respondents' perceptions of I&V work and the second to give an idea about responses related to some factors which attract Saudi nationals to I&V work, in the opinion of respondents.

Chapter seven is focused on the analysis of some factors influencing Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors. This chapter is divided into three main parts. The first part, social factors, includes the social view of I&V work, the social status of work, preference for clerical work, orientations of family occupation and the main influence on Saudi nationals to accept I&V work; is it the family, the tribe or society in general? Awareness of the importance of I&V work, preference for general education, and preference for work with Saudis are discussed in the second part (cultural factors). The third part, economic factors, includes the impact of presence of the foreign labour preference of work in government I&V rather than private I&V sectors, future jobs available in industrial and vocational sectors, and, finally, the effect of salary levels in the private sector on the acceptance of industrial and vocational work.

Chapter eight presents the outcomes of interviews which elicited interviewees' ideas and opinions on the relationship between socio-cultural and economic factors and acceptance of industrial and vocational work. An attempt is made to relate these opinions to the responses to the questionnaire surveys.

Chapter nine contains a discussion the main findings that emerged in the study, especially in the last three chapters (six, seven and eight). These results and their discussion highlight the significance of the study, and lead to important conclusions and recommendations at the end of the thesis.

Chapter ten contains conclusions, based on the many findings and opinions that emerged in the previous chapters, regarding the major socio-cultural and economic factors that contribute to the low involvement of Saudi nationals in I&V work, and recommendations are offered to address the problem, as well as suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER----------2

REVIEW OF

RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Work Attitudes and Occupational Choice.

2.2 Social Attitudes and Occupational Choice in Saudi Arabia.

2.3 Previous Studies.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.

Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to work attitudes and occupational choice, social attitudes and occupational choice in Saudi Arabia, and previous studies related to the theme of this study. The first part of the chapter is concerned with work attitudes and occupational choice, especially as related to some concepts such as social structure, family, social status and values, classification, and modernization. The second part discusses social attitudes and occupational choice in Saudi Arabia to give background information about occupational choice in Saudi society and some factors which influence this choice, particularly socio-cultural, educational, and economic factors. In the third part of the chapter, some of the previous studies conducted in various societies are presented, in order to provide a theoretical context for the current study. In the conclusion, as the last part of this chapter, the main findings of the literature review are summarized to provide a guideline for this study and to give an idea of the more important points to be discussed at the end of this study.

2.1 Work attitudes and occupational choice:

Work is one of the most important social functions of human beings. Over time work has had different meanings. For most people, life and work have been virtually inseparable. Historically, this integration of work and life generally resulted in few

separate and relatively distinct occupations. Industrialization, however, tends to bring greater separation of work and the rest of life, and more numerous and diverse occupations. In the past, work had low status, often being viewed as brutalizing, dirty, or punishment for man's sinful nature (Taylor 1968).

Also, in the earliest societies there was limited occupational choice. Everyone participated in the tasks needed for the survival of the community and the division of labour was based largely on ascribed characteristics, such sex and age. The notion of occupational choice did not emerge until industrialization began to attract workers from farmers and small towns to big cities where they sought jobs based on their skills. In this new labour market, it was more evident than in the past that society rewarded some occupations more than others, with greater prestige or money or both (Auster 1996).

Work-related attitudes are a concern of many social theorists. For example, Taylor (1968) in his book *Occupational Sociology*, indicated the relationship between work and status and emphasized that occupation continues to contribute more to an individual's social status than most other factors in life. Kohn and Schooler (1969) examined the link between social structure and occupational status. Others who are prominent in the literature on this issue are Duncan (1961), Braun and Bayer (1973), and Hall (1986). They all focused on the individual's relation to work, and how work and occupation form meaning and value in human society.

However, several studies have proposed that the meaning and value of work differ from one social class to anther. For example, Kohn and Schooler (1969) interpreted the relationship of social class to values and orientations toward work when they argued that:

"Social class is consistently related to men's values, both their values for themselves and those for their children and to their orientation to work, society, and self. Basic to all these class relationships is the distinction between self-direction and conformity to external authority, the former more highly valued by men of lower class position" (Kohn and Schooler 1969:659)

This approach, by Kohn and others, paints a detailed image of how work and occupation become meaningful to individuals in all human societies. While several strands of the literature point to the effect of parents on children's values, this has been examined even further by Kohn and Schooler (1983). They found that the experience of self-direction in one's job is a major factor explaining the relationship between socio-economic background and values.

Wright and Wright (1976) focused on the importance of parental values for children, especially on the component of self-direction versus conformity that was discussed by Kohn and Schooler. As explicated by Kohn and Schooler (1969), "*By parental values, we mean those standards that parents would most like to see embodied in their children's behaviours*"(p.662). In fact, especially in the developing countries, occupational perception and choice are very greatly influenced by parents or families. The family gives children an opportunity to observe many adult roles, some of which are occupational. Even though much occupational activity is largely separated from families, the family's style of life is influenced by occupation, which in turn affects how young people perceive occupational conditions. Families in many cases provide specific occupational information, or are influential in giving occupational directives. In a few cases, they still provide a demonstration of occupational skills. Also, families may exert pressure on young people for certain kinds of occupational choices, or the absence of

such pressure may contribute to a general disorganization in occupational aspiration. Notions of occupational training, success, and satisfaction are in the main influenced by families (Taylor, 1968).

Another approach to occupational choice depends on a classification of personality types and occupational environments (Holland, 1959, 1973). It recognizes that a person is born with an innate set of needs and talents, but as a result of socialization and life experiences develops preferred ways for dealing with the world. A person making an occupational choice searches for occupational environments that fit closely with the way in which he or she deals with the world.

A more comprehensive description of factors influencing occupational choice was developed during the 1950s by Peter Blau, a sociologist, along with his colleagues in psychology and economics (Blau et al., 1956). Their basic premise was that "*the social structure ...has a dual significance for occupational choice. On the one hand, it influences the personality development of the choosers; on the other, it defines the socio-economic conditions in which selection takes place*" (p.533). The social structure, in this situation, includes the social stratification system, cultural values and norms, demographic characteristics, the type of economy, and technology.

Related to the above, for example, the level of technological and economic development of the society itself may also affect occupational choices. In an industrial or post-industrial society, the division of labour is very specialized. With the right talent, a person can have a career as a computer software engineer specializing in robotic welding controls, a morphologist developing new microbes to destroy hazardous waste, or an astronaut training for years for a flight to Mars that may not happen in his or her lifetime. But, in third world nations, the occupational options are more tied to

what the land has to offer. A factory built by an industrialized nation taking advantage of low-paid labour offers additional, although not always desirable, options in developing nations (Auster, 1996).

In modern life, occupations have become more articulated and organized. For example, in industrialized and urbanized societies, the nature of work from office, to factory, to shop, varies little from one national area to another. The norms of occupations under the industrial system are directed toward individuals and work groups and not oriented to accommodating family life as such. Men may be employed, women may be employed, or children may be employed, but in the main, the employment is individual rather than family related.

Theorists generally argue that in non-industrial societies, families are closely knit and that loyalty and obedience to family decisions in all spheres of life ranks high in the value of hierarchy of social members. In modern societies, in contrast, family obligations are less salient, less binding, and loyalties to job, profession, or policy are more important than in agrarian societies.

Moore (1959, p. 159) summed up prevailing scholarly opinion as being that, in general, the traditional kinship structure provides a barrier to industrial development, since it encourages reliance of the individual upon its security rather than upon his own devices. Also, he points out that: " *New occupations simply do not fit traditional standards of prestige, or are valued negatively because they involve manual labour and merit placement irrespective of age, kinship position, caste, or other forms of ascribed status*".

In general, under the industrial and urbanized system, the family is forced to adjust to work patterns that are outside the home, to the regulation of occupation by

trade unions, to the meaningful definition of work by professional associations, and so forth (Taylor, 1968).

However, there are a variety of factors that narrow the range of realistic options for every person in a society. They include such individual factors as talent and motivation and such social factors as gender, race, social class, and even the level of technological and economic development of the society in which a person lives. These individual and social factors work together to ease entry into some occupations and increase the difficulty of entering others.

2.2 Social Attitudes and Occupational Choice in Saudi Arabia.

2.2.1 Occupational Background of Saudi Society:

The growth and development of occupational patterns in any society or economic system is highly related to the environmental setting of local regions. Geographical location is an essential factor shaping the sorts of occupational activities that characterize any given community. For example, inhabitants along shores or near large bodies of water are more familiar with occupations such as fishing, pearl diving, or boat making, than are inland inhabitants. The Arabian Peninsula is characterized by a diversity of environmental settings-waterways, desert, mountains, and even semi-forest areas in its southwest region-that should be taken into account when examining the occupational structures of these different regions.

The Arabian Peninsula occupies a valuable location; from Aden in the south to the Euphrates in the north, from the Gulf in the east to the Red Sea in the west, this area is one of the most strategic locations in the world. The Arabian Peninsula is the centre connecting routes among the three major continents of Asia, Africa, and Europe. Its role

in religion bestows upon the area special prestige throughout the Islamic world. Moreover, the political power of the region has given it a vital role in trade and economic activities. For instance, the succession of political powers such as the *Ummayyad Caliphate* in Damascus (A.D 661-750), the *Abbasid Caliphate* in Baghdad (A.D 750-1258), the *Fatimids* (rulers of Egypt in *Fustat,* old Cairo, A.D 909-1171), the Ottoman empire (A.D 1288-1922), or other smaller political groups, made the region a pendulum swinging back and forth between these strategic poles. This, of course, helped advance the trade system and increased transportation between east and west. Chaudhuri (1985) has commented that:

"*Arab achievement made it possible to unite the two arteries of long distance trade known in antiquity between the Indian Ocean and the Mediterranean. The twin channels of the trans-continental trade of Asia, the sea borne traffic through the Red Sea and the combined sea, river, and overland journey across the Persian Gulf, Iraq, and the Syrian desert were brought under the political control of single authorities, at first that of the Umayyad caliphs and later that of the Abbasids. Even the Mediterranean, divided as it was between a Christian north and a Muslim south, eventually recovered much of its economic unity through the activity of merchants and traders*" (pp. 44-45). Before the discovery of oil in the area, all these reasons combined to give the Arabian Peninsula a unique economic and occupational configuration.

The occupational structure of the Arabian Peninsula could be divided into two areas - coastal and inland - each having two major occupational divisions.

Firstly, the Arabian Peninsula's location between two major international waterways, the Gulf in the east and the Red Sea in the vest, has historically provided the area with two important occupational activities. Despite the rise and fall of political

empires and in the absence of a complex division of labour, the coastal areas of the Arabian Peninsula have been involved, since antiquity, with mercantile and fishing activities. Commercial satellite towns, both large and small, sprang up all along the Arabian Peninsula's coast, and most of them, such as Kuwait, Qateef, Manama, Abu-Dhabi, Muscat, Aden, Makkah, Jeddah, and Suez grew fast and became highly urbanized.

In fact, the historical importance of the Arabian Peninsula as an international crossroads, Lipsky notes, gave its coastal and inland towns particular importance: "*The towns of the Arabian Peninsula were located at the intersections of important communication routes...because of these favourable strategic locations, they have been centres of local or regional authority, which have expanded or contracted at different periods of their long history*" (Lipsky 1959:58).

Commercial activities gave rise to two principal occupational arenas - the trading system and the transportation system - which in turn were composed of various occupational specialties. The trading system, for example, had roles for the trader, commissioner, seller, exchanger, dealer, usurer, peddler, consigner, middleman, agent and so on. The transportation system was divided into navigation on the seas and caravans on the land, linking the Far East with Europe and the interior of Arabia. Navigation of the sea involved occupations such as sailor or seaman, rower, shipmaster, protector, and loader, while the caravans provided places for the cameleer, caravan keeper, servant, porter, usher, escort, and so forth.(Gerstl, 1961).

Fishing activities were also a major source of occupations, some dealing with fishing as a source of food and others dealing with fishing for pearls (in fact, pearl fishing was one of the most specialized occupations of Gulf inhabitants). Both

occupations generated numbers of sub-occupations, such as dealers of fish and pearls, boat makers, jewellers, fishermen, and specialists in fish drying, while also being connected to trade and commercial networks.

Secondly, the Arabian Peninsula inland consists of desert, mountainous areas, and even forests, but the vast majority of it is desert, interspersed with more fertile areas. These geographical facts historically contributed greatly to the formation of two types of occupational activities: one was primitive farming in the oases of Arabia, and the second was animal herding. The majority of the inhabitants of the Arabian Peninsula have historically been unsettled nomadic peoples, making herding animals the predominant occupational practice.

Both farming and animal herding generated a variety of work roles. Occupations associated with animal herding, for example, were dealing in animals and animal products, herding and shepherding, camel driving, weaving, and tanning. Farming also created diverse work activities, such as palm tree keeping, selling dates or molasses or treacle, digging wells, making baskets, carpeting, blacksmithing, sale of provender, grocery, and so forth. In addition, commercial activities flourished, playing a mediating role between nomads and farmers. None of these occupational arenas should be considered as independent of the others. The villages, the nomad camps and the towns, both coastal and inland, were all integral units of a large community. All were interconnected and their specialization in skills and crafts made them interdependent on each other. For instance, nomads depended upon villages and towns as buyers of animals and animal products such wool, skins, and milk and sellers of variant foods and necessary goods. Craftsmen in towns served not only their fellow townsmen but also the people of surrounding camps and village, providing skilled services as farmers,

craftsmen traders, merchants, butchers, weavers, dyers, grocers blacksmiths, tinsmiths, tailors, shoemakers, barbers, and so on.

It is important to emphasize that in a traditional society such as that of the Arabian peninsula, members of any particular occupation were very likely related by blood. Each family or lineage within the tribal system specialized in an occupation; hence, the occupational divisions were closely associated with tribal divisions. As a result, manual occupations had low status because they were performed by lowly tribes. For instance, the production of charcoal always belonged to a tribe with an ignoble background. In urban centres there were divisions into small occupational communities, where each represented a particular work activity. As noted by Gerstl (1961): "*An occupational community means that people who are members of the same occupation or who work together have some sort of common life together and are, to some extent, separate from the rest of society*" (p.37).

However, in most ancient societies life used to depend on self-sufficiency as a result of the difficulty of transport and the simplicity of life. Since ancient times, the Arabs used to practice scores of trades or occupations such as game, shepherding, building, trade and agriculture. As for industry, they used to engage in some industries while they despised others. Al-Amri (1985) points out that: "*As for industry, there are some kinds which are acceptable for the Arabs and a lot of them are engaged in them, such as the textile industry which is common both in the urban and rural areas. They do not in the least despise for the people who take up this industry. On the contrary, they despise the people who take up carpentry, although they despise blacksmiths even more*" (p. 43).

The degree to which they despise and respect decreases or increases in accordance with the situations of settled or nomad life and according to the condition of the area and its climate. The Arabs' aversion to many trades and industries is clear from their nomadic life which depends on moving on from one area to another as was indicated by Al-Samad (1981) when he stated: "*The reason may be that the Arab sees industry as something which restricts his freedom and movement.*" (p. 15).

In the late 1930s, the discovery of oil had an immense impact on the traditional social and economic organization. Decline in the relative contribution of all the above major occupations led to new patterns of development, affecting not only the occupational setting but the social setting as well. The introduction of crude oil industries, followed later by petrochemical industries, was enough to transform Saudi society from its traditional economic system to one of the most modernized oil industries, bringing with it all modern types of occupations. In fact, the discovery of oil brought with it three major factors that influenced the old occupational setting: settlement of nomadic people; growth of a complex government bureaucracy; and creation of new private-sector organizations. These major shifts in occupational settings placed Saudi society on a new frontier.

2.2.2 Factors Influencing Occupational Choice in Saudi Society:

2.2.2.1 Socio-cultural Factors:

The dynamic relationship between an individual's internal feelings and the outside world (social and family values, socio-economic structure, and cultural aspects of his or her society) may in fact be even more complicated in traditional societies than industrialized ones. For example, in a society such as Saudi Arabia, the transition of

values from father to son is something that should always be considered. Although there appear to be no studies in this area, observers contend that the internal feeling of Saudi individuals toward some occupations is influenced by social tradition, specifically by the differing views of various social strata toward particular occupations.

This means that filling some occupations still faces serious obstacles. Firstly, many Saudis believe that manual labour and some specific skills would be humiliating to their family and tribal origin. Secondly, at least fifty percent of the Saudi society (women) has been kept confined behind walls, which means that the vast majority of women are inactive in the economic sector. The result of these ideas and practices is that most manual labour and work that might be performed by women is performed by foreigners.

There is also the question of adjustment to the new work related values and practices that come with the transformation of work from traditional individual crafts to industrialized, group work. Bendix (1956) has succinctly summarized the differences between traditional and industrial work:

"*Traditionally, skilled work was performed at leisurely pace or in spurts of great intensity, but always at the discretion of the individual worker. In modern industry work must be performed above all with regular intensity. Traditionally, the skilled worker was trained to work accurately on individual designs; in modern industry he must adapt his sense of accuracy to the requirements of standardization. In handicraft production, each individual owned his own tools and was responsible for their care; by and large this is not true in modern industry, so that the care of tools and machinery is divorced from the pride of ownership. Traditionally, skills were handed down from generation to generation and, consequently, were subject to individual variations. In industry the*

effort has been to standardize the steps of work performance as much as possible" (Bendix 1956:203-204).

The new occupations and the values and lifestyles that accompany them, have not yet been accepted by a large proportion of Saudi society, because they are perceived in the light of earlier occupational traditions. For example, a common misconception regarding technical and vocational work, is to relate it to the concept of crafts passed from generation to the next, who will inherit the occupation. From this perspective, work choices depend on one's social class. This confusion constitutes a real obstacle to the distribution of technical and vocational education and work, except among a limited category of people (Al-Ghamdi, 1994).

Another factor that inhibits individuals from seeking vocational work is that manual work has traditionally been associated with the poor and uneducated, who have low socio-economic status in the eyes of society as a whole. Therefore, the common thought is that technical and vocational education is designed for a category of students, whose special circumstances prevent them from continuing general education. In consequence it remained for a long time distant from the majority of the population.

The social status of a person depends to a large extent upon the occupation that he/she practises, although the role of occupation as a determinant of the social position changes with the development of society. For instance, in traditional, conservative societies, the position of the individual is related to his family's position. The status inherited from the family carries more weight than his education or occupation. Therefore, social mobility in traditional societies is very slow in comparison with urbanized ones, where the individual's position depends much more on his occupation, production and personal efforts.

The changes that have occurred in developing countries, including Saudi Arabia, have considerably affected their socio-economic and political structure, and might be expected to have an impact on the social structure in general, and to change society's attitude towards industrial and vocational work in particular. However, in a society like Saudi Arabia that has strong bedouin roots, the negative social values attached to vocational and manual work have not changed very much, and still the majority of youths are directed towards academic education.

In this connection, Sanders (1966) pointed out that one of the most acute problems encountered in regard to technical education and training is the generally low level of education in developing countries and the fact that large numbers of the population have not been able to go to school at all. Those who have had this opportunity often consider themselves as an elite and are reluctant to enter occupations involving manual work, even if they have been trained for this kind of work.

In the case of Saudi society, social values form one of the main factors that deter Saudi youth, especially those of nomadic tribal origin, from accepting manual work. This has a striking effect, since the majority of the Saudi population is of nomadic origin. Saudi Arabia is known as a tribal society, in which many tribes once lived in different parts of the country. Although the country has become modernized in many aspects of its life-style, Saudi people are still conservative, and some retain their tribal culture and pride in being associated with their heritage; consequently, the younger generation, who are affected by this culture, try to engage in traditional occupations, mainly military service, clerical work, self-employment, or as security guards, and are reluctant to enter industry-related occupations. Occupations which involve manual labour are generally considered undesirable and un-respected, since they are associated

with low status. On the other hand, occupations which require mental ability or innovation are considered desirable.

Lipsky (1959) discusses extensively the impact of social values on manual labour in Saudi society. He points out that: "*Manual labour generally is associated with very low status, while supervisory or policy making functions carry prestige.... work involving long hours, physical labour, and dirty hands, being generally abhorred by all 'respectable' Arabs among both nomads and settled people, is usually performed by persons from low-status groups, such as the non-tribal Arabs, and Negroes. The traditionally preferred employment of the upper social groups has been and continues to be government service.... Even on the lower levels, government employees enjoy considerable respect in the eyes of the public*" (pp.158-160).

This preference for government jobs, observable in the Arab countries in general and in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in particular, is due, not to financial considerations only, but also to some other privileges, such as social prestige; the shorter working day; lack of control over employees' productivity, so that the employee can carry out his own personal work or that of his family during his official working hours, without permission; and social security, which represents the most significant factor, since the government seldom dismisses its employees. In any case, as Max Weber reminds us (1945), social honour is not to be equated with mere economic position.

It is very important to understand the impact of social values and customs upon individual attitudes towards manual work. Lipstet (1968) pointed out that: "*The dynamic of vocational development and vocational adjustment can be understood only when there is consideration not only of individual factors (internal factors) but also the*

social influence upon the individual and the interaction between the individual and the group" (p.107).

Certainly, the society to which a person belongs affects not only his aspirations, but also his choice of work. This can be seen very clearly in the occupational aspirations of those raised in nomadic and rural societies, whose choice of work is restricted by their society's culture, which strongly guides individual behaviour. Social or external factors have more effect on occupational choice in the traditional societies, where an individual has little or no identity in his own right; membership of a household, a lineage, a clan, and a tribe serve to place him in a meaningful social context, because he perceives himself and is perceived by others in these types of relations. For this reason, it is noticed that an individual is very sensitive and defensive about his social and occupational status. Hence, he values his occupation according to the social evaluation of it, irrespective of other factors, such as income. Among the bedouin societies it was known that every tribe had one or more craftsman who provided more than one service, such as smithing, leather work, polishing and repair of cooking utensils, coffee-pots, and so on. Some of them habitually moved from one tribe to another, offering their services or selling at a limited number of locations. In this connection, the bedouin values work according to his society's culture, which determines the individual's attitudes and behaviour, so he is very self-conscious about what people would say to him.

The low social status of manual work in Saudi society can be traced back to the nature of social life of the majority of people before the unification of the country in 1932. The bedouins of the desert were pastoralists who moved according to the availability of grass and water. This kind of life depended on strong social relations and

blood ties, which were considered the main source of security, defence, power, respect, reputation, honour and pride. In this simple, nomadic lifestyle, there was little need for many manual activities. Consequently, manual labour did not have a significant place in Bedouin life. It was seen as something engaged in by people not of tribal origin, and came to be disdained accordingly. Aversion to manual labour, in tribal society, is part of this psychological characteristic of avoiding criticism from others.

Accordingly, manual work, such as hair cutting, butchery, ironwork and carpentry, have been and are still viewed by tribesmen as shameful and undesirable. "Shame" (*Aib*) in the Arabic sense, is, as Ausubel (1983) explained, a concern between a person and his society. Shame makes the majority of Saudis and, in particular, those who are of tribal origin, behave and function according to social values, norms and customs, to avoid negative judgment by others.

The bedouins' self-respect and their attitudes towards other groups and occupations, represent an important socio-psychological dimension. The terms *Gabiliyi* and *Khadiriyi*, are used by bedouin to classify themselves on the basis of descent. Tribal people (*Gabiliyin*) claim their descent from deeply rooted Arabian origins, or well-known tribes, whereas the term *Khadiriyi* (pl .Khadiriyin) refers to a person who does not know or has lost his tribal origin (Al-Janubi 1976). This may occur as a result of invasions, or due to personal circumstances, such as running away from the tribe for one reason or another. A person in this position cannot name his tribe because it is no longer in existence or has become a source of shame. In such circumstances, a person resorts to changing his surname and his tribal name and becomes of unknown origin.

He then finds himself forced to take up an occupation despised by the tribal people, such as smithing, hair cutting, polishing of coffee-pots and cooking pots,

leatherwork and so on. The term *Khadiriyi* is not, however, used to designate a person of slave origins; although he does not belong to a particular tribe, a *khadiriyi* still has a descent, whereas the slave does not (p. 150-154). Although the term *Khadiriyi* is used generally, it is particularly associated with the Najd district, the one which most represents the desert environment. Elsewhere, for instance in the South province, people descended from known tribes distinguish between themselves from non tribal people, in various ways, according to each tribe's culture and its life style. Terms such as *Bolhut*, *Vaidhi*, *Tofali*, *Hutaymi*, *Mhaha*, *Sannea* and so on, were used in the past by tribal people to distinguish non-tribal groups according to the manual occupations they practised.

Al Zahrani (1986) emphasized that the tribe in the Saudi society remains the main frame of reference for the individual, whether in urban areas or areas outside the tribes' boundaries. The majority of people in the country at present hold their tribe's name as their last name, or middle name. This continuation of the tribal surname at a time when the tribal system no longer exists reflects the significant role held by the tribe in the past, in regulating behavioural aspects of individuals, social organization and especially the 'descent', which grants a person social recognition and prestige among his society's people and in the face of other groups. This influence continues to be passed on from one generation to the next, with few changes regarding such matters as manual labour.

These negative attitudes are completely unrelated to religious teachings, which simply encourage and emphasize the importance of work and its role in building society and achieving social welfare. Indeed, Islam demands equality among all individuals in the society, with no exception, whether poor or rich, black or white. In this connection,

God the Almighty has said in the Qur'an: "*Oh mankind! We created you from a single (pair) of male and a female and made you into nations and tribes, that ye may know each other (not that ye may despise each other). Verily the most honoured of you in the sight of God is (he who is) the most righteous of you*", (Al-Hujurat, verse 13). It is evident from this, that the distinction between tribal and non-tribal is a result of the social values and customs of bedouin society and has no connection with religion.

Social values in relation to occupation are transmitted through family pressures. As in many countries, it is common among Saudi people to talk to their children from an early age, about their future occupations. Usually, a child is asked questions like, "what would you like to be?" This question is asked not only by parents, but also by relatives and friends of the family. The questioner usually offers the child a number of alternatives, such as engineer, physician, pilot, teacher, and officer, to help him to answer the question. Most of the alternatives offered are modern and have higher social status than other occupations in the society.

It is common also for children to be asked about the next stages of their education, and the subjects in which they would like to specialize. This discussion with children, whether in their early years or later, aims to encourage and direct the children, directly or indirectly, to continue their education to university, or at least high school level, irrespective of the abilities and interests of the child, or the likely availability of work opportunities in the future. This reflects the attitude of society towards academic education, which leads to respected status as compared with a non-academic path (Al-Ghamdi, 1994).

Families also engage in occupational networking which creates a complex personnel-relations problem in Saudi society. If a position to be filled is a desirable one

involving supervisory responsibilities or offering opportunities for advancement, the employer is expected to look first in his own family and subsequently in the circle of his close relatives, and friends for possible recruits. Reciprocally, friends, relatives, and important personages may recommend to an employer individuals whom they believe to deserve consideration, and employers find themselves pressed to employ such persons, without regard to the need for their services. In some kinds of jobs, especially those involving manual labour, the employer may ask employees already in his service to help in recruitment. They are, in turn, obliged to seek recruits from among their relatives and friends. Again, even the lowliest expects his employer to assist in finding work for friends.

As Niblock (1982) mentioned "*Traditional values have come through into the modern state in Saudi Arabia: a man's first loyalty is to his family, then his tribe, then his country. Nepotism is a virtue and it would shame a man to refuse to help or give a job to a close relative*" (p181). The same point was emphasized by Lipsky (1959) when he indicated that "*Family connections, social status, and personal loyalties in this system transcend considerations of work efficiency and competence*" (p.165).

Thus, intermediation still plays a large part in the whole process of seeking and giving work. Only at the level of manual employment would a man be likely to apply directly for a job without the good offices of a friend or acquaintance, and even then, an intermediary is preferred. A man with any talent or social status seeking a higher-level job will usually be introduced by someone.

However, it is clear that, in Saudi Arabia, which is still in the process of industrialization, tribe, kinship and family still play larger roles in the social structure than they do in the more industrialized countries. Also, it can be said that, the low

enrolment in technical and vocational work, and before that in its related preparation, in terms of education, cannot be attributed to a single factor or motive, but is a result of a number of related social and cultural factors which have influenced the attitudes and wishes of individuals in Saudi society.

2.2.2.2 Educational Factors

Human resources are the main target of development and the criteria of its success. Countries set great store by education as a means to overcoming socio-economic under-development. Education is considered an investment in human resources. In this respect, the development efforts which aim to invest various resources to obtain the progress of civilization, need to pay much attention to developing human resources and to exploit ways of helping to prepare and train individuals to deal with modern technology in all its aspects. Accordingly, technical and vocational education is considered the main source for qualifying trained manpower in various development programmes. Despite the progress which has been achieved by this kind of education during the past decade, however, it is still unable to meet the country's needs for qualified manpower.

In fact, technical and vocational education has met, and still meets many difficulties in most developing countries. General secondary education which leads to university education is still the preference of both parents and children. The expansion in academic education programmes has led to an increased rate of enrolment in such programmes, and a decrease in the number of students in technical and vocational education. Even though students who graduate from university, having studied purely theoretical subjects, do not easily find jobs, especially in countries of high population density, vast numbers of students still crowd the higher education institutions. Indeed,

this problem is not confined to university education, but is also found at the earlier educational stages, elementary, intermediate and secondary education. Academic education has attracted the majority of students beyond the intermediate stage and diverted students away from technical and vocational education.

Another problem was identified by Harbison and Myers (1965), who surveyed several studies relating to manpower requirements and educational planning. They concluded that education in the developing countries is not very compatible with the needs for manpower of those countries. This is due to the fact that there are wide gaps between educational planning and economic development plans. Most developing nations do not have adequate statistical records regarding their present and future manpower needs, and most developing countries invest inefficiently in human resources. They put money into inappropriate kinds of formal education and fail to integrate formal education effectively within service training (p.xii). Unwise planning of education, which is not suited to society's needs, leads to defects in educational courses, both in terms of policy and in the traditionalism of the educational curricula, which are not appropriate to the current circumstances.

The result of these factors is that higher education in the developing countries every year, graduates surplus numbers of students who become either unemployed or under-employed. In respect of this problem in the case of Latin America, Ramirez (1969) pointed out that: "*Our universities and higher education institutions produce a relative surplus of professionals who, in the long run, become in real life, only middle level technicians, skilled workers or more or less qualified administrative employees*" (p.3).

The human resource capital and the material resources of a nation are responsible for the nation's strength and its progress. This progress can be achieved through people as a capital resource and the role of education as a basic factor in exploiting that resource has until now been not well investigated.

Todaro (1976) noted that several cases studied in Africa, India and Latin America had shown negative results of education, such as unemployment and under-employment. Because of these considerations, many developing countries have started to realize that formal introduction or quantitative expansion of education has not always produced high quality education, or graduates with the skills needed by their society.

Regarding this position, an African educator, Okwanason (1984) emphasised that: "*it is clear that African reconstruction, rebirth, development...can become reality only when Africa is prepared to place more emphasis on technical education. We do not know of any country or nation in the world that was developed by an army of clerks and administrators. The African builders of tomorrow will be drawn from an army of skilled technicians, engineers, scientists and like, who have technical skills and a good general educational background as well as from millions of Africans with elementary, secondary or university educations who are also able to turn screws, wield axes, tend gardens and fit tyres*" (p.16).

There is no doubt that the developing countries suffer from defects in the distribution of their labour force as a result of the existence of surplus in some fields and severe shortage in others. This problem cannot be attributed only to the education system or other factors, but in some countries, as in the case of the Gulf States, it can be attributed to a large extent to the social view which respects certificates rather than vocational work.

Dore (1976) pointed out that: "*In the process of qualification, by contrast, the pupil is concerned not with mastery, but with being Certified as having mastered. The knowledge that he gains, he gains not for its own sake and not for constant later use in real life situations - but for the once – and - for - all-purpose of reproducing it in an examination. And the learning and reproducing is all just a means to an end - the end of getting a certificate which is a passport to a coveted job, a status, an income*" (p.8).

There is no doubt that secondary education can play an important role in the developing countries to meet their needs for administrative employees and preparing students for university education. However, in recent years, it has been subject to several criticisms from planners and experts in development, concerning the kind of education provided, and its direct relation to university education rather than its development requirements. Education in general and secondary education in particular, in the developing countries, is deficient to meet the requirements of social and economic development. Moreover, its traditional path leads large numbers of graduates to unemployment.

Chandrakant (1963) argues that a correct balance must be established between the scope and size of university education in a developing country and its need for graduates. Higher education must restrict admission to universities to those who possess the necessary abilities and whose subjects are required more than others. Hence, higher education must be highly selective and not leave the door open for students, when graduates cannot find jobs.

Taylor (1962) and Schultz (1963) explained that education has a major effect on individual and social development and that the purpose of education is to raise people's awareness in order to create a better life. Both emphasised that the shortage of trained

manpower at all levels in the developing countries is attributed to the irrelevance of the curriculum and the separation between general education and technical and vocational education which are each run by different administrations, with no co-ordination between them to plan the country's manpower needs.

UNESCO (1990) emphasised that technical and vocational education must become an integral part of a system of lifelong education, in which barriers between different types of education, employment and society are removed. Therefore, in countries which are suffering from negative attitudes to technical and vocational education and occupations that have low status, education is considered as an important way of solving this problem, by creating sets of new values through the various education stages. This reform must be designed carefully to harmonise general education and technical and vocational education. In the long term, the new values will have more influence on the new generations.

2.2.2.3 Economic Factors:

There is no doubt that sufficient financial motives as rewards and salaries have considerable effect on the individual's choice of education and occupation. Economic level is one of the important factors that determine the social status of the individual and family in the society.

Accordingly, this section will discuss some aspects of material incentives and their impact on attitudes towards education and work in the industrial and vocational sectors. Wider economic factors, related to the labour market, labour force, and other economic factors, will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

Al-Shuiabi (1984) mentioned that the productive ability of a person varies according to the system of wages and salaries and the way work is organized. As a result of variations in basic wages and salaries, businessmen or managers increase wages and salaries by giving overtime work or by offering bonuses for reaching agreed productivity levels. Because of the importance of financial incentives and increasing productivity and raising workers' morale, economic analysts concern themselves with the total of the individual's wages, including, as well as the basic wage, accommodation, allowances, social insurance, and bonuses. In addition to material motives, there are other incentives which have a big role in motivating the worker and increasing his productivity, such as certificates of appreciation of work, the physical and social environment, social recognition of the importance of his work, whatever it may be, and so on.

As Callaway (1971) pointed out, incentives can be an important determinant of the attraction or otherwise of technical or vocational work. He reported that: "*The most generally noted shortage throughout the developing world has been that of intermediate skills -medical technicians, nurses, agricultural assistants - the auxiliaries needed in so many fields to carry through directives from professionals*", and that often, "*the shortage results not from lack of training facilities but from the wide discrepancy between income incentives*" (p.22).

He added: "*Students compete to gain the extra years of higher professional training because their life earnings might thereby be as much as ten times as high. Here the problem is not one of educational planning but of incomes*" (p.22).

The importance of manpower differs from developed countries to developing ones, according to the prevailing circumstance. For example, in the advanced countries,

attention is concentrated on how to avoid unemployment. Governments resort to various programmes to solve this problem or at least to reduce its impact. In the developing countries, in contrast, the focus is on how to make up the deficiency of qualified manpower in the labour market, quantitatively and qualitatively, or to improve the productivity of existing manpower in the labour market.

To increase the number of enrolments in technical, industrial and vocational institutes and related work, many countries have adopted several incentives to encourage youth to choose this kind of education. These incentives include financial assistance, free transportation and accommodation, opportunity to continue into university education for those who desire it and so on. By such means, many countries have had considerable success in making technical and vocational education more attractive and acceptable to society and youth in particular. These countries have become self-sufficient in trained manpower in all fields. In contrast, some other countries still suffer from shortage of personnel with training and competence in necessary socio-economic activities.

Harbison (1967) claimed that one of the problems facing human resources in the developing countries is a shortage of encouragement for people to enter and engage with types of activities that are critical for the country's development. Financial incentives have, no doubt, a role to play in attracting students to technical and vocational education. Foster (1983) agreed with Harbison about the impact of material incentives. He pointed out that one reason for the lack of success of technical and vocational education in the developing countries refers to many factors. One of these factors is that the financial rewards and the extent of employment opportunities for technically trained individuals were never in proportion with opportunities in the

clerical field, and the product of the academic school was manifestly more advantageously placed. There is no doubt that as long as technical and vocational education is to seen by students to lead to well less paid vocations and low status in the society, it will remain an undesirable option.

The financial incentives paid those enrolling in technical and vocational sectors in many developing countries are not enough and do not encourage youth to enrol. UNESCO (1990) urged that countries whose technical and vocational education suffer from low enrolment, should provide several incentives to encourage people to embark upon education and training. These incentives might take the form of scholarships, and allowances, during the period of study, or on-the-job training schemes. Furthermore, other privileges could be given, such as free accommodation, meals, transportation, special holidays and the guarantee of a better-paid job after graduation.

The problem, however, is that many developing countries are unable to provide these incentives, due to lack of economic resource. This is an obvious and major block to the reform of education as a whole, and particularly to the expansion of technical and vocational education within this reform.

However, money alone - without a clear educational and labour market policy system - will not guarantee a successful programme. Some countries seem able to get good returns from their investment in technical and vocational education, whereas others are still suffering from a shortage of skilled labour, although they have spent a large proportion of their annual budget on preparing trained manpower. The Gulf States, for example, have established technical institutes with up-to-date technological equipment, as well as providing incentives to students who enrol with these institutes, such as monthly financial allowances, free transportation, accommodation, free meals,

work clothes and/or uniforms, and interest free loans after graduation, for those who want to open their own business. Despite these incentives, which many developing countries would be unable to match, low enrolment is a common feature in these countries. In Qatar, Kuwait, Bahrain and the United Arab Emirates, expatriate workers dominate most technical and vocational work and public services. This problem is attributed to the factors mentioned earlier, and to the small population size in comparison to the socio-economic schemes which have been adopted by these countries.

2.3 Previous Studies

2.3.1 Studies related to Developed and Developing Countries.

Among most developing countries, there is a sharp distinction between those who work with their hands and those who do not. Peshkin and Cohen (1967) point out that manual work has low status while non-manual work has high status. In the modernisation transition when there is a distinction made between "clean and dirty" parts of practical jobs, such as engineering and agriculture extension, then the result as Peshkin and Cohen pointed out, can be inefficiency and possibly retardation of knowledge through restricting the interaction of the practical and the theoretical.

VanDerkroef (1963. p. 176) noted that "*manual labour is disdained by the majority of people in the developing countries. Clerical work in government is socially esteemed and sought, even at a low pay.*"

In a study concerning Iranian youth, Bartsch (1971) noted that most graduates of vocational training schools in Iran sought non-manual work rather than jobs utilizing their training. These youth were never committed to a life of manual labour in the first

place, and accepted admission to vocational training schools only following failure to gain entrance to general secondary schools, with the intention of using their diplomas as a stepping-stone to a desk job. This behaviour was caused by the high premium that society placed on the receipt of certificates from formal school systems and the way all persons who worked with their hands, regardless of skill level, were relegated to the lowest stratum of that society.

A similarly negative view was found in a study conducted by Mehdi and Robinson (1983) about economic development and the labour market in Iraq. They found that vocational education was not popular and, not surprisingly, did not meet the labour requirement of various fields of economic activity. Vocational schools were under-subscribed due to their low status, and the low status of manual work in general. Also, many students enrolled in such schools simply because places were not available for them in others, and they had no real interested in becoming skilled if higher-status jobs were available.

Inkeles and Smith (1976) presented another problem of industrial development in the developing countries. They reported that workers came to industry only when pressed by economic circumstances; and as soon as they gained some cash, they returned to their villages or to other traditional work. As a result, the investment in training men was lost, and production proceeded haltingly for lack of a regular labour supply.

Vocational education was introduced in the developing countries to fulfil the need for skilled and technical labour for development requirements, but its graduates prefer jobs that offer prestige and job security.

In Ghana, Robinson and Vaizey (1966) found that eighty percent of the graduates of vocational schools ended up as clerks in the government.

In Jordan, Al-Bukhari (1969) pointed out that only twenty seven percent of the industrial vocational graduates were using the skills they had acquired. Twenty years later, a study was conducted by Al-Moshigah (1989) among students of community colleges in Jordan indicated that only 12 percent of the respondents entered the community college because this was their genuine preference. Among factors which hindered students from entering technical education, were social factors which reduced interest in this kind of education, such as society's lack of awareness of the value of technical education and work, the low status of community colleges as compared with university education, and the prevailing view that community colleges catered for academically weak students who were incapable of doing anything better. Occupational factors included the lack of work opportunities after graduation, lower salaries, and unwillingness of universities to recognize community college diplomas, so that there was no progression route beyond college.

In Tunisia, Al-Sadam (1980) investigated orientation to secondary vocational education, including the social characteristics (family income, parent education and occupation) of students directed to secondary vocational education, and the attitudes of students enrolled in this type of education. The researcher found that the majority of students enrolled came from low-income families. Also, most respondents had aspirations to continue their higher education by entering technological college when they had obtained their secondary vocational certificate. These results, Al-Sadam concluded, suggested that direction towards secondary vocational education was not based upon principles which would guarantee its success.

Alexandria University (1978) in an investigation of the attitudes of Egyptian society towards manual labour, found that some individuals accepted vocational work choice. Some individuals entered vocational work because of family wishes and some in consequence of failure in academic education. The low income of the family also played a key role in directing people towards manual work. Even technical and vocational workers themselves did not want their sons to follow in their footsteps, but preferred them to complete general education, which leads to university education, despite their recognition of the importance of vocational education for society and the financial rewards available for vocational work. The researchers attributed this view to the persistence of social values which denigrate technical and vocational fields such as carpentry, construction, mechanics, electricity and so on, deterring many individuals from entering them.

Meliakan and Al-Isa (1982) conducted a study in Qatar State, the main purpose of which was to measure the social classification of groups of professions still practised at the time the study was carried out. Three research questionnaires were designed and distributed to a random sample of 239 male and female students from intermediate and secondary schools and university. The questionnaire referred to thirty-one occupations. Each occupation was then presented for comparison with five others for the respondents to arrange in order of status. Each occupation was compared with others in its group and then with all occupations for all groups. Students classified: as "higher" occupations, minister, pilot, professor, physician, engineer, lawyer and so on; while manual occupations demanding physical effort, such as carpentry, welding, barber work, mechanics, car driving, plumbing and construction were classified as lower occupations. The researchers interpreted the result in the light of the society's culture which still disdained manual work. This has led the society to depend heavily on foreign labour to

carry out most non-administrative work. Although wages in manual occupations are considered quite good, this economic consideration appeared to have little affect in determining the social status of these professions. Furthermore, the study showed that the groups of students were similar in their classification of professions, though there were minor differences between university students and other students, related to their age and level of education.

Ghanem (1989) contacted a study related to industrialization problems in the UAE with particular reference to the shortage of indigenous skilled manpower. The findings of the study indicated that foreigners made up 98 % of the industrial workforce. There was little economic and work-market planning and no co-ordination with educational planning. The government guaranteed jobs to university graduates at above market wages as part of its a welfare-oriented oil income distribution policy. Also, the study indicated that there were only three industrial schools, and the number of industrial students was only 2% of that of general secondary education students. Furthermore, industrial school graduates worked mainly for employers such as the police and army and often not in their specializations.

In a study to discover the effect of family values on work values, Cunningham (1973, p. 63) addressed the question: "*Are some industrial values absorbed earlier than social values in the drive for economic development, or do all aspects of family loyalty change more or less together?*". Comparing the attitudes of Jordanian students and Canadian students, he found that work life and job values were segmented and absorbed earlier in industrialization among Jordanian respondents. Cunningham concluded that minimal attitude change would be necessary for the acceptance of industrial job values; and family social values, on the other hand, are less easily tied to the market principle.

He recommended the approach of maintaining the social value system, pointing out that if industrial economic values can be absorbed at a faster rate than industrial social values, attempts to break down the agrarian social values may be unnecessary for changing work values. He also pointed out that attacking social values might only waste energy or foster social disorder by weakening the psychic support afforded to the individual by the family. Therefore, for industrialization of these nations, the study recommended a policy which maximizes the physical and human resources that could be devoted to pursuing economic growth while, at the same time creating the least personal insecurity among members of society.

As many studies indicated, also, the individual's character and attitudes reflect the quality of the family in which he was raised. Many psychologists assert that the important properties of the personality are laid down in childhood and adolescence. Super (1957, p.10) indicated, "*There are three factors especially important in the development of attitudes toward career choice and vocational education. These factors include self and role, personal factors and situational factors (family, socio-economic status, father's occupation, etc)*".

Shartle (1959, p. 76) states, "*A child is born into a particular family and community, within which socio-economic setting the individual develops concepts, values and attitudes toward work*". Also, Shartle postulates that "*the values and attitudes of socio-economic class helps to determine the occupational possibilities that are acceptable in a particular social class*".

Many studies related to rural versus urban origin indicate that the individual's character and attitudes reflect the quality of the social and cultural attributes of the territory in which he grew up. Inkeles and Smith (1976) concluded that urban

experience has little direct effect on modernisation, but they believed that it has a powerful indirect effect. The cities in the developing countries are the main force for introducing new ideas, new ways of doing things, new techniques, and new consumption and production patterns. In the cities there are the greatest concentrations of modernizing institutions such as the school, the factory, and the mass media. Therefore, urban experience, through these modernizing institutions, exerts strong influence on individuals' attitudes and behaviours.

In relation to the effect of the media on changing social values and attitudes, Inkeles and Smith (1976) reported that the wide diffusion of the media of mass communication is one of the best indicators of advanced economic development. Others, however, are less convinced that mass communication can bring about fundamental changes in attitudes and values. Joseph Klapper (1960, p.8) after reviewing hundreds of studies on the effect of the mass media in the developed countries concluded: "*Mass communication ordinarily does not serve as a necessary and sufficient cause of audience effect, but rather functions among and through a nexus of mediating factors and influences*".

In 1971, Stuart Alison conducted a study of some factors affecting the career choices of school leavers in Liverpool. The main purpose of the study was to find out the aspirations and expectations of students toward preferred careers and sources of information about career choice. The study was conducted at thirteen secondary schools in the Merseyside area. The study sample comprised 233 female and 198 male students. Research questionnaires were sent to the students by their schools. Students were asked first to determine which economic sectors they would most prefer to enter and, if possible, to specify the kind of job they would like most to do. The main findings of the

study were that the industrial and commercial sectors were the most desirable areas. Career aspiration was similar to career expectation, where the industrial and commercial sector obtained 30.6 percent, while the education sector obtained 30.6 percent. Furthermore, one of the main aims of the study was to ascertain whether or not students wished to continue education and the responses to this question revealed that 87 percent of the sample wished to continue higher education.

In relation to information on career choice, three groups were classified as main sources of information: school, external sources and home. The first group, school, formed the important source of the information about future careers (27.4 percent). In the second group, nearly three quarters of the sample (73.5 percent) mentioned that they obtained a lot of information from the prospectuses of universities and colleges. In the "home" category, 21.4 percent of respondents obtained information through parents, while 22.8 percent obtained it from relations and friends. The study, also, identified the characteristics of students intending to enter the industrial, commercial and educational sectors. Male students formed the majority of students (68.5 percent) who wished to enter the industrial and commercial field, while the number of female students who wished to enter the education field was four times as great as that of males (80.7 : 19.3 percent).

In 1984, Varlaam and Shaw carried out a study concerning leaving school, attitudes, aspirations and destinations of fifth-year leavers in Tower Hamlets, East London. The main findings of the study were that students who planned to leave education at the end of the fifth year were disproportionately white, male and working class. The majority came from families whose members had no more than fifth year secondary education. The proportion of students following each particular type of

destination was similar in both studies. Manual work was found to be more desired by male students than female ones. Continuing education was related to social class. Students whose parents had non-manual jobs were more desirous of continuing beyond the fifth year than those whose parents were in manual work, while the main reason for leaving education was the need to earn money. Clerical and professional work was the most preferred among all students.

In the United States (1975), the American National Research Centre (ANRC) conducted a study on about 34,000 graduating students from 135 American universities and colleges. The purpose of this study was to reveal the relationship between family income, father's occupation and education and the student's plans after graduation. The main finding of the study was that there is a relationship between family status and plans for further study. A similar positive relationship was found between students' plans and the level of father's occupation. For instance, students whose fathers were professionals had plans for further study, whereas students whose fathers were farmers had less aspiration for further study. The degree of relationship between fathers' education and students' plans for further study was very strong. There was found, also, a positive relationship between family class background and the types of subjects studied by students at graduate level. The importance of this relationship is that these subjects would enable them to enter occupations which are highly rewarded, socially and economically, such as law and medicine. In contrast, the percentage of those who wished to study engineering or education was considerably lower. This study, therefore, revealed the impact of family class background upon the occupational choice of family members.

In 1962, Simpson & Simpson conducted a study on the relationship between social class and occupational choice. They found that when it came to occupational choice, individuals are affected by three major factors. These factors are: the general level of upward mobility within a particular society, the fact that there is a great deal of inheritance of occupational level, and the social values that people hold in connection with certain occupations. The study emphasized that these factors cannot be viewed in isolation from each other because they are interrelated and influential in various degrees. Also, it was found that occupational choice might sometimes be attributed more to the strong effect of others than to family background (Dunkerly, 1975).

2.3.2 Studies Related to Saudi Society:

A number of researchers have attempted to investigate, in the Saudi context the influence of social factors upon issues such as vocational and technical labour and education, manual work, women in the labour force, social change, and so on. Here, a selection of such studies is presented chronologically. Links between these studies and the aims and results of the present study will be discussed in a later chapter.

In an early study, Jalal (1969) found that only four percent of the industrial graduates joined the private sector of industry in some parts of the country and the percentage was less in the other parts.

Alaki (1972), in his study concerning attitudes toward manual and vocational labour, pointed out that despite the comparability of wages and benefits between the government and the industry, government jobs were sought for the social prestige, the shorter hours of work per day and, above all, job security, since the government seldom fires its employees.

In 1973, Al-Jallal's survey study of a sample of Saudi vocational school graduates revealed that only 55.9 percent of the vocational graduates joined jobs related to their vocational training. In response to a question about which part of their training they used most, only 34.7 percent cited specific vocational skills and knowledge. Thus, the degree of relationship between jobs and training was very weak.

Katakura (1977), who conducted a study on Saudi society, pointed out that: *"In spite of the rapid economic development, some traditional values remain almost untouched in Saudi society and are persistently observed. Certain categories of work are held by most tribesmen to be contemptible, demeaning, and unrespected, such as barbers, plumbing, carpentry, smith and ethers involving manual labour"* (p. 47-48).

Raddady (1977) tried to answer the question, "*Why do the bedouins in Saudi society look down on manual work?*" He suggested that the reason is that bedouins had developed certain values and norms that constitute traditional ideals and virtues, without which they were hardly considered as effective members of their society. The bedouin's decision to work was governed not solely by his immediate family needs, but also by traditional explicit approval. Bedouins looked at the same work from two different views; each has a significant effect on his acceptance or rejection of the work.

As Raddady pointed out, "*the bedouin is voluntarily prepared to dig a well and does not mind dirtying his hands as long as the well is devoted to agriculture or drinking, but he is too dignified to dirty his hands in the construction and building industry or in digging a house foundation. Logically, the nature of the work is the same, but to the bedouin it conveys different meanings"(p. 71).*

Al-Ghofaily (1980) conducted a study of the factors affecting young Saudis' attitudes towards work and vocational education as a constraint on economic

development. The major purposes of this study were: (1) to survey the attitudes of Saudi youth toward work and vocational education; (2) to examine research literature for possible explanation of the resistance of Saudi youth to certain occupations and vocational education; (3) to relate certain social and economic factors to attitudes toward work and vocational education; (4) to present a case study of the development process and problems in the developing countries, using Saudi Arabia for that purpose.

In relation to Saudi youths' attitudes, the analysis of data revealed that eighty percent of Saudi youth did not accept manual labour, sixty-four percent of the respondents preferred government jobs over private jobs, a majority of Saudi youth preferred jobs near their families and relatives, most would rather work for relatives than employers who were strangers, sixty-four of the respondents attached more importance to prestige than to economic considerations as a motivator in occupational choice, and fifty percent of vocational students preferred occupations unrelated to their training.

The study results revealed that the effect of development on Saudi youth was a consumption pattern rather than a production pattern contributing to the participation of Saudi youth in economic activities. Also, the findings indicated that changing the Saudi youth attitudes would not be an easy task. There was a very strong influence of a traditional Arab tribal culture on these attitudes, and they still had traditional attitudes and behaviours in relation to production. As a result of these findings, Al-Ghofaily demanded a new look at development policies in Saudi Arabia in order to involve the national human resources in the development process in a more effective and efficient way.

Kisnawi (1981) examined the relationship between the attitudes of male Saudi students, specifically the attitudes of intermediate and secondary school students, and their fathers' attitudes towards vocational-industrial education and manual occupation in the cities of Riyadh, Makkah, and Jeddah. The study revealed that (1) School students had negative attitudes toward both vocational-industrial education and manual occupations, while their fathers presented positive attitudes. (2) Most students indicated that they would not enrol in industrial schools and would not engage in a manual occupation in the future. (3) Generally, family income, fathers' education levels, and fathers' occupations had little effect on fathers' and students' attitudes.

Al-Harthi (1985) examined Saudis' attitudes towards vocational and technical work, in a study entitled. "*Attitudes and attitudes change of Saudi students in the United States towards some social issues*". It was found that young students expressing favourable attitudes towards manual labour and vocational education were likely to have begun holding such favourable attitudes after their studying in the United States. Males displayed more positive attitudes towards manual labour and vocational education than did females. The study demonstrated statistically that the higher the level of education of the respondent, the more positive their attitudes towards manual labour and vocational education.

A descriptive study was conducted by Al-Malik (1986) on a group of selected male educational personnel in Jeddah city. The major purpose of the study was to measure the attitudes of educational personnel toward vocational education. The main finding of the study was that the majority of vocational teachers and administrators held positive attitudes toward vocational education, while intermediate and secondary school teachers and administrators had less positive attitudes toward vocational education.

Regarding the relationship between work experience and attitudes, the study showed that the more experienced teachers demonstrated more favourable attitudes toward vocational education than did less experienced teachers. More experienced administrators suggested that students enrol in vocational education, because they want to learn skills or because they are more interested in that than in academic classes, while a higher proportion of less experienced administrators believed that students enrolled in vocational education because they could not cope with academic courses.

The role of incentives as influential factors for enrolment with technical and vocational education and practice after graduation, was discussed by Al Othimeen (1986). He pointed out that many people still consider the low enrolment of students in technical education and the shortage of trained manpower in industrial fields to be a result of the impact of the prevailing social culture, which is an extension of tribal norms and values. He argued that this was largely true before the development programmes which started in the 1970's and now cover most areas. Thereafter, he claimed, the essential problem can be attributed to a large extent to the lack of financial and non-financial incentives. The system of salaries and wages, especially in the private sector, which accounts for the majority of such work, is not encouraging. Consequently, it is necessary to review the system of salaries and wages, as well as the allowances gives to students during their period of study.

Bar (1987) tried, in his study of the factors influencing student decisions to enrol in the technical college and university in Saudi Arabia, to investigate the relationship of six general factors (familial, societal, individual, socio-economic, situational and psychosocial-emotional) with (1) choices by students between vocational training and university programmes, and (2) students' satisfaction with their educational

programmes. Two post-secondary institutions located in Riyadh – the Technical Collage and King Saud University – were selected for the study. The factors most influential on both groups of subjects were need to achieve, self-expectancies, demand for jobs, and supply of jobs. The least influential factors were role conflict, location, and confidence level. Familial, societal, individual, and socio-economic factors were not found to correlate significantly with student decisions to enrol in the TC or KSU. The study concluded that no single variable influenced students' decisions; rather, multiple factors affected their educational/vocational choices.

Mishkhes (1987) investigated the development of an industrial labour force in Saudi Arabia, with a special reference to Jeddah city. The study tried to describe the workforce in terms of its turnover, productivity and costs. Also, the study dealt with the organisation of the various Saudi industrial labour markets, with special consideration to the Saudi workers.

The results, in general, revealed that there had been an improvement in the quality and productivity of industrial workers in Saudi Arabia between the 1960s and 1980s, but there were still socio-economic structural factors hindering its further improvement. Thus, the researcher recommended certain steps which could be taken to raise Saudi participation, and to increase the stability of foreign workers and their productivity in the industrial sector.

Other important factors were raised by *Al Riyadh* newspaper, which presented a study conducted by Al-Zamil (1989) about the factors hindering graduates of vocational training centres from working in the private sector. The study found that the main reasons preventing Saudi labour from working in the private sector were psychological factors, as youths aspire to reach a high position in a short time; unavailability of

sufficient financial and moral incentives to attract Saudi labour; lack of a clear policy regarding the future of workers; employment of Saudi labour under supervision of foreign labour; and lack of promotion opportunities.

Alogla (1990) examined the factors that facilitate or hinder the process of Saudization in the private sector of the Saudi Arabian labour force as viewed by young Saudis eligible for work in the private sector. The dependent variable was attitude toward work in the private sector; three independent variables were socio-economic status, educational type, and urban or rural background; and four intervening variables were attitudes toward Saudization of the private sector, perception of the extent to which private sector employment fulfils work needs, traditional views of work, and correspondence of skills and knowledge with public sector jobs.

The findings of the study indicated willingness to work in the private sector on the part of many of the younger Saudi generation. In addition, some important variables which had been assumed to be obstacles to Saudization, did not appear to be so. These included enactment of laws protecting workers, traditional views toward acceptability of certain jobs, large family size, rural background, and educational types. Finally, based on the study findings, recommendations were proposed for further study to address the issue of Saudization in Saudi labour market at a macro level.

Obied (1993) investigated the contributory factors associated with dropout at secondary industrial institutes in Saudi Arabia. The results showed that a number of complex factors caused students' dropout. These factors included lack of counselling and guidance, adapting to the institute environment, job attraction, students' financial problems, family influence and institute location.

Al-Ghamdi (1994), in his study on "*Factors Influencing advancement of Technical Education and Vocational training and their Impact on Economic Development in Saudi Arabia*", investigated the factors which deter Saudi youth from joining industrial education or practising vocational work, and the effects of those factors on the development process in Saudi society.

The main findings of the study were that the major factors influencing students to join technical education and vocational training programmes or practising vocational work were: social, economical, policy, administrative, organisation, technical, educational and personal factors, as well as the impact of lack of cooperation between the General Organization for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT) and government agencies in general and the industrial sector in particular. Also, the study indicated that these factors not only affect the attitudes of students, but also have also strongly affected the efficiency and the development of Technical and Vocational Education.

Al-Ghamdi called for more studies to determine the factors influencing individuals' choice of education and occupations in Saudi society, to investigate the reasons which make graduates of technical and vocational education unwilling to work in the private sector, occupational status and work motivation, and to create a conceptual model for improving the attitudes of society towards technical and vocational work.

In a related study, Alturaigi (1997) researched the Saudi Arabian workforce dilemma in an effort to identify obstacles/ incentives and ultimately to develop the basis of a strategic manpower plan for indigenising the workforce in Saudi Arabian private

sector. The Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) coupled with a comprehensive survey was used to identify and rank factors affecting the indigenisation process as a whole.

The study found that the "low cost" of employing expatriates, and their being "easy to manage" and "easy to hire and fire" were the major reasons for employment of expatriates in Saudi Arabia private sector. The short supply of qualified native manpower was found to be an important but secondary reason for the existing workforce dilemma.

More specifically, the study indicated that many factors contribute to the existence of such a problem. Some of these factors are:

- Failure of the previous five government development plans in addressing the national manpower issues and the government control and monopoly of the private sector market; also, lack of proper regulations in the job market.
- Difficult transitions between school and work, and the poor communications channels, in general, between educational institutions, private sector market, labour forces, and prospective employees.
- Negative attitudes of private sector employers toward the issue of indigenisation issues, with prevalence of an attitude of dependence on expatriates that was created during the oil boom era, while the Kingdom was building its infrastructure.
- The existence of some social restraints which prevents nationals from performing certain jobs, as well as lack of public awareness programmes that are aimed to enlighten nationals about workforce related issues.

In his recommendations, the researcher called for more studies on how to improve public attitudes towards working in unfavourable jobs within Saudi society.

2.4 Conclusion:

The review of literature in this chapter shows the disdainful attitudes and low participation of the workforce in industrial and vocational work, in many developing countries, particularly in Saudi Arabia and the Gulf States. Related to that is low student enrolment in industrial, vocational and technical education or any form of education associated with manual labour. As previous studies have indicated, this phenomenon is attributable to many factors. These factors differ to some extent from one country to another. They include social values and norms, economic factors, the labour market, education policy, lack of awareness of society of the importance of this kind of work and education, poor planning, inadequate teaching, and administrative difficulties.

However, in the light of this chapter in general, and especially the part that previous presented empirical studies, there are several points that have strong implications for this study. To gave a clear basis for this study the more important findings could be summarized as follows:

- Occupational perception and choice, notions of occupational training, success, and satisfaction are in the main influenced by parents or families.

- In developing countries like Saudi Arabia, youth face social pressures concerning career choice as result of the low social status of vocational and manual occupations in comparison with professional ones.

- The society's cultural background is still dominant with regard to the individual's choice of occupation. Occupations which demand manual labour, long hours, physical labour and dirty hands are generally considered undesirable and un-respected, since they are associated with low status.

- Family connections, social status, and personal loyalties in this system transcend considerations of work efficiency and competence: Intermediation still plays a large part in the whole process of seeking and giving work.

- Academic education has attracted the majority of students beyond the intermediate stage and diverted students away from technical and vocational education and work. Also, general secondary education that leads to university education is still the preference of both parents and children.

- Education in the earlier stages is still theoretical and does not serve development goals, and also reflects the preference of students for theoretical academic education rather than practical subjects

- There are wide gaps between educational planning and economic development plans. Most developing nations do not have adequate statistical records regarding their present and future manpower needs, and invest inefficiently in human resources.

- Defects in the distribution of their labour force cannot be attributed only to the education system or other factors, but in some countries, as in the case of the Gulf States, it can be attributed to a large extent to social attitudes which respect certificates rather than vocational work.

- The entry demand on vocational schools is normally less than their capacity due to the low status of such schools, and the low status of manual work in general. Also, many students enrol in such schools simply because they could not get places elsewhere, and have no real interest in becoming skilled.

- Economic level is one of the important factors that determine the social status of the individual and family in the society. Sufficient financial incentives, such as rewards and salaries, may influence the individual's choice of education and occupational choice.

- The system of salaries and wages in most developing countries, especially in the private sector, which accounts for the majority of such work, is not encouraging.

- In relation to occupational factors, some studies pointed out to the lack of work opportunities after graduation and unwillingness of universities to recognize community college diplomas.

- The effect of development on Saudi youth has been a consumption pattern rather than a production pattern, contributing to the participation of Saudi youth in economic activities, so they still are looking for government jobs that carry social prestige.

- Some of the main reasons preventing Saudi labour from working in the private sector are psychological factors, as youths aspire to reach a high position in a short time; unavailability of sufficient financial and moral incentives to attract Saudi labour; lack of a clear policy regarding the future of workers; employment of Saudi labour under supervision of foreign labour; and lack of promotion opportunities.

CHAPTER----------3

SAUDI ARABIAN SOCIETY

3.1 Physical Features.

3.2 Emergence of Contemporary Saudi Arabia.

3.3 Demographic Features.

3.4 Socio-cultural Environment.

3.5 Developments Aspects in Saudi Society.

3.6 Industrialization and the Private Sector.

CHAPTER THREE: SAUDI ARABIAN SOCIETY.

Introduction

To identify and understand the socio-cultural and economic factors influencing Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors, it is necessary to have some background information about the socio-economic and cultural aspects of Saudi society.

Accordingly, this chapter aims to shed some light on the country's physical features, emergence as a unified state, demographic features, socio-cultural milieu, economy, education, and some aspects of social change which have been affected by rapid economic growth, since the discovery of oil.

3.1 Physical Features

The name Saudi Arabia refers to the modern country situated in the Arabian Peninsula and occupying almost four-fifths of its area. The kingdom covers an area of 2,240,000 square kilometres (865,000 sq. miles), which is equivalent to nine times the area of the United Kingdom. Most of this vast area is uninhabited. The Arabian peninsula is situated in the south-western part of Asia and is delimited on three of its sides by water: on the west by the Red Sea, on the east by the Arabian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman, and on the south by the Arabian Sea. The country has common boundaries

with Jordan, Iraq and Kuwait to the north, Qatar and the UAE to the east, and Oman and Yemen to the south (The Middle East and North Africa Year Book, 1998).

Most of Saudi Arabia is desert. The eastern part is a plateau that begins with the great Nafud desert in the north, continues along the Arabian Gulf, and culminates in world's largest sand desert, *The Rub al-khali* (Empty Quarter) in the south. To the west of this plateau is the Central Province, the heartland of the peninsula, which is known for its spectacular escarpments, gravel and sand deserts. The capital city of Riyadh is located here. A chain of mountains in western Saudi Arabia runs parallel to the Red Sea. The western region along the Red Sea contains the holy cities of Makkah and Madinah, the port city of Jeddah and the summer capital of Taif (SAIC, 1996).

The climate of Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is basically hot and dry, with summer temperatures of up to 50 degrees centigrade and sometimes higher in the southern desert during the day. Along the coastal regions, for example at Jeddah and Dammam, high humidity continues for almost six months of the year. However, there are some moderate regions such as Taif, Al-Baha and Abha (Al-Farsy, 1980).

Saudi Arabia has no rivers or lakes. Rainfall is scanty and irregular and does not exceed four millimetres per year with the exception of the mountain regions of the south such as Abha, Al-Baha and Taif, where rain is relatively regular. Prior to desalination of seawater, the main sources of water were springs in the oases of the eastern province and artesian wells.

Administratively, Saudi Arabia is divided into five principal provinces, based on their geographical proximity (see Figure 3.1). The Central Province (which occupies most of Najd) is the main one which includes the capital city of Riyadh. The Western Province (Hejaz) includes Jeddah, the holy cities of Makkah and Medina, and the

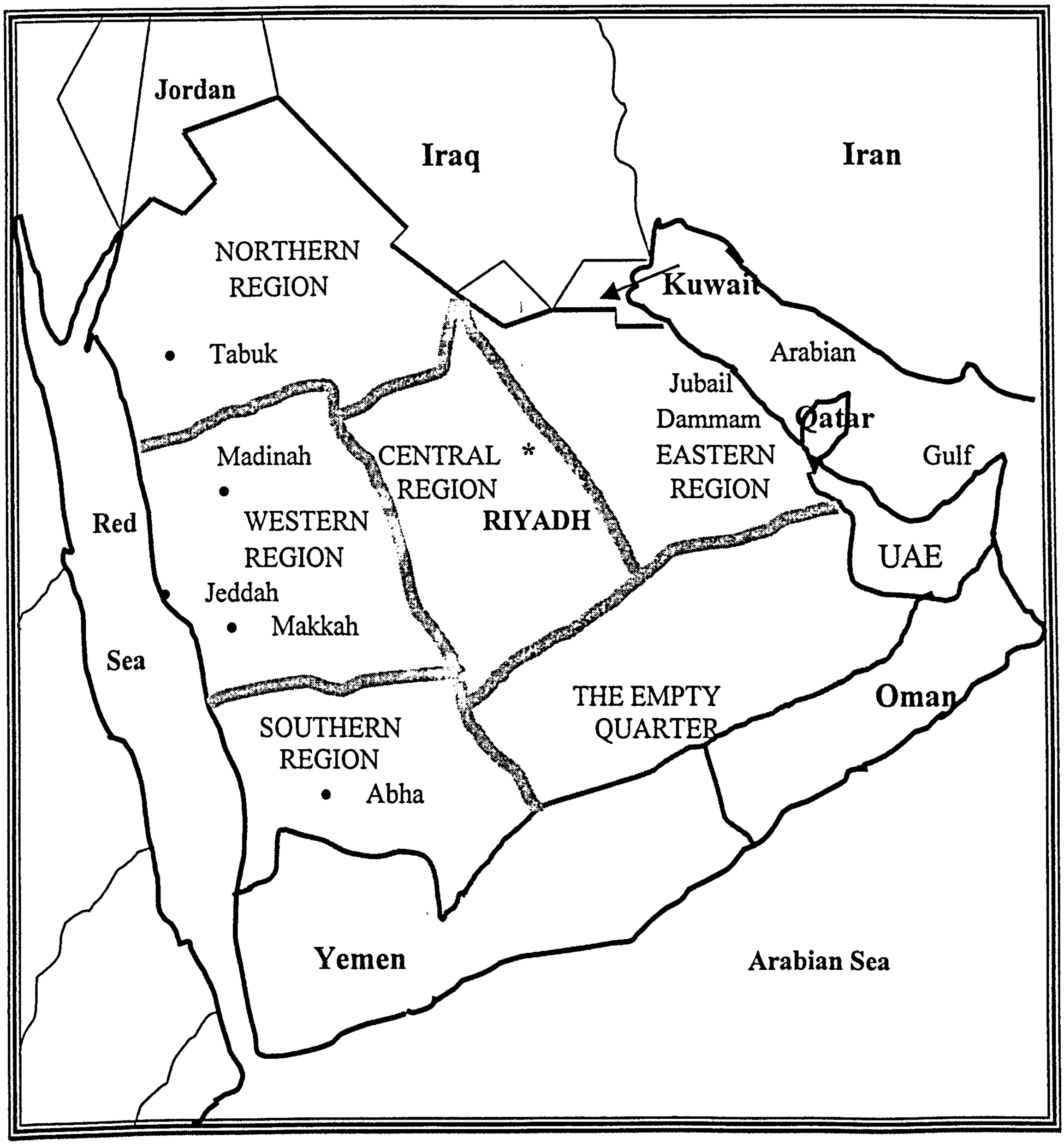
industrial city of Yanbu. The Eastern Province consists of Al-Hasa region and includes the cities of Dammam, Kubar, Hufof and the industrial city of Jubail. This province contains almost all the oil fields in the country. The fourth province is the South-western one which includes the cities of Abha and Al-Baha. The Northern Province is the smallest and includes the cities of Hail and Tabuk. These five provinces are further divided into fourteen administrative regions.

3.2 Emergence of contemporary Saudi Arabia

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is the product of battles and conquest of territories by the late King Ibn Saud (Abdulaziz al-Saud) who formally proclaimed it in 1932, and from whom the country took its name. It began with an attempt to restore the emirate of the house of Saud in Najd. The defeat of the Rashid family allowed Ibn Saud to conquer other territories and emirates, which had been fragmented, and his territories expanded to encompass most of the Arabian peninsula in the thirty years prior to the proclamation. The al-Saud family has ruled the country ever since.

The official and only religion of the country is Islam, from which the legal and judicial systems are derived. The Islamic law is called "*sharia*". The tight bonds between the government and implementation of the *sharia* are motivated by two factors: i) the first and probably the most important reason is that Islam emerged and spread from the Arabian peninsula, and its two holiest cities are located in that region; and ii) the second reason is that the house of Saud had allied with Skeikh Abdul-Wahhab when they were ruling the small town of Deriya, about two hundred years prior to the proclamation of the contemporary Saudi Arabia by Ibn Saud (Gheraibi, 1994). The Sheikh was calling for a return to the pure form of Islam, which he saw as having been corrupted through ignorance, warring tribes and factions (see section 3.4.2.).

Figure 3.1: Map of Kingdom of Saudi Arabia



Source : Ministary of Planning (1996).

* Capital of Saudi Arabia

Traditionally, rule was based solely on the ability and charisma of the leader. The government nowadays departs from this and is more structured. Responsibilities are centralised for the purpose of creating efficient government mechanisms. The government is led by the King who also acts as the Prime Minister, and consists of: the Crown Prince who is the First Deputy Prime Minister, the second Deputy Prime Minister and a host of ministers all of whom are appointed by the king. Recently, a consultative house was formed to assist in running the country and form a check on the misconduct of ministers.

3.3 Demographic Features

The population of Saudi Arabia, according to the census held in September and October 1992, was recorded as 16,929,294 as compared to 7,012,592 in the 1974 census (The Middle East and North Africa Year Book, 1994). Of this figure, 4,624,459 (males 70.4%, females 29.6%) are foreign nationals as compared to the 3.5 million estimated in 1985 (Saudi Consulting House, 1986). The number of foreigners reflects the country's dependence on foreign contract labour in most areas of employment outside administration, banking and certain state enterprises.

The figures above show that the population has increased almost two and half times from 1974 to 1992. Based on the birth-rate, the kingdom's growth rate was 3.94% per annum during the period 1980-1985. The population is expected to reach 18.9 million by the year 2000, and 30.6 million by the year 2020 (Kurian, 1987). The relatively high population growth is attributed to a high birth rate, typical of a traditional society, and a considerable decrease in death rate as result of improvement and expansion of the health service, as well as increased popular awareness of health issues

and available services. The final reason for growth is the improvement of economic and social conditions that society enjoys at the present time.

Urbanising the population is central to the development plans advanced by the government. It may be difficult to define accurately how nomadic the population is. Saudi society was described as 85 to 95 percent bedouin by the *United Nations Yearbook* (1970). A more recent study suggests that in the early 1980s perhaps 5 percent of the Saudi population remained wholly nomadic (Al-Farsy, 1980). Although the social transformation in Saudi Arabia is indisputable, it seems more appropriate to report the estimate that more than three-quarters of Saudi Arabia's population resided in urban areas in 1990, compared with less than one-half at the end of the 1960s. To take an example, the population in Riyadh rose between the years 1986 and 1991 by 49% (the Middle East and North Africa, 1998). The percentage ratio of nomadic population to that of the total population in the 1974 census was 26.9 (Al-Madani & Al-Fayez, 1976).

A population survey in 1985 indicates that people under working age (14 years) constitute 43.1 percent, people of working age (15-64) make up 54.1 percent, and those over the working age (65 and over) make up only 2.7 percent of total population. The male-female ratio is 1.023:1, and almost 73 percent of the population live in urban areas (Saudi Consulting House, 1986).

3.4 Socio-cultural environment.

The role of socio-cultural factors, in not only influencing, but in forming individuals' work values and attitudes, is unmistakable and has been recognised by many social scientists (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978; Shaw, 1976; and Zalesny et al.,

1985). In reality, as many scholars argue, values, orientations, and attitudes toward work are shaped by, and brought from the wider society. Goldthorpef (1968) stresses the point that *"...the values and motivations that lead workers to the view of work they have adopted must be traced back, so far as this is possible, to the typical life situations and experiences"* (p.185).

Understanding people's work view is facilitated by understanding the relevant social and cultural contexts. If work attitudes are to be favourably altered, change in the basic cultural elements is inescapable. From this perspective, the need to understand the culture within which subjects of this study operate is of great importance.

For any study concerning the Saudi society to be complete, two factors have to be critically considered. These factors are the unique traditions of the Arab society, and the influence of Islam as the principal source of values and beliefs of the people.

3.4.1 Arab History

The term "Arab" applies today to any individual who belongs to any one of the present 21 Arabic speaking independent states located in the Arabian peninsula, Great Syria and Iraq, North Africa, the Nile valley, and the African Horn. The unifying characteristic that defines an Arab is the speaking of the Arabic language. Historically, Arabs are *the "Semitic people of the Arabian Peninsula.* ... [They are] *the nomadic inhabitants of the central and northern Arabian Peninsula"* (Mansfield, 1976:13). Their earliest history has been the account of small pockets of settled civilisation, subsisting mainly on trade, in the midst of nomadic tribes. The earliest urban settlement was the Minaean Kingdom in the southwest in the 12th century BC. This was followed by the Sabaean and Himyarite Kingdom, which lasted until the sixth century AD (the Middle

East and North Africa, 1998). At the turn of the 7th century, a major watershed changed the Arabs' history irreversibly: the emergence of Islam. Inspired by Islam the Arabs have assumed a leading role in creating a great civilisation by conquering neighbouring empires and kingdoms. The new empire extended from West Africa and Spain in the west to the Indian Subcontinent and central Asia in the east (Lewis, 1981).

3.4.2 The Religion

The various changes Islam brought about were not limited to religious creed only, but encompassed comprehensive social, cultural, economic and political systems. For the first time in their history, Arabs started to understand the universal meaning of togetherness and unity. This notion was not there before Islam; as Qutb (1986) pointed out, "*Although the fundamental factors for unity were there; on the unity of land, unity of language, culture, history, and interests, Arabs were fragmented and not united*" (p: 15).

The influence of Islam in Saudi Arabia can never be exaggerated. The strong influence of Sheikh Abdul-Wahab's teachings, coupled with the ruling house's adoption and fostering of this sect, which called for the fundamental practices of Islam as embodied in the Quran and *Sunna* (the prophet's traditions), led to a very religious and conservative society that closely observes Islamic daily practices.

In addition to submitting to, and practising the five pillars of Islam, which are the profession of faith, prayer, almsgiving, fasting, and pilgrimage to Makkah, people practise Islam in every aspect of their lives, following the sayings, traditions and deeds of the prophet Mohammed (pbuh), in dealing with each other or regulating their rights

and duties. For this reason it is claimed that Islam is not merely a religion, but also a way of life (Hitti, 1970).

Unlike in most Islamic countries, in Saudi Arabia, Islam plays an influencing role in directing the behaviour of the people and the government alike. The government has embraced the Islamic laws as the country's official laws.

The Quran was declared to be the country's constitution, and the judicial and administrative systems are wholly based on the *shari'ah* (Islamic law taken from four sources: the Quran, *Sunna, Qiyas, and Ijma.* The latter two refer to the analogical reasoning by religious scholars to confront new issues, and the consensus of opinions of experienced jurists on various subjects, respectively). Thus, Islam is not only the source of the spiritual and the moral code of the society but also the source of its institutionalised values and norms.

3.4.3 The character of the people.

Islam is a way of life. Its laws have been closely observed throughout the centuries in day-to-day practice. A hard-and - fast line cannot be drawn between Arab traditions and Islamic values, because, as Patai (1952) puts it, "*...the religion is the fundamental motivating force in most aspects of Arab culture and has its say in particularly every act and moment in life*"(p. 7).

The social structure in Arabia was for a long time predominantly tribal. The basic element of tribal society is the blood connection (kinship), or federation between tribes. The smallest unit of a tribal system is the family (usually extended ones) and not the individual. The interests of the individual are always subsumed by those of the family and beyond that, the tribe (Hamady, 1960; Berger, 1962; Pierce, 1971; and

Nydell, 1987). For this reason Arab culture can be characterised as being a collectivist one (Hofstede, 1991).

In Arab culture, the family plays a major role in the formation of one's identity, and is the chief source of values and beliefs. Furthermore, the family gives unconditional support to the individual whose success or failure can be directly passed to the family. Without family support, no one is expected to advance or gain much in the wider community. Therefore, *"...family loyalty and obligations take precedence over loyalty to friends or the demand of a job"* (Nydell, 1987: 75). Family loyalty exceeds any loyalty to other institutions except the religion, which encourages such devotion. The unity of the family is deeply rooted in this culture. In the past, families, clans and tribes played a protective and supportive role in the nomadic society. Islam has proclaimed the family as the basis of the entire socio-cultural system, a self-sustaining mechanism to ensure social, ideological and cultural stability across space and time (Ahmed, 1987). In the present day, the tribal role and structure are diminishing and the clan is replaced by the extended family and kin.

It is imperative to understand these facts if the social behaviour and attitudes of the Arabs are to be fully understood. Based on this concept there are many significant social values that play leading roles in forming the Arabs' (or in a narrower scope, Saudis') behaviour and attitudes. There are, in my opinion, a number of specific values that affect attitudes toward work and behaviour in the workplace. These values are: social connections or interpersonal relationships, generosity and hospitality, fatalism, and loose temporal proximity. These values and traditions can be a great hindrance to efficient work, especially industrial and technical work, which needs a committed workforce.

Below, a brief discussion will touch on each of these themes, bearing in mind two points. First, attention will be given to whether the source of these is religion or tradition. Second, it should be understood that these themes are interrelated, and, therefore, the effect of one can never be isolated.

A. Interpersonal relationships:

It is in the family that concept of relationship and priorities are first developed. Normally, the relationships learned in the family are those of deep warmth and intimacy created by the unconditional love and affection other members of the family provide to younger members. Norms and values of relationships between family members are taught at an early age and are expected to be followed and conformed to. Chief among these values is respect for elders and, in particular, for parents. Respect can, in many cases, extend to the extent of absolute obedience. On this point, Islam emphasises that one should always endeavour to please God in the first place and parents in the second place.

A blind loyalty and devotion to the family, coupled with love and respect of family members, develops a sense of selflessness in which individual interests are denied and others' interests are fulfilled. The social behaviour of the individual in the wider community is mainly an expression of his family pattern. Relationships with others are warm, intimate and boundless. Asking or doing someone a favour can be seen within this context as a sign of good friendship and loyalty. As one Western observer notes, "*Among Arabs... a friend is someone whose company they enjoy. However, equally important to the relationship is the duty of a friend to give help and do favours to the best of his ability.*" She goes on to suggest, "*For an Arab, 'good manners' require that one never openly refuse a request from a friend*" She then concludes, "*A good*

personal relationship is the most important single factor in doing business successfully with Arabs. ... In the end, personal contacts lead to more efficiency than following rules and regulations" (Nydell, 1987: 19,20,25).

Although this kind of relationship can help in work situations in terms of personal contacts and as a source of information, it in fact poses a threat to efficient work when, for instance, selection of employees is based mainly on their relationship to the personnel manager.

Another aspect of the relationship learned in the family and practised at the workplace is that of obedience and total submission to superiors by subordinates. As the individual submits to and accepts the paternal authority at home and is encouraged to obey parents and elders, he begins to shape his own concept of authority in general. In the work place he displays almost full submission to his superiors, and in turn adopts an autocratic management style when he becomes a superior (Al-Awaji, 1971).

B. Hospitality and Generosity:

Among the undisputed traits of Arabs, and in particular Nomads, are their inherent hospitality and generosity. These two values are deeply rooted in the nomadic life-style and could be traced back as far as Biblical times. A person is always judged and valued by how hospitable and generous he or she is. Consequently, displaying a lavish, and sometimes unnecessary, hospitality is seen as good manners, which results in enhancing a person's reputation within kin or tribe and the reputation of his family among other families or tribes. Failure to meet one's responsibility so far as hospitality is concerned frequently blemishes the reputation of one's tribe (Hamady, 1960). Other reasons to be hospitable are related to one's position in the tribe. Boundless hospitality

may help one to climb the social hierarchical structure and be chosen or accepted as head (Sheikh) of the tribe or clan.

Another value that is related to hospitality and cannot be separated from it is generosity. It is undoubtedly perceived by many members of the community as a sign of unselfishness and care for others. This non-materialistic view of life is frequently positively valued. As Nydell notes, "*Arabs are generous in the hospitality they offer to friends and strangers alike and admire and value the same in others. Generosity to guests is essential for a good reputation. It is an insult to characterise someone as 'stingy' or 'inhospitable'* "(1987: 57).

The problem with being hospitable and generous is that, though the outcomes are enjoyed by most individuals, they are no longer a matter of choice for those individuals; rather, they are an inescapable obligation that must be met. Irrespective of economic situation, an Arab host must make every effort possible to treat his guests in the most lavish manner. Even a poor man has to meet this expectation, and will literally slaughter his last animal, or even go further and borrow money from a friend or relative in order to provide a banquet for a guest who may be a complete stranger (Matheny, 1981).

To go through all this is a requirement for being part of the community; otherwise one would be ousted and socially isolated. It must be emphasised that although this is an integral part of the Arab character which has been reinforced for thousands of years, it can be displayed in varying degrees throughout the Arab world, with more intensity in nomadic and traditional areas, depending on regional advancement. During recent decades, with the rapid social development and

urbanisation in many regions of the Gulf area, these traditions are more relaxed and less highly valued.

However, the implications of these values for work and, before that, the choice of some sorts of work, can be immensely influential. For Arab hospitality is not exclusive to the work environment. Nydell (1987) emphasises that, "*Arabs assume the role of host or hostess whenever the situation calls for it--in their office, home, or shop*" (p. 57).

C. Fatalism:

Fatalism is one of the most controversial and misconceived concepts of the Arab and Islamic cultures, even by the general public to whom this concept applies, as well as by many scholars. In Islam, the individual must totally submit to Allah as the cause of action, from natural events to the ultimate destiny of humans in the later life. He has the foreknowledge of all events (Watt, 1974). No matter how one behaves, the outcome of behaviour is "God's will". Numerous Quranic verses can be cited pointing in every situation to a force that is mightier than man.

Likewise, there are other verses indicating man's free will and responsibility for the outcome of his choices. However, the misconception raised above rests on the fact that, in addition to the total belief in “God's will”, one also must exert his ultimate effort to change the course of action, and do what is best. Nevertheless, however great the effort and whatever the result, the outcome is known beforehand (determined) by the Almighty (Al-Gheraibi, 1994).

The complexity of this doctrine has frequently led to misunderstanding of the whole concept, mainly by the very people to whom it is directed. The obvious result of this misunderstanding has always been the acceptance of the status quo, passivity in the

face of possibilities to change the course of action of one's life, and a tendency to attribute negative outcomes to external powers.

Some writers believe that other social and political reasons are responsible for such a fatalistic outlook on life. Hamady (1960) claims that the political systems and economic conditions individual Arabs have been subjected to throughout history have led them to submit to the power of external forces and accept their fate. In this respect she writes: "*The impact of fatalistic philosophy on the Arabs is... due not so much to religious doctrine of determinism (though it does seem to encourage a fatalistic behaviour) as to the nefarious influence of political subjugation, economic poverty and social tyranny. The Arabs picked from the Qur'an only the passages that can support significantly their improvident outlook on life and in which they can find a religious excuse for their inactivity and stagnation*" (p. 188).

Muna (1980), however, warns against any generalisation of such a view to all Arabs without considering the individual socio- economic and educational background. Such a generalisation would be "*academically irresponsible and misleading*" he emphasises. He goes on to attest to the error of connecting Islam and fatalism by the fact that "*...past...Islamic achievements [referring to the Islamic empire] demonstrate the use of long range planning and desire to understand and control nature and environment*"(p.96).

Al-Awaji (1971) also blames social norms and conformity to social approval for initiating and fostering fatalistic views. He emphasises that "*...whether the individual consciously believes in deterministic doctrines or merely is influenced by social norms which are severely sanctioned by public or community opinion, or both, he simply tends to accept his family's prerogatives, and the passage of time as forces beyond the domain*

of his own will. His conformity with what he considers right in the cultural sphere is one of his strongest motives" (pp. 76-77).

It is the belief of the researcher that fatalism can be thought of as the creation of many social values coupled with misrepresentation of the concept of God's will and fate. However, the effect of fatalistic attitudes can greatly undermine positive work attitudes and place hurdles in the path of creativity and effective use of time.

D. Use of time:

Other outcomes of these values and traditions are unpunctuality, a relaxed attitude to appointment and inefficient use of time. These difficulties are frequently reported by those who have been in contact with Arabs, and by business executives in respect of their employees in the Arab world and in the third world in general (Muna, 1980; Sulieman, 1984 Nydell, 1987; and Abuznaid, 1990). One western writer states his feelings on this matter as follows: *"...nothing ever gets immediate attention in Saudi Arabia, in my experience, and few things get belated attention either. The prevailing attitude to time, indeed, made largely irrelevant any distinction between now and then, by funding most things into the bottomless pit of never. The wags of Jeddah called this attitude A.M.T., or Arabian* ***Ma'aleesh*** *Time, because as every middle eastern traveller knows,* ***Ma'aleesh*** *means 'never-mind' and never minding time in Saudi Arabia was the chief national occupation"* (Holden, 1966; cited in Diyab, 1987: 38).

The strong feelings stressed here should not be taken, I hope, to indicate that Arabs take no responsibility for their actions. However the poor management of time and the relaxation of time boundaries of plans and projects are motivated, as I see it, by two frames of reference. First, Arabs mostly have lived for many centuries an unstructured traditional nomadic life in which the basic unit of the day was defined as

only day or night. The basic daily tasks, though harsh, were conducted in a short span of time and arabs were left with the big task of passing the time by gossip, which became inherent in the lifestyle adopted during this period.

The second factor which reinforces the development of this specific attitude toward utilising time is a combination of the above discussed social codes. In particular, fatalism may play a major role. People wrongly believe that whatever they do, or however hard or fast they do it, there is only one outcome and that is previously determined. "If God wills," "*Insha Allah*" it will happen; if he does not, it won't happen. Thus, there is no point in killing oneself over something. Arabs have suffered from a lack of awareness that ineffectiveness at work and in the use of time is a vice and has nothing to do with the belief in "God's will". People are now, however, becoming more aware that unpunctuality and ineffective use of time are not appropriate, with a new life style which demands more exactness and competence. Nydell (1987) in this respect asserts the following point: "*social occasions and even appointments need to have fixed beginnings and endings. Arabs are thus much more relaxed about the timing of events than they are about other aspects of their lives. Nevertheless, these attitudes are beginning to change as Arabs respond to the demands of economic and technological development and modernisation*"(p.60).

It should be emphasised at this point that some of the attributes discussed above apply more to the people in the Arabian peninsula and countries that lie on its northern borders, and that attachment to many of these characteristics has been relaxed due to the changes undergone by the Arab societies in recent decades.

3.5 Development Aspects in Saudi Society:

3.5.1 The economy.

It is important to realise how tiny the Saudi Arabian economy was until the early 1970s and how quickly it has grown since then (Niblock, 1982). Before oil was discovered in the eastern region of country during 1938, the Saudi Arabian economy was simple, closed and still dominated by a traditional way of life.

The main sources of income were livestock, limited agriculture, small handicrafts and taxes on pilgrims. Farming activity was practised mainly in the villages and around towns where water was available from water wells and a few springs. Most of the farming areas in the country were largely dependent on well water, with the exception of the *Assir* district, located in the south-west of Saudi Arabia, where the rain was sufficient to support the traditional farming. The majority of the people lived in arid areas where the harsh living conditions led to instability and continuous wars between tribes, each one attempting to gain control of the scarce resources such as water and grazing land, or leadership among the tribes (Al-Ghamdi, 1994).

In *Hejaz* (the North Western part of Saudi Arabia) there was an opportunity for economic development that could have affected all the region, because of the yearly influx of pilgrims visiting the holy places, providing an important sources of revenue (Johany, 1982).

Now, Saudi Arabia is by far the third largest oil producing country in the world, and the largest producer and exporter of oil within the Organisation of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC). Although the country has received massive revenues from oil exports, the effective role of oil has been evident since the year 1973-74, after the

dramatic increase in international petroleum prices. During the last two decades, the economy has grown to be ranked among the 20 largest economies in the world, although the country accounts for only 0.2 percent of the world's population (Ministry of Planning, 1990).

The substantial revenues from oil which started at $73,000m. in 1980-81, have financed an ambitious programme of infrastructural development and modernisation, as well as far-reaching programmes for providing free health, educational and social services.

Table 3.1: Contribution of oil and non-oil sectors to the GDP over a 20-year period.

Year	Oil sector			Non-oil sector			Total
	SR (Millions)	% Share	% Growth	SR (Millions)	% Share	% Growth	
1969/70	9,566	56	--	75,867	44	--	17,153
1971/72	18,674	67	95	9,183	33	21	27,857
1973/74	83,410	84	347	15,430	16	68	98,840
1975/76	116,570	71	45	47,323	29	207	163,893
1977/78	133,953	60	15	89,883	40	90	233,818
1979/80	252,705	66	89	130,884	34	46	383,589
1981/82	337,884	56	34	184,293	35	29	522,177
1983/84	157,989	43	-53	210,410	57	14	368,399
1985/86	90,004	33	-43	183,715	67	-12	274,719
1987/88	85,513	32	-5	178,561	68	-3	264,074
1989/90	60,200	21	-30	220,000	79	23	280,200

Sources: *Ministry of Planning (1990). Fifth Development Plan, Riyadh: Saudi Arabia.*

Despite the fact that new reports indicate that the Kingdom has proven reserves of crude oil amounting to 315 billion barrels (considerably more than the figure of 170 billion barrels estimated prior to the year 1987), the government realises the need to diversify the economy and reduce reliance on oil revenues. Although the reserves could

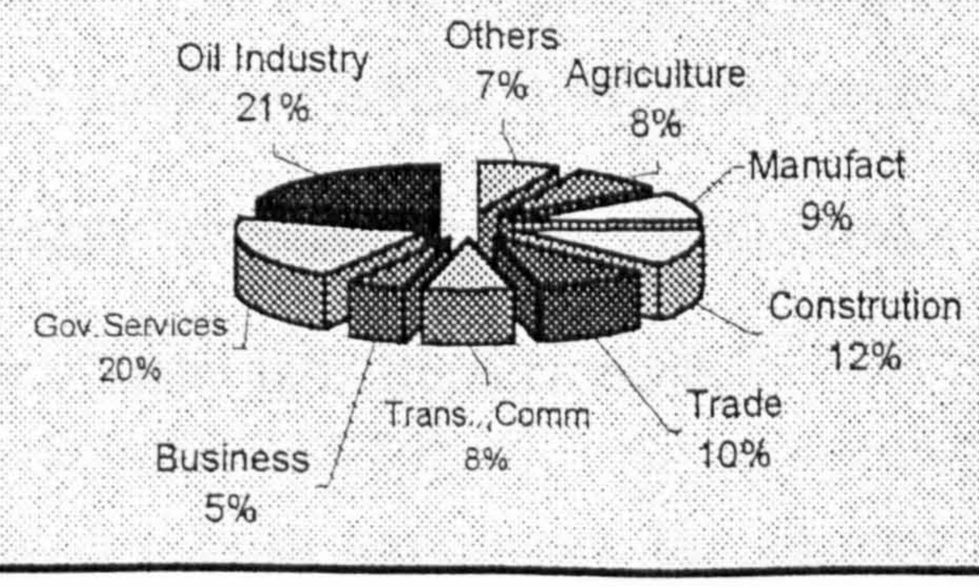
last for 150 years, experience has shown that a slump in oil prices has a direct impact on the country's economy and the execution of development projects (ARAMCO, 1989).

The figures in Table 3.1 show that in 1970 oil contributed to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by almost 56%. This figure increased to almost 85% of the GDP in 1974, the year in which oil prices boomed to their highest peak. Close examination of the figures reveals that although the contribution of the oil sector to the GDP increases annually, the ratio of the oil to non-oil sectors gradually decreases to reach a minimum of 21% in the fiscal year 1989-90.

Despite the relative increase of the oil sector's contribution to the country's economy, the major increase was achieved in the non-oil sector. The most important domains in which the government envisaged economic development that could help to diversify the economy of the country were manufacturing and agriculture. For the contribution of the different sectors to the GDP in 1990, see Figure 3.2.

In respect of manufacturing, one step thought essential in developing a solid and healthy environment for industrialisation was the establishment of the Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC) and the industrial cities of Jubail and Yanbu. The purpose was to provide primary industries of petrochemicals and make good use of the abundant availability of the basic source for such industries, oil. Over the past two decades, SABIC has spent nearly $12 billion on the development of 13 industrial projects, most of which are for petrochemical products.

Figure3.2 Contribution of the different sectors to Saudi Gross Domestic Product for the year 1990



Other important steps in industrialisation were the establishment of the Public Investment Fund (PIF) and the Saudi Industrial Development Fund (SIDF) both of which provide extended soft loans. The former is primarily concerned with large government-sponsored projects (e.g., SABIC) and carries a charge when the project is profitable, and the latter is to help finance individual factories (Askari, 1990). As a result of the attention paid to manufacturing industry, its growth rate increased from 3.9 percent during the First Development Plan to 7.3 percent during the third Development Plan, and then dropped to its previous level of 3.9 percent during the Fourth Plan.

On the other hand, agriculture has assumed a bigger share of the GDP. This was made possible by concessionary loans to private farmers by the Saudi Arabian Agriculture Bank (SAAB). In 1988, for example, agricultural exports accounted for about 40% of non-oil exports, and during the Third Development Plan, the output of the agricultural sector expanded in real terms at an average rate of 8.7% per year, compared with its projected growth rate of 5.4%. The annual growth rate of the agricultural sector rose from 3.6% during the First Development Plan to reach 13.8% during the Fourth Plan. As a result of this development, the annual harvest of wheat increased from 142,000 metric tons in 1979/80 to a record level of 3.9m. tons in 1990/91, of which 1.7m. tons were exported (the Middle East and North Africa, 1998). The production of other agricultural products has also sharply increased, making Saudi Arabia self-sufficient, and for the first time an exporter of many agricultural products.

In addition to giving 'soft' loans, the Saudi government has adopted other measures such as: the distribution of free agricultural land to farmers; the subsidising of many of the agricultural products; and construction of dams in order to conserve surface and underground waters. It should be mentioned here that all these improvements encounter the major obstacle of scarce water resources. For this reason, the Saudi

agricultural policy has faced growing criticism because of the high depletion rate of the non-renewable fossil aquifers from which farmers draw most of their water supply. Apart from lack of water, the major constraint on Saudi agriculture is shortage of labour, as the population is drawn away from rural areas by the attractions of urban development, and most farm workers are expatriates.

At the end of 1994, as a result of the foregoing considerations, the Government announced that its planned levels of wheat purchases from farmers were 2.3m. tons in 1995/96 and 2m. tons in 1996/97, with wheat exports being discontinued in 1996/97. Therefore, annual wheat production would be maintained in balance with the prevailing level of domestic consumption (expected to be around 1.8m. tons annually in coming years), with a limited margin of surplus production for the country's strategic stockpile of grain (the Middle East and North Africa: Year Book, 1998).

In spite of the positive contribution of some of the non-oil sectors to the GDB, the overall growth of the non-oil sector witnessed an unfavourable decrease during the Fourth Development Plan. Instead of the targeted growth of this sector of 2.9%, a decrease of an average annual rate of 0.8 percent during that period was experienced. The largest decrease was evident in the construction sector. This can be attributed to the completion of most of the infrastructure.

However, the growth rate of GDP was estimated to be around 1% in 1992. GDP declined by 0.6 in 1993, but increased again by 0.5% in 1994, compared with 10.8% in 1990 and 9.8% in 1991. GDP increased, in real terms, by an annual average of 1.7% in 1990-1995. In 1996 the finance ministry estimated the rate of real GDP growth to be 5%, although International Monetary Fund (IMF) estimates were lower, at 2.5% (The Middle East and North Africa: Year Book, 1998).

3.5.2 Development Plans.

The conscious process of thinking ahead is one of the three building blocks of modern planned economic policy. Indeed the first step in the planning activity consists of forming an idea of the future possibilities based on past trends. This extrapolation, which can be the result of either simply extending a line graph or of using more sophisticated models representing the interaction of social and economic forces, enables the decision maker to assess the possible variance of planning parameters (Loony, 1982). This process began to gain some acceptance in Saudi Arabia in the 1950s, as a result of the increase in the government revenues from oil and the need to build a modern state with sound economic and social development.

Formal planning began in 1959 when the government expanded what was then called the Economic Development Committee. The committee was replaced in 1961 by the Supreme Planning Board whose functions were to design an economic development policy in co-operation with various ministries. The board and agencies were also charged with supervising the execution of development projects. In 1965 the board was in turn replaced by the Central Planning Organisation (CPO) (Yusif, 1978). Since then, a series of five-year plans have been implanted, with the first development plan commencing in the year 1970.

However, in any global strategy of economic and social development, major political choices have to be made. While five-year planning programmes have been adopted by most Third World countries to overcome their economic backwardness and move on the road to modernisation, almost all of these countries took a socialist or semi-socialist approach in implementing their plans. However, in the case of Saudi Arabia it was different, in the sense that the five-year plans were totally based on pure

capitalist concepts. These concepts were justified by Islamic laws (Nehme. 1994). King Faisal was very direct in this respect when he was quoted as saying:

"We are going ahead with extensive planning, guided by our Islamic laws and beliefs...we have chosen an economic system based on free enterprise because it is our conviction that it fits perfectly with our Islamic laws and suits our country..." (Business International, S.A., p.27). Accordingly, some basic values and principles were stated as goals for development, namely:

- *"Maintaining the religious and moral values of Islam.*
- *Assuring the defence and internal security of the society.*
- *Maintaining a high rate of economic growth by developing economic resources, maximising earnings from oil over the long-term, and conserving depletable resources.*
- *Reducing economic dependence on export of crude oil.*
- *Developing human resources by education, training and raising standards of health.*
- *Increasing the well-being of all groups within the society and fostering social stability under circumstances of rapid social change.*
- *Supporting the private sector financially and morally in the implementation of industrial projects*
- *Developing the physical infrastructure to support achievement of the above goals"(SDP, 1975.p.4.).*

While all the five-year plans have adopted the same broad goals of development, each plan has its own specific objectives. The planning system, in general, has been

designed to attain integrated national development along three broad dimensions: the economic, which includes infrastructural investment, as well as growth in the industry, agriculture, mining and services; the social, which includes the fostering of high quality cultural, social and physical environment, as well as the provision of education, health and welfare services; and the institutional, which covers the respective roles of the government and the private sector in development, as well as the framework of various policies and regulations supporting the desired development process (Ministry of Planning. 1990).

To date, five development plans have been concluded, with the end of the sixth five-year plan approaching. The first plan, which was covered the years 1970-1975 was inferior by subsequent plans' standards. However, with a total budget of SR 56,223 million ($23.1 bn.), it established for the first time a comprehensive planning framework for the construction of a modern infrastructure. It also concentrated on the improvement of human resources through adequate education and training, thereby laying the foundations for achieving long term strategic goals (Ministry of Planning, 1990).

The Second Development Plan (1975-1980) was far more ambitious than the first one and was assisted in this by the sharp increase of oil revenues in the latter part of the First Plan years (see Figure 3.3). It provided for expenditure of no less than SR 498,230 m. ($142 bn.). The major emphasis of this plan was on infrastructure and industrialisation. Expenditure on these was increased dramatically in order to overcome barriers to economic growth. Investment was increased on defence, education, urban development, industrial and mineral production. Major features of the second plan were the establishment of the Ministry of Industry and Electricity, the project to increase industrial output by creating two new industrial cities of Jubail and Yanbu and the

Royal Commission of Jubail and Yanbu, and the creation of the Saudi Arabian Basic Industrial Corporation (SABIC) (the Middle East and North Africa, 1998).

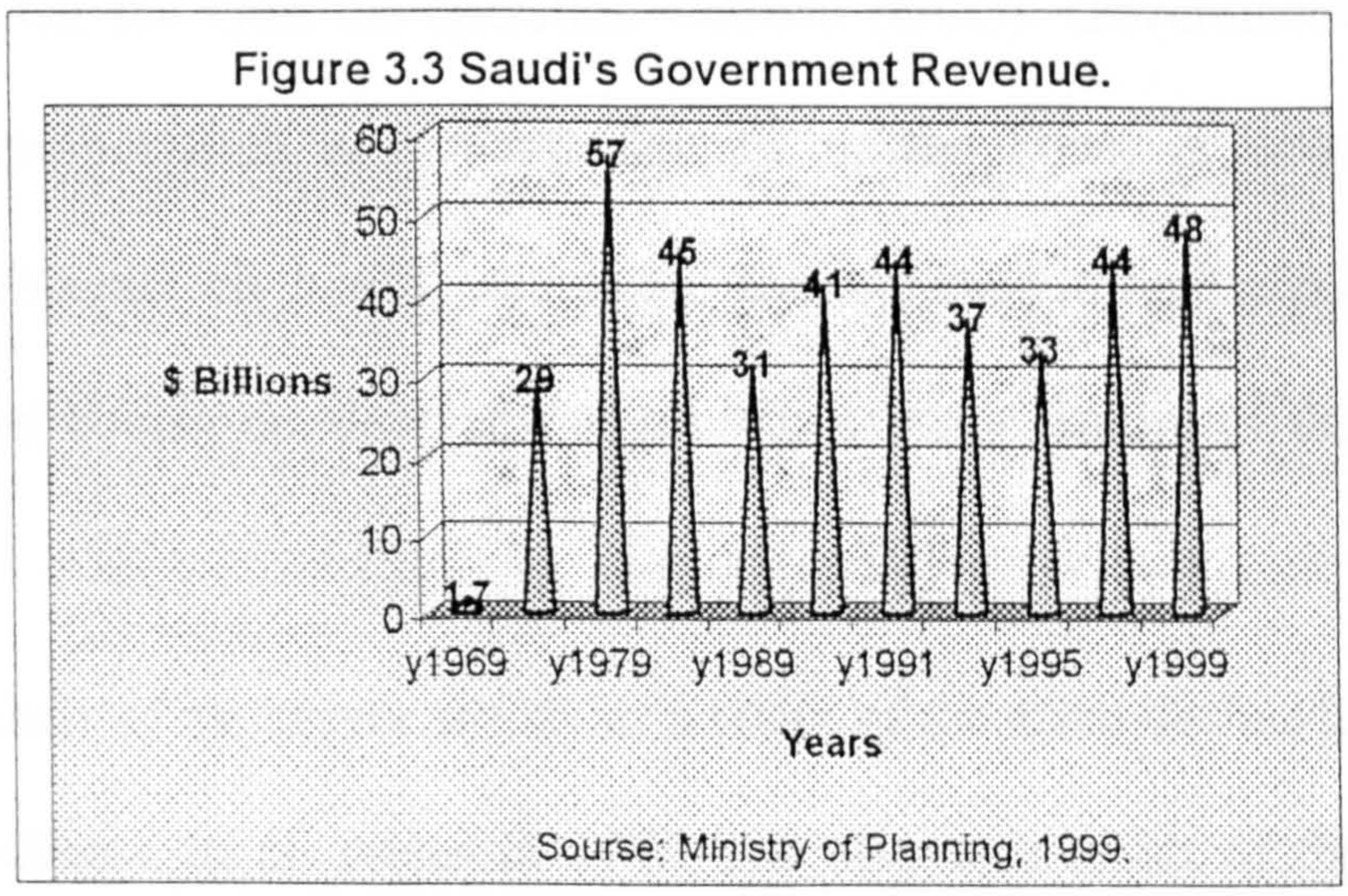


Figure 3.3 Saudi's Government Revenue.

In the Third Plan (1980-1985) the emphasis was shifted from infrastructure projects to the productive sectors for the purpose of diversifying the economy instead of mainly relying on revenues from oil. However, one of the objectives which remained was to accelerate the construction of physical infrastructure. The plan aimed to invest SR 782,000 m. ($235,000m.), excluding defence spending, in order to achieve its objectives which were mainly centred around initiating capital intensive industries linked to the kingdom's petroleum resources. The private sector was to concentrate on manufacturing industries and agriculture. But more importantly, the need for trained Saudi manpower was realised; to achieve this, the plan emphasised the need for manpower training, to reduce reliance on foreign labour.

The second half of the plan witnessed a sharp decrease in oil demand by the international markets and the plan suffered a major setback, so that many of its objectives could not materialise.

The Fourth Development Plan (1985-1990) envisaged a total expenditure of SR 1,000.000 m. In the period of this plan, the majority of the Kingdom's infrastructure was completed. The main themes of this plan were to: reinforce the diversification of the economy, with the private sector assuming the leading role; enhance operational

efficiency; emphasise non-oil revenue-generating activities; and integrate the country economically and socially within the Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC). Government spending on construction, transportation and communication slowed down or even declined. Instead, the plan focused on health, education, training, and other social services essential to social and human development, which was a major feature of the Fourth Plan.

The Fourth Plan fell short of its targets, mainly as a result of the steep decline in oil revenues following the collapse in oil prices in 1986, and also as a result of the increase of military spending due to the Iran-Iraq war.

Although recovery commenced in the last years of the Fourth Plan, the Fifth Development Plan (1990-1995) started with a major shake up represented by the Gulf war, which led to the increase of military spending, and about 34% of the total expenditure of the Fifth Plan was re-allocated to defence, with education receiving 19% and health and social services 12%. The Fifth Plan envisaged a total expenditure of SR 753,000 m. The main themes of this plan were a greater emphasis on the private sector; and creation of a more efficient Saudi Labour force. It also aimed to continue progress made under the Fourth Plan in diversifying the economy and increasing revenues from non-oil sources; promotion of exports; and encouragement of Saudi industry, notably in the construction sector (Ministry of Planning, 1990; and The Middle East and North Africa Year Book, 1998).

According to the Ministry of Planning (1995), the Sixth Development Plan (1995-2000) was intended to continue to enhance and broaden the main objectives of the previous development plans and to meet the society's need through maximising the private sector's contribution in the provision of jobs, and achieving a growth rate

commensurate with expansion of job opportunities for the Saudi labour force. The Sixth Plan placed special emphasis on improving economic efficiency by raising labour productivity through training, by using the latest technology, by other measures aimed at accelerating the Saudization of the work force, and by carrying out programmes and management techniques for the fuller utilisation of existing infrastructural capacity (Ministry of Planning, 1996).

3.5.3 Education :

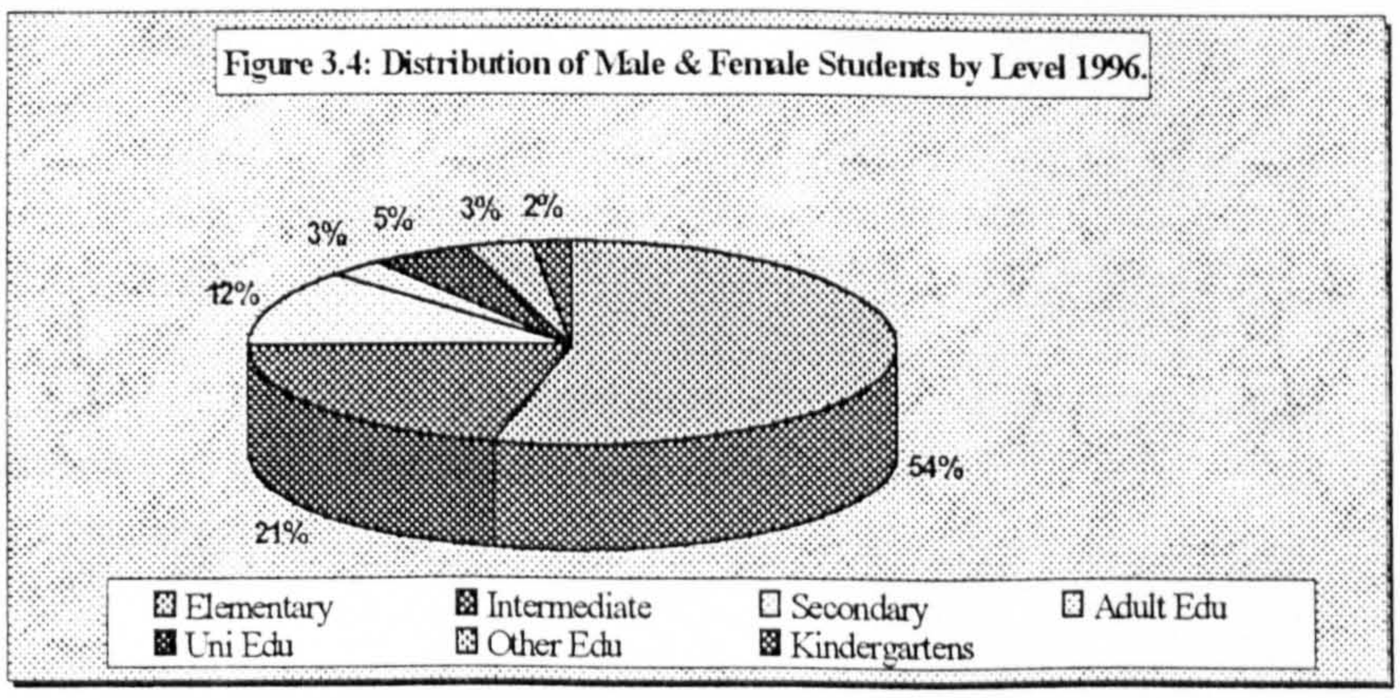
As education is frequently regarded as the backbone of the social and economic development of any society, it has been given the utmost attention by the Saudi authorities and many billions of Riyals have been spent in order to leap nearer to the developed countries' standards. The concern for education is shown by abundant spending on education and the provision of free education for all students at all levels, including free books. In addition to free education, students of higher and vocational education are provided with free accommodation and monthly allowances.

The history of education in Saudi Arabia is as recent as the history of the country itself. At the time of the country's proclamation, education was exclusive to the privileged in the Western region where a handful of private schools were run by businessmen, or charity organisations from other Islamic countries. In the rest of the country, schooling was limited to the teaching of the Quran in mosques which were staffed by volunteers (al-Shamikh, 1973). These schools were called *Katatib*. In Katatib schools, the students were taught the basic elements of the Islamic faith as well as reading and writing. Other types of schools were called *Halagate*, traditional Islamic seminars. Students at both types of school sat in a circle or semi-circle around their teacher, the Imam (Hafiz, 1976).

In 1925 the first modern elementary school in the country was established and in 1926 the Directorate of Education was established to take over the responsibility of supervising of education in the country. The number of schools increased from four elementary schools in 1927 to 306 schools during the last year of the Directorate of Education in 1952. In fact, the boom years of education began with establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1953 and the introduction of formal education for girls under the supervision of the General Presidency for Girls' Education in 1960 (Ministry of Education, 1990, pp 8-12).

3.5.3.1 General Education:

General education is divided into three levels: elementary (six grades), preparatory (three grades), and secondary level (three years), and the duration of study in higher education is from 4-6 years. Due to the totally segregated schooling for boys and girls, the Ministry of Education runs males' education, whereas the General Presidency for Girls' Education is concerned, as the name implies, with girls' education. The grade system of girls' education is identical to that of boys' education. The Ministry of Education assumes the role of making the overall educational policy and supervising girls' education as well.



Although the General Secretariat for Girls' Colleges is the body responsible for the eleven girls' colleges scattered around the country, six of the eight universities provide education for girls. The eight universities are: King Saud University in Riyadh,

King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah, the Islamic University in Medinah, King Fahd University for Petroleum and Minerals in Dahran, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University in Riyadh, King Faisal University in Al-Hasa and Dammam, Umm Al-Qura University in Makkah, and King Khaled University in Abha. These universities contain more than 66 colleges and faculties. The percentage of students (male and female) in universities and colleges (Higher Educations) in 1996 reached 5% (see Figure 3.4, Ministry of Planning 1996).

Table 3.2: Development of number of pupils in pre-school and general education in Saudi Arabia (by thousands) between the years 1970 - 1996.

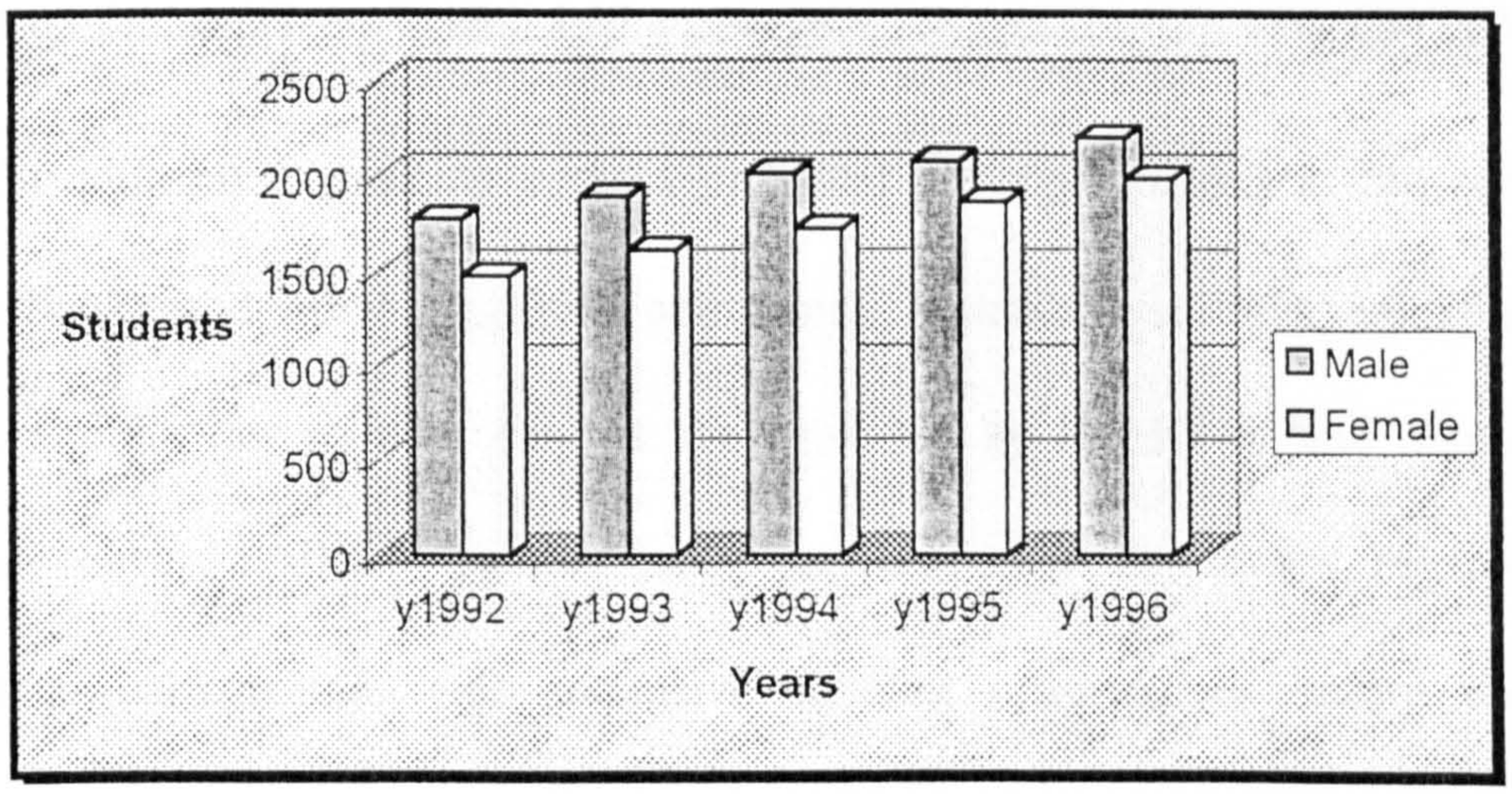
Year	Pre-school	Elementary	Intermediate	Secondary	Total
1970	4	397	61	16	478
1975	14	634	137	42	827
1980	24	862	245	93	1224
1985	55	1242	373	158	1828
1990	70	1801	539	269	2679
1996	87	2249	888	499	3723

Source: 1- Al- Farsy, F. (1990) Modernity and Tradition, The Saudi Equation. Kegan Paul International: London. P.225.
2- Ministry of Planning, Statistical Yearbook, 1996

The Ministry of Higher Education is responsible for the supervision, co-ordination and follow-up of higher education programmes. It also supervises scholarships, international academic relations and the educational offices abroad. Provision of pre-school education to the public has not yet been regarded as essential by the government. However, a little over half the total number of kindergartens are run by the government; the remainder are run by the private sector (see Table 3.2 & Figure

3.4). The number of schools and institutes of higher education increased from 3,107 in 1970 to 19,597 in 1996, with the number of students increasing from 478,000 to 4.2m. over the same period. Of the 4.2 million students enrolled in Saudi education in 1996, more than 49 percent were female (see Table 3.2 & Figure 3.5).

Figure 3.5: Total Number of Students (Male & Female) at All Education Levels 1992-1996.



Source: Ministry of Planning, Statistical Yearbook, 1996. p.46.

3.5.3.2 Technical Education:

Technical education dates back to 1949 when the first intermediate industrial school was established in Jeddah. From that date, the Saudi government has given increased attention to technical education. The responsibility for this education was placed on the Ministry of Education until 1980, when a rearrangement of responsibilities was made by the establishment of the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT) to facilitate its growth and improvement (Albonyan, 1991).

There are two types of training available in Saudi Arabia: private and public. Private training is that training which is funded and provided by the private sector. Most private sector establishments utilise modern technologies and styles of administration in their daily activities. These different forms and models are mostly designed on Western

examples. In the field of recruitment, the private sector prefers the cheap and experienced foreign labour over the expensive and less experienced national labour. However, whenever employers recruit Saudis, they enrol them in training courses in order to prepare them for their jobs. They hold training courses ranging from one to twelve months. To avoid duplication in their training courses, some of these private sector organisations have established a co-operation relationship with GOTEVT.

In addition to training centres provided by organisations in the private sector, such as banks and other industrial companies, technical institutes, vocational training centres, and further training centres are provided by the Jubail and Yanbu industrial cities. Moreover, SABIC's training centre provides all its employees, regardless of their educational background, with extensive training programmes before they join the company, and continuous training for enrolled employees. It works in this regard in collaboration with the Technical Institutes and the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) (SABIC, 1988).

Public training is that type of training which is provided by the government of Saudi Arabia, either directly or indirectly. There are two types of public training: specific and general. Specific training is that kind of training which is provided by various governmental Ministries, each according to its requirements, like the Ministry of Post, Telegraph and Telecommunication (PTT), Ministry of Health, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, etc. This type of training is funded by the government of Saudi Arabia indirectly; that is to say, each ministry should allocate part of its general budget for this purpose.

Most of these ministries follow a modern system of administration. Their recruits can be divided into three levels: administrative, professional, and technical. The

General Secondary Education Certificate or higher will be required for the administrative level; holders of university degrees in engineering, medicine, or physics will be accepted into the professional level; and in the technical level, only an Intermediate (lower secondary) or Secondary Certificate is required. Normally, workers in the latter category do not join the workforce until they pass through a training course, extending to three years in some cases. These courses were designed specifically to meet the ministries' requirements. Ministries had to provide training for their recruits because there are no other establishments which prepare youngsters for the world of work (Murtada, 1996).

There is, however, some dualism and overlapping in the training courses between the different Ministries and the training provided by GOTEVT. This can be attributed to the lack of co-operation between the government establishments all over the Kingdom. Furthermore, the training courses provided by these ministries are mostly weak and very limited because of the lack of consistency of funding, since the larger portion of each ministry's budget is always allocated for its primary projects, and thus, very little is left for training.

The other type of public training which is funded and provided by the government of Saudi Arabia is the general kind of training. This kind of training is funded directly by the government and it is provided by various training institutes like IPA and GOTEVT. IPA provides training in the field of administration for government employees, to upgrade their abilities to work in its modern Ministries. GOTEVT on the other hand, provides technical education and vocational training. In the field of technical education it provides training in four fields: industrial, commercial, agricultural, and technical supervision, with the primary aim of supplying the market with qualified and skilled workers. For the first two, the Organisation also provides

higher training in the Junior Colleges of Technology (Ministry of Education, 1986; GOTEVT, 1989,1993). In the field of vocational training it provides training in its thirty training centres all over Saudi Arabia, to all ages, in various industrial and commercial trades (GOTEVT, 1989, 1993).

Technical education has been subject to many changes and adjustments in the past few decades, under the assumption that it is the backbone of the manpower development process in the country.

The Education Policy (Ministry of Education, 1980) stated clearly the aims and purposes of this type of education as follows:

- *The objective of the technical education is to supply the Kingdom in all fields and at all levels with qualified workers who possess solid faith, sound character and ability to perform the duties entrusted to them.*
- *Concerned educational authorities look after technical and vocational education in all its forms and provide it with technical and financial support.*
- *A special plan is set up to determine the Kingdom's needs for technical labour force at various levels and forms in order to attain self-sufficiency within a period to be defined in the light of existing resources. All other resources that can operate in this field will be utilised.*
- *Technical and vocational education curricula and plans are set up to achieve this purpose with special emphasis on flexibility and diversification to meet all needs and developments in the fields of knowledge and labour, and to acquire other skills, experience and experiments.*
- *Concerned educational authorities shall establish necessary institutions to meet the Kingdom's needs for workers in farming, business, industry and other fields.*

- *Concerned educational authorities shall adopt all means of encouraging students to enrol in technical and vocational training. The State shall open opportunities for graduates to work with companies, institutions, factories, and installations. The concerned Ministries shall adopt the necessary measures to provide work for graduates and organise their status. (pp. 29-30).*

In spite of the efforts that have been made towards the development of technical and vocational education, the number of graduates has not reached the level desired by the government. Still, too few students are prepared to enter this kind of education as compared to intermediate and secondary schools of general education. For example, in 1996 enrolment in the general education (secondary schools) reached 498,659 students, while the number of students enrolled in secondary technical education in the same year was only 25,028 students (Ministry of Planning, 1996). The number of students in industrial and vocational training rose from 578 in 1970 (SAIC, 1996) to 33,885 in 1996 (see Table 3.3). By 1996 the number of higher education schools had reached 29. By the same year, the number of secondary education schools reached 97 (see Table 3.4). The reasons behind this situation will be explored in the next chapters.

Table 3.3 Technical Education: Students by Type of Education: 1992-1996.

Year	Students													Total
	Secondary Education									Higher Education				
	Industrial	Commercial	Agricultural	TC Institutes	Health Ins		Post Institute	Tele. Institute	Total	Commercial	Technical	Health	Telecommuni cations	
					Female	*Male*								
1992	7929	7351	506	1131	2319	3703	202	321	23462	122	4206	-	-	4328
1993	8245	8501	702	1498	2798	3169	287	*	25200	-	5703	216	545	6464
1994	8900	10335	774	1660	1974	2911	364	*	26918	-	6648	189	765	7602
1995	8558	10995	737	1738	1824	3028	410	*	27290	-	7214	976 (1)	638	8828
1996	8045	10916	821	1956	1156	1710	424	*	25028	-	6999	1200 (2)	658	8857

Source: Ministry of Planning, Statistical Yearbook, 1996.

* Changed to Higher Education.

(1) (106) of them female.

(2) (249) of them Female.

Table 3.4 Technical Education : School & colleges by Type of Education : 1992-1996.

Year	Schools & colleges												Total
	Secondary Education								Higher Education				
	Industrial	Commercial	Agricultural	TC Institutes	Health Ins	Post Institute	Tele. Institute	Total	Commercial	Technical	Health	Telecommunications	
1992	8	22	1	3	44	3	2	83	4	7	-	-	11
1993	8	30	2	5	47	3	*	95	-	6	3	2	11
1994	9	30	3	5	47	3	*	97	-	6	3	2	11
1995	9	32	3	4	44	3	*	96	-	6	10	2	18
1996	10	32	3	5	44	3	*	97	-	6	21	2	29

Source: Ministry of Planning, Statistical Yearbook, 1996.
* Changed to Higher Education.

3.6 Industrialisation and the Private Sector:

Saudi Arabia is at present undergoing an economic transformation in all sectors and especially in the industrial sector. Fluctuations in oil revenues have prompted the government to aim at creating a diversified economic base, a more realisable objective. The private sector plays the major role in Saudi industrial development, and is helped in its undertaking by the industrial development plans prepared by the government and by the legislation encouraging both national and foreign industrial investments.

In developing economies, the role of governments should not be underestimated as their fragile structure needs close attention, protection and organisation. The role of the government in building and providing the basic infrastructure on a nation-wide scale is a crucial prerequisite for industrial development beyond the scope of the private sector or beyond its ability to carry out development through quickly enough. Examples of projects typically requiring government involvement are transport and communications (Presley and Westaway, 1989).

Nevertheless, competence and advancement come only with the free enterprise system and private ownership with the government playing regulatory and protective roles. This fact has been recognized by the Saudi government, and it has been working for some time to increase the involvement of the private sector, particularly since most of the infrastructure has been completed (Al-Gheraibi, 1994). Hence, the role of the private sector has been emphasised in the Fourth, Fifth, and more strongly, in the Sixth Development Plans.

3.6.1 Industrial Policy:

Industrial Policy in Saudi Arabia falls within the framework of the overall targets of economic development. The main targets are firstly, developing manpower so they will be able to contribute to the development process; and secondly, diversifying the economic base and gradually reducing dependence on the oil sector.

The Saudi government bases its industrial development policy on four principles:

- *Although free enterprise is the prevailing economic system, the government attaches great importance to planning which is deemed necessary for defining priorities and for co-ordinating the activities of both public and private sectors.*
- *Licensing of projects has been adopted so that only those economically viable are allowed, that a homogeneous industrial structure is created and that wastage of resources is minimised.*
- *The infrastructure required by the private sector's operations must be provided. The Industrial Development and the Petrochemical Industries Companies will be the vehicle for carrying out such infrastructure projects.*
- *Incentives (tax and other) are used to channel investments into the desired projects (ISDC, 1977: p.35).*

Also, the main principles of the government's industrial policy include:

- *The encouragement of manufacturing industries, including agricultural industries that can effectively contribute to increasing the national income, raising the standard of living and employment, and diversifying the economy. To diversify the economy, the government will work toward the adoption of plans that in addition to increasing the national income, will reduce the effect of outside economic disturbance and diversify the opportunities open to Saudi workers.*

- *The principle that the economy of the kingdom is based on competition between the private commercial and industrial enterprises. In practice this implies that the government realises that the objectives of industrial development may be more effectively attained if the business community bears (in the long run) the responsibility of implementing industrial projects.*

- *The assurance that businessmen who are prepared to take the risks of success and failure motivated by prospects of profits will enjoy the full support of the government during all the stages of preparation, establishment and operation of industrial projects (which are beneficial to the kingdom).*

- *The philosophy that competition serving the interests of local consumers is the best means of influencing the business community in the industrial field.*

- *The belief that the imposition of quantitative restrictions or of controls on prices as a means for implementing the industrial policy should be avoided if at all possible; that is, the government does not intend to impose restrictions except in cases in which competition cannot have an effective role (as in the case of commodities which, by their nature, are characterised by monopoly).*

- *The right of the business community in the industrial field to select, use and manage the economic resources, including industrial workers, insofar as this does not conflict with statutes in force.*

- *The attraction of foreign capital, as well as foreign expertise, and foreign participation in industrial development projects, in co-operation with Saudi businessmen.*

- *Assurances to foreign capital that there will be no restrictions on the entry and exit of money to and from the kingdom, and that the government shall continue its policy based on the respect of private ownership based on Islamic law.*

- *The provision that, in addition, the government will attempt to promote the growth of all economic sectors to make available for the producers suitable local resources in sufficient quantities. It will also aim to increase purchasing power to consumers within the framework of an ever-growing national economy (Ministry of Industry, 1985: p.17-18).*

These basic considerations underlie the most of the government's specific industrial objectives, which lead to:

- Increasing the economy's capacity to produce at competitive costs as wide a range of products as possible for both domestic and for export markets.
- The industrial exploitation of the substantial comparative advantages arising from low cost energy, raw materials from hydrocarbon-related industry, minerals, agricultural, and fishery resources.
- Widening and deepening the kingdom's access to modern technology.
- Achieving fuller capacity utilisation in the private manufacturing sector.
- Developing a regionally balanced industrial sector.
- Increasing productivity through closer approach to optimal size of plants.
- Reducing dependency on expatriate workers by national skill creation, through the development of general and technical education and on the job training of national workers.
- Promoting inter-linkage among industries (Ministry of Industry 1987).

3.6.2 Industrial Growth:

The kingdom's policy for ensuring the growth of the non-oil industrial sector focuses on establishing industries that use the country's abundant and expensive supplies of petroleum products, petrochemicals and minerals. Petrochemical and other oil-based industries have been concentrated in the new industrial cities. These plants use natural gas and natural gas liquids that were previously flared, as well as refined products from the oil industry to manufacture products that in turn feed non-oil industries. Concentration of industrial plants in specific areas also facilitates the provision of vital support services, such as water, power and transportation.

Eight industrial cities have been built, with the two principal ones at Jubail on the Arabian Gulf and Yanbu on the Red Sea. Others are scattered across the Kingdom. These sites were chosen for their proximity to sources of raw materials and ease of access to major domestic and international consumer markets. All have been built with emphasis on environmental and wildlife conservation.

Jubail is the largest industrial city. It accommodates more than 30,000 workers and has 15 major plants and other industrial facilities, as well as a dedicated desalination plant, a vocational training institute and a college. Yanbu is a major industrial site with a modern port from which products manufactured locally and in other areas of the kingdom are exported. There are three major refineries, a petrochemical complex and many manufacturing and support enterprises (SAIC,1996).

Table: 3.5 Growth in the manufacturing sector and the increase in the total financing amount (SR millions) for the productive factories.

INDUSTRIAL SECTOR	YEARS							
	1983/84		1987/88		1991/92		1995/96	
	Fact. No	Finan. Total	Fact. No	Finan. Total	Fact. No	Finan. Total	Fact. No	Finan. Total
Man. of Food & Beverages.	204	6695.48	260	8277.8	319	9730.19	391	11293.9
Textile, wearing Apparel & Leather industries	27	1020.33	36	1322.75	67	1681.18	108	2592.47
Man. of wood & wood Products.	44	532.95	63	719.60	87	1180.78	109	1495.58
Manufacture of Paper Products.	98	2585.8	118	3021.34	136	3372.6	163	4599.11
Man. of Chemicals & Petroleum.	172	31040.5	254	83827.6	340	98495.2	463	100875
Man. of Construction Materials.	281	15399.7	337	19519.5	399	20129.66	464	21169.1
Basic Metal Industries	5	4190.3	7	4204.03	9	4247.43	15	4371.9
Man. of Fabricated Metal Production. & Equipment.	322	8233.5	450	10901.2	585	14101.67	685	15457.6
Other Manufacturing Industries.	24	569.8	39	776.87	52	874.05	59	933.75
Transportation & Storage.	19	391.4	19	391.37	19	391.37	19	391.37
Total	1196	70658.7	1583	132962	2013	152166.8	2476	163180

Source: Ministry of Industrial & Electricity (1996). Industrial Statistics Bulletin.

The Saudi Arabian Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC) plays a central role in encouraging private sector participation in the nation's economic growth. Established in 1976 by the government as a share holding company with an initial capital of $3.5 bn, SABIC quickly became the backbone of Saudi Arabia's successful industrialisation. By 1994, SABIC had 15 major plants operating in the industrial cities of Jubail, Yanbu and Jeddah, and a 16th under construction, with an annual production of 13 million tons of chemicals, plastics, industrial gases, steel and other metals. Some of these products are sold on the domestic and international markets; others are used as feed stock by secondary and support industries to produce consumer goods. These industries, all owned and operated by the private sector, produce variety of consumer and industrial goods (SABIC, 1995).

A prominent feature of the present stage of industrialisation is the involvement of joint venture programmes. Saudi Aramco, which was formed in 1988 to take control of the nationalised Aramco assets, succeeded in 1989 in securing a joint venture with Texaco, whereby it gained access to a refining and marketing network spanning 26 states in the southern and eastern USA. In 1991 it acquired a 35% equity interest in South Korea's largest refining company, Ssangyong Oil (*The Middle East and North Africa Year Book*, 1998).

In 1974, the Saudi Industrial Development Fund (SIDF) was the first government agency set up to provide interest-free soft loans to enable Saudi businessmen to establish industrial plants. By 1995, the fund had lent a total of SR 55.6 bn. These loans can be used to finance up to 50 per cent of the capital for a new factory. Since it was founded, the Saudi Agricultural Bank has provided SR 28.1 bn worth of loans for agricultural projects, farm machinery and production requirements. The Public Investment Fund, established in 1971, offers credit to public and semi-public

corporations. By 1995, loan commitment equalled approximately SR 55bn (SAIC, 1996).Private entrepreneurs also have access to government information systems specifically created to help local manufactures target the best market for their products. Government agencies provide free consulting and support services and publish lists of investment opportunities for the production of goods in demand in Saudi Arabia.

Government tenders also give priority to locally manufactured products and to Saudi companies. Saudi industries are also exempted from paying customs duties on the import of machinery and supplies used in the production of goods domestically. To facilitate the transfer of technology and expand the operations of the private sector, the government also provides various incentives to foreign companies that enter into joint ventures with Saudi firms (Ministry of Industry, 1989).

Table 3.6: Exports of national industries during the period from 1985-1995).

Industrial Sector	1985/86	1988/89	1991/92	1994/95
Engineering & Metal Ind.	195.4	416.6	587.6	1323
Chemical & Drinks Ind.	173.8	985.1	875.2	1270
Foodstuffs & Drinks Ind.	121.2	236.1	1029.1	1062
Textile & Leather Ind.	49.5	130.9	26.7	366
Paper & by-Products Ind.	7.0	241.1	193.4	213
Other Miscellaneous Ind.	60.00	82	337.6	1202
Total of Manufacturing Industry Export.	606.9	2091.8	3049.6	5436
SABIC Exports.	2380.4	9170.7	7512.1	9990
Total	2987.3	11262.5	10561.7	15426

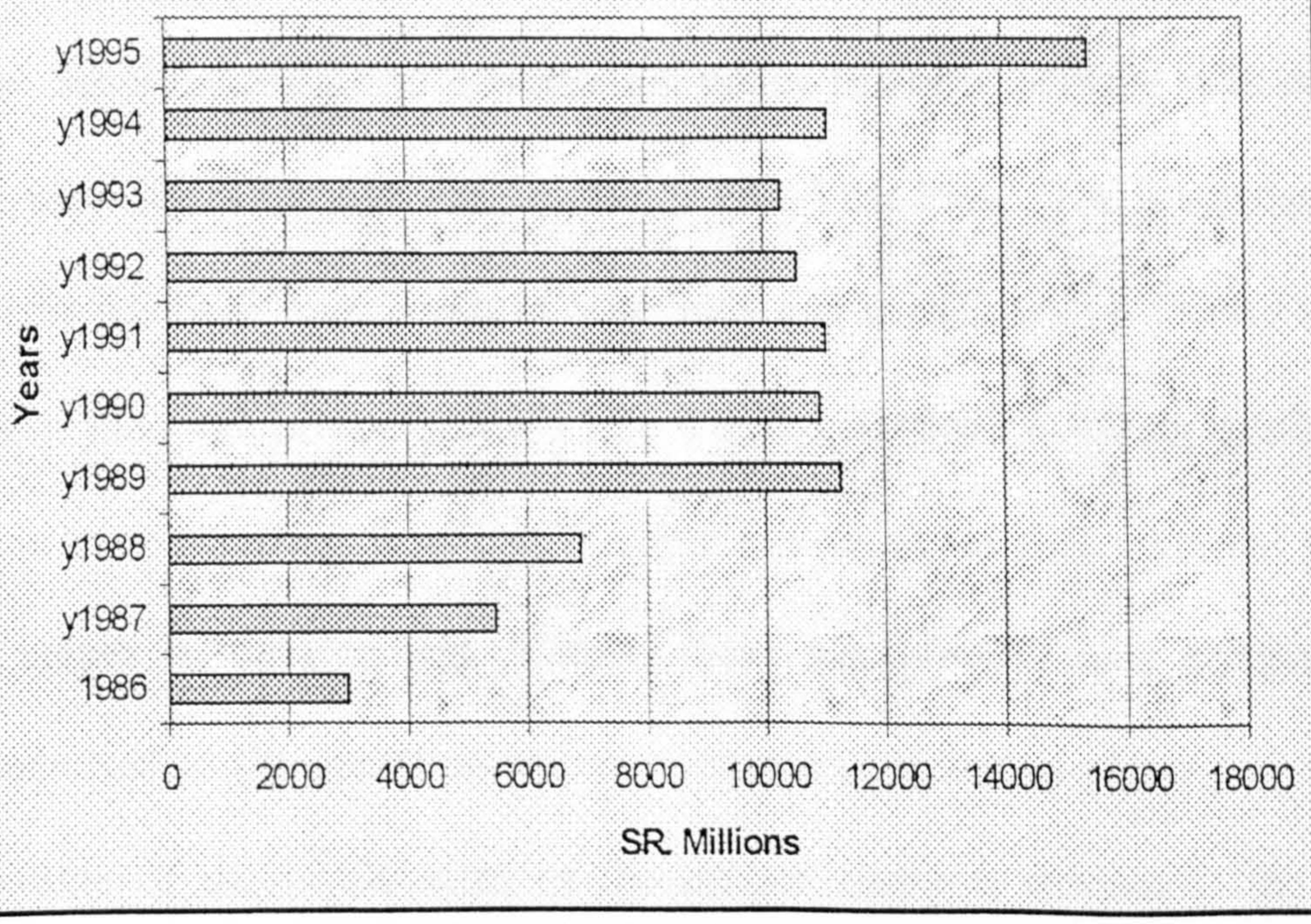
Source: Ministry of Industry & Electricity (1996). Industrial Statistics Bulletin.
Note: *This information does not include exports of oil & its by-products ,natural gas, minerals & mines.*

During the period 1970-1996, the number of manufacturing industries in both government and private sectors continued to grow remarkably – from 199 factories

employing 14,000 workers to 2,476 factories employing 224,877 workers. Capital investment increased more than 54 times during the same period, rising from SR 2.8 billion to SR 151.2 billion (SAIC, 1996).

Table 3.5 indicates the increase in the number of productive factories under the Protection and Encouragement of National Industries Law and the Foreign Capital Investment Law according to years of starting production and industrial sectors during the period 1983-1996. The number of factories, which in 1984 was only 1,196, rose to reach 2,476 at the end of 1996, an increase of 130%.

Figure 3.6 Manufacturing Industry Exports According to Years186-1995.



Source: Ministry of Industry & Electricity (1996). Industrial Statistics Bulletin.

The same table also shows that the total financing amount for all factories at the end of 1984 was SR 70658.7 million; this rose by 206% to reach at the end of year 1996 SR 163180 million (Ministry of Industry, 1996).

In spite of the short time of the Saudi private sector's experience in exporting, the revenues of Saudi exports from the national industry during the period from 1985-1995 witnessed significant progress. The exports of the manufacturing industries increased from SR 606.9 million to SR 5436 millions, an increase of 796%, and SABIC exports increased to SR 7609.6 millions (see Table & Figure 3.6).

The industrial sector as a whole was expected to grow at an average annual rate of 4.9 per cent during the Sixth Plan, with petrochemical industries growing at an average annual rate of 8.3 per cent, oil refining at 3.9 percent and other manufacturing at 4.9 percent (SAIC, 1996).

3.6.3 Privatisation:

The Saudi industrial and privatisation policy has been pursued with consistency and single-mindedness through the successive Five-Year Plans. The involvement of the private sector has been tremendous in magnitude and sophistication. During the Fourth Development Plan, the private sector's role was not confined to taking small shares of construction subcontracting from big Western companies, as was a normal practice in the early stages of development. Rather, more sophisticated new companies were formed, dedicated to the operation and maintenance of industrial plants and equipment. The magnitude of the involvement of the private sector is evident in the increased investment in agriculture; the rapid growth of high quality medical services at privately owned hospitals; and the increased investment in consumer goods industries to meet the growing needs of the population. In fact it has developed in all economic activities. In capital terms, private non-oil sector investment increased from SR2.4 bn. in 1973 to SR23.2 bn. in 1980, representing a growth rate of 46 percent/annum in value terms. Since 1980 the share of private sector investment has risen steadily. In 1986/87 it

reached 47%, which for the first time was higher than public investment (Presley and Westaway, 1989).

The Fifth Development Plan (1990-1995) emphasised strengthening the growing private sector and increasing the efficiency of the industrial sector. In this plan, it was envisaged that the private sector would take over on a commercial basis many of the services formerly provided by the government. It was estimated to account for about 77 percent of the value added in the producing/services sectors, 58 percent of the non-oil GDP, and 38 percent of total GDP in 1989/90, and was projected to increase its share of value added during the Fifth Plan in real terms by 0.3 percent in the producing/service sectors, about three percent in the non-oil GDP, and about two percent in total GDP. These shares, it was suggested, could be considerably increased by implementation of a privatisation process (Ministry of Planning, 1990).

During the five year period ending 1993, the oil sector contributed an average of 35% of nominal GDP and 75% of government revenues. The contribution of the private sector to total GDP was around 38% and that of the government sector 27%. Even though annual rates of growth in the government sector dropped from an average of 19.5% in 1990-91to 3.8% in 1992 and 3% in 1993-1994, nominal growth in the private sector continued at around 6% in 1992 and 5.1% in 1993-94 (Montagu, 1994).

The Sixth Development Plan gave priority to the resumption of moderately rapid but steady economic growth and achievement of internal and external balances through the progressive elimination of both the budget deficit and the current account deficit. These priorities were pursued through the continued structural diversification of the kingdom's economy, in order to create more employment opportunities for Saudi nationals, and the development of practical policies for privatisation and alternative

methods of financing some government services. The Sixth Development Plan also ascribed to the private sector an important role in the development of the national economy. The main themes of the Sixth Plan were increase the rate at which non-Saudis are being replaced by Saudi nationals (Saudization), the opening up of more opportunities for private sector investment and the achievement of greater economic efficiency in the government and private sectors.

More specifically, the steady expansion of the economy throughout the Sixth Plan was supported by a broad range of fiscal, regulatory and institutional measures to which a positive response from the private sector was anticipated. These measures included:

- A pronounced shift in the government budget from consumption to investment expenditure.
- Providing opportunities for private sector investment through the gradual and selective use of alternative financing options and privatisation initiatives.
- The mobilisation of the private sector's financial assets by broadening the domestic capital market.
- Reducing the number of low-skilled workers and increasing the capability of the Saudi labour force in order to realise productivity improvements (SAIC,1996).

In fact, privatisation programmes were expected to increase private sector investment in the economy; increase economic efficiency and innovation; increase competition; reduce subsidies; and encourage a wider distribution of ownership of economic resources. To summarise, the goal of private sector development in the last

two Development Plans (Fifth and Sixth) was not just to achieve faster growth; more importantly, it was to build the foundation to support a much more broadly based, stronger, efficient, and competitive private sector for the future (Ministry of Planning, 1996).

Privatisation, which has been talked about in Saudi Arabia for some years, may now become more of a reality, as the government either contracts out activities, sells parts of government stock to the private sector or de-monopolises services. Recently, privatisation is on the agenda of the Saudi Arabian Airlines (Saudia). The same applies to the telecommunication system and electricity companies. Saudi Public Transportation Company, postal services, education and health services are also potential organisations for privatisation. An increase in the private sector share in SABIC to 75 percent is already being planned.

3.7 Conclusion:

The aim of this chapter was to highlight the socio-cultural and economic, as well as the physical environments of Saudi Arabian society. The scope of this chapter was concentrated on three important topics, namely, the physical and demographic aspects of the country; the historical and social aspects of Saudi society; and finally the factors thought essential to the development of the modern Saudi Arabia represented by the economy, the five year development plans and some aspects of education in the country, especially general and technical education.

Saudi Arabia as it is known today is the country created in 1932 by the late King Ibn Saud. The salient physical feature of Saudi Arabia is that it is a huge desert country that covers an area of 2.2m. Sq. km. located in the Arabian peninsula in Southwest Asia. The people of the country, some 17m in number, are mostly homogeneous, and speak

Arabic. The religion of the country is Islam, whose laws are applied in everyday life. Religion is understood to be the fundamental motivating factor in most aspects of the Arab culture.

Arab values and norms are a blend of religion and the nomadic life style. In the Arab culture the family plays a major role in forming values and beliefs. Family ties are strongly preserved and loyalty to family exceeds any other obligation. Therefore, the interests of the family always prevail over those of the individual. The life Arabs have enjoyed for hundreds of years has formed a distinctive set of values and traditions. These values and traditions are found to affect greatly the way Arabs go about their day to day affairs.

It is widely accepted that the way people behave at the workplace and their attitudes towards the work in general are greatly influenced by the learning process in the wider society. These values form a network; one value cannot be singled out to be the dominating one. However, in this study some values have been identified to be more influential than the others in forming Saudi nationals' views and attitudes towards some kinds of work, like industrial and vocational work. These values and traditions, some of which were indicated in this chapter, can be said to be: interpersonal relationships; hospitality and generosity; fatalism; and use of time. These values have indirect influences in the formation of people's attitudes to some kinds of work.

One of the key goals of the country is to diversify the economy and reduce the dependency on the single commodity of oil. Undoubtedly oil has facilitated the development of the kingdom, and has helped a great deal in bringing about otherwise remote goals. Since the emergence of the country, the economy has relied heavily on oil. In the last three five-year development plans, diversification of the economy has been dominant. Many ways to attain this aim have been suggested. Chief amongst them are industrialisation and the enlargement of the private sector's role in most industries.

Agriculture is one of the industries that have sustained a steady growth. Soft loans and subsidies to farmers have achieved this. As a result, agricultural exports accounted for about 40% of non-oil exports in 1988. The annual growth rate rose from 3.6% during the First development Plan to 13.8% during the Fourth Plan. Despite what seems a bright picture, agricultural policies have faced severe criticism regarding the high consumption rate of the non-renewable aquifers from which farmers draw most of their water supply.

To ensure a well-planned preparation of national human resources, together with the need to build a developed country, long and short-term strategic plans were necessary. This was realised early in the 1960s, and the introduction of the first five-year plan commenced in the year 1970. The six plans already completed have helped a great deal to set up a framework for achieving the overall policies of the authorities.

The cornerstone of human resources development is education. Education (general and technical) is given considerable attention by the Saudi authorities, as shown by the huge amount of capital invested which amounted to SR 25 billion. (or 18% of the total national budget) in 1990 alone. Education has helped in qualifying Saudis to fill thousands of occupations, particularly in the government sector.

Civil employments increased sharply form 1.75m. in 1975 to 5.77m. in 1991. The percentage of expatriate workforce to the total also increased from 41.3 in 1975, to reach 48.8 in 1985. Irrespective of this increase, expatriate participation in the government sector has dropped substantially. The increase was due to the huge expansion of the private and semi-private sectors. One major drawback of this sector is the acute shortage of Saudis employed in it. A resent study shows that only 7.5% of the total work force of the private manufacturing sector are Saudis. This includes all positions of employment. Expectedly, the overwhelming majority of the Saudi are in

managerial and clerical positions. A number of reasons for this imbalance have been laid down in the body of this chapter. For a more balanced picture of employment in this sector a number of drastic measures have to be adopted and implemented by the authorities. Some of these actions are also discussed where relevant.

CHAPTER----------4

SAUDI LABOUR FORCE,

SAUDIZATION, AND LABOUR MARKET.

4.1 Saudi Arabia's Labour Force.

4.2 Saudization.

4.3 Saudi Labour Market.

CHAPTER FOUR: SAUDI LABOUR FORCE, SAUDIZATION, AND LABOUR MARKET.

Introduction

This chapter aims to place the present study in context by providing background information on the labour force, Saudization and labour market in Saudi Arabia. The chapter begins by considering the growth of the Saudi labour force and the efforts made to develop manpower in Saudi Arabia.

The following part was explains the policy of *Saudization* (the process of increasing indigenous labour force participation in order to reduce dependence on foreign manpower) and its application in Saudi Arabia in recent years. Attention is paid to some obstacles that still face the government in achieving its goals of *Saudization* of the labour force, particularly in the private sector.

The last part of this chapter discusses the labour market in Saudi Arabia, in relation to the country's economic structure, labour market structure and labour market policies and challenges.

4.1 Saudi Arabia's Labour Force:

Labour force, a term variously defined in different countries and by different authorities such as the International Labour Office (ILO, 1967), is most generally accepted to encompass all those who are employed by others or work for themselves

and those who are seeking employment. According to Marshall (Oxford Dictionary of Sociology, 1998), this concept refers to the number of people (over 16 or the working age 16-65 years) in work and unemployment and those seeking work, as a proportion of a specified baseline population.

In Saudi Arabia, the concept of labour force, before the discovery of oil, was limited in application and did not exhibit a clear division of classes, as was the case in western societies. The great majority of the people were engaged in traditional types of employment or self-employment. The physical environment of the country reinforced the social and economic patterns of unsettled nomadic life for the majority of the population. There was no strong central government, no complex division of labour or large economic institutions, and no formation of a working class dependent on wage labour. However, with the discovery of oil in 1938, Saudi economic activities faced the dawn of economic transformation that would make the oil industry the real backbone of the Saudi economic system.

In Saudi Arabia, the labour force has a number of unique aspects. The most obvious difference between Saudi Arabia's workforce and that of most other countries is the relative size of the expatriate labour force. There are roughly as many foreigners as natives working in Saudi Arabia. Second, the number of women in the labour force is quite small, compared to the labour forces of the rest of the world. A third difference is the rate at which the domestic labour force is being transformed, a phenomenon which reflects overall economic changes (Johany, 1986).

4.1.1 Growth of the Labour force:

The beginning of the formation of the waged labour force was with ARAMCO, the first employer to plant the seeds of a new working class in Saudi Arabia; and Saudi manpower amounted the majority of ARAMCO'S total employees (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1. Saudi Arabian Operations Manpower History in ARAMCO.

Year	Saudi	%	Non-Saudi	%	Total
1935	115	81.6	26	18.4	141
1940	2668	87.5	382	12.5	3050
1945	8037	71.5	3159	28.5	11196
1950	10767	63.8	6099	36.2	16866
1955	13371	65.1	7163	34.9	20534
1987	*33046	76.0	10435	24.0	43481

Source: Viola, J. W. 1985. Human Resources Development in Saudi Arabia. P.7
*: ARAMCO Annual Reports 1987:28.

Although these figures represented a tiny fraction of the total Saudi population, the effect of the oil industry was of enough magnitude to attract many Saudis' not only for oil production, but also for other related job activities, such as railroad construction, services, and small manufacturing. However, the discovery of oil, initially, had a minimal effect on society as a whole, so that during the decades of the 1940s through 1960s the Saudi labour force was limited to oil production and other minor economic activities (Alogla, 1990).

During the early years of planned development, it was apparent that the Kingdom's population and the size of its national work force were insufficient to meet

the total manpower requirements of the rapidly developing economy. Recognising this constraint, the development strategy in the early phase opted for importing as many expatriate workers as were needed to facilitate achievement of the Kingdom's development objectives.

However, the decade of 1970s can be looked upon as an unusual era in the history of Saudi Arabia. In it, the implementation of the first two five-year development plans paved the road for a new epoch of industrialisation. In this decade, the foundations of the economic infrastructure were established, such as home and building construction, roads, airports, petrochemical industries, energy production, communication networks, water distillation, schools, and hospitals. The full range of human needs was addressed in these developments. Two factors made these achievements possible: capital from the Saudi government and a labour force imported from outside the country. Thereafter, reliance on imported foreign labour increased dramatically year on year. As a result, from the beginning of the Second Plan (1975-1980) to the end of the Third Plan (1980-1985), over 3 million expatriate workers were added to the labour force (Alogla, 1990).

In the 1970s the majority of foreign workers in Saudi Arabia were from regional Arab countries. Quite a large proportion were Yemenis, who were working in Saudi Arabia without work permits until 1990, when a large group of them decided to leave Saudi Arabia before and during Iraq's invasion of Kuwait in 1991. Smaller, but quite important, groups are from other Arab countries: Egyptians, Palestinians, Lebanese and Syrians. These are disproportionately represented in the professions.

The proportion of Arab immigrant labour in Saudi Arabia, however, has declined steadily since the end of the 1970s. Several reasons have been suggested given for this:

1. The rapid increase in the rate of development after 1973 found the traditional Arab-exporting countries increasingly unable to send more workers abroad. Jordan, for instance, had nearly one-third of its labour force outside the country. Thus, Saudi employers were increasingly obliged to look elsewhere. Shortage of available Arab labour forced the Saudis to tap other labour pools.

2. The massive increase in the number of foreign workers made the Saudis apprehensive over the political and social implications stemming from the imbalance between indigenous and foreign labour. The creation of a fast-growing population of effectively second-class citizens (the Saudis are extremely reluctant to grant citizenship to immigrants) was felt to be too risky in terms of possible social strains and political turbulence.

The Saudis apparently felt that immigrants from radicalised Arab states presented a particular menace - hence the Saudi preference in the latter half of the 1970s for immigrants effectively isolated from the indigenous population by their inability to speak Arabic or engage in religious activities (Birks and Sinclair, 1980).

Increasingly, the Saudis adopted the practice of controlled labour contracts whereby foreign workers are brought into the Kingdom for stipulated periods of time on specific jobs, under block visas. Many Yemenis have entered on this basis and are increasing as a percentage of the foreign work force.

The substitution of Asians for Arab workers has been the major change in geographic composition since 1975, with the proportion of immigrant labourers brought in from the Far East and the Indian subcontinent growing from less than 5 percent in 1975 to 30 percent by 1980 (Loony, 1982).

The largest group (non-Arab workers) in Saudi Arabia is from the Indian subcontinent: Pakistanis, Indians, Bangladeshis and Sri Lankans. In addition to these are numerous Koreans, Thais, and Filipinos, and a lesser but substantial number of Japanese, Taiwanese and Westerners.

Each group tends to provide a disproportionate amount of a specific type of labour. Koreans are almost entirely construction workers. Westerners are found almost entirely at management levels. Thais, Filipinos, and those from the Indian subcontinent are concentrated in service industries (a large number of Pakistanis and Indians hold clerical positions). The composition of the expatriate work force is subject to rapid change in Saudi Arabia. For example, the first Korean workers arrived in 1975, and the first Sri Lankans in 1977 (Johany, 1986).

In line with the overall development of the country, the size of the labour force (Saudi & Non-Saudi) has for a long time maintained a steady increase. In 1975, for example, the civilian labour force amounted to 1.923m. This number had reached 3.2m. in 1980 and 4.34 in 1985. The total civilian employment in 1990 reached about 5.772m., and by 1995 had increased to 5.98m.(see Table 4.2). In the same year, the Ministry of Interior estimated the expatriate population at 6.2m, drawn from different countries (the Middle East and North Africa: Year Book, 1998).

Table 4.2 Saudi & Non-Saudi Labour Force Increase, 1975-1995 (thousands of workers).

	1975	%	1980	%	1985	%	1990	%	1995	%
Saudi	1439.7	74.8	1818.7	47.3	1621.1	37.3	1923.2	33.3	2357.1	39.4
Non-Saudi	484.0	25.2	1694	52.7	2721	62.7	3848.6	66.7	3628.2	60.6
Total	1923.7	100	3512.7	100	4342.1	100	5771.8	100	5985.3	100

Source: 1-GCC Secretariat-General (1987), Economic Review, p. 248.
2-Ministry of Planning (1996). Sixth Development Plan (1995-2000), Saudi Arabia.

Despite the massive efforts made, during the Development Plans, to increase the supply of qualified Saudis through rapid expansion of the education and training systems, and although the size of the foreign labour force participation in the government sector has significantly diminished, Saudi Arabia still relies to a large extent on a foreign work force which is of higher quality than its Saudi counterpart.

One of the problems hindering the Saudi labour force is the limited participation of women in all economic sectors. In fact, deliberate planning freezes and limits this huge social resource. Shabon (1981: 55) sums up how the Saudi economic system ignores women and restricts their role: "*In spite of the increasing demand for labour, about one half of the Saudi population does not participate in economic activities outside the home. The female labour force in urban areas contributes only about one percent to the economy. This small percentage works only in social institutions. Rural women participate more in providing a livelihood for the family, but their low productivity reduces their share in the total national product.*"

Table 4.3 Saudi Working Age Population and Civilian Labour Force.

		1989/90	1994/95	Net Increase 1990-1995	Average Annual Growth Rate (%)
Working age population (000) Saudis.	Males	3223.7	3937.6	713.9	4.1
	Females	3200.5	3909.1	708.6	4.1
	Total	6424.2	7846.7	1422.5	4.1
Labour Force participation Rate (%).	Males	54.4	54.4		
	Females	5.3	5.5		
	Total	29.9	30.0		
Civilian Labour Force (000)	Males	1754.3	2142.1	387.8	4.1
	Females	168.9	215.0	46.1	4.9
	Sub-total				
	Saudi	1923.2	2357.1	433.9	4.2
	Non-Saudis	3848.6	3628.2	-220.4	-1.2
	Total	5771.8	5985.3	213.5	1.25

Source: Ministry of Planning (1990). Fifth Development Plan, Saudi Arabia

The percentage of working females within the total working population is shown in Table 4.2 as 5.3% compared to 54.4% for males (Ministry of Planning, 1990). One of the Fifth Development Plan's objectives was to increase Saudi participation in the private sector and to increase the participation of women in the work force. This is illustrated in Table 4.3. Total Saudi employment was projected to increase by 4.2% per year, while non-Saudi employment was expected to decline at a 1.2% annual rate. Employment growth for Saudi women was targeted to be higher than for Saudi men. Although total employment was targeted to increase by 213,500, the

Saudi labour force was projected to grow by 433,900 over the Fifth Plan period. Therefore, a reduction of 220,400 in the size of the non-Saudi labour force was expected.

The majority of working women at the present time work in the public sector, mainly for two particular organisations, the General Presidency for Girls' Education and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. The total segregation between the sexes makes it virtually impossible for women to find suitable jobs in the wider community. Women's participation in private sector organisations is almost non-existent.

In sum, there are several reasons for the number of expatriate workers in Saudi Arabia. First, their increase was due to the growth of the private sector. Second, the Saudi population is relatively small, but more importantly many Saudis are inadequately trained for the existing work demands. Third, employment of women is severely restricted because of traditional customs and religious beliefs. Fourth, many types of work are negatively valued. Fifth, the population is mainly young; around 60% of Riyadh's population, for instance, is under 20 years of age in 1991(Riyadh Development Authority, 1992).

4.1.2 Development of Manpower:

Planning is an essential task, especially for the underdevelopment countries or those in the process of developing, such as Saudi Arabia. Economic planning cannot reach its objectives unless combined with planning for manpower development that can meet the requirement of economic development. It is useless to establish factories without preparing the manpower to operate them efficiently.

Economists realised long ago that development must mean a combination of economic and social change along with manpower and educational planning. Many believe that human capital is often the most beneficial kind and that it provides the best return of any investment. Regarding this belief, Harbison and Myers (1965, p. ix) state:

"The wealth of a country is based upon its power to develop and to effectively utilise the innate capacity of its people. The economic development of nations, therefore, is ultimately the result of human effort...Indeed, if a country is unable to develop its human resources, it cannot build anything else, whether it be a modern political system, a sense of national unity, or a prosperous economy".

Harbison and Myers (1965, p. v) also stress the importance of manpower: "*The building of modern nations depends upon the development of people and the organisation of human activity. Capital, natural resources; foreign and international trade, of course play important roles in economic growth; but none is more important than manpower".*

Palmer (1950) discussed this problem and points out that these states depend heavily on exporting raw materials, but they do not possess the productive capacity of industrialised states. Consequently, they are dependent upon foreign labour; and they are not developing a truly diversified economy based upon the skills of their own subjects.

The International Labour Organisation (ILO, 1965, p. vii) stressed the fact that the human factor is the most important element affecting the development of society. It states that: "*There is great insight into the importance of the human factor in development, and the urgent need to mobilise human resources. Economic growth in the advanced countries appears to be attributable in larger part than was previously*

supposed to human skills rather than to capital. Moreover, the widening of man's horizons through education and training, and the lifting of his vitality through better health are not only essential pre-conditions for development, they are also among its major objectives".

Not so long ago, manpower in Saudi Arabia was characterised by being largely expatriate, even in the government sector. Since the emergence of the country the government has recruited as many Saudis as possible, but Saudi manpower was not qualified enough to assume a new structured life style to meet the requirements of government as well as private employment, which demanded discipline and education.

King Faisal was once reported as saying, "*While we can import factories and equipment, our real needs are to train the local human element to use this equipment*" (MEEC, 1972 p. 33). Since then, development economists have repeatedly stressed that the key to Saudi Arabia's economic future is the development of its manpower resources.

The efforts made by Saudi planners to prepare the manpower required to meet the development prerogatives, both social and economic, have not been limited to formal education but were also deployed for the promotion of those training programmes most relevant to the Saudi' needs.

To meet the manpower needs of the Kingdom in the long term and the increasing demand for higher education, sixteen universities and colleges have been established, offering subjects from engineering, medicine, and geology to social and Islamic Studies. The Sixth Development Plan (1995-2000) targets for female and male graduates in general education and graduates at bachelor degree level by university are presented in Tables 4.3 & 4.4.

Table 4.4 Sixth Plan Targets for Male and Female Graduates In General Education (thousands).

Stage	*1994*		*1995*		*1996*		*1997*		*1998*		*1999*		*Total*	
Male & Female	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Elementary	141	135	144	143	148	152	150	163	153	171	157	181	893	945
Intermediate	89	79	92	89	95	95	97	105	101	113	104	125	578	606
Secondary	40	51	43	55	47	59	51	64	56	70	61	77	298	376
Teacher College	4	6	5	7	5	8	6	10	6	11	6	12	32	54

Source: Ministry of Planning, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia 1995.

Table 4.5 Sixth Plan Targets: Higher Education New Entrants and Graduates at Bachelor Level by University (1995-1999)

	New Entrants			Graduates		
University	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
King Saudi University.	26,000	14,595	40,595	21,880	9,730	31,610
King Abdul Aziz U.	27,176	17,936	45,112	15,002	12,970	27,972
King Faisal Uniersity	6,833	4,538	11,371	3,418	3,129	6,547
King Fahd University	6,000	--------	6,000	3,322	------	3,322
Islamic University	5,990	--------	5,990	3,322	------	3.322
Imam University	33,280	7,285	40,565	24,515	4,085	28,600
Umm AL- Qura Uni.	10,825	9,195	20,020	6,945	6,340	13,285
Girls' Colleges	------	75,396	75,396	-------	50,885	50,885
Total	116,104	128,945	245,049	79,382	87,139	166,521

Source: Ministry of Planning, Sixth Development Pan (1995-2000), Saudi Arabia.

Substantial progress has also been made in the field of technical education and vocational training through the establishment of well-equipped and properly-staffed training institutes. The formation of a skilled Saudi labour force raises productivity levels and thereby makes important contribution to economic development. The Saudi government has exerted tremendous efforts to expand the Kingdom's vocational training system, both quantitatively and qualitatively, to meet the challenges of economic development and technological change.

Beginning with the First Five Year Development Plan in 1970, the Kingdom started building specialised schools to meet the growing need for highly skilled technical manpower in all of the nation's expanding industries. Several programmes have been put in place at government and private levels to train young people with aptitudes for work in specific trades or occupations. Both the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs have allocated significant resources to these efforts, as have regional chambers of commerce and industry, as well as the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT).

The GOTEVT (1989) stated that the general objectives of technical education are to:

- "Prepare the individual for performing the required activities in the industrial, commercial and agricultural fields as well as the services that help to develop national economy through working in public establishments, ministries, private sectors companies, or free work.
- Provide the individual with the Islamic and general culture that helps to form a high moral standard, strong belief, and the ability of thinking and mutual understanding as well as adaptation to different conditions.
- Offer a broad scientific base for technical manpower to increase individual response to rapid technological progress.

- Allow every person the opportunity to learn a trade or to continue training according to his mental and physical abilities. This is known as "open training" scale.
- Develop technicians' skills and upgrade their vocational knowledge continuously.
- Emphasise the dignity of manual work and its role in the development of society.
- Stop the internal migration to big cities by spreading vocational training centres throughout the Kingdom" (pp 34-35).

In the following sections a brief description of higher and secondary technical education, and vocational training provided by the GOTEVT will be presented.

4.1.2.1 Higher and Secondary Technical Education.

1- Higher Technical Education:

The General Organisation for Technical and Vocational Training currently provides higher technical education in its Junior Colleges of Technology for both industrial and commercial studies. In the past, this type of education was offered in two separate establishments, that is, in the two Higher Institutes for Financial and Commercial Studies established in 1975 in Riyadh and 1977 in Jeddah- for commercial and general secondary school graduates – and in the Higher Institute which was established in 1972 in Riyadh, for industrial and general secondary (science section) graduates. In 1982, the Junior Colleges of Technology were established in Riyadh. In 1993 the Higher Institutes for Financial and Commercial Studies were merged with the Junior Colleges of Technology to be under one establishment (Ministry of Planning 1994).

The aim of this type of education is to prepare highly skilled technical manpower to meet the growing demands of this type of expertise, and also to create new opportunities for higher technical education in the Kingdom (GOTEVT, 1993). The duration of study in higher technical education is two years, and it is based on the credit system in which the student should complete 90 credits, spread over four semesters. At the end of every semester there is a theoretical examination. In addition, there is a practical examination at the end of each year. The study in these colleges consists of lectures, laboratory work, and workshop training. There are six colleges of this kind all over the Kingdom. They offer courses in various fields of specialisations such as mechanical technology, electrical technology, electronic technology, oil and minerals technology, auto/engine technology, computer accounting, and office management (GOTEVT, 1990 &1993).

2- Secondary technical education.

1- Secondary Industrial Education:

The aim of industrial education is to prepare the required manpower to perform different industrial jobs in the fields of mechanical engineering, electricity, industrial electronics, radio and television, and petrochemicals. Industrial education was established long before the establishment of the GOTEVT. It has passed through many stages of development and changes. The first school of this type was established in the city of Jeddah by King Abdulaziz in 1949 under the name *The Industrial School*. The duration of study was three years, for graduates of primary school age 12 to 14 (GOTEVT, 1989). As a result of the poor performance of its students, the duration of study was extended to five years. In 1962 the Industrial School was changed to an *Intermediate Industrial School* for the same age group. Between 1949 and 1973 nine

intermediate industrial schools were established in different parts of Saudi Arabia. A few years later these school were upgraded to a secondary level. There are now eight technical industrial secondary institutes all over the Kingdom. They admit students who hold the Intermediate Education Certificate (age 16 +). The duration of study is three years after which a Diploma of Industrial Secondary Institutes is awarded. During this period trainees can choose from a variety of specialisation in these institutes which cover most of the technical sections, such as Mechanics, Electricity, Auto Mechanics, and Electronics. Upon completion, students are allowed to continue their industrial studies in the Higher Colleges of Technology.

Statistics show that the performance of industrial education is not impressive in respect of the number of graduates. Comparing the total number of industrial education applicants during the period 1969 to 1992 to the number of graduates in the same period, there was a large number of dropouts. Of 80,370 students who joined industrial education, only 17,995 of them (24.4%) graduated (Murtada, 1996).

2- Secondary Commercial Education:

Commercial education in Saudi Arabia aims at preparing and qualifying manpower to perform office and commercial jobs and organise related production and distribution, business, finance and commercial work for both the public and private sectors. It started with four intermediate commercial schools in 1960 for primary graduates (age 12-14) (Ministry of Education, 1986; GOTEVT, 1993). Later on, these Institutes were upgraded to the secondary level and their number was increased. During the period 1972-1979 fifteen commercial secondary institutes were established the number has remains the same to the present.

These institutes offer a variety of subjects, such as accounting and bookkeeping; administration, secretarial correspondence and typing; banking transactions; purchasing and warehousing; sale and purchase transactions; collection and cash affairs and computers. They admit students who hold the Intermediate Education Certificate or equivalent (age 16+). The duration of study is three years. Secondary commercial education offers training in morning and evening sessions for employed persons and others who want to upgrade their qualifications and experience. Those who successfully complete the study are awarded the Secondary Commercial Education Certificate.

Statistics indicate that the performance of commercial education in respect of students / graduates ratios is as weak as that of industrial education. The total number of applicants who joined the secondary commercial schools in the period 1981 to 1992 was 83,336, while the number of graduates was only 19,732 students, i.e. 23.7% (Mortada, 1996).

3- Secondary Agricultural Education:

Agricultural education aims at preparing trained manpower to meet agricultural needs and to develop this field, especially in the rural areas. It is worth noting that the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was not an agricultural country. Nevertheless in 1955 efforts were made to establish the first agricultural school in the city of Al Kharj. At that time the Ministry of Agriculture was responsible for supervising this school. In 1957, this responsibility was transferred to the Ministry of Education. This school was abolished later because of the small number of applicants. In 1960 the Ministry of Education established five Intermediate Agricultural Schools in different part of Saudi Arabia. Those schools were also closed because of the small number of applicants and the

weak performance of their graduates. In 1977 the Model Technical Agricultural Institute was established in Buraidah and in 1992 another institute was established in the Wadi Adwaser area.

The duration of study in these institutes is three years after the General Intermediate Education. Those who successfully complete the course are awarded the Agricultural Secondary Education Diploma (GOTEVT, 1993). The agricultural Institutes provide training in three fields: Agricultural production (plant production, plant protection, water, irrigation and drainage, crops, bee keeping); Animal husbandry (animal production, pisciculture, milk production, poultry, meat production, animal health, animal breeding), and Agricultural machinery (agricultural industries, horticulture, agricultural mechanisation, agricultural guidance, and architectural drawing) (GOTEVT, 1989 & 1993).

4. *Secondary Technical Supervisors Institutes:*

The need for more houses and roads became urgent in the 1970s. Due to the oil boom, many expatriates from all over the world came to Saudi on a contractual basis to implement certain development projects: these numbers had to be accommodated and fed. Therefore, the concentration of government planning on infrastructure became necessary. As a result the Secondary Technical Supervisors Institutes became the primary supplier of required manpower. The aim was to supply the market with national qualified workers in the field of survey, construction, and environment (GOTEVT, 1993). The first institute of this kind was established in 1964 in Riyadh, another was established in Abha in 1977 and finally a third one was in established Tabuk in 1983. These Institutes were called Technical Assistants Institutes, and the duration of study then was two years.

After the establishment of GOTEVT, the duration of study was extended in 1985 to three years for General Intermediate Certificate holders; the graduates awarded the Secondary Technical Supervisors Institute Certificate. There are at present five such institutes. They provide training courses on surveying, construction, architectural drawing, road construction, water supply, sanitary work and hydrology.

The total number of students who joined this type of education in the period between 1981 to 1992 was 8,787 students, but only 2,295 of them graduated i.e. 26%. (Murtada, 1996).

4.1.2.2 Vocational Training:

Vocational training is the other part of training provided by the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training. It was designed for adults to acquire different vocational skills and it did not require a specific type of qualification. Vocational training centres admit those who have completed at least the fifth grade of primary education with minimum age of 17 and maximum of 42 years. The courses in the vocational training centres are offered in the morning and evening sessions. The duration of the morning courses is 14-18 months, according to the nature of the course. The evening courses last for six continuous months. The main objectives of this kind of training are to:

1- Qualify workers to meet industrial requirements.

2- Upgrade the level of ordinary workers to technical workers depending on their trades for their living.

3- Provide work opportunities necessary for people not having scientific qualifications, or those who completed limited stage of education.

4- Provide opportunities for employees to join vocational training centres.

5- Create moral and religious values in the trainees, and encourage them to respect manual and vocational work.

6- Meet industry requirements for qualified manpower. (GOTEVT, 1989, p 86).

Vocational training centres offer morning and evening courses which care a variety of trades and crafts such as carpentry, painting, plumbing, welding, aluminium work, commercial and office work, diesel, and sheet metals.

Vocational Training is delivered by three departments: Vocational Training, Pre-vocational Training and On-the-Job Training. Due to the short length of the study, this provision enjoys a large number of both applicants and graduates. The number of trainees who joined the morning and evening programmes in the period 1981 to 1992 was 109,519, while the number of graduates was an impressive 77,134 graduates, i.e. 70.4% (Murtada, 1996).

In order to maintain an instructional staff with the higest qualifications and extensive practical backgrounds, GOTEVT created the Instructors' Training Institute and Institutional Materrials Development Centre (ITI/IMDC). ITI/IMDC seeks to improve the standard of instructors' teaching at all vocational training centres, provide new Saudi instructors for all vocational programmes, develop existing and new training materials, prepare training programmes and undertake research and studies which will improve the curricula.

Technical and vocational training also extends to Saudi women. The Presidency of Girls' Education (PGE) has established 31 schools for such training in the kingdom. During 1995, enrolment at these schools was 3,514 students. Graduates

of these programmes go into both private and public sector jobs in hospitals, schools, banks run by women and other businesses (GOTEVT, 1995).

The Sixth Development Plan (1995-2000), according to one of its targets which is to "*reduce the number of low-skilled workers and increase the capability of the Saudi labour force in order to realise productivity improvements*"(Ministry of Planning, 1995) - will continue to enhance and broaden the main objectives of the previous development plans and meet Saudi Arabia's needs of manpower. Table (4.6) shows the sixth development plan targets for graduates of technical education during the plan period 1994-1999.

Table 4.6 Sixth Plan Growth Targets for Graduates of Technical Education

Field of Study	*1994*	*1995*	*1996*	*1997*	*1998*	*1999*	*Total*
Technical College	1,945	2,147	2,362	2,653	2,985	3,362	15,454
Industrial Secondary Schools	2,100	2,740	2,952	3,189	3,457	3,758	18,196
Commercial Secondary Schools	2,250	2,927	3,220	3,610	4,150	4,943	21,100
Agricultural Secondary Schools	226	303	373	446	521	598	2,467
Technical Supervisors Institute	476	506	576	682	843	1,101	4,184
Electronics Institute	—	—	180	200	230	260	870
Total	6,997	8,623	9,663	10,780	12,186	14,022	62,271

Source: Ministry of Planning, The Sixth Development Plan. (1995-2000)

Today, the national manpower is relatively better educated and trained to the degree that it can run the country's economy efficiently enough. Nevertheless, Saudi Arabia still relies to a large extent on a foreign workforce which is of higher quality

than their Saudi counterparts. In particular, Saudi employment is severely limited in the private sector. The next section will discuss Saudi Arabia's efforts to non-Saudi manpower by Saudis, "*Saudization*".

4.2 Saudization:

The term "*Saudization*" came into being as a new economic term in the late 1970s. Viola (1986, p177) points out that it means to nationalise some economic organisations, as well as to increase the indigenous labour force participation in the local productive market. Since Saudization represents new potential for personal economic advancement, Saudi Arabia's economic planners have made it a buzzword for the nation's human resource development. In theory, it identifies the replacement of expatriate labour with similarly skilled, trained, and highly educated Saudi nationals.

Besides the development of human capital, the Saudization policy included other aspects of development which were meant to nationalise some foreign firms in an indirect way. For example, the Arabian-American Oil Company (ARAMCO) was Saudised so that "*In 1973 the government of Saudi Arabia acquired 25% interest in crude oil concession rights, facilities and production, in 1976 increased to 60% and in 1980 to full 100%*"(Viola, 1985: p 33). The Third Development Plan also increased chances for Saudi participation by stating: "*Priority in awarding contracts for projects will be given to Saudi contractors. When contracts are awarded to foreign contractors, they will have the stipulation that some of the work must be sub-contracted to Saudi companies*" (Third Plan, p.86). Furthermore, a change was effected in the policy of the Saudi Government toward foreign banks. In the late 1970s, the government of Saudi

Arabia started to Saudize the foreign banks by buying their financial assets and increasing the number of Saudi personnel in their operations (Mackey 1988:175).

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the first development plan (1970-1975) recognised the huge shortage of human resources needed to implement development plans. Similarly, it was indicated at the beginning of the second development plan (1975-1980) that a great obstacle which might affect development in Saudi Arabia was the scarcity of Saudi human resources, in terms of both quantity and experience, and in both the public and private sectors. During this period of 1970-1980, the main aim of the government was to encourage Saudi graduates to join the public sector to meet the requirements of the population for administration services, education, health, etc. During that period, not only were graduates given jobs, but other incentives were also offered to all Saudis who participated in these jobs in the public sector.

The Kingdom's Third National Development Plan (1980-1985) emphasised this issue and pointed out the importance of Saudization for all economic sectors in the near future when it stated as one of its goals: *"adopting incisive manpower development policies with the objective of replacing foreign manpower with Saudis to the maximum possible extent, through increasing the number and the skills of the Saudi labour force and raising its productivity, both by greater efficiency within sectors and by intersectional mobility"*(Saudi Arabia, Third Plan, p.17).

In the third and fourth development plans (1980-1990), the government found that the number of graduates was starting to outstrip the capacity of the public sector, raising a new problem, that some well qualified Saudis could not find jobs in the public sector. At the same time, the private sector was occupied by a huge number of non- Saudis, as a result of the development situation of Saudi Arabia during the

previous twenty years (1970-1990). Consequently, a new strategy was developed, to employ Saudis in the private sector by placing them in positions formerly held by non-Saudis or by creating new vacancies in the private sector.

As part of the nation's Saudization drive, regional chambers of commerce and industry participate in the training of the nation's work force. Through the offering of specialised training programmes, regional chambers assist young Saudis in qualifying for jobs in the private sector that might have been beyond their reach without such instruction. Such programmes last anywhere from one week to one year and include administrative, computer, language, and maintenance and repair courses.

The Jeddah Chamber of Commerce and Industry (JCCI), for example, holds more than 130 training courses and seminars each year at its training facility. Courses are targeted to cover all of the private sector's labour needs, including marketing, sales, maintenance, photography, customs clearance and navigation studies. Such courses are planned after considering the labour requirements of the private sector. JCCI has also established agreements with corporations whereby they will hire Saudis who have participated in the JCCI's training programmes.

In addition to the Ministries of Education and Labour, other government agencies have pursued programmes that will increase the number of Saudi youth entering technical and commercial fields. The Ministry of Communications has a training programme that has offered instruction for more than 20 years to young people seeking work in broadcast production (Saudi Embassy, 1997).

In spite of these efforts, the achievement of Saudization still faces obstacles, especially in the private sector. For instance, in 1987 the total labour force in the private sector was 1,540,998 workers. Only 289,411 of these were Saudi, which means

that there was only 18.8% indigenous participation in the private sector, while 81.2% of workers were non-Saudi (Riyadh Chamber of Commerce and Industries 1989).

According to the Fifth Development Plan (1990-1995), it was expected that there would be, during the five years, 354,400 new jobs, 96% of which would be in the private sector, and that 574,800 local employees would enter the work market during the plan period. Therefore, to find jobs for the local employees, concerted efforts were to be made by the private sector, not only by employing 354,400 in the new jobs which would become available, but also by placing another 220,400 local employees who could be entering the work market for the first time, in positions which used to be held by non Saudis.

However, the aim of Saudization was very difficult to achieve as a result of a number of factors. For example, the wage and salary differential between Saudis and non-Saudis made employment of Saudis unattractive to private companies. Therefore, to ensure the employment of the expected number of Saudi employees, especially those lacking professional skills, measures were needed to decrease the differences in salaries to the level at which private sector companies would prefer the Saudi employees.

Another factor was businessmen's expectation regarding the quality of the new Saudis entering the work market. They saw it as easier to employ non-Saudis not only because it was cheaper, but also because it was easier to find professional workers. Furthermore, despite the economic incentives which were provided by the development plans for young Saudis to learn special skills, they still reluctant to take the initiative.

To encourage employment of Saudis, the government introduced several new policies in the fifth development plan, including: replacing the focus on quantity in education (i.e. number of graduates) with emphasis on quality in education, establishing mechanisms for careers guidance, and encouraging links with industry and commerce, in an effort to tailor educational programmes to employers' needs.

Other measures taken during the fifth development plan to help Saudis seeking jobs in the private sector included specifying the minimum number of Saudis who should be employed by the private sector, based on company size.

Research efforts were also directed toward Saudization. One such study was a research study made by the Chamber of Commerce in Riyadh, which presented its findings in the national labour symposium. Another was that of Al-Nemir (1993). These studies highlighted Saudi businessmen's preference for employing non-Saudis, and gave the following reasons:

1- Foreign workers join the work directly, without need for any training programme, because the companies do not sign contracts with such employees unless they already have the required qualifications, experience and skills. On the other hand, Saudi employees are rarely found to be ready to start work, which means the companies have to put them in a special training programme which means that extra cost will be incurred if Saudis are employed.

2- Foreign workers accept lower salaries than Saudis, because non-Saudis in general come from poor countries. In this regard, overseas workers' wages or salaries are 25%-50% of those which might be accepted by Saudi workers.

3- Non-Saudi workers can work in any area within Saudi Arabia, according to the company's need, whereas Saudi workers are usually tied by family commitments to one area.

4- There is high turnover among Saudi labour, because they usually try to find better positions and higher salaries in other companies, whereas non-Saudi workers tend to stay in the same company, because they feel that they will benefit from the success of their companies and they do not want their contract to work in Saudi Arabia to be terminated.

5- If companies are dissatisfied with non-Saudi employees, they can simply terminate their contract, but Saudi employees can only be dismissed after lengthy procedures under the umbrella of the Saudi labour law.

6- It is very easy for companies to find non-Saudis employees in other countries that have surplus labour.

In addition to the previous considerations, most Saudi employees do not favour private sector work for the following reasons:

- Working hours are comparatively long, with two periods of daily work, morning and afternoon or a shift system (eight hours during the 24 hours without break), and only one day off each week. The public sector offers more favourable conditions in this respect.

- Employees' promotion and the gradual increase of salaries and wages in the private sector is not automatic, but is subject to employee appraisal and the economic circumstance of the company.

- Supervision of workers is stricter in the private sector, and there is less toleration of inactivity or negligence.

Saudization was a major aim of the Sixth Development Plan (1995- 2000), and to encourage the private sector to generate more job opportunities for Saudis, around 95 percent of the net growth in aggregate employment was expected to occur in the private sector. On the other hand, employment growth in the public sector was to be limited to health and education.

The government urged the private sector to create 660,000 new jobs for Saudi citizens by the end of the decade. From the beginning of 1996 the government began to enforce quotas for the employment of Saudi citizens in various sectors of the economy, including some types of manual and clerical employment. The minimum Saudi element which the affected industries were required to employ varied from 5% to 40% of the company work-force. Local private sector employers held consultations in 1996 with a view to adopting standard contracts of employment and standard salary ranges for different occupations, the suggested minimum salaries for Saudi citizens being significantly higher than the suggested maximum salaries for expatriates doing similar work. At the end of 1996, government figures estimated the expatriate population to be 6.5m. Employment sectors targeted for Saudization in 1997 (including the shipping industry) employed 8% of the total labour force, where in 1996 only 2% of the work force were Saudis. The number of expatriates employed by the government in that year was 104,000 (including 51,000 in the health sector and 44,000 in education), compared with 119,500 in 1992 (Middle East & South Africa Year Book, 1999). It was expected that during the period 1995-2000 total civilian employment would increase from 6,867,700 in 1995 to 7,059,400 in 2000. (See Table 4.7)

Table 4.7 Civilian Employment During (1995-2000)

	Employment		Net Increase	
	1995	2000	Percentage	
	('000)	('000)	('000)	Share - %
Private sector	6,050.0	6,232.2	182.2	95.0
Public sector	817.7	827.2	9.5	5.0
Total	6,867.7	7,059.4	191.7	100

Source: Sixth Development Plan (1995-2000).

The net increase in implement during the period 1995-2000 was expected to be 182,200 workers in the private sector and 9,500 workers in the government sector, a total net increase of 191,700 workers. It was also expected that some 319,500 jobs in the government and private sectors would be Saudized during the period.

One of the steps taken to achieve this goal was a decision (Decision 500, date 2/4/1415H, 1995) making it compulsory for private sector firms, which employ not less than 20 workers, to employ at least 5% of local labour. This decision come into force according to the high decree (no. 7/5/4010 dated 20/3/1416H, 1996) (Al-Bugami, 1999).

In addition, a study has been carried out by the Economic Studies Centre sponsored by the Saudi Chambers of Commerce, which has recommended review and revision of university admissions polices and curricula, to ensure production of graduates possessing the skills required in private sector companies (Daghstani, 1998).

4.3 Saudi Labour Market:

As indicated previously, a distinctive feature of Saudi Arabia is the significant proportion of expatriate workers in the labour force and the segmentation of its labour market. Better educated nationals traditionally have been attracted to the government sector because of higher wages and generous benefits, early retirement with pension, and job security and social status associated with government employment. Private sector activity is heavily dependent on expatriate labour, which is readily available on the basis of fixed term, job-specific contracts under the sponsorship of nationals. Wages of expatriate workers are substantially lower than those for nationals at similar skill levels, and there are no significant non-wages benefits in the private sector.

The labour market condition in Saudi Arabia is expected to tighten in the coming years, with a rapidly growing number of young, educated nationals entering the labour force at a time when the government can no longer act as employer of first and last resort. Budgetary considerations in Saudi Arabia are giving rise to a greater emphasis on private sector activity and employment for efficiency reasons. Indeed, labour market issues are clearly recognised as constituting pressing challenges for policymakers in the period ahead, especially in a global economy.

Accordingly, the Saudi government and the other GCC governments have already embarked on formulating labour market strategies to create employment opportunities for nationals within a broader framework of fiscal consolidation and structural economic reforms. The policy instruments to achieve the employment objectives have included an array of measures affecting the quantity (quotas and employment targets), price (wage subsidies to private sector, government wage

restraint, and fees and charges on foreign labour), as well as the quality (education and training) of labour.

The key challenge is to develop an effective strategy to increase the efficiency of the labour market and reduce its segmentation by relying more on market forces and less on mandatory employment policies, which could prove counter-productive in the long run and would raise labour costs (Sassanpour, 1998).

In this section, the structure of the Saudi labour market, labour market challenges, and labour market strategy are discussed. Before that, it is necessary to give an idea about the Saudi economic structure, in general, to illustrate the major factors influencing the Saudi labour market during the last three decades.

4.3.1 Saudi economic structure:

The pace of economic activity and the labour intensity and efficiency of production processes largely influence employment. The endowment and the price of labour relative to other inputs (capital, natural resources, and land) determine the optimum mix between labour and other inputs. Some inputs are internationally mobile (capital, natural resources, and labour); others are non-tradable (land). As such, labour market issues in Saudi Arabia would need to be viewed in the context of factor endowments and relative prices, and in relation to evolving structure and economic growth. A number of features and developments stand out:

- Saudi Arabia with the rest of the GCC countries have become major exporters of natural resources and capital, and major importers of merchandise goods and labour.

- The oil sector dominates the Saudi Arabia economy: oil GDP has a direct relation to oil production and prices, and non-oil GDP is greatly influenced by government expenditure, which itself is a function of oil revenue. Indeed, government expenditure policies have supported economic activity in the past, and the budget has been used as a vehicle to distribute the oil-export proceeds, either explicitly (e.g., employment, wages, and benefits) or implicitly (free or below-cost provision of utilities, health, and education services).

- High oil prices in the 1970s and the early 1980s were associated with periods of rapid economic growth combined with large fiscal and external current account surpluses. This allowed Saudi Arabia to embark on ambitious investment programmes to build up its physical and social infrastructure and diversify its production base. The service sector began to emerge as the main contributor to non-oil economic activity and as the principal source of new demand for labour. The shift in sector emphasis also implied a change in the composition of labour toward lower skill levels.

- Through the second half of the 1980s with the continued decrease of oil prices, economic condition weakened, and a large internal and external financial imbalance emerged, prompting the government to implement adjustment policies primarily involving substantial cuts in expenditure. From the mid-1990s, Saudi Arabia intensified and broadened its efforts to reduce its fiscal imbalance and promote private sector growth and employment creation. The expenditure rationalisation policies had to consider not only the relative efficiency of expenditures, but also the social dimension of expenditures, with specific reference to employment, wages, and benefits in the public sector.

- Given the limited resource base of Saudi Arabia, economic growth required large imports of materials and labour. Changes in the pace and composition of economic activity were reflected in the inflow of foreign labour. Expatriate workers currently comprise about 65-70 percent of the Saudi labour force (Nur, 1995).

Taken together, these factors have contributed to the current situation of the labour market and are defining the broad parameters for labour market issues and policies in the period ahead. In summary, an uncertain oil market outlook has underscored the importance of prudent macroeconomic policies and improved resources allocation to insulate the economies and support the growth of non-oil sector. Budgetary and efficiency considerations have also required a reassessment of government expenditure policies including those on wages and employment. At the same time, the consolidation of economic growth and shifts in the structure of production in favour of services have moderated the demand for labour, possibly with a bias against higher skill levels. The link between economic growth and employment generation probably has also weakened over the years due to efficiency gains, industrial development based on capital-intensive technologies, and structural shifts in the nature of dependency on expatriate labour. As a result, the demand for foreign labour appears to have become less sensitive to fluctuations in overall economic activity.

However, given the open economic systems of Saudi Arabia or GCC countries – as an economic unit –, the prices of foreign labour, capital, and natural resources are largely determined by international market conditions, but the price of domestic labour is, to a large extent, a policy variable and a social choice. This relative input price mix

has created a bias against the use of national labour in Saudi Arabia and the GCC countries generally, especially, in the private sector ((Al-Qudsi, 1997).

4.3.2 Saudi labour market structure:

4.3.2.1 Growth and Structure of Population and labour Force:

Over the past three decades, Saudi Arabia with the rest of the GCC countries as a group have recorded one of the highest rates of population growth in the world (averaging 5 percent a year during 1970-95), reflecting the high rate of indigenous population growth as well as the large influx of expatriate workers. The rapid rate of growth of the national population is attributable to the high fertility rates in the GCC countries and significant advances in the areas of health and education. The growth of the indigenous labour force has been also influenced by the population's young age profile (40 percent below the age of 15) and the low participation rate of nationals in the labour market (Table 4.8).

The degree of labour market participation in GCC countries (35 percent) is lower than that of other countries at the same stage of economic development and with similar per capita income levels. This reflects a combination of demographic, economic, social, and cultural factors (see Loony 1994 & Sassanpour, 1998). First, a relatively large proportion of the population is below working age. Second, there is a predominance of expatriate labour. The rapid economic growth opened the door to employment opportunities. With this came a demand for labour that the native population was unable (or unwilling) to meet, leaving the majority of jobs in many sectors to be filled by expatriate labour. Third, there are incentives to delay entry into the labour market and continue education, at least to university: education is free; a university degree significantly increases the chances of securing a government job or

other highly paid job; and there is a social premium associated with university education. Fourth, the rate of illiteracy in the local population is high. Fifth, a low retirement age in the public sector – typically about 45 years with 20 years of service – allows early exit from the labour force (although many retirees establish private businesses and remain active). Sixth many national workers refuse to undertake any kind of manual and vocational work. Managerial, professional, and government jobs are considered more prestigious. Finally, the female participation rate in the GCC countries is low, despite the growing number of educated and qualified women (see Table 4.8 & growth of the labour force at the beginning of this chapter).

Table 4.8 GCC Countries: Population and labour force Indicators

Year 1993-1995	Bahrain	Kuwait	Oman	Qatar	Saudi A.	U.A.E	GCC
Demographic indicators.							
Population (millions).	0.58	1.66	2.20	0.64	18.98	2.46	26.52
Age 0-14 (percent of total).	35	35	46	30	44	29	41
Age 15 and over (percent of total).	65	65	54	70	56	71	59
Population growth.	3.6	5.4	5.1	6.4	4.1	5.7	4.4
Population Gender ratio (men, women)	57:43	56:44	53:47	63:37	55:45	63:37	56:44
Age dependency ratio*	0.6	0.6	1.0	0.5	0.9	0.5	0.8
Urban population (percent of total)	90	97	13	92	79	84	75
Labour force Indicators							
Total labour force (millions)	0.25	0.82	0.55	0.33	6.26	1.14	9.35
Male (percent of total)	82	73	85	88	88	89	86
Female (percent of total)	18	27	15	12	12	11	14
Labour force growth (%average).	2.3	-1.6	5.2	3.9	3.3	3.9	3.0
Participation rate (percent).	44	49	25	52	33	46	35

Source: World Bank, Social Indicators of Development, 1997.

* Population under the age of 15 and over the age of 65 as a share of the total working-age population.

4.3.2.2 Legal framework of Labour market:

The legal framework and institutional regulations governing the labour market in Saudi Arabia has many common features. There is no minimum wage legislation and no tradition of collective bargaining in the public or private sector. Moreover, in

some sectors, there is still no legal provision in the existing labour laws to allow the establishment of social security pension schemes in the private sector. Other legal provisions, however, protect the rights of workers, and there are laws against child labour and against discrimination on the basis of race, religion and gender (Al-Qudsi, 1997).

In Saudi Arabia, the right of every citizen to work is formalised by legislation. Regulations and conditions governing downsizing and staff retrenchment are practiced less widely, particularly in the government sector where job security for nationals is a key feature. In the private sector, as mentioned earlier, the difficulty of dismissing a national increases the attractiveness of hiring expatriate workers on a fixed-term contract.

The employment of expatriate workers in Saudi Arabia is based on renewable sponsorship visas and work permits. Visas and job-specific work permits are issued once the sponsor demonstrates the need and guarantees employment for the duration of the contract. Sponsorships are either transferable only subject to restrictive terms and conditions or not transferable at all. Generally, there are no strict numerical quotas for hiring foreign workers- either by activity, nationality, or qualifications- but sometimes the government has limited the issue of visas to specific sectors or the number of workers sponsored by small businesses. The terms and conditions of employment, including compensation packages, are typically agreed bilaterally and specified in binding contracts. There are indicative sector-specific wage guidelines for hiring expatriates, but for all practical purposes, wages are based on market conditions. Expatriate workers have recourse to local legal channels in the event of contract dispute, on the same basis as nationals (Sassanpour, 1998).

4.3.2.3 Labour market segmentation:

The labour market in Saudi Arabia is segmented along several dimensions: between public and private sector, between nationals and non-nationals, and between skilled and unskilled labour. The segmentation of the labour market reflects a number of factors. Perhaps most important among them is the significant disparity in wage and non-wage benefits between the public and private sector, even for comparable skills, and between nationals and non-nationals employed in the same sector. Nationals and non-nationals of similar qualifications typically follow different career ladders, and certain positions are reserved for nationals even in the private sector. There are also marked dissimilarities in educational background, training, and qualifications between the national and non-national labour.

Direct comparisons between private sector and public sector wages are difficult because of very dissimilar market structures between the two sectors and the lack of relevant data. It is hardly disputed, however, that wages in the government sector are substantially higher than those in the private sector for comparable job content and skills. Moreover, in many cases, government workers receive guaranteed annual salary increments, and promotion through the public sector grade structure is virtually guaranteed for nationals. Even within the government sector, nationals command higher wages for similar grades, enter employment at higher levels, and move up the ladder faster. Wages for expatriate workers in the private and public sectors seem to be much more comparable across skill levels. Saudi Arabia's open border policy with regard to foreign labour has ensured the availability of a sufficient supply of labour at competitive wages at all skill levels (Al-Qudsi, 1996).

In addition to high wages, Saudi Arabian employees in the public sector benefit from generous family, housing, and transportation allowances, which together provide a significant income supplement. Also there are incentives to continue training and education while on the job. Benefit packages in the private sector are generally less attractive, particularly at lower skill levels. Typical employment contracts in the private sector provide no family allowances and there are no provisions for formal training. Housing allowances or free accommodation allowances supplement the basic pay.

Market segmentation also arises from mismatch between the qualifications of new entrants to the labour market and the requirement of the private sector even at the upper end of the market and at higher skill levels. Consequently, highly specialised technical positions, as well as low-skilled menial jobs, are filled by expatriate workers, whereas nationals tend to gravitate toward administrative positions (ESCWA, 1995).

4.3.2.4 Employment Conditions and Prospects:

Unemployment among nationals in Saudi Arabia is still largely of a voluntary nature. Those registered as unemployed include recent university graduates seeking government employment; job holders searching better jobs; and cultural factors and family ties limiting labour mobility, particularly among women. Nevertheless, in some cases, unemployment is emerging as more immediate economic and social concern, and the government is facing the challenge of creating opportunities for productive employment for its nationals (ESCWA, 1995).

In Saudi Arabia where unemployment is a relatively recent phenomenon, the evolving supply-demand dynamics of the labour market suggest further tightening.

More specifically, the rapidly growing supply of labour - reflecting both the high population growth and the rising participation rates - is outpacing the demand for labour, which is moderating due to slower economic activity and shifts in the structure of production. The situation is further complicated by the growing mismatch between the educational and technical qualifications of the new entrants and the skill requirements of the market.

On the demand side, the government – the major employment outlets in the past – can no longer act as employer of first and last resort for efficiency reasons and because of the need to trim the high government wage bill. Also, given the traditionally strong link between public spending and domestic economic activity in the GCC countries, government expenditure restraint is affecting labour demand. At the same time, the private sector has not been able to pick up the slack because of labour market rigidities (El-Erian, 1997).

4.3.3 Labour market policies and challenges:

4.3.3.1 Current Policy Approach:

The prospects of tighter labour market conditions have already prompted a policy response in Saudi Arabia to facilitate the absorption of a large number of nationals expected to enter the labour force. The *Sixth Development Plan* (1995-2000) aims to create 319,500 jobs and reduce the number of non-Saudi workers by an average of 1.5 percent a year through a combination of incentives and targets, including financial support to firms committed to training nationals; minimum targets for employment of Saudis; restrictions on employment of skilled and semiskilled workers; and a national information campaign. In April 1995, all private sector establishments with more than 20 employees were required to increase their Saudi

workforce by no less than 5 percent annually and a ban was placed on hiring non-Saudis in certain job categories (see also sections 4.1 and 4.2).

However, these policies have many common features. Most importantly, labour market policies are formulated within a broader framework of government expenditure containment and structural reforms aimed at increasing the economy's resilience to adverse oil market development and enhancing efficiency by creating a more conducive environment for private sector activity. With the recognition that in the period ahead, the responsibility for economic growth and job creation will primarily rest with the private sector, policies are being defined in Saudi Arabia to facilitate the employment of nationals and increase labour market flexibility.

The policy instruments to achieve the employment objective have included measures that affect the quantity, price, and quality of labour. Measures influencing the quantity of labour include quotas and targets on employment of nationals and the regulation of the foreign labour force through administration means. The relative prices of national and foreign labour are being influenced by government wage policy, direct wage subsidies to the private sector, and fees and charges on foreign labour. At the same time, the quality of national labour is being upgraded by proper education and training. Moreover, measures are being implemented to increase market efficiency by facilitating labour mobility in the private sector.

4.3.3.2 Labour Market Strategy:

Policymakers in Saudi Arabia recognise the importance of sustained economic growth for generating employment opportunities. Growth and development strategies are being formulated consistent with the country's comparative advantages and resource constraints, and policies currently stress the role of the private sector as the

principal source of employment creation in the future. Linkages between the labour market and private sector activity run in both directions: a more efficient labour market would contribute to economic growth, which would in turn support job creation. Consequently, broadening the role of the private sector would also need to consider policies that would involve transfer of responsibility between the private and public sectors, including those related to deregulation and privatisation.

Labour market measures already adopted or being considered in Saudi Arabia range from market-based strategies (e.g., wage and employment restraint, increasing labour mobility) to mandatory and administrative policies (e.g., quotas on employment of nationals, market regulation through work permits). In between there is a mix of other measures (e.g., taxation of foreign labour, direct employment subsidies) intended to achieve these objectives. An effective strategy to reduce labour market segmentation and improve market efficiency would need to consider (1) determining wages and benefits on the basis of market conditions; (2) minimising market distortions; (3) limiting mandatory employment policies; and (4) improving human capital (Sassanpour, 1996).

A menu of mutually consistent and reinforcing options to achieve these objectives would include the following:

- *Terminating the policy of guaranteed government employment to nationals.* A commitment to provide gainful employment opportunities for nationals, should not be interpreted as a policy of guaranteed government employment. Reducing total government employment in a phased manner through attrition, elimination of vacancies, and trimming redundant workers would send a clear signal that the government can no longer be viewed as a

source of permanent employment. Over time, this would reshape the expectations of nationals, alter their educational objectives and priorities and, together with measures to reduce relative wage and benefit disparities, encourage them to seek employment in the private sector.

- *Reducing disparities in incentives between public and private sector*. In principle, wages in all sectors and activities should reflect market conditions and the scarcity value of the labour, and the incentives associated with allowances and benefit packages should be equivalent across sectors.

- *Phasing out mandatory employment quotas for nationals*. Establishing employment targets for nationals in relation to the total labour force or for specific sectors and activities would provide useful indicative guides for government's labour replacement policy, but mandatory quotas could be counterproductive in the long run in the absence of downward flexibility of wages.

- *Facilitating labour mobility across sectors and activities*. The existing system of hiring expatriate workers under the sponsorship of nationals, has two major shortcomings: first, it creates rent-seeking opportunities, which could be easily exploited by potential sponsors; and second, it provides no or, in some cases, only limited scope for moving between sponsors and jobs. Allowing expatriate labour to move between sponsors and jobs would increase the efficiency of the labour market by channelling labour to its most productive uses.

- *Financial incentives to private sector employers for hiring nationals*. As an inducement for hiring nationals, consideration is being given to providing

wage subsidies to private sector employers, typically on a declining scale to be phased out over relatively short period of time. Such direct incentives aim to close the gap between the public and private sector wages without significantly increasing the wage cost of the employer, and to finance on- the-job training. Direct wage subsidies may offer a strong and immediate incentive for hiring nationals – particularly if there are employment quotas in effect – but would be potentially costly and difficult to monitor. Moreover, they would not guarantee employment at the end of the subsidy period and are subject to misuse. From a practical point of view, it would probably be more efficient for the government to fund internships and on-the-job training organised and conducted by potential private sector employers, without any direct linkages to salaries and employment.

- *Reorienting education and training programmes.* Labour market policies need to reinforce efforts to enhance human capital development through proper education and training programmes geared to the future job requirements of the economy. Specifically, policies should stress vocational and technical training to respond to the skill levels. To be effective, national training programmes require close co-ordination between the government and employers in the private sector with respect to the goals, management, and financing of training (see World Bank, 1995).

- *Creating an information bank on job seekers.* Some government agencies (usually ministries of labour and civil service) maintain a registry of national job seekers and attempt to match them with vacancies in the government sector. The private sector typically relies in market information network to

advertise its vacancies and meet its labour demand. Other government agencies (usually ministries of interior and immigration authorities) maintain information on expatriate workers on the basis of visas, work permits, and sponsors. One of the problems contributing to the segmentation of the labour market is the insufficient information flow between the different labour market sectors. As such, the availability of up-to-date and complete information on job seekers and potential employers in the public and private sector would be an important element of an efficient labour market clearing system. A national data bank could be created with the purpose of matching national job seekers with the available positions in the private sector (see Feiler, 1991, Nur 1995, El-Erian, 1997 & Riyadh Chamber of Commerce and Industries, 1989).

4.4 Conclusion:

It can be argued that much of the huge public funding which has gone into education in Saudi Arabia has been wasted if the new graduates, especially in general education, cannot find jobs. In the 1970s, local labour was comparatively scarce and expensive, and a substantial proportion of the workforce consisted of expatriate migrant labour. With population increases and oil price reductions, the situation in Saudi Arabia has changed in the 1980s and 1990s, but, a large number of workers are still required in the vocational and industrial labour market.

In fact, there is a major employment problem across the Middle East, even in Saudi Arabia as on of the oil-exporting states of the Arabic Gulf. Jobs are scarce, not only for primary and secondary school leavers, but also for university graduates. The more highly qualified the job seeker, the more difficult it is to secure employment. Much of the unemployment is disguised, the costs not borne by the state but by the job

seeker's family. There is no system of unemployment insurance or state benefits for the unemployed in the Middle East, including Saudi Arabia, and in these circumstances there is no point in registering as unemployed. Unemployment statistics which are published in the region are therefore unreliable; even those reported to the International Labour Organisation (ILO). Increasingly, it is the difficulty of finding a job which induces the young to stay on in education (Wilson, 1995).

However, the continuing rapid rates of population growth with absence of rational planning of the future pose a real challenge for employment generation. And, there are many indications that, the ability of governments to generate employment has reached its limits in most of the Middle East including GCC countries.

Another challenge is that the local labour market needs to be seen in relation to international trends. Work and workers have been subjected to a number of trends, like globalisation, which is not new but deepening. One aspect of globalisation giving rise to concern is that an increasing proportion of the world labour force is engaged in activities that are linked to international trade and capital flows. This is largely a corollary of the growth in world trade and investment flows. The higher proportion of world output that is now internationally traded, the increasing flows of foreign direct investment, and the increase in cross-border production networks all imply that a higher proportion of the world labour force is affected by, and linked through, international economic relationships. The growing exchange of labour services that is effected through trade, investment flows and the international subcontracting of production is forging closer links between labour markets. "*Consider, for example, a British entrepreneur who hires an Italian company to design a new line of clothing, then has those designs sent for production in southern China, and has a shipping company in Hong Kong send the finished product for sale in the United States, without*

the entrepreneur or any worker having to cross a national border. This example involves the labour services of workers in five countries being exchanged'(Bloom & Brender,1993, p.4).

The emergence of a global labour market wherein " *the world has become a huge bazaar with nations peddling their workforce in competition against one another, offering the lowest price for doing business*" (Dunahue, 1994,p.47). Whether or not so starkly put, increasing economic competition that affects a growing number of workers across the world has been perceived as the most problematic implication of these developments.

In summation, there is a qualitative change in the global economic environment affecting workers across the world. It is therefore important to consider the policy implications of the development during this time and the future. A key implication for the developing countries, like Saudi Arabia, is that there is now a great need to supplement national employment and labour policies with co-operative action at the GCC countries and international level to safeguard basic labour standards in the face of growing globalisation.

CHAPTER----------5

RESEARCH

METHODOLOGY

5.1 Research Design.

5.2 The Study Area and Population.

5.3 The Study Sample.

5.4 The Study Instruments.

5.4 Data Collection.

5.5 Data Analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter aims to give a description of the procedures that were followed in this research in order to collect the data related to the issue of this study. Research designs serve many functions: they provide the researcher with a blueprint for studying social questions; dictate the boundaries of the research activity and enable the investigator to channel his energies in specific directions; and they enable the researcher to anticipate potential problems during the implementation stage (Black and Champion, 1976). The chapter begins by setting the rationale for the selection of the data collection methods. Then, the chapter focuses on the survey population and the procedures implemented to select the study sample. An explanation is then given of the instruments - questionnaires and interviews - used for data collection, and discusses reliability issues. The final section is devoted to a description of the statistical techniques used in the analysis of the data.

5.1 Research Design

The choice of design for any research project is generally an important concern to the researcher, who seeks to determine the validity of a hypothesis and how best to discover evidence to either accept or reject it (Miller, 1991; p. 21). Kerlinger (1986) simply defines research design as *"the plan and structure of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions*" (1986, p 279). Zikmund (1984), likewise,

defines it as "*a master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing the needed information, and the framework of the research plan of action*" (1984, p 40).

A suitable design for a given project, as is clear from the definitions above, pertains to the most efficient and applicable way by which the required data are gathered, and the most accurate analysis and interpretations are produced. In accordance with this, it is evident that specific designs are suitable for specific researches, depending on particularities and purposes of the given research. Simon (1969) strongly emphasises that "*the design of a piece of research must depend upon the particular purpose that the research is intended to serve*" (p.8). Also, Sanders and Pinhey (1983) note that *"...there is no single research approach or methodology that is appropriate for every research question. One key rule we should remember is that the research question dictates the research method*" (p.36).

Since the main purpose of this study is to investigate and explore attitudes, views and opinions related to socio-cultural and economic factors influencing choice of industrial and vocation work in Saudi society, and taking into consideration the limited time and resources available to a single researcher to achieve this kind of research, a survey design was considered most suitable.

The descriptive survey is the predominant design employed in the social sciences. This design is "*often identified with survey research, a method of data collection common in many social science fields*" (Nachmias, 1997, p.129). The primary function of survey is to employ methods whereby data are collected from a sample or samples of individuals or units (population) for the purpose of obtaining conclusions upon which knowledge will be based, or to discover the relative incidence,

distribution, and interrelationships of sociological and psychological variables (Kerlinger, 1986).

The data gathered in the survey through variant data collection techniques enable the researcher to test certain assumptions and hypotheses and to describe several dimensions of group behaviour. Furthermore, surveys are very flexible as they permit the use of multi-methods of data collection techniques (Black and Champion, 1976). For example, observation, questionnaire and in-depth interviews can be used in a survey method to collect information about the target population. Survey methods are more appropriate in cases where quantitative data are required and when the information sought is specific and familiar to respondents (Bulmer and Warwick, 1983).

The past three decades have seen a growing recognition of the need for multiple-source research methodologies. The weaknesses of individual methods can be overcome or reduced by merging two or more methods of data collection together to produce accurate results. However, the advantage of adding information from separate data sources depends entirely on the purpose of the research and the feasibility of obtaining the additional information sought (Warwick, 1983).

To carry out this study, a questionnaire was employed as the main method of data collection. The researcher, however, felt that a questionnaire alone would not fulfil the purpose of this study, so a decision was made to supplement the questionnaire by structured interviews with key informants. The two methods offer different types of data, which fit well together. In this case the researcher can have more confidence concerning his conclusions than he would have if he had employed a single method (Whyte and Alberti, 1983).

5.2 The study area and population.

The Southern Region (Asir) is the relatively fertile area of coastal mountains in the extreme southwest (near Yemen). Mountain peaks rise to 3,000 metres and there is ample rainfall to support natural vegetation and cultivation. The Region of Asir is about 80,000 km2 in area, making up about 3.8% of the total area of K.S.A. The population in Asir province according to 1993 Statistics is 1.4 million, increasing at the rate of about 3.88% yearly, which is the highest population growth in Saudi Arabia. The population is distributed over 9 governorates with 4009 villages. (Saudi Embassy, 1997)

Abha, the home of the headquarters of the regional Governorate, is located in the Asir region in the south-west of the Kingdom. Abha's position, some 7,200 feet (2,200 metres) above sea-level, gives it a relatively moderate climate. In addition to Abha, there are other cities in the Asir region that are important because of their size, population, flourishing trade or industry. The most important of these cities are Khamis Mushayt, Bisha, Muhail, Al-Nimas, Tanuma, and Ballasmar.

Due to the high level of rainfall in the Asir, complex irrigation is rarely necessary. The government has constructed more than 40 dams to control the flow of water to farms, and farmers dig wells or build diversion dams in areas where the rain is less dependable. A variety of farming methods is used to grow crops on the terraced plateaus. The natural beauty of the region and its fertility have encouraged the Saudi Arabian Government to establish a number of national parks, enabling Saudi citizens to holiday in a location of outstanding scenery and natural interest to rival anywhere abroad.

In Asir province the traditional social organization used to consist of the tribes and their sub-divisions and families. Thus, the tribal system used to dominate the political and social life of the area. The tribe and the family was the centre in terms of kinship, social relations, loyalty and common feelings. The tribe's responsibility was the organisation of the territorial divisions. Under this system, the whole family, clan and tribe were held responsible for the acts of any individual member. The individual, in turn, was expected to behave well and maintain good relations with other individual within his tribe as well as with outsiders. These standards of behaviour helped to strengthen relations within families, clans and tribes.

In Asir province, the family is still considered the basic fundamental and essential repository of every individual's personal identity. All social relations are tied strongly to family considerations. Among the nomads and the rural settler cultivators, the family is largely represented as a self-sustaining unit, while in the towns the typical business enterprise is the family concern. In the towns, the basic pattern of family life is the same as in the rural areas, with some differences concerning the roles and the functions of women and children.

The family labour enterprise plays an extraordinary role within the rural societies of Asir province and its purpose is to give support to the household itself. It is known that in most rural societies, families do not depend totally on their income from agriculture and the livestock holding, but they also depend on their labour enterprise unit, comprised of its members and their varying abilities and activities. The function of the family as an economic unit becomes an absolute necessity whenever the agriculture or stock raised cannot provide a steady or adequate livelihood because of its small size, primitive techniques and low productivity, or whenever its production is jeopardised by drought, epidemic or other hardship.

However, since the annexation of Asir province into Saudi Arabia, external influence has had an effect on the traditional local life and economy of the area. New governors were appointed by the central government for the administrative divisions of the province and a new administrative system was introduced and adopted. New heads of some of the tribes were appointed to replace the non-loyal heads, weakening tribal ties and widening the gap between the branches competing for the leadership. (Al-Zaidi, 1984).

As a result of the rapid development which has taken place in the area over the last three decades, many changes in the social and economic life of Asir province may be observed. These new developments have brought the region into a new era and have affected the traditional local economy and way of life which had been mainly based upon subsistence agriculture and traditional crafts. Nowadays, the economy of the southern region depends totally on goods imported from outside the region. The local markets in the main town centres, as well as the weekly markets all over the area, have become full of imported goods. This has led to improvement in the trade sector, especially for retail trade. As a result of the growth of the trade sector, financial facilities have improved, with the opening of branches of banks, making financial dealings more convenient. In the public area, government administration has expanded, and thousands of jobs have been created.

As far as social organisation is concerned, a certain weakening of the tribal ties has been noticed. It first occurred in the more dynamic modernised urban centres, but even in these centres, the social structure which emerged spontaneously from the crisis of older traditions, or from the mixture of the tribal groups is far from matching the unified community model assumed by modern statutes, economic trends and public administration.

Asir province was chosen for the fieldwork for several reasons:

- Few social studies have been applied in this province, especially those related to industrial and vocational work.

- The tribal life which is still lived by many of the population includes traditions and habits which have special implications for industrial and vocational work.

- Asir province has a varied population, that represents three social groups: Bedouin, rural, and urban.

- Asir province's population structure allows the study to obtain a variety of data and information that is likely to be representative of the South Western Region particularly, and of Saudi society generally.

5.3 The Study Sample

5.3.1 The Sample

It is acknowledged that a sample can substitute for the targeted population. The sample is simply defined as a "*subset of the population*"(Rossi *et al..*, 1983). Sampling is the process of taking a sample of the population for the purpose of making conclusions regarding the population at large (Zikmund, 1984). Kerlinger (1986) defines sampling as "*...taking any portion of population or universe as representative of that population or universe*" (p. 110).

This study aimed to obtain a representative sample of Saudi nationals in Asir province so that inferences could be made about the whole population in the South of Saudi Arabia, particularly, and to Saudi society in general. To carry out this study, it would have been ideal to interview all nationals in the province rather than just a sample taken from that population. However, to study the whole population would not be possible, given the time and resources available for the study. Furthermore, researching a sample can yield more accurate results than using the complete population (Arber, 1993; p. 69).

To obtain comprehensive data that would help to interpret socio-culture and some economic factors related to the study problem, the research population was defined as:

1. Students of the secondary schools (final year), in Asir province, which amount to fifty-one schools;
2. Fathers of the secondary schools students (final year), in Asir province, were representing heads of households in the Asir province.

For the selection of the study sample, the researcher set the following conditions:

i. The target group of students was drawn only from secondary school final year students who were expected to graduate in 1999/2000. This stage of study is very critical and essential for shaping students' views towards their study and work future.

ii. The target group consisted of male students only, for two reasons: (1) male researchers encounter difficulty reaching female students,

and (2) limitations exist on women's participation in the industrial and vocational work force in Saudi society.

iii. The sample was confined to Saudi citizens. Non Saudis were excluded, as they might bring a variety of different values from their native culture.

5.3.2 Sample Size

The sampling literature does not fully address the question of how big a sample should be. However, there are some determinants of sample size. If, for example, the population is homogeneous, a small sample would suffice, but when a population is heterogeneous, a larger number would be required to represent all strata of the population and to yield weights for the various strata if it is not broken down to small homogeneous sub samples (Paten, 1950). The size of a sample, it should be noted, is not important in itself, but it is one factor in ensuring the achievement of the desired degree of precision (or the reliability of the estimate). By ensuring this precision, researchers can be confident to a certain degree that results acquired from the sample can represent their universe. A more important factor in determining precision is the accuracy of the sample representation. A properly drawn sample of a small number of cases can gave more reliable estimates on a population of many millions than a poorly drawn huge sample of hundreds of thousands (Oppenheim, 1997). Nevertheless, samples should contain a minimum number of units. Some surveyors suggest that the base number of each cell of the sample should not be less than 25 or 30 units (Paten, 1950).

Other factors determining sample size are theoretical requirements, the precision of the sampling operation, the nature of the dependent variable and, ultimately, constraints of time, costs, and personnel available for the study (Churchill, 1987; and Oppenheim, 1997). In consideration of these determining factors, a rule of thumb in sampling is to draw as large a sample as time and cost allow, because reliability or precision of the sample statistics increase in proportion to the sample size. Kerlinger (1986) strongly recommends students of research to "*use as large samples as possible*" (1986, p.117). In the same regard, Stone (1978) explains that "*As the size of the sample increases the degree of which a sample-based statistic approximates its associated population parameter increases*" (1978, p.84).

Despite what has been mentioned above, Nachmias and Nachmias (1997) indicated that "*there are several misconceptions about the necessary size of a sample. One is that the sample size must be a certain proportion (often set at 5 percent) of the population; another is that the sample should total about 2,000; still another is that any increase in the sample size will increase the precision of the sample results"* and mentioned that these conceptions *"are faulty notions because they do not derive from sampling theory*"(p. 194).

Table 5.1 Distribution of Achieved Sample by School and Region.

No	School	Region	The Secondary School Third Year								Total		Sample (10%)	
			Religion & Language		Social Science		Science		Technical					
			Class	*Student*	*Class*	*Student*	*Class*	*Student*	*Class*	*Student*	*Class*	*Student*	*Students*	*Fathers*
01	Abha First S. School	Abha	3	95	1	8	2	63			6	166	16	16
02	Honain	=	-	-	-	-	2	51	-	-	2	51		
03	Alfath	=	2	67			3	107	-	-	5	174	17	17
04	Alfahad	=	2	95	1	12	3	101	1	16	7	224	21	21
05	Alnamothajee'ah	=	-	-	-	-	1	34	-	-	1	34		
06	Al Serhan	Al Serhan	1	46	-	-	1	28	-	-	2	74		
07	Kood	Al Nwihed	2	63	-	-	1	33	-	-	3	96	10	10
08	Balat Al Shohada	Al Jomah	-	-	-	-	1	29	-	-	1	29		
09	Lajwan	Al Delhem	1	37	-	-	1	30	-	-	2	67		
10	Alfowaz	Ahad Rofidah	2	48	-	-	2	47	-	-	4	95	10	10
11	Bahat Rabe'ah	Bahat Rabe'ah	1	43	-	-	1	30	-	-	2	73	7	7
12	Ohod	Alheemah	-	-	-	-	2	26	-	-	2	26		
13	Ballasmar	Ballasmar	3	79	-	-	1	19	-	-	4	98	9	9
14	Bani Jaberah	Bani Jaberah	2	78	-	-	1	26	-	-	3	104	10	10
15	Tendahah	Tendahah	1	38	-	-	1	26	-	-	2	64	6	6
16	Khamees Moshait	Al Khamees	1	41	1	28	3	99	-	-	5	168	16	16
17	Alsadeeg	=	2	101	1	26	3	135	-	-	6	262	25	25
18	Al faisal	=	3	95	1	11	3	89	-	-	7	195	18	18
19	King Khaled	=	3	108	-	-	4	150	-	-	7	258	24	24
20	That Alsawari	=	2	52	-	-	2	57	-	-	4	109	10	10

21	Alshalfa	Alshalfa	1	30	-	-	1	27	-	-	4	57		
22	Sabah	Sabah	-	-	-	-	1	32	-	-	1	32	3	3
23	Safwan	Safwan	2	47	-	-	2	49	-	-	4	96		
24	Tabab	Tabab	-	-	-	-	1	20	-	-	1	20		
25	Almaween	Almaween	1	28	-	-	2	31	-	-	3	59	6	6
26	Madinat Soltan	Madinat Soltan	1	18	-	-	1	19	-	-	2	37		
27	Albihagi	AlHareer	1	31	-	-	2	62	-	-	3	93		
28	Ben Hashbal	Wadi Ben Hashbal	2	60	-	-	1	35	-	-	2	95	9	9
29	Alfara'een	Wadi Alfar'een	1	24	-	-	2	38	-	-	3	62		
30	Alwadi'een	Alwadi'een	2	71	-	-	2	54	-	-	4	125	12	12
31	Ya'ra	Ya'ra	-	-	-	-	1	31	-	-	1	31		
32	Tahfeed Al Kora'n	Abha	2	29	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	29		
33	Sa'ad Ben Obadah	Bchan	-	-	-	-	1	31	-	-	1	31	3	3
34	Albra'a Ben Malik	Alhafair	-	-	-	-	1	16	-	-	1	16		
35	Soheel Ben Amro	Alsoga	-	-	-	-	1	28	-	-	1	28		
36	Alargm	AlKhamees	1	28	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	28		
37	Abdullah Ben Abdulaziz	Abha	1	32	-	-	2	43	-	-	3	75		
38	Almasa'aiah	Abha	2	92	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	92		
39	Jobeer Ben Motem	Alronah	1	28	-	-	2	56	-	-	3	84	8	8
Total			49	1604	5	85	61	1752	1	16	117	3457	-	-
Total of the Sample Population			35	1190	5	85	39	1221	1	16	80	2512		
The Study Sample			114 (47.3%)		8 (3.3%)		116 (48.3%)		2 (1%)		-	-	240	240
Return Responds			-		-		-		-		-	-	223 (92%)	216 (89%)
The Study Final Sample			-		-		-		-		-	-	200	200

Concerning the present study, cost and time were major determining factors for the sample size. Approaching the sample units and distributing and collecting the questionnaires had to be done on a person-to-person basis. Taking into account that different cities, villages and nomadic settlements had to be visited and time had to be spent in them in order to collect the needed data, this meant that time and cost would increase with sample size.

The total size of the target populations were 3457 students, and 3457 fathers. The population from which the sample was chosen was 5024: 2512 students and 2512 fathers. The sample size targeted from this study was a minimum of 400 units: 200 (8%) students, and 200 (8%) fathers. To ensure the achievement of this number, 480 questionnaires were distributed (see Table 5.1).

5.3.1 Sample Selection

There are many sampling techniques available, and the choice of a particular technique is determined by the purpose and the design of the study and by the time and resources available. Most survey methods text books were written with developed countries in mind, such as those written about North America and western Europe (see for example: Babbie, 1975; Black and Champion, 1976; Hoinville and Jowell, 1978; Miller, 1991; Oppenheim, 1998, etc.) and they take for granted the availability of an adequate sampling frame. A sampling frame is a list of the survey population from which a sample can be drawn (Babbie, 1975; Hoinville and Jowell, 1978). As well as listing all elements, the sampling frame provides some identification of those elements (address, location, etc.), so that each element can be easily identified in the field. If the sampling frame is to fulfil its purpose it must meet a number of criteria. It must be accurate, free from omissions and duplications and up to date (Murthy and Roy, 1983).

The case of developing countries is different from those stated above. As argued by Bulmer (1983; p. 93), "*In developing countries, such extensive information is either not available at all, or where it is available is subject to a considerable degree of error*". Therefore, it is very important to determine the accuracy of the sampling frame to represent the study population.

To cope with these differences, and to "*ensure that different groups of a population are adequately represented in the sample*" (Nachmias, 1997, p.188), a stratified random sampling technique seemed to be more appropriate to achieve the objectives of this study. A stratified random sample is one in which the population is divided into groups or "strata" and a random sample is then selected from each subgroup (Babbie, 1975; Black and Champion, 1976 and Fink, 1995). The ultimate function of stratification is, then, to organise the population into homogenous subsets and to select the appropriate number of elements from each (Babbie, 1975; p.156). This method of sampling gives a greater degree of representation and decreases the probable sampling error that would occur with a non-stratified sample of the same size.

According to the mentioned consideration, the procedures for selecting the study sample were as follows:

- The researcher obtained a list (provided by the General Administration of Education in Asir) of 51 secondary schools which represented all boys' secondary schools in Asir province. 12 schools were excluded because they did not contain students in the final year at the time of the field study.
- Twenty schools (more than 50% of the schools) were selected as a representative sample of the total schools in Asir province according to the geographical location; cities, towns, and villages (nomadic &

farmers). As result of the population rate, it was decided that 50% of the questionnaires (fathers & students) would be distributed in the cities schools, and 50% in the rural areas.

- The researcher selected 10 percent of the students as a representative sample of the whole final year secondary school students (see table 5.1).
- In the final year of the secondary school, according to the Saudi education system, students have a choice of four specialisms: Arabic Language & Religion, Social Science, Science, and Technical (only one secondary school offered technical education). The sample was selected to contain equal proportions (by percentage) from each specialism.
- The fathers' sample was selected based on lists of fathers produced by the schools. However, the fathers of the students selected for the sample were excluded to avoid repetition of responses.

5.4 The Study Instruments

Two kinds of research instruments, questionnaires and structured interviews, were used to collect the required data, as each method has its own characteristics, strengths and limitation. Van Dalen and Deabold (1979) explained that: "*sometimes several instruments must be employed to obtain the information required to solve a problem*" (p. 127).

5.4.1 The Questionnaire

Questionnaires are regarded by social scientists as a standard method of collecting information. They consist of sets of items or questions to which subjects are

requested to answer. Answering could take the form of either responding to prepared choices or, in the case of open-ended questions, giving a subjective response to the questions. Questionnaires aim to assess attitudes, opinions, and/or demographic characteristics of respondents (Stone, 1978). Normally, questionnaires are used with studies applying quantitative techniques. Thus, statistical inferences can be made through the use of different type of scales (e.g. nominal, ratio, etc. ...) and different levels (e.g. true vs. false, 5-point scale, etc.).

In this study, the researcher employed a questionnaire as the main research method of data collection. Four main reasons were behind the choice of this method: firstly, most of the data required for the purpose of this study was in the form of opinions and attitudes which suggested that a questionnaire would be an appropriate instrument; secondly, self-administered questionnaires collect as much data as needed in the shortest time possible, though in this case, an administered questionnaire was used to enhance the completion rate, reduce the number of unanswered questions, and enable probing and controlled clarification (Babbie, 1975; p.275); thirdly, it is an inexpensive form of data collection and it can be answered at the respondents' own pace; fourthly, and, most importantly, the instruments used in the original studies were questionnaires. Applying the same methods as used in the original studies legitimises the comparisons between those studies and the present one.

To achieve high accuracy in obtaining the data, the questionnaire schedule was divided into several sections and used a mixture of closed questions, open questions and attitudinal scales.

The questionnaire set contained two categories of questions. The first type were factual questions which were designed to obtain objective information from the

respondents regarding their situations and their backgrounds. In the first section of the questionnaire questions of this type obtained information such as respondents' area of residence (city, town and village), date and time that was spent in answering the questionnaire, and the serial number given. This information was important to facilitate subsequent analysis. The second section contained questions regarding respondent age, education, income, degree of wealth and so on. The third section concerned respondents' experience of vocational and industrial work. The fourth section, which was at the end of the questionnaire, contained questions related to description of vocational and industrial work and to the factors that will attract Saudi nationals to industrial and vocational work, in the opinion of respondents. Most of the questions in this first category were classification questions. "*Classification questions are a special type of factual question that asks about age, sex, martial status, income, education, occupation, family size and so on*" (Oppenheim, 1998, p.132). It is recognized that "*gathering this kind of information, in particular, definitions, is important, both for the interviewer and for the respondent*" (Oppenheim, 1998, p.132).

The second category of questions concerned the respondent's attitudes towards the status of industrial and vocational work. Attitudes are defined as general orientations that can incline a person to act or react in a certain manner when confronted with certain stimuli (Nachmias, 1997). Attitude is normally measured by more than one question, because unlike factual questions, respondents may not have an attitude toward the concept and because many attitudes have numerous aspects; the respondent may agree with one aspect and disagree with another. As argued by Nachmias (1997), "*by using several attitude statements, a researcher can more accurately ascertain both the strength of a respondent's attitude and the conditions under which his or her attitude may change*"(p. 252).

The second category, also, was divided into group of items according to the objectives and questions of the study. These items were measured using attitude scales consisting of five attitude statements, to which respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement. This approach to measurement is called a summated scale, which was devised by Likert (1932), and it is the most widely used approach to measurement in the social sciences today[1]. Likert scaling requires the researcher to compile possible scale items, administer them to a random sample of respondents, compute a total score for each respondent, determine the discriminative power of each item, and select the final scale items (Nachmias and Nachmias,1997). Five response categories were used - running from 'strongly agree' to 'agree', 'uncertain', 'disagree', and 'strongly disagree'. These five positions were given simple weights of 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 for scoring purposes (Oppenheim, 1998, p.195).

5.4.1.1 Preparation of the questionnaire

During the process of developing the study questionnaires a number of important points were borne in mind, which were assumed to contribute significantly to the preciseness and appeal of instrument, which would, in turn, affect the understanding of, and response to the questions and statements provided. If the instrument is not understood or has major flaws, it would eventually lead to cast some doubts on the validity and the usefulness of the study as a whole. The questionnaire should be looked upon as a scientific procedure constructed for a specific purpose, and not merely as a list of questions. As Oppenheim (1998) stated: "*A questionnaire is*

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[1] Another method of scaling is the Guttman scaling technique developed in the early 1940s by Louis Guttman. A Guttman scale is unidimensional as well as cumulative, in that information on the position of any respondent's last positive response allows the researcher to predict all of that person's responses to the other items (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1997; p. 474).

scientific tool and therefore must be constructed with great care in line with the specific aims and objectives of investigation (p. 100)". Also, questions must be written in such a way as to obtain the required material. As Evans (1965) mentioned "*statements on questionnaires collected through investigation must be relevant to the specific objectives of the investigation* (p. 103).

The standards meant to be met here are: a) questions and statements should be short and precise; b) they should be clear and understandable to all members of the sample; c) a statement should not connote more than one question. That is any question should entail only one answer (no double-barrelled items); d) as far as possible, statements should be responded to by ticking one of several possible choices. Rarely were open-ended questions or elaboration on answers required. This was to reduce time required to complete and to elicit more accurately statistically analysed answers; and, e) personal questions and questions related to private or secret information were avoided as much as possible.

It was the intention of the researcher to avoid any questions that would discourage subjects from responding honestly or responding at all. Questions about age and salary were thought to be very personal and were presented in the form of categories, although having actual numbers is statistically more useful. It was also thought that if questionnaires started with personal questions, respondents might be deterred from responding to them. If, on the other hand, they were placed at the end, the questionnaire might be more likely to elicit honest answers to the parts preceding the section(s) concerned with personal information, but might then either continue responding honestly or feel threatened by their preceding answers and, as a result, either abandon the whole matter, or, worse, complete the questionnaire untruthfully. For this reason, and as a compromise solution, the questionnaire started with a section

about the industrial and vocational work acceptance of the respondent followed by a section about his I&V background. This process was very necessary since in this study a lot of personal information thought essential in determining work choices and work attitudes was needed (e.g. place of origin and residence, income, education level, kind of occupation, and so on).

It is also a fact that it is not possible both to satisfy all aims of the study by including the full relevant scales and at the same time keep the questionnaire short enough to generate high response rates. Therefore, a compromise had to be made, and some of the statements with low factor loading and internal correlation were abandoned.

The result was a 9-page questionnaire, for each sample (fathers and students), which took a maximum of *25* minutes to complete. Attached to it was a cover letter which (1) identified the sponsoring organization and the researcher conducting the study, (2) explained the purpose of the study, (3) explained why it was important that the respondent answer the questionnaire and (4) assured the respondent that the information provided would be held in strict confidence (see Nachmias and Nachmias, 1997).

The questionnaire was written in English as its sources were developed in English-speaking countries the United Kingdom and United States of America. However as the mother tongue of the study society is Arabic, it was necessary to translate the instrument into Arabic. Amongst the methods of translating a questionnaire put forward by Brislin (1980), back translation was taken to be most suitable for the present study. In his conventional back translation technique, Brislin (1970) recommends the process to be as follows: (1) The original transcript to be

translated into the target language, (2) Target transcript to be grammatically checked, (3) Target transcript then to be translated back into the original language, (4) A pre-test to be undertaken before actual application.

In the present study this technique was followed precisely. The questionnaire was translated by the researcher into Arabic. After that, consultation was held with 8 Saudi students undertaking graduate research in UK. This group was asked to comment on the wording, style and presentation of the questionnaire, and their comments and suggestions were taken into account to produce an amended translation. Then, both the English and Arabic versions were taken to Saudi Arabia. Three competent Arab postgraduate scholars from the English department (in King Abdulaziz University) studying English Literature, translation and linguistics were independently, and at different periods of time, contacted for this purpose. The first one, who specialised in translation between Arabic and English, was given the assignment of translating the questionnaire from English into Arabic. The result was then given to another one for checking grammar, and very few changes were made as a result. The process of back translation into the original language was carried out by the third person. The outcome of the back translation was remarkably similar to the original one though some differences were spotted. Joint discussion and comparisons of versions resulted in slight changes made to some terms in the Arabic version.

The problem of understanding the instrument did not really end up here. On the contrary it had just begun. After changes to the questionnaire items and format according to the comments of the study supervisor, the researchers' colleagues, and specialists in statistics in the Graduate Research Institute (GRI) and Computer Centre of Hull University, it was necessary, in the last stage, to give the two versions of the instrument (Arabic and English) to scholars specialising in similar fields. Five

colleagues from the Department of Sociology in King Abdulaziz University were approached and given the questionnaires for the purpose of evaluation and criticism. Recording the time needed to complete these preliminary questionnaires was also equally important.

The feedback given by these scholars was extremely valuable. The changes made can be summarised as follows: a) the size of the questionnaire needed to be reduced to allow for answering within a shorter time, b) some of the terms needed to be simplified, c) the order of some statements and sections was rearranged, and d) many of the instructions were simplified and clarified.

5.4.1.2 The Pilot Study

Prior to conducting the actual field work, 40 questionnaires (covering approximately 10% of the targeted sample - 20 fathers and 20 students) were prepared to be used as a pilot study. The researcher was aware that pre-testing is fundamentally important "*to identify the major flaws in a study plan before starting the main study*" (Runkel and McGrath, 1972:242) so they can be corrected before they damage the main study. The individuals chosen for the pilot study were from the main study population and satisfied the same requirements as the actual respondents of the main study. Three final year secondary schools were chosen; one from a city, one from a town and the third from a village. After the completion of the questionnaires, feedback was obtained by conversing with students, head teachers, teachers and fathers, whom the researcher met personally during the pilot study, and discussing any confusion, misunderstanding and difficulties arising in relation to items or instructions. Respondents were invited to give their own alternative solutions. The necessary changes were made and the final output of the Arabic version was given to a colleague

from the Arabic department at King Abdulazize University in Jeddah for a final grammar checking. It should be mentioned here that the some questionnaires of the pilot study were included in the sample since they did not involve any major flaw or fault. Any unclear points were corrected after the discussion and questionnaires were received complete.

5.4.1.3 Reliability of the instrument

Reliability is of central concern to social scientists because measuring instruments (scales) are rarely completely valid. This is because measurements in the social science are indirect and therefore, more errors are encountered when social variables are measured as compared to physical variables (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1997). The degree of reliability is a method commonly used to evaluate the consistency of scales or instruments. Litwin (1995; p. 6) defines reliability as "*a statistical measure of how reproducible the survey instrument's data are*". In other words, the researcher should expect the same results if he applied the same scale on different occasions or with a different set from an equivalent population.

Reliability analysis is carried out to assure the researcher that the scales are reliable and have a little as possible measurement error. Nachmias and Nachmias (1997; p. 170) argue that "*a measuring instrument contains variable errors, that is, errors that appear inconsistently from observation to observation during any one measurement attempt or that vary each time a given unit is measured by the same instrument*". Each measurement, then, contains a true component and an error component. Therefore, "*reliability can be defined as the ratio of the true score variance to the total variance in the score as measured*" (Helmstadter, 1970; cited in Nachmias and Nachmias, 1997; p. 171). From the above definition it can be seen that

if there is no variable error, the ratio of the true score variance to the total variance becomes one, and the scale is perfectly reliable. However, when the measurement contains only error, the above ratio tends to zero, and the scale is completely unreliable. The reliability measure varies on a scale from 0 to 1, where a value close to zero is an indicator of an unreliable scale and a value close to one is an indicator of a reliable measure.

When considering measurement of reliability, a distinction is made between external and internal reliability. External reliability refers to the degree of consistency of a measure over time, or the possibility of an independent researcher replicating the same study in a similar setting. Internal reliability measures the consistency of the scale. It is applied to a scale containing several items that are thought to measure different aspects of the same concept (Litwin, 1995). High internal reliability indicates that different items measure a single concept. This is important for the present study to measure different concepts, each containing a group of statements.

To measure the internal reliability of the present study, the Cronbach's coefficient, alpha, was calculated. Alpha coefficient is the most frequently used measure of reliability. This coefficient is named after the 20th-century psychometrician who first reported it in 1951. It measures the internal consistency and homogeneity of a group of items combined to form a single scale (Litwin, 1995). Also, as Cronbach (1990) explained that " *the usual observed score is a sum or average over items, trails, raters, or occasions or over a combination of these. The tester analysing a composite can array the scores on the parts, and examine their consistency. Several convenient formulas produce what statisticians know as an intraclass and testers know as an alpha coefficient*" (p.202).

As alpha is an appropriate method for computing reliability, the alpha values for the scale when each item is deleted and corrected item total correlations are presented (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Reliability Analysis – scale (Alpha)

ITEMS	ITEMS TOTAL CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED	ITEMS	ITEMS TOTAL CORRELATION	ALPHA IF ITEM DELETED
ST.AT41	.3744	.7308	ST.AT42	.4164	.7304
ST.AT43	.3878	.7305	ST.AT44	.3719	.7281
ST.AT45	.4936	.7315	ST.AT46	.3636	.7251
ST.AT47	.3785	.7264	ST.AT48	.3991	.7298
ST.AT49	.4279	.7264	ST.AT50	.3853	.7226
ST.AT51	.3892	.7253	ST.AT52	.4272	.7325
ST.AT53	.3882	.7277	ST.AT54	.3910	.7317
ST.AT55	.4096	.7290	ST.AT56	.3882	.7311
ST.AT57	.4496	.7228	ST.AT58	.4275	.7337
ST.AT59	.4946	.7314	ST.AT60	.4086	.7266
ST.AT61	.3671	.7284	ST.AT62	.3853	.7315
ST.AT63	.3884	.7268	ST.AT64	.3797	.7279
ST.AT65	.4608	.7309	ST.AT66	.3994	.7288
ST.AT67	.4372	.7296	ST.AT68	.3859	.7276
ST.AT69	.4054	.7228	ST.AT70	.4181	.7263
ST.AT71	.4712	.7250	ST.AT72	.4894	.7275
ST.AT73	.3711	.7316	ST.AT74	.3793	.7279
ST.AT75	.4010	.7290	ST.AT76	.4509	.7247
ST.AT77	.4168	.7287	ST.AT78	.3925	.7313
ST.AT79	.4063	.7272	ST.AT80	.3696	.7220
ST.AT81	.3772	.7247	ST.AT82	.3716	.7254
ST.AT83	.4220	.7348	ST.AT84	.4047	.7268
ST.AT85	.4367	.7296	ST.AT86	.3877	.7277
ST.AT87	.4490	.7253	ST.AT88	.4519	.7248
ST.AT89	.4242	.7259	ST.AT90	.3616	.7328
ST.AT91	.3614	.7285	ST.AT92	.4140	.7264
ST.AT93	.3636	.7323	ST.AT94	.4447	.7252
ST.AT95	.4184	.7263	ST.AT96	.3673	.7250
ST.AT97	.4143	.7237	ST.AT98	.3609	.7247
ST.AT99	.4071	.7267	ST.AT100	.3803	.7278

Reliability Coefficients: N of cases = 400 N of Items = 60 Alpha = .7312

The column presenting the item total correlation gives an indication of the magnitude of correlation between each item and rest of the items in the scale. It was argued by Borg (1981), that "*correlations within this range (0.20 to 0.35) show only very slight relationship between variables, although they may be statistically significant, whereas correlations at this level may have limited meaning in exploratory relationship*". Correlations in the range (0.35 to 0.65) are useful and statistically significant beyond the 1 percent level. The researcher decided to delete items which showed no correlation or those items that had an inter-item correlation of less than 0.35.

It can be seen from the table that item correlations ranged between 0.36 to 0.49 which is more than the acceptance level. The alpha coefficient for this part of the questionnaire as a whole was 0.73; therefore, the scale used in this study is reliable.

5.4.2 Interview

Nachmias and Nachmias (1997) define an interview as a face to face interpersonal role situation in which an interviewer asks the respondent questions designed to elicit answers pertinent to the research hypotheses. The information obtained through interview was intended to complement that provided by the questionnaire, allowing the researcher to explore issues in more depth and get specific information. According to Van Dalen and Deobold (1979), "*In a face to face meeting, an investigator is able to encourage subjects and to help them probe more deeply into a problem, particularly an emotionally laden one*".

Interviews can yield rich sources of data on people's experiences, opinions, aspirations and feelings (May, 1997). It is perhaps the most ubiquitous method of

obtaining information from people (Kerlinger, 1986). A major advantage of the interview is its adaptability. A skilful interview can follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feeling, which the questionnaire can never do (Bell, 1993). Hoinville and Jowell (1978) added that a key interviewing skill is probing: encouraging the respondent to give an answer or to clarify or amplify an answer.

An interview can be used for three main purposes: it can be an exploratory device to help identify variables and relations, it can be the main instrument of the research, and it can supplement other methods (Kerlinger, 1981).

There are four types of interviews; structured interview, unstructured interview, non directive interview and focused interview (Cohen and Manion, 1996). May (1997) called the third type semi- structured. The structured interview is associated with survey research. Each person is asked questions in the same way so that any differences between answers are then assumed to be real ones and not the result of the interview situation itself (May 1997). This type involves a series of closed form questions that either have yes- no answers or can be answered by selecting from among a set of short- answer choices (Borg and Gall, 1996). Unstructured or focused interviews may directly involve the researcher as a subject and participant in the data collection process (May, 1997). They do not involve a detailed interview guide. Instead, the interviewer asks questions that gradually lead the respondent to give the desired information (Borg and Gall, 1996). Group interviews constitute a valuable tool of investigation, allowing the researcher to focus upon group norms and dynamics around issues which they wish to investigate (May, 1997). They involve addressing questions to a group of individuals who have been assembled for this specific purpose (Borg and Gall, 1996). Semi- structured interviews are said to allow people to answer more on their own terms than the standardised interview permits, but still provide a

greater degree of structure than the focused interview, which aids comparability (May, 1997). Semi- structured interviewing involves asking a series of structured questions and then probing more deeply using open form questions to obtain additional information (Borg and Gall, (1996). Reasons for conducting this type of interview include a concern with the meanings that individual respondents give to concepts, events and so on, and for exploration of issues that are too complex or too sensitive to be investigated by quantitative approaches. Involvement in interviewing is a reminder of the importance and influence of the researcher in the research, and face to face interviewing makes more evident the "power" relationships within the researcher (Moore, 1995).

5.4.2.1 Type of interview

According to what has been mentioned above, this study involved semi-structured interviews, combining a structured set of closed questions with open 'probes'. The structured element was used as "*it relies upon a uniform structure, while a calculated number of people are interviewed so that they are representative of the population for the purposes of generalization. Resultant data are then aggregated and examined for patterns of responses among the target population via statistical analysis*" (May, 1997 p.110). In this case; (a) the interview schedule consisted of 20 items related to hypotheses about factors which might influence attitudes to vocational work, to which interviewees were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a likert-type scale, similar to section three of the questionnaires, (b) each interviewee was presented with the same items (hypotheses) in the same way, (c) the role of the researcher was to direct the respondent according to the sequence of items in the

interview schedule; (d) the differences between answers are held to be real ones and not the end result of the interview situation itself.

The information elicited from these items was complemented by deeper quantitative information obtained through open 'probes'. Throughout the interview after the respondent had given his answer to a structured item (agree, disagree, etc..) he was asked for further explanation and elaboration (see Appendix 3). In this way, the interviewer was "*more free to probe beyond the answers in manner which would appear prejudicial to the aims of standardization and comparability*" (May, 1997 p.111).

The researcher, during the interview, recorded each answer carefully as the respondent answered it and if the answer was not clear he asked the interviewee for more explanation. Tape-recording was not used because respondents were unwilling to be recorded discussing the sensitive issues which related to some points of the interview questions, and it was felt that they would not have expressed their views freely if they had been recorded in this way.

5.4.2.2 The Interview Sample

The interview sample represented three groups: secondary school head teachers, directors and administrators of some government and educational sectors, and managers of private sector companies and factories providing industrial and vocational work in Asir Province. The researcher obtained lists of these groups through their administrations; these lists included the locations, addresses, and telephones numbers of the interviewees. The interview sample contained 30 interviews, 10 from each of the target groups.

5.5 Data Collection

5.5.1 Questionnaires

Before choosing the study sample, some official procedures had to be carried out to obtain permission to conduct the research. Two letters were issued, one from the Saudi Cultural Bureau in London and the second from King Abdulaziz University (Jeddah), to the Administration of Education in Asir Province. The letters contained general information about the researcher, the purpose and scientific nature of the research, and a request to co-operate with the researcher and supply the information required for the study.

The official letter and a copy of the research questionnaires were personally presented by the researcher to the General Director of Education in Asir Province, who advised the researcher that the questionnaire must be presented to some specialists in the administration before permission for the research could be granted. This procedure was to check whether any questions were in conflict with the behavioural values and norms of the Saudi society, or were likely to have adverse psychological effects on students. After three weeks, the researcher received conformation from the director that the committee had approved the research instrument. The next step was for the researcher to contact the head of the Educational Guidance Centre to obtain full information about the number of secondary schools and students in Asir province. An official letter from the General Administration of Education in Asir province and a copy of the questionnaire were sent to the head teachers of the secondary schools chosen to be the study sample. After that, the procedures continued via the secondary schools administrations to collect the required data and questionnaires personally.

Also, after selection of the fathers' sample, official letters (with each questionnaire) were sent through the administrations of the secondary schools to the fathers, with a request to respond within a given time.

The number of returned questionnaires was 439 (223 students & 216 fathers) making a return rate of around 92% of the students and 89% of the fathers, which is very high. This rate of return can be attributed to the personal contact with most individuals, the assurance given to respondents that they could respond and express their feelings freely, and, above all, the assistance provided by the Administration of Education and Head Teachers in Asir Province, for which the researcher is most grateful.

In total, 39 responses (8% of the total number - 23 students and 16 fathers) were excluded because they were incomplete or inadequately completed. Although every effort was made to ensure a high response, it was unavoidable to encounter such non-responses, which is typical with such a research method. The total response was (see Table 5.1) 200 students and 200 fathers.

5.5.2 Interviews

After selection of the interview sample, three letters were issued. The first was issued from the Educational General Administration to Secondary Schools Head Teachers, asking them to cooperate with the researcher in his study. This letter, as mentioned in 5.3.2, had already been sent to each School's Head teacher requesting permission to apply the study questionnaires. The second was issued from King Abdulaziz University, addressed "to whom it may concern" and was useful to facilitate contact with directors and administrators of some government and educational sectors.

The third was issued from the Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Abha - Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, to managers of companies and factories involved in the industrial sectors in Asir Province.

These letters, in general, introduced the researcher, the research problem, and the importance of the study. Also, in the case of the third group (managers of companies and factories), recipients were asked to specify a suitable date on which to conduct the interviews within the relevant period of the empirical study (21/10/1998 to 16/2/1999). Contact with other groups was made directly by the researcher after he was provided with copies of the official letters (see Appendix F).

5.6 Data Analysis

The first step in data analysis was the coding of the data to facilitate the processing of information by computer; while answers to the open ended questions were written out by hand and processed manually. Each group of responses was transferred separately to a computer and then kept in files. To process the data statistically, the researcher used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Program (SPSS) which was utilized in all steps concerning percentages, frequency distributions and cross-tabulation tables. The researcher, also, used chi-square tests and t-test (2-tailed) for independent sample. The chi-square test is widely used in conjunction with contingency tables (cross-tabulation) which contain a cell for each combination of categories of the two variables[1]. It is used to test statistical significance, meaning that it allows the researcher to ascertain the probability that the observed relationship between the two variables may have arisen by chance. The test is

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[1] The test is used with ordinal and nominal scales.

calculated by comparing the observed frequencies in each cell in a contingency table with those that would occur if there was no relationship between the two variables (Bryman and Cramer, 1997; p. 168). T-test is used to determine if the means of two groups (students and fathers) differ statistically. The t-test is calculated by comparing the difference between the two means with the standard error of the difference in the means of the different groups (Bryman and Cramer, 1997; p. 142). If the difference in the means of the two groups is close to zero, it is more likely that this difference is due to chance. The level of the significance of difference between variables was established at 0.05[1].

The researcher decided to develop an index with several attitudinal statements to measure the dependent variable "Acceptance of I&V work". According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1996; p. 548), "*the index should contain a number of indicators carefully selected, each of which has a specific purpose that must be set forth and explained prior to construction of the index*". As argued also, by Nachmias (1997), "*by using several attitude statements, a researcher can more accurately ascertain both the strength of a respondent's attitude and the conditions under which his or her attitude may change*" (p. 252). The index developed for this study contains 8 items or statements, each highlighting an aspect of I&V acceptance. Some of these items give indications of the acceptance of I&V work on the part of the respondent himself and some of them are related to his perception that his family or his society accepts or does not accept I&V work (see Table 6.3 & questionnaires: part 2 – Appendix B). Numerical values were assigned to the items where a "yes" response to a statement in the index was given a value of one (1) and a "no" response was given a value of zero (0) and these values were then added to obtain the total score. The score was

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[1] Significance levels commonly used in statistical research are the 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 levels, though the usage of the 0.05 level is the most common (Hubert and Blalock, 1979; p. 161).

interpreted as an indicator of the attitude of the individual towards the I&V sectors. A respondent who obtained a high score (5 and more) on the index would be regarded as more willing to be involved in I&V sectors (Accepted) than those who obtained low scores (Not Accepted).

Table 5.3 Items measuring Acceptance or Non-acceptance of I&V work.

	Items	Yes	No
1	Do any of your family have an industrial or vocational job?	1	0
2	Are any of your relatives enrolled in industrial or vocational programmes?	1	0
3	Does any member of your family or relative have a workshop?	1	0
4	Do you wish to work in I&V sectors?	1	0
5	Did you try to enrol in vocational, industrial programmes or schools?	1	0
6	Have any of your family advised you to involve in I&V work?	1	0
7	Are manual vocations acceptable in your society in the present?	1	0
8	Have you advised any of your family to involve in I&V work?	1	0

In relation to test the impact of socio-cultural and economic factors on attitudes towards involvement in I&V sectors (Chapter Seven), responses were recorded on a 5-point Likert scale. The scores for each item were calculated by multiplying the frequency of each response by the value assigned to that response. However, to facilitate discussion, the resulting scores were then rearranged into three or two categories, representing High, Medium and Low or High and Low influence, using a function available within the SPSS program (see, for example, Tables 7.1.1.1, 7.1.1.2, 7.1.2.1and 7.1.2.2).

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter has explained the methods used to carry out the empirical survey to assess the socio-economic factors influencing occupation choice of industrial and vocational work in Saudi society. A descriptive survey method was employed to

collect the study data. The data collection employed two different techniques to allow more accurate testing of the assumptions and hypotheses made by this study and to describe several dimensions of respondents' opinions and attitudes. The main survey instrument was a questionnaire, designed to provide quantitative data. The questionnaire was supplemented by qualitative data derived from interviews and from open questions at the end of the questionnaires. The interview was useful in understanding the actual situation and issues that were not covered by the main survey instrument. The methods, therefore, offer different types of data, which fit well together. In this case the researcher has more confidence concerning his conclusions than he would have if he had employed a single method.

The questionnaire respondents included in this study were selected by a proportional stratified random sampling method. Besides its greater degree of representation and decrease of the probable sampling error, the sampling technique selected minimized time and cost. Responses were obtained from 200 students and 200 householders (fathers). Thirty interviewees were selected, representing head teachers, administrative officials and industrial managers.

In the next chapters, the researcher will present the findings derived from these data. First, Chapter Six presents the results of the socio-economic condition and occupational background of the respondents.

CHAPTER----------6

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS AND OCCUPATIONAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY SAMPLES

6.1 General Characteristics of the Respondents.

6.2 Occupational Background of the Respondents.

6.3 Experience of Respondents and their Families with I&V Work.

6.4 Description of I&V work and some Factors which attract Saudi nationals to I&V work in the opinion of respondents.

CHAPTER SIX: GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS AND OCCUPATIONAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY SAMPLES.

Introduction

This chapter aims to describe the major characteristics, occupational background and experience of the respondents, and their relationships with industrial and vocational work. This description is very important to explain similarities and differences between students' and fathers' situations on the one hand, and to ascertain respondents' relationship to industrial and vocational work in Saudi society on the other. The relationship of these factors to socio-cultural and economic influencing factors will be explored in the next chapter.

The chapter is divided into four parts; the first part is divided into sections according to the general characteristics of samples (students and fathers). These sections present age, origin of family, education level, type of accommodation, family size, family income, and so on. The second part is related to respondents' occupational background. This part, also, is divided into sections according to family occupation, family preferred occupation, students' work experiences, and sources of information or occupations and job opportunities. The third part of this chapter aims to explore the experience of respondents and their families with I&V work. This part includes four sections: respondents' connections with I&V work, respondents' families' connections with I&V work, school encouragement of the students to participate in I&V work, and the role of the mass media in orienting Saudi nationals to the I&V sectors. The last part

includes two sections; the first to find out of respondents' description of I&V work and the second to give an idea about responses related to some factors which attract Saudi nationals to I&V work, in the opinion of respondents.

In cases where the pattern of distribution of responses was the same for students and fathers, the two samples have been combined (see, for example, Table 6.1.2.2, Table 6.1.4.2 and so on...), in order to reduce the number of tables and avoid repetition in the discussion.

6.1 General Characteristics of the Respondents.

This section presents the general characteristics of respondents: age, origin of family, education level, type of accommodation, family size, family income, and so on.

6.1.1 Age of Respondents.

Table 6.1.1 shows the ages of the student sample, which ranged between 17-22 and the fathers' sample (31-61 and more). The majority of the student sample (53%) was between 17-18 years, and 42% were 19-20 years of age. Only 6% of student respondents were older than 21 years. This age distribution can be attributed to the nature of education system, where third year secondary school students are normally aged between 17-18 years old.

Table 6.1.1 Ages of Respondents

Age	Student		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
17-18	105	53	-	-	105	26
19-20	84	42	-	-	84	21
21-22	11	6	-	-	11	3

31-40	-	-	19	10	19	5
41-50	-	-	94	47	94	24
51-60	-	-	60	30	60	15
61&more	-	-	27	14	27	7
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

The majority of fathers (47%) were between 41-50 years and 30% between 51-60 years old. Only 10% of fathers were under 40 years old and 14% were 61 or more. In general, the ages of respondents are close to natural distribution, which indicates that the samples are representative of the population of interest in the study.

6.1.2 Place of Residence.

A consideration of Table 6.1.2.1, which is concerned with the place of residence of the respondents (students and fathers), reveals that the samples were close to each other in this respect: the majority of respondents, 52% of students and 51% of fathers, lived in cities, 35% and 38% lived in villages, 9% and 8% lived in towns, and only 5% of students and 4% fathers were still living a nomadic life.

Table 6.1.2.1 Place of Residence

Place of residence	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
City	104	52	102	51	206	52
Town	18	9	15	8	33	8
Village	69	35	76	38	145	36
Nomadic	9	5	7	4	16	4
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

In relation to place of residence (urban and rural) and its relation to association with acceptance of industrial and vocational work, table 6.1.2.2 shows, based on chi-square, that there is a significant relationship between place of residence and acceptance of industrial and vocational work. Respondents from urban areas were more accepting of involvement in I&V work than these living in rural areas: villages, towns and nomadic.

Table 6.1.2.2 The relationship between residential place & acceptance of I&V work.

Acceptance of I&V Work		Residential Place.		Total
		Urban	Rural	
Accepted	N	102	69	171
	%	25.5%	17.3%	42.8%
Not Accepted	N	104	125	229
	%	26.0%	31.3%	57.3%
Total	N	206	194	400
	%	51.5%	48.5%	100%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.941	1	.005

6.1.3 Accommodation Type and Status.

Tables 6.1.3 and 6.1.4, which concern accommodation type and status, reveal that 68% of the students and 73% of fathers lived in big houses (villas), and the majority of them (89% and 92%) owned their houses. Flats were the second most common accommodation type, housing 18% of students and 15% of the fathers. Very low respondents, only 11% and 3% respectively were still living in traditional houses and tents.

Table 6.1.3 Accommodation Type

Accommodation Type	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Tent	6	3	6	3	12	3
Traditional House	23	12	19	10	42	11
Flat	36	18	30	15	66	17
Villa	135	68	145	73	280	70
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Table 6.1.4 Accommodation Status.

Accommodation status	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Own	177	89	184	92	361	90
Rental	19	10	14	7	33	8
State Accommo.	4	2	2	1	6	2
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

6.1.4 Number of family members.

Table 6.1.4.1 gives the family size of students and fathers. Only 1% of the families were of 3 people or less, while the vast majority consisted of at least four people, with almost 90% of students and 89% of fathers having a family size of six to ten people or more.

Table 6.1.4.1 Number of family members

Number of family	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-3	1	1	2	1	3	1
4-6	21	11	21	11	42	11
7-9	73	37	64	32	137	34
10& more	105	53	113	57	218	55
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Table 6.1.4.2 The relationship between number of family members and acceptance of I&V work.

Acceptance of I&V Work		Number of Family Members		Total
		Low	High	
Accepted	N	82	89	171
	%	20.5%	22.3%	42.8%
Not Accepted	N	100	129	229
	%	25.0%	32.3%	57.3%
Total	N	182	218	400
	%	45.5%	54.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.725	1	.395

As family size is included in this study to see if it is a related to acceptance of industrial and vocational work or not, Table 6.1.4.2 illustrates - according to a chi-square test - that there is no significant relationship between the family size and acceptance of industrial and vocational work.

6.1.5 Educational level.

There is little doubt that educated parents affect their children's perception of work and life as a whole. The atmosphere in a home with educated parents is certainly different from that in a home with uneducated or illiterate parents. A broader dimension of experience is passed to the child and more understanding of what channels are suitable for the child in the future exist in a home with educated parents. As shown in Table 6.1.5.1, the majority (47%) of students' fathers had received elementary education, 17% were uneducated or at best received informal education

and 34% had middle school and higher education. Only 2% of students' fathers had received industrial and vocational education. The educational level of the students' mothers was lower; most were illiterate, 32% had received a formal education, 23% elementary and 9% only had received middle and higher education.

Table 6.1.5.1 Educational level of the students' fathers and mothers.

Educational Level	Students			
	Fathers' education		Mothers' education	
	N	%	N	%
NA	3	2	-	-
Illiterate	34	17	138	69
Elementary	93	47	45	23
Middle school	47	24	12	6
Higher education	20	10	5	3
Industrial Education	2	1	-	-
Vocational education	1	1	-	-
Total	200	100	200	100

The high level of illiteracy (69%) among students' mothers corresponds with the high level of illiteracy among wives of the fathers' sample, which was 55%, as shown in Table 6.1.5.2. None of the respondents' mothers and wives had any industrial and vocational education.

The educational level of the fathers' sample, as shown in Table 6.1.5.2 was similar to that of students' fathers; 58% had elementary and middle education, 25% had higher education and only 3% had received industrial and vocational training.

Table 6.1.5.2 Educational Level of the fathers and their wives.

Educational Level	Fathers			
	Fathers' education		Wives' education	
	N	%	N	%
Illiterate	26	13	109	55
Elementary	66	33	57	29
Middle school	50	25	33	17
Higher education	53	27	1	1
Industrial Education	3	2	-	-
Vocational education	2	1	-	-
Total	200	100	200	100

Table 6.1.5.3.1 The relationship between Students' fathers and Fathers' education level and acceptance of I&V work.

SAMPLE	Students' Fathers & Fathers' Education	Acceptance of I&V Work.		Total
		Accepted	Not Accepted	
Students	Illiterate	17	20	37
		45.9%	54.1%	100.0%
		21.8%	16.4%	18.5%
	Elementary Edu.	37	56	93
		39.8%	60.2%	100.0%
		47.4%	45.9%	46.5%
	Middle Edu.	17	30	47
		36.2%	63.8%	100.0%
		21.8%	24.6%	23.5%
	Higher Edu.	7	16	23
		30.4%	69.6%	100.0%
		9.0%	13.1%	11.5%
	Total	78	122	200
		39.0%	61.0%	100.0%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Fathers	Illiterate	7	19	26
		26.9%	73.1%	100.0%
		7.5%	17.8%	13.0%
	Elementary Edu.	21	45	66
		31.8%	68.2%	100.0%
		22.6%	42.1%	33.0%
	Middle Edu.	28	22	50

		56.0%	44.0%	100.0%
		30.1%	20.6%	25.0%
	Higher Edu.	37	21	58
		63.8%	36.2%	100.0%
		39.8%	19.6%	29.0%
	Total	93	107	200
		46.5%	53.5%	100.0%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	11.642	3	.040
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	18.510	3	.010

Table 6.1.5.3.2 The relationship between fathers' education level (both samples) and acceptance of I&V work.

Acceptance of I&V Work		Fathers' Educational Level				Total
		Illiterate	Elementary Edu.	Middle Edu.	Higher Edu.	
Accepted	N	24	58	45	44	171
	%	6.0%	14.5%	11.3%	11.0%	42.8%
		38.1%	36.5%	46.4%	54.3%	42.8%
Not Accepted	N	39	101	52	37	229
	%	9.8%	25.3%	13.0%	9.3%	57.3%
		61.9%	63.5%	53.6%	45.7%	57.3%
Total	N	63	159	97	81	400
	%	15.8%	39.8%	24.3%	20.3%	100%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.070	3	.045

For the purpose of examining if the educational level of parents has any substantial effect on attitudes to and perception of industrial and vocational work, the chi-square test was carried out to see if there was any significant relationship between educational level and acceptance of I&V work. It can be seen from Tables 6.1.5.3.1, 6.1.5.3.2, 6.1.5.4.1 and 6.1.5.4.2 that there were significant relationships between

fathers and mothers with different levels of education and acceptance of industrial and vocational work. Overall, the majority of those who did not accept I&V work were low educated or illiterate. This means, in general, that less educated families have the less awareness and acceptance of I&V work. However, a closer analysis shows some differences by generation and gender. Among the students, acceptance of I&V work declined as the educational level of their fathers increased, while among fathers, in contrast, acceptance went up as education level increased. The level of education of mothers had no appreciable correlation with the acceptance of I&V work by students, but among fathers the illiteracy of their wives showed a positive correlation with non-acceptance.

Table 6.1.5.4.1 The relationship between mother's education (both samples) and acceptance of I&V work.

SAMPLE	Mothers' & Wives' Education	Acceptance of I&V Work.		Total
		Accepted	Not Accepted	
Students	Mothers	55	83	138
	Illiterate	39.9%	60.1%	100.0%
		70.5%	68.0%	69.0%
	Literate	23	39	62
		37.1%	62.9%	100.0%
		29.5%	32.0%	31.0%
	Total	78	122	200
		39.0%	61.0%	100.0%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Fathers	Wives	40	69	109
	Illiterate	36.7%	63.3%	100.0%
		43.0%	64.5%	54.5%
	Literate	53	38	91
		58.2%	41.8%	100.0%
		57.0%	35.5%	45.5%
	Total	93	107	200
		46.5%	53.5%	100.0%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	9.532	1	**.018**
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	7.137		**.022**

Table 6.1.5.4.2 The relationship between mother's education (both samples) and acceptance of I&V work.

Acceptance of I&V Work		Mothers' Education		Total
		Illiterate	Literate	
Accepted	N	95	76	171
	%	23.8%	19.0%	42.8%
		38.5%	49.7%	42.8%
Not Accepted	N	152	77	229
	%	38.0%	19.3%	57.3%
		61.5%	50.3%	57.3%
Total	N	247	153	400
	%	61.8%	38.3%	100%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.852	1	.028

6.1.6 Family income.

Table 6.1.6.1 shows the estimated monthly income of the respondents' families (including the salaries, wages and investments of both men and women in the family in Saudi Riyals - $1=3.75 SR). This table indicates that 27% of the students and 23% of the fathers were of low economic social status (less than 3000 SR). The majority of respondents, 29% of the students and 34% of the fathers, came from families whose income was classified from 4000-6000 SR. Reasonably high income levels (10,000 SR & more) accounted for about 23% of the respondents' families for both samples, students and fathers.

Table 6.1.6.1 Family monthly income

Family income	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1000-3000	54	27	45	23	99	25
4000-6000	58	29	67	34	125	31
7000-9000	42	21	45	23	87	22
10000-12000	24	12	21	11	45	11
13000&more	22	11	22	11	44	11
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

To test the relationship between the family monthly income and acceptance of industrial and vocational work, the income levels in Table 6.1.6.1 were divided statistically into two levels, low and high. The data in Table 6.1.6.2 reveal that respondents from families with income less than 6000 SR represented about 56% and families whose income was more than 6000 SR represented about 44% of the respondents, students and fathers. A chi-square test revealed significant relationship between families of different income levels and acceptance of I&V work. Those from the lower income families were more likely to reject industrial and vocational work.

Table 6.1.6.2 The relationship between the family monthly income and acceptance of I&V work.

Acceptance of I&V Work		Family Income Level		Total
		Low	High	
Accepted	N	86	85	171
	%	21.5%	21.3%	42.8%
Not Accepted	N	138	91	229
	%	34.5%	22.8%	57.3%
Total	N	224	176	400
	%	56.0%	44.0%	100%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.949	1	**.047**

6.1.7 Students' Academic Achievement and Favourite Study Subjects

Table 6.1.7.1 illustrates that the majority (45%) of the students experienced moderate academic achievement. The high and low achievement levels both accounted for 27% of the sample. To test the relationship between achievement and acceptance of industrial and vocational work, a chi-square test was used; no significant relationship was found. This means that level of academic achievement does not influence acceptance of I&V work.

Table 6.1.7.1 The relationship between the students study level and acceptance of I&V work.

I&V situation	The students' study level			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
Accepted	25	34	19	78
	12.5%	17.0%	9.5%	39.0%
Not Accepted	30	56	36	122
	15.0%	28.0%	18.0%	61.0%
Total	55	90	55	200
	27.5%	45.0%	27.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.478	2	.477

No significant relationship was found, also, between favourite study subjects and acceptance of I&V work among students, as shown in Table 6.1.7.2. The table indicates, however, that 43% of the students favoured linguistic and religious subjects, while science subjects were preferred by 39% of the students and only 17% of respondents preferred studying social subjects. These results suggest that students prefer to study subjects which will equip them for a comfortable clerical job in the future, rather than science subjects which could lead them to involvement in I&V sectors.

Table 6.1.7.2 The relationship between favorite study subjects and acceptance of I&V work.

I&V situation	Favourite study subjects			Total
	Science subjects	Social subjects	Linguistic & religious	
Accepted	32	15	31	78
	16.0%	7.5%	15.5%	39.0%
Not Accepted	47	19	56	122
	23.5%	9.5%	28.0%	61.0%
Total	79	34	87	200
	39.5%	17.0%	43.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.864	2	.649

6.2 Occupational Background of the Respondents.

This part presents the distribution of the samples' responses according to their occupational background: family occupation, family preferred occupation, students' work experience, and information sources of occupations and job opportunities. Also, the relationships of some occupational background variables to acceptance of industrial and vocational were investigated.

6.2.1 Family Occupations.

Table 6.2.1.1 presents the types of occupations held by students' fathers and respondents in the fathers' group. The majority of the two samples, 33% of students' fathers and 39% of the fathers' sample, were involved in clerical work. Military work was the second most common occupation among both samples, accounting for 27%. Farming represented 11% of students' fathers and 16% of fathers, while 16% of

students' fathers and 8% of the fathers' group were working as businessmen, and only 9% of both samples worked in industrial and vocational sectors.

Table 6.2.1.1 Distribution of the students' fathers and fathers' occupations

Responses	Students' Fathers		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
NA	3	2	-	-	3	1
Farmer	21	11	32	16	53	13
I&V work	5	3	12	6	17	4
Business man	32	16	16	8	48	12
Military	51	26	53	27	104	26
Clerical work	65	33	77	39	142	36
No work	23	12	10	5	33	8
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

An attempt was made to investigate whether there was any relationship between fathers' occupations and acceptance of industrial and vocational work. The data presented in Table 6.2.1.2 indicates that the fathers, did not accept I&V work as an alternative to their current occupations. It can be seen, also, in this table that there is a significant relationship – according to the chi-square test - between fathers in different occupations, and acceptance of I&V work.

Table 6.2.1.2 The relationship between fathers' occupations and acceptance of I&V work.

Fathers' occupations		Acceptance of I&V Work		Total
		Accepted	Not Accepted	
NA	N	-	3	3
	%	-	.8%	.8%
			100.0%	100.0%
Farmer	N	19	34	53
	%	4.8%	8.5%	13.3%
		35.8%	64.2%	100.0%

I&V work	N	16	1	17
	%	4.0%	.3%	4.3%
		94.1%	5.9%	100.0%
Business man	N	22	26	48
	%	5.5%	6.5%	12.0%
		45.8%	54.2%	100.0%
Military	N	41	63	104
	%	10.3%	15.8%	26.0%
		39.4%	60.6%	100.0%
Clerical work	N	57	85	142
	%	14.3%	21.3%	35.5%
		40.1%	59.9%	100.0%
No work	N	16	17	33
	%	4.0%	4.3%	8.3%
		48.5%	51.5%	100.0%
Total	N	171	229	400
	%	42.8%	57.3%	100%
		42.8%	57.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23.095	6	**.001**

It was investigated whether many of the students' mothers and fathers' wives had jobs. As can be seen in Table 6.2.1.3, the majority of mothers (93%) and wives (96%) did not. It is assumed that the mothers and wives of respondents would be, as like the previous generation of women in Saudi Arabia, predominantly illiterate and housewives. More importantly, asking for information such as mothers' education or work would be perceived by some Saudis to be too intrusive a question.

To test the relationship between mothers' and wives' work situation and acceptance of I&V work among the samples, the chi-square test was used, and no significant relationship was found between these variables.

Table 6.2.1.3 Sample according to whether any of students' mothers and fathers' wives has a job, and its relationship to acceptance of I&V work.

SAMPLE	Responses	Acceptance of I&V Work		Total
		Accepted	Not Accepted	
Students	Yes	5	9	14
		2.5%	4.5%	7.0%
	No	73	113	186
		36.5%	56.5%	93.0%
	Total	78	122	200
		39.0%	61.0%	100.0%
Fathers	Yes	3	5	8
		1.5%	2.5%	4.0%
	No	90	102	192
		45.0%	51.0%	96.0%
	Total	93	107	200
		46.5%	53.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

Samples		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Chi-Square	.068	1	.794
Fathers	Chi-Square	.271	1	.602

6.2.2 Family's Preferred Occupations.

The data presented in Table 6.2.2.1 illustrate the preferred occupations among respondents' families. The information in this table reveals that clerical and military occupations were the more preferred occupations to the respondents' families with 43% and 37% of students and fathers respectively preferring clerical work, and 28% and 27% preferring military occupations. 17% of students and 19% of fathers reported business as the preferred occupation for their families. 10% and 8% of respondents indicated that their families still prefer farming work. Only 4% of students and 10% of fathers stated that their families preferred industrial and vocational occupations.

Table 6.2.2.1 Distribution of the sample according to family's preferred occupation.

Preferred Work	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Farming	19	10	16	8	35	9
I&V work	7	4	19	10	26	7
Military	55	28	54	27	109	27
Business	34	17	38	19	72	18
Clerical work	85	43	73	37	158	40
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Table 6.2.2.2 reveals - according to cross tabulation and a chi-square test – significant associations between preferred occupations and acceptance of industrial and vocational work. It can be seen that families who preferred clerical work (60.1%) and the military (63.3%) were the most rejecting of I&V work.

Table 6.2.2.2 The relationship between family's preferred occupations and acceptance of I&V work.

Preferred Work		Acceptance of I&V Work		Total
		Accepted	Not Accepted	
Farming	N	16	19	35
	%	4.0%	4.8%	8.8%
		45.7%	54.3%	100.0%
V&I work	N	23	3	26
	%	5.8%	.8%	6.5%
		88.5%	11.5%	100.0%
Military	N	40	69	109
	%	10.0%	17.3%	27.3%
		36.7%	63.3%	100.0%
Business	N	29	43	72
	%	7.3%	10.8%	18.0%
		40.3%	59.7%	100.0%
Clerical work	N	63	95	158
	%	15.8%	23.8%	39.5%
		39.9%	60.1%	100.0%

Total	N	171	229	400
	%	42.8%	57.3%	100%
		42.8%	57.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.669	4	**.000**

The data presented in Table 6.2.2.3 illustrate the work students and fathers desired for their sons in the future. The information in this table reveals that military (22%), clerical (15%) and teaching (14%) occupations were the most desired occupations for the future. The rate of acceptance of I&V work was 12%. Such work seemed to be more favoured by fathers than students. Only 15% of the fathers were happy to let their sons to decide their future as they wish, while 14% of the students were not sure what they were going to do in the future and had no plans.

In Table 6.2.2.4, students, and fathers' preference for their sons' work in the future were cross-tabulated with acceptance and non-acceptance of I&V work. A chi-square test was carried out to test the relationship between these variables; the result showed significant associations between respondents' preferred occupations in the future and their acceptance or otherwise of I&V work.

Table 6.2.2.3 Work aspirations of students (for themselves) and fathers (for their sons).

Kind of Work	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Farming	8	4	3	2	11	3
I & V work	13	7	34	17	47	12
Military	65	33	22	11	87	22
Business	18	9	8	4	26	7
Clerical work	9	5	49	25	58	15
Medicine	23	12	28	14	51	13
Teaching	36	18	21	11	57	14

As he wish	-	-	30	15	30	8
I do not know	28	14	5	3	33	8
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Table 6.2.2.4 The relationship between the work aspirations of students and fathers and acceptance of I&V work.

Future Work		Acceptance of I&V Work		Total
		Accepted	Not Accepted	
Farming	N	3	8	11
	%	.8	2.0	2.8
I&V work	N	37	10	47
	%	9.3	2.5	11.8
Military	N	31	56	87
	%	7.8	14.0	21.8
Business	N	12	14	26
	%	3.0	3.5	6.5
Clerical work	N	22	36	58
	%	5.5	9.0	14.5
Medicine	N	23	28	51
	%	5.8	7.0	12.8
Teaching	N	26	31	57
	%	6.5	7.8	14.3
As he wishes	N	7	23	30
	%	1.8	5.8	7.5
I do not Know	N	10	23	33
	%	2.5	5.8	8.3
Total	N	171	229	400
	%	42.8	57.3	100

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	35.418	8	**.000**

To see if there was any relationship between families' preferred work and the future work plans of respondents, cross-tabulation was carried out with a chi-square test. The result in Table 6.2.2.5 shows a highly significant relationship between family occupational preferences and future occupational plans. For example, respondents

whose families favoured military occupations were more likely to plan for this kind of work in the future. An exception to this trend was farmers; even those who preferred farming did not plan to continue such work in the future.

Table 6.2.2.5 The relationship between the family's preferred work and the future work plans.

The Future Work		The Family's preferred work					Total
		Farming	I&V work	Military	Business	Clerical	
Farming	N	-	2	3	6	-	11
	%	-	.5	.8	1.5	-	2.8
I & V work	N	5	10	16	3	13	47
	%	1.3	2.5	4.0	.8	3.3	11.8
Military	N	12	2	35	16	22	87
	%	3.0	.5	8.8	4.0	5.5	21.8
Business	N	4	-	6	7	9	26
	%	1.0	-	1.5	1.8	2.3	6.5
Clerical work	N	1	5	14	10	28	58
	%	.3	1.3	3.5	2.5	7.0	14.5
Medicine	N	5	4	10	13	19	51
	%	1.3	1.0	2.5	3.3	4.8	12.8
Teaching	N	6	1	10	7	33	57
	%	1.5	.3	2.5	1.8	8.3	14.3
As he wish	N	2	1	9	4	14	30
	%	.5	.3	2.3	1.0	3.5	7.5
I do not know	N	-	1	6	6	20	33
	%	-	.3	1.5	1.5	5.0	8.3
Total	N	35	26	109	72	158	400
	%	8.8	6.5	27.3	18.0	39.5	100

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	84.661	32	.000

Table 6.2.2.6 illustrates the past work experience of students. The table shows that only 25% of students had held a job in the past - these jobs were most likely part-time or summer jobs, and only a small proportion were steady jobs. The largest group among those who had jobs (16.5%) were employed in sectors related to clerical work

and the rest (8.5%) had experience related to I&V work. Cross tabulation and chi-square were carried out as shown at end of table 6.2.2.6. A significant relationship was found between students' having work experience and their acceptance of industrial and vocational work in the future.

Table 6.2.2.6 The relation between students' work experience in the past and acceptance of I&V work.

Kind of work		Acceptance of I&V Work		Total
		Accepted	Not Accepted	
NA	N	48	102	150
	%	24.0	51.0	75.0
Clerical work	N	19	14	33
	%	9.5	7.0	16.5
I&V work	N	11	6	17
	%	5.5	3.0	8.5
Total	N	78	122	200
	%	39.0	61.0	100

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.598	2	**.002**

There are kinds of work which people practise at their home daily, which in some societies, like Saudi society, would be considered shameful if practised in public. The study investigated whether the respondents practised such work at their homes and relationship between that and acceptance of I&V work. Table 6.2.2.7 reveals that 51.5% of students practised some occupations at home (driving, carpentry, decorating, gardening ...and so on), and 18% practised some kind of housework (cleaning, washing, cooking...and so on), while and 30% of students were not prepared to take part in any such work. Among fathers, 48% engaged in home-based occupations, but only 9.6% participated of housework. The remaining 42% of the fathers did not share in their families' housework or other chores. To test the relationship between

housework and acceptance of I&V work, cross-tabulation and chi-square were carried out. The results show that there were significant relationships between those variables for both samples, students and fathers. Respondents who engaged in home occupations and housework were more accepting of industrial and vocational work.

Table 6.2.2.7 The relationship between housework of the sample and acceptance of I&V work.

Sample	Acceptance of I&V Work	The family housework			Total
		House occupation	House work	Not work	
Students	Accepted	51	13	14	78
		25.5%	6.5%	7.0%	39%
	Not Accepted	52	23	47	122
		26.0%	11.5%	23.5%	61%
	Total	103	36	61	200
		51.5%	18.0%	30.5%	100%
Fathers	Accepted	58	11	23	92
		29.3%	5.6%	11.6%	46.5%
	Not Accepted	38	8	60	106
		19.2%	4.0%	30.3%	53.5%
	Total	96	19	83	198
		48.5%	9.6%	41.9%	100%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	11.517	2	**.003**
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	19.864	2	**.000**

6.2.3 Kind of Family workers.

Table 6.2.3 illustrates the kind and nationality of workers who worked for respondents' families. The results show that 51% of respondents' families had Saudi or non-Saudi workers and the remaining 49% had no workers. The majority of workers (46.5%) were non-Saudi. Families who had Saudi workers represented 2.8% and only 1.8% had both Saudi and non-Saudi workers (*these percentages are based on 51% of*

families who had workers). This table, also, shows that workers were mostly employed in farm work, followed by services, I&V workers came in the third place (9.3%), and finally 2.3% of families had clerical workers.

Chi-square was carried out, and the results indicated a significant relation between kinds of workers and their nationalities. The results indicate that the study respondents preferred non-Saudi workers more than Saudi workers.

Table 6.2.3 Kind and nationality of workers who work for sample families.

Kind of workers	Workers' nationalities.				Total
	NA	Saudi	Non Saudi	SA & non SA	
Farming workers	-	5	83	-	88
	-	1.3%	20.8%	-	22.0%
Vocational workers	-	2	24	2	28
	-	.5%	6.0%	.5%	7.0%
Industrial workers	-	-	7	2	9
	-	-	1.8%	.5%	2.3%
Service workers	-	2	68	-	70
	-	.5%	17.0%	-	17.5%
Clerical workers	-	2	4	3	9
	-	.5%	1.0%	.8%	2.3%
No workers	196	-	-	-	196
	49.0%	-	-	-	49.0%
Total	196	11	186	7	400
	49.0%	2.8%	46.5%	1.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	494.650	15	.000

6.2.4 Information Source of Job Opportunities.

Table 6.2.4 illustrates the distribution of respondents according to their information sources of job opportunities. The preferred method of looking for a job, among the student sample, was friends and relatives: almost 52% of students and 33%

of fathers relied upon this method. The media was considered the best way by 36% of fathers and was the second source (25%) for students. School and college came as the third source used by 17% of students and 14% of fathers. The Civil Service Bureau and Office of Work & Labour, as formal sources of this kind of information, played a very limited role according to responses of both samples students, (4%) and fathers (6%).

Table 6.2.4 Respondents' sources of information on job opportunities.

Job source information	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
School and colleges	33	17	28	14	61	15
Media	49	25	71	36	120	30
Friends & relatives	103	52	66	33	169	42
Civil service bureau	8	4	22	11	30	8
Office of work & labour	7	4	12	6	19	5
Total	200	100	199	100	399	100

6.3 Experience of respondents and their families with I&V work.

This section aims to explore the experience of respondents and their families with industrial and vocational work. This sections includes four sub-sections: respondents' experience of I&V work, respondents' families experience of I&V work, school encouragement of students to be involved in I&V work, and, finally, the role of the mass media in orienting Saudi nationals to the I&V sectors.

6.3.1 Sample according to their desire to be involved in I&V work.

The responses of students and fathers, presented in Table 6.3.1.1.1, showed that the majority of students (59%) and fathers (52%) did not desire this kind of work.

Industrial and vocational work, in general, was more acceptable to fathers (49%) than students (41%).

Table 6.3.1.1.1 Distribution of sample according to whether any of them desire to be involved in I&V sectors

Responses	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	82	41	97	49	179	45
No	118	59	103	52	221	55
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

To test the differences between students and fathers in relation to their desire to be involved in I&V work, a t-test is presented in Table 6.3.1.1.2.

The Levene's Test for Equality of Variances shows a significant **F** value (**.014**), which suggests that an equivalent non-parametric test should be selected instead of the t-test. The test used was the Mann-Whitney test (Table 6.3.1.1.3).

Table 6.3.1.1.2 The differences between students and fathers in relation to their desire to be involved in I&V work (t-test).

T-Test

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	1.59	.49	3.49E-02
Fathers	200	1.52	.50	3.54E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
6.123	.014	1.509	398	.132

The Mann-Whitney Test result shows no significant difference in the mean ranks on the desire to be involved in industrial and vocational sectors between students

and fathers. Thus, it can be said that both samples, students and fathers are equally reluctant to be involved in I&V sectors.

Table 6.3.1.1.3 The differences between students and fathers in relation to their desire to be involved in I&V work (m-w-test).

Mann-Whitney Test

SAMPLE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Students	200	208.00	41600.00
Fathers	200	193.00	38600.00

Independent Samples Test

Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
18500.000	38600.000	-1.506	.132

Also, Table 6.3.1.2 illustrates that only 15% of students and 23% of fathers had tried to engage in I&V work. The fact that the majority, 85% of students and 78% of fathers had not, gives a clear indication of respondents' lack of interest in industrial and vocational work. This is particularly so for fathers; students might have been constrained from seeking I&V or any other work, by their study commitments.

Table 6.3.1.2 Distribution of sample according to whether any of them tried to engage in I&V work

Responses	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	30	15	45	23	75	19
No	170	85	155	78	325	81
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

6.3.2 Sample according to their families' involvement in I&V work.

The situations of respondents' families' involvement in industrial and vocational work, was similar to that of the respondents themselves. Table 6.3.2.1

shows that 80% of students' families and 76% of fathers' families had no I&V involvement.

Table 6.3.2.1 Distribution of sample according to whether any of their family has an I&V job.

Responses	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	40	20	48	24	88	22
No	160	80	152	76	312	78
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

In related to families' involvement in any programmes linked to the I&V sectors, it can be seen from Table 6.3.2.2 that only 12% of the students' family members and 16% of fathers' family members were involved in school, college or other programmes related to the industrial, technical and vocational sectors.

Table 6.3.2.2 Distribution of sample according to whether any of their family involved in any programme of I&V work.

Responses	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	23	12	32	16	55	14
No	177	89	168	84	345	86
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

The results shown in Table 6.3.2.3 are consistent with the results shown previously; only 6% of students' families and 7% of fathers' families had an industrial or vocational workshop.

Table 6.3.2.3 Distribution of sample according to whether any of their family had I&V workshop.

Responses	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	12	6	14	7	26	7
No	188	94	186	93	374	94
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Table 6.3.2.4 shows responses related to family encouragement of its members to be involved in the industrial and vocational sectors. As the table shows, 29% of the students' families and 43% of fathers' families encouraged their members to be involved in I&V sectors. The fact that 71% of students' families and 57% of fathers' families were said to not encourage such involvement is consistent with the low level of interest reflected in the findings presented earlier.

Table 6.3.2.4 Distribution of sample according to the family encouragement of its members to be involved in I&V sectors.

Responses	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	58	29	86	43	144	36
No	142	71	114	57	256	64
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

The data in table 6.3.2.5.1 compares acceptance of manual work in the past and at present. Firstly, in relation to acceptance of manual work in the past, about 59% of students and fathers thought manual work was accepted in the past, and 42% of respondents considered that manual work was not acceptable to them and to their

families in the past. Secondly, in relation to acceptance of manual work in the present, only about 26% of students and fathers stated that manual work was acceptable to them and to their families.

To see if these responses reflected a significant difference in attitude between past and present a chi-square test was carried out. The result of this test indicated a significant difference in attitude between the past and present among students, but not among fathers. This result means, that there is significant difference between students' views of the past and present acceptance of manual work, but for fathers there was no such difference, even though, there was a significant difference in the attitude between the past and present acceptance of manual work among students and fathers (as group).

Table 6.3.2.5.1 Distribution of sample according to the relation between acceptance of manual work in past and present.

Cross tabulation

Time			At present		
	SAMPLE	Responses	Yes	No	Total
In The Past	Students	Yes	43	75	118
			21.5%	37.5%	59.0%
		No	7	75	82
			3.5%	37.5%	41.0%
		Total	50	150	200
			25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
	Fathers	Yes	34	82	116
			17.0%	41.0%	58.0%
		No	19	65	84
			9.5%	32.5%	42.0%
		Total	53	147	200
			26.5%	73.5%	100.0%
In The Past	Students & Fathers	Yes	77	157	234
			19.3%	39.3%	58.5%
		No	26	140	166
			6.5%	35.0%	41.5%
		Total	103	297	400
			25.8%	74.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	20.091	1	.000
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	1.120	1	.290
S&F	Pearson Chi-Square	15.102	1	.000

To clarify further the differences between students and fathers in acceptance of manual work in the past and present, a t-test for these differences is presented in Table 6.3.2.5.2. The result reveals that there is no significant difference in the mean score between students and fathers in their view towards acceptance and non-acceptance manual work in past and present.

Table 6.3.2.5.2 The difference between students & fathers in acceptance of manual work in past and present.

T-Test

Time	SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
In Past	Students	200	1.41	.49	3.49E-02
	Fathers	200	1.42	.49	3.50E-02
Present	Students	200	1.75	.43	3.07E-02
	Fathers	200	1.74	.44	3.13E-02

Independent Samples Test

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
In Past	.163	.686	-.202	398	.840
Present	.469	.494	.342	398	.732

6.3.3 The school encouragement of the students to engage in I&V work.

The data presented in Table 6.3.3.1 illustrate the respondents' views towards the role of schools in encouraging students to enter the I&V sectors and its relationship with acceptance of I&V work. The results show that the majority of students (61%) and 31% of fathers considered that school plays only a small role in encouraging students to enter in these sectors. The majority of fathers (68%) and 38% of students

considered that the school has a strong role in encouraging students to enter I&V sectors.

To test the relationship between views of the school role and acceptance of work in I&V sectors, a chi-square test was carried out. The result of this test indicated a significant relationship, in relation to the responses of the students, between non-acceptance of I&V work and perception of the low role of the school in encouraging such work. Fathers' responses revealed a significant relationship between acceptance of I&V and perception of the high role of the school in encouraging such work. This suggests that the school can play an important role in attitudes to I&V and that had a more favourable impact on the attitudes of fathers than of students.

Table 6.3.3.1 Distribution of sample according to their view toward role of the school in encouraging students to be involved in I&V work.

Cross tabulation

		The School Role		
SAMPLE	Responses	High	Low	Total
Students	Accepted	43	35	78
		21.5%	17.5%	39.0%
	Not Accepted	35	87	122
		17.5%	43.5%	61.0%
	Total	78	122	200
		39.0%	61.0%	100%
Fathers	Accepted	77	16	93
		38.5%	8.0%	46.5%
	Not Accepted	60	47	107
		30.0%	23.5%	53.5%
	Total	137	63	200
		68.5%	31.5%	100%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	13.981	1	.000
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	16.464	1	.000

To test further the differences between students and fathers in their view toward the role of the school in encouraging students to be involve in I&V work, a t-test was carried out. The results are presented in Table 6.3.3.2.

Table 6.3.3.2 The differences between students and fathers in their view toward role of the school in encouraging students to be involved in I&V work.

T-Test

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	1.61	.49	3.46E-02
Fathers	200	1.32	.47	3.29E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
9.491	.002	6.178	398	**.000**

The Levene's Test for Equality of Variances shows a significant **F** value (**.002**), which suggests that an equivalent non-parametric test should be selected instead of the t-test. The test used was the Mann-Whitney test (Table 6.3.3.3).

The result, according to Mann-Whitney test, shows that there is a significant difference in the mean scores of responses between the two samples, students and fathers. This result means that fathers and students were different in their views toward the role of the school in encouraging students to be involved in industrial and vocational sectors.

Table 6.3.3.3 The differences between students and fathers in their view toward role of the school in encouraging student to be involved in I&V work.

Mann-Whitney Test

SAMPLE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Students	200	230.00	46000.00
Fathers	200	171.00	34200.00

Independent Samples Test

Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
14100.000	34200.000	-5.909	**.000**

Also, in relation to the role of the school in encouraging students to enrol in I&V sectors, Table 6.3.3.4 reveals that only 24% of students had visited some industrial, technical and vocational sectors with their schools, and only 39% of students had been advised by their teacher to enrol in these sectors, as shown in Table 6.3.3.5.

Table 6.3.3.4 Distribution of sample (students) according to whether any of them had visited, with school, any I&V sectors.

Responses	Students	
	N	%
Yes	47	24
No	153	77
Total	200	100

To test the relationship between students being advised by their teachers to be involved in I&V sectors and their acceptance of work in those sectors, a chi-square test was carried out. The result of this test indicated a significant relationship between non-acceptance of I&V work and perception of the low role of teachers in encouraging such work.

Table 6.3.3.5 Distribution of sample (students) according to whether any of them were advised by teacher to be involved in I&V sectors and acceptance of I&V work.

Responses		Acceptance of I&V Work		Total
		Accepted	Not Accepted	
No	N	35	87	122
	%	28.7%	71.3%	100.0%
		44.9%	71.3%	61.0%
Yes	N	43	35	78
	%	55.1%	44.9%	100.0%
		55.1%	28.7%	39.0%

Total	N	78	122	200
	%	39.0%	61.0%	100.0%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.981	1	000.

6.3.4 Role of the mass media in orienting Saudi nationals towards I&V work.

The data offered in Table 6.3.4.1 illustrate the respondents' views towards the role of the media in encouraging students to be involved in I&V sectors and its relation with acceptance of I&V work. The results show that the majority of both samples' 77% of students and fathers considered that the media plays a strong role in encouraging Saudi nationals to be involved in industrial, technical and vocational sectors.

To test the relationship between the perceived role of media and respondents' acceptance of work in I&V sectors, chi-square tests were carried out. The results reveal that there is no significant relationship between these variables for either sample, fathers and students. This result means that perceptions of the impact of the media are not reflected in acceptance or non-acceptance of I&V work (Table 6.3.4.1).

Table 6.3.4.1 Distribution of sample according to their view toward role of the mass media in encouraging Saudi nationals to be involved in I&V work.

Cross tabulation

		Mass Media Role		
SAMPLE	**Responses**	**High**	**Low**	**Total**
Students	**Accepted**	62	16	78
		31.0%	8.0%	39.0%
	Not Accepted	93	29	122
		46.5%	14.5%	61.0%

	Total	155	45	200
		77.5%	22.5%	100.0%
Fathers	Accepted	70	23	93
		35.0%	11.5%	46.5%
	Not Accepted	84	23	107
		42.0%	11.5%	53.5%
	Total	154	46	200
		77.0%	23.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	.290	1	.590
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	.294	1	.588

To see if there were differences between students and fathers in their views toward the role of the mass media in encouraging Saudi nationals to be involved in I&V work, a t-test was carried out. The results presented in Table 6.3.4.2 showed no significant difference in the mean scores of students and fathers, in relation to their view of the role of the media in encouraging Saudi nationals to be involved in industrial and vocational sectors.

Table 6.3.4.2 The differences between sample according to their view toward role of the mass media in encouraging Saudi nationals to be involved in I&V work.

T-Test

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	Students	200	1.23	.42
Fathers	Fathers	200	1.23	.42

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
.057	.812	-.119	398	.905

Regarding the role of the media in encouraging and educating Saudi nationals about I&V sectors, Table 6.3.4.3 reveals that 77% of students and 69% of fathers had read or heard about some industrial, technical and vocational sectors. However only

44% of the students and 38% of fathers respondents had received books or leaflets which related to industrial and vocational sectors, as shown in Table 6.3.4.4.

Table 6.3.4.3 Distribution of sample according to whether any of them read or heard about I&V work.

Responses	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	154	77	137	69	291	73
No	46	23	63	32	109	27
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Table 6.3.4.4 Distribution of sample according to whether any of them received books or leaflets about I&V work.

Responses	Students		Fathers		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	88	44	76	38	164	41
No	112	56	124	62	236	59
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

6.4 Description of I&V work and some Factors which attract Saudi nationals to I&V work in the opinion of respondents.

6.4.1 The more acceptable industrial and vocational occupations.

The data presented in Table 6.4.1 reveal that the preferred industrial and vocational occupations among students and fathers were computers and electronics, farming and pasture, and machine and electrical shops. The less acceptable forms of I&V work among students and fathers were "other occupations" such as cooking, cleaning, hairdressing, butchery, welding, carpentry and so on – as classified in the questionnaires (Appendix B). It appears from this table that there is a great similarity

among the two groups, students and fathers, regarding the top three occupations and the two lowest ones. From these responses, also, it is very clear that work which demands physical effort is accorded the lowest status in Saudi society, reflecting the culture which still looks down on these kinds of work. Occupations like computers or electronics, which accounted for 73% of students and 80% of fathers' responses, were more acceptable since they involve less physical effort, carry high social status and are encouraged by the expansion of education and by the Saudi government, families and society in general.

Table 6.4.1 Distribution of sample according to I&V occupations preferred among respondents who accepted I&V work.

Samples	Responses	Accepted		Not accepted		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Students	1. Computer & Electronics.	145	73	55	28	200	100
	2. Farming & Pasture.	113	57	87	44	200	100
	3. Machine & Electric shops.	60	30	140	70	200	100
	4. Construction equipment.	28	14	172	86	200	100
	5. Other occupations".	15	8	185	93	200	100
Fathers	1. Computer & Electronics.	159	80	39	20	198	100
	2. Farming & Pasture.	121	61	77	39	198	100
	3. Machine & Electric shops.	90	45	108	55	198	100
	4. Construction equipment.	25	13	173	87	198	100
	5. Other occupations".	10	5	188	95	198	100

6.4.2 Description of I&V work.

In relation to some factors which reflect the impression of respondents toward industrial and vocational work, Table 6.4.2 reveals that about 80% of respondents, students and fathers, believed that long working hours, especially in the private sector as compared with the government sector, are a major factor preventing Saudi nationals

from engaging in industrial and vocational work. This was the factor most frequently mentioned by students, as affecting enrolments in the vocational and industrial private sectors. The second influencing factor was the dangerous nature of I&V work, rated by 78% of both groups, students and fathers. There is also a traditional idea among many Saudi people that vocational work does not offer enough opportunity for promotion compared with office jobs, where a person can get promotion according to a fixed organizational structure laid down for the establishment's employees. For instance, in the government sector, employees are promoted every four years as well as receiving regular annual increments. This factor, "promotion" formed the third (70%) factor among students' responses and the fourth (66%) among fathers' responses.

Respondents' perception of some vocational and of industrial work as unclean, represents the third obstacle (66%) among fathers' responses and the sixth (65%) according to students' responses. The low social status and value given to industrial and vocational work, is an obstacle to involvement in I&V work. This is the fourth factor (70%) among students and fifth (61%) among fathers. Financial incentives are also a deciding factor in career or work choices. The importance of this factor is seen by the fact that 66% of students and 53% of the fathers thought that the low salary paid to industrial and vocational workers - especially in the private sector where expatriate labour accept low salaries - is one of the major obstacles to involvement in such work. The more favourable factors "nearby, easy work, security, and reputation" as shown in this table, were perceived by fewer respondents as applicable to I&V work.

The results related to these factors, in general, indicated that to the majority of respondents, industrial and vocational work is still not acceptable.

Table 6.4.2 Distribution of sample according to their description of I&V work.

Students	Work description	Yes		No		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
1.	Short term	41	21	159	80	200	100
2.	Not Dangerous	44	22	156	78	200	100
3.	Promotion	60	30	140	70	200	100
4.	Prestige	61	31	139	70	200	100
5.	High salary	68	34	132	66	200	100
6.	Clean	71	36	129	65	200	100
7.	Nearby	74	37	126	63	200	100
8.	Easy work	88	44	112	56	200	100
9.	Security	92	46	108	54	200	100
10.	Good reputation	95	48	105	53	200	100
Fathers	**Work description**	**Yes**		**No**		**Total**	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
1.	Short term	41	21	155	79	196	100
2.	Not Dangerous	44	22	152	78	196	100
3.	Clean	66	34	130	66	196	100
4.	Promotion	67	34	129	66	196	100
5.	Prestige	76	39	120	61	196	100
6.	Nearby	84	43	112	57	196	100
7.	Security	91	46	105	54	196	100
8.	High salary	92	47	104	53	196	100
9.	Easy work	96	49	101	51	197	100
10.	Good reputation	99	51	97	49	196	100

6.4.3 Some Factors attracting Saudi nationals to I&V work.

An attempt was also made to identify steps could be taken to attract Saudi nationals towards industrial, technical, and vocational work. Tables 6.4.3.1 and 6.4.3.2 included some factors which researcher thought could be significant in solving the problem of low enrolment of Saudi nationals in this kind of work and education. The respondents were asked to indicate whether they regarded them as more important or less important.

The results, as shown in Tables 6.4.3.1 & 6.4.3.2, were arranged in descending order from the more important to the less important. The factor, "open (un-centralized) I&V colleges equal to university colleges" was rated as the most important by students, and was the second priority in fathers' responses (69%) (Table 6.4.3.2). Increased allowances and grants for T, I&V students, as one of attractive factors, represented the first concern among fathers' responses (76%) and the second (75%) for students.

Table 6.4.3.1 Distribution of sample (students) according to some factors which attract Saudi nationals to I&V work.

Students							
N	Factors	More Important		Less Important		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
1.	*Open (un-centralized) I&T colleges equal to university colleges.*	156	78	44	22	200	100
2.	*Increase allowances and grants for T, I&V students.*	150	75	50	25	200	100
3.	*Limit important labour.*	143	72	57	29	200	100
4.	*Increase awareness of I&V value.*	127	64	73	37	200	100
5.	*Improve role of the universities in I&T fields.*	121	61	79	40	200	100
6.	*Create strong relations between T, I&VE & GE.*	115	58	85	43	200	100
7.	*Increase expatriates importation fee.*	110	55	90	45	200	100
8.	*Limit the acceptance in the universities.*	101	51	99	50	200	100
9.	*Establish a legal minimum wage level in T, I&V sectors.*	95	48	105	53	200	100
10.	*Other factors.*	48	24	152	76	200	100

Regarding competition from foreign labour, especially for salaries and wages, students and fathers (72% and 68% respectively) indicated that reducing reliance on imported expatriate labour was one of the more important factors in favour of I&V.

Moreover 55% and 47% of students and fathers thought the increasing cost bringing in expatriates was important. Increased awareness of the value of I&V work, as one of the more important factors contributed to encourage involvement in industrial and vocational sectors, represented 64% of students' responses and 57% of fathers' responses.

Table 6.4.3.2 Distribution of sample (fathers) according to some factors which attractive Saudi nationals to I&V work.

Fathers							
Factors		More Important		Less Important		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
1.	*Increase allowances and grants for T, I&V students.*	152	76	48	24	200	100
2.	*Open I&T colleges (neutralization) equal to university colleges.*	137	69	63	32	200	100
3.	*Limit important labour.*	136	68	64	32	200	100
4.	*Improve role of the universities in I&T fields.*	116	58	84	42	200	100
5.	*Increase awareness of I&V value.*	114	57	86	43	200	100
6.	*Create strong relations between T,I&VE & GE.*	108	54	92	46	200	100
7.	*Limit the acceptance in the universities.*	96	48	104	52	200	100
8.	*Increase expatriates importation fee.*	93	47	107	54	200	100
9.	*Establish a legal minimum wage level in T, I&V sectors.*	77	39	123	62	200	100
10.	*Other factors.*	64	32	136	68	200	100

Other attractive factors were: creating strong relations between T, I&VE & general education, limiting the acceptance in the universities, establishing a legal minimum wage level in T, I&V sectors and other factors such as providing opportunities for willing students to proceed to higher education and giving confidence, through training and practical work, to Saudi youth, as shown in Tables

6.4.3.1 and 6.4.3.2. These were widely thought to be important factors attracting people to industrial and vocational sectors, by both students and fathers.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter has described the major characteristics and occupational background of the respondents, and their experience and relationships with industrial and vocational work. The data presented provided the following main findings:

1. General characteristics of the Respondents.

1. Over half the students' sample (53%) were between 17-18 years, and 42% were 19-20 years of age. Only 6% of student respondents were older than 21 years. Forty seven percent of fathers' sample respondents were between 41-50 years and 30% between 51-60 years old. Only 10% of fathers were under 40 years old and 14% were 61 or over.

2. The majority of respondents, 52% of students and 51% fathers lived in cities, 35% and 38% lived in villages, 9% and 8% lived in towns, and only 5% of students and 4% of fathers were still living a nomadic life.

3. Sixty eight percent of the students and 73% of fathers lived in big houses (villas), and the majority of them, 89% and 92%, owned their houses. A small percentage of respondents, only 11% and 3% of students and fathers respectively, were still living in traditional houses and tents.

4. Only 1% of the families had three people or fewer, while the vast majority consisted of at least four people; almost 90% of students and 89% of fathers were from families of six to ten people or more.

5. Almost half (47%) of students' fathers had received only elementary education, while 17% were uneducated or, at best, received informal education. There were 34% who had middle school and higher education, and only 2% of students' fathers had received industrial and vocational education.

6. The education level of the father's sample was not very different from that level of the students' fathers; 58% had elementary and middle education, 27% had higher education and only 3% were involved in industrial and vocational education.

7. The majority (69%) of students' mothers were illiterate, as were 55% of fathers' wives. Also, none of the respondents' mothers and wives had any industrial and vocational education.

8. Almost half the students (45%) had a moderate level of academic achievement. The remainder were equally distributed between high and low achievement for each.

9. Linguistic and religious subjects were preferred by 43% of students and science subjects were preferred by 39%. Only 17% of respondents preferred studying social subjects.

10. The study revealed that the majority of respondents (56%) came from families whose monthly income level was less than 6000 SR.

2. Occupational background.

1. The largest occupational category for both students and fathers was clerical work. Military work was the second most common occupation among both samples (27%).

2. The data revealed that 93% of students' mothers and 96% of fathers' wives did not have a formal occupation.

3. Clerical and military occupations were the preferred occupations among the respondents' families (43% and 37%), followed by military occupations. 17% of students and 19% of fathers reported business as the occupation preferred by their families.

4. Also, military (22%) clerical (15%) and teaching (14%) occupations were ones most desired by students and fathers for their sons in the future.

5. Only 25% of students had held a job in the past - these jobs were most likely part-time or summer jobs, and only a small portion were steady jobs. About two thirds of those who had jobs were employed in sectors related to clerical work and the rest had experience related to I&V work.

6. Fifty-one percent of students and 48% of the fathers' engaged in some kind of manual work within the house (driving, carpentry, decorating, gardening ...and so on), while 18% of students and only 9.6% of fathers did some kind of housework (cleaning, washing, cooking...and so on). 30% and 42% of students and fathers respectively were not willing to share in any work of this kind.

7. The results show that 51% of respondents' families employed workers, the vast majority of whom were non-Saudi. Most were employed for farm work, then

service, I&V workers were employed by 7.8% of respondents' families and finally 1.0% had clerical workers.

8. The method most used to look for a job, among students and fathers, was consulting friends and relatives; almost 52% of students and 33% of fathers relied upon this method. The Civil Service Bureau and Office of Work & Labour, as formal sources of this kind of information, played a very limited role, being cited by only 4% of students and 6% of fathers.

3. Experience and relationship of respondents and their families with I&V work.

1. The majority of students (59%) and fathers (52%) had no desire to engage in I&V work. Industrial and vocational work, in general, was more acceptable to fathers than students.

2. Only 15% of students and 23% of fathers had tried to engage in I&V work.

3. Eighty percent of students' families and 76% of fathers' families had no members with I&V jobs. Twelve percent of the students' family members and 16% of fathers' family members were involved in school, college or other programmes related to industrial, technical and vocational sectors. Only 6% of students' families and 7% of fathers' families had industrial or vocational workshop.

4. The majority of families (71% for students and 57% for fathers) did not encourage their members to enter industrial and vocational work.

5. The study revealed that 59% of students and fathers thought that manual work was more accepted in the past, but only about 26% of students and fathers stated that manual work was currently acceptable to them and to their families.

6. The majority of students (61%) considered that school has a low role in encouraging students to enter I&V sectors, while 68% of fathers considered that the school has a strong role in encouraging students towards these sectors.

7. Only 24% of students had visited some industrial, technical and vocational sectors with their schools, and only 39% had been advised by their teacher to enter these sectors

8. A 77% majority of both samples, students and fathers, considered that the media has a potentially important high role in encouraging Saudi national to engage in industrial, technical and vocational sectors.

9. Seventy seven percent of students and 69% of fathers had read or heard about some industrial, technical and vocational sectors, but only 44% of the students and 38% of fathers' respondents had received books or leaflets related to industrial and vocational sectors.

4. Description of I&V work and some factors which attract Saudi nationals to be involved in I&V work.

1. The preferred industrial and vocational occupations among students and fathers were computers and electronics, farming and pasture, and machine and electric shops. The least acceptable I&V occupations were occupations such as cooking, cleaning, hairdressing, butchery, welding, carpentry and so on.

2. Eighty percent of respondents, students and fathers, believed that long working hours, especially in the private sector, are one of the factors preventing Saudi nationals from engaging in industrial and vocational work. The second influential

factor was the danger of I&V work, cited by 78% of both groups. Promotion was cited by 70% of students and 66% of fathers as an influential factor.

3. Two thirds of respondents believed that the perception of vocational and some industrial sectors work as unclean, is an obstacle to participation.

4. Lack of prestige is another obstacle to involvement in I&V work

5. Sixty six percent of students and 53% of the fathers thought that the low salary paid to industrial and vocational workers - especially in the private sector where expatriate labour accept low salaries - is one of the main obstacles to involvement in such work.

6. Having open (un-centralized) I&V colleges equal to university colleges, was considered the factor most likely to attract people to I&V sectors, being cited by 78% of students and 69% of fathers.

7. Increased allowances and grants for T, I&V students were considered to be an attraction by around three quarters of respondents in both samples.

8. Students and fathers (72% and 68% respectively) indicated that limiting the import of expatriate labour would be one of the more important ways of attracting people to I&V, to reduce competition from foreign labour. In addition, 55% and 47% of students and fathers thought that increasing the expatriate importing fee would have a similar effect.

9. Increased awareness of the value of I&V work was one of the more important factors that would contribute to involvement in industrial and vocational sectors, according to 64% of students and 57% of fathers.

CHAPTER----------7

ANALYSIS OF THE FACTORS INFLUENCING SAUDI NATIONALS INVOLVEMENT IN I&V SECTORS

7.1 Social Factors.

7.2 Cultural Factors.

7.3 Economic Factors.

CHAPTER SEVEN: ANALYSIS OF THE FACTORS INFLUENCING SAUDI NATIONALS INVOLVEMENT IN I&V SECTORS.

Introduction

This chapter aims to analyse some factors influencing Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors. This chapter, therefore, is divided into three main parts. The first part covers the responses of students in relation to social factors, and their influence on the acceptance of industrial and vocational work. In this part, social factors include the social value of I&V work, the social status of work and acceptance of I&V work, preference for clerical work rather than I&V work, orientations of family occupation and acceptance of this kind of work, and the main influence on Saudi nationals to accept I&V work; is it the family, the tribe or society in general? In the second part, awareness of the importance of I&V work, preference for general education rather than I&V education, and preference for work with Saudis rather than other nationalities are considered as cultural factors. The third part explores economic factors, including the impact of preference the foreign labour on Saudi nationals' involvement in I&V sectors, of work in government I&V rather than private I&V sectors, future jobs available in industrial and vocational sectors, and, finally, the effect of salary levels in the private sector on the acceptance industrial and vocational work.

7.1 Social factors.

7.1.1 The social value of industrial and vocational work.

Table 7.1.1.1 Distribution of the sample according to the social value of industrial and vocational work.

Factors	R	SD*		DA*		N*		A*		SA*		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Society gives a big value to I&V work.	S*	25	13	36	18	20	10	96	48	23	12	200	100
	F*	15	8	49	25	5	3	91	46	40	20	200	100
2. There is no difference between the social value of I&V and other kinds of work.	S	31	16	82	41	32	16	41	21	14	7	200	100
	F	16	8	45	23	12	6	94	47	33	17	200	100
3. Occupations such as carpenter, smith, butcher, are not acceptable socially.	S	21	11	27	14	11	6	65	33	76	38	200	100
	F	14	7	39	20	7	4	72	36	68	34	200	100
4. People with low social status have more acceptance of I&V work.	S	31	16	58	29	13	7	65	33	33	17	200	100
	F	34	17	50	25	7	4	84	42	25	13	200	100
5. I&V work give a person great value than other works.	S	14	7	67	34	23	12	70	35	26	13	200	100
	F	14	7	50	25	12	6	84	42	40	20	200	100
6. I&V work is beginning to be more acceptable in our society.	S	13	7	60	30	18	9	74	37	35	18	200	100
	F	8	4	49	25	7	4	93	47	43	22	200	100
7. I&V work is still socially despised	S	20	10	47	24	9	5	91	46	33	17	200	100
	F	21	11	49	25	5	3	90	45	35	18	200	100

* 1. **S**trongly **D**isagree. 2. **D**isagree. 3. **N**eutral. 4. **A**gree. 5. **S**trongly **A**gree

* **S** (Students). **F** (Fathers).

Table 7.1.1.1 presents frequencies for the variable of respondents (students and fathers) regarding the social value of industrial and vocational work. It shows that the majority of respondents, students (60%) and fathers (66%), thought that society attaches value to industrial and vocational work. Fifty seven percent (57%) of students, however, did not agree that I&V and other kinds of work are valued equally, though 64% of fathers thought that there is no difference between the social value of I&V and

other kinds of work. 48% of students and the majority (62%) of fathers thought that I&V gives a person more status than other work. Nevertheless, the majority of students (71%) and fathers (70%) agreed that occupations such as carpenter, smith, butcher, are not acceptable socially. Fifty percent (50%) of students and 55% of fathers' responses (A&SA) indicated that people who have low social status are more accepting of industrial and vocational work, while 35% of students and 42% of fathers disagreed. Fifty-five percent (55%) of students and 69% of fathers thought industrial and vocational work is beginning to be more acceptable in Saudi society, although 63% of students' and fathers' responses (A & SA) indicated that industrial and vocational work is still socially despised.

In general, as Table 7.1.1.2 shows, 41% of fathers' responses suggested a high social value for I&V work, compared with 38.5% for students. Taking both samples, students and fathers as a single group, 39.8% of respondents thought the social value of I&V work was high, while 36.5% of them thought it was low.

To test the relationship between the perceived social value of I&V work and acceptance of industrial and vocational work, cross tabulation and a chi-square test were carried out. Table 7.1.1.2 shows that there is a significant relationship between the perceived social value level of I&V and acceptance of I&V work for both students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a group. This result means that the low social value which is given to I&V in the society influences the degree of acceptance or rejection of industrial and vocational work.

Table 7.1.1.2 The relationship between acceptance of I&V work and the social value of I&V work.

Samples	Acceptance of I&V	The social value. [1]			Total
		Low	Medium	High	
Students	Accepted	12.5%	6.0%	20.5%	39.0%
	Not Accepted	26.0%	14.0%	21.0%	61.0%
	Total	38.5%	20.0%	41.5%	100.0%
Father	Accepted	10.5%	15.5%	20.5%	46.5%
	Not Accepted	24.0%	12.0%	17.5%	53.5%
	Total	34.5%	27.5%	38.0%	100.0%
S&F	Accepted	11.5%	10.8%	20.5%	42.8%
	Not Accepted	25.0%	13.0%	19.3%	57.3%
	Total	36.5%	23.8%	39.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	6.515	2	.038
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	11.004	2	.004
S&F	Pearson Chi-Square	12.842	2	.000

To obtain a more complete picture, a further test was carried out to see if there were differences between students and fathers in relation to their views of the social value of industrial and vocational work. Independent samples t test results, as shown in Table 7.1.1.3, reveal that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups, students and fathers, in their view of the social value of industrial and vocational work.

Table 7.1.1.3 Independent Samples T Test: The difference in the social value of industrial and vocational work.

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	2.03	.90	6.34E-02
Fathers	200	2.04	.85	6.03E-02

[1] See 5.6: Data Analysis (Chapter Five).

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
3.037	.082	-.057	398	**.954**

7.1.2 The social status of work and choice of I&V work.

Table 7.1.2.1 presents frequencies for responses regarding social status of work as a factor influencing attitudes to the industrial and vocational sectors. It shows that the majority of students (77%) and fathers (69%) would be willing to work in I &V sectors, but only in a high status job. Fifty two percent (52%) of students and 67% of fathers (D&SD) thought that acceptance of I&V work would not lead to loss of their social status, while 38% of students and of 29% fathers took the opposite view. In a related item, 48% of students and 47% of fathers believed that I&V work has low prestige in the society. The majority of students and fathers' responses, 79% and 74% revealed that the social status of the job is more important to family and friends than a high salary. Also, the majority of students (78%) and majority of fathers (76%) indicated that people attach more importance to respect for a job, than pay for it.

Table 7.1.2.1 Distribution of the sample according to importance of social status of work to be involved in I&V sectors.

Factors	R	SD		DA		N		A		SA		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. I would be willing to work in I &V sectors but only in a high status job.	S	13	7	23	12	10	5	88	44	66	33	200	100
	F	11	6	41	21	11	6	99	50	38	19	200	100
2. Accepting I&V work would lead to loss of my social value.	S	50	25	53	27	22	11	48	24	27	14	200	100
	F	44	22	90	45	9	5	46	23	11	6	200	100
3. I&V occupations have low prestige in society.	S	36	18	45	23	24	12	60	30	35	18	200	100
	F	36	18	65	33	7	4	75	38	17	9	200	100
4. The social status of the job is more important to family and friends than high salary.	S	10	5	24	12	10	5	69	35	87	44	200	100
	F	10	5	35	18	8	4	79	40	68	34	200	100

5. People place more importance on respect for a job than pay for it.	**S**	9	5	19	10	17	9	84	42	71	36	200	100
	F	8	4	29	15	11	6	96	48	56	28	200	100

In relation to the impact of these factors on attitudes towards involvement in I&V sectors, Table 7.1.1.2 illustrates that more students attached higher importance to the social status of work than fathers (71.5% and 57%). Taking students and fathers together (as group), 64.3% of respondents attached high importance to the social status of work in relation to involvement in I&V sectors.

To test the relationship between the importance attached to the social status of work and acceptance of industrial and vocational work, cross-tabulation and a chi-square test were carried out. Table 7.1.2.2 shows that there is a significant relationship between the importance attached to work status and acceptance of this kind of work for fathers, while no significant relationship between these variables was found for students and for both samples (S&F) as group. This result means, in general, that whether the social status of work, was high or low, has no influence on acceptance or non-acceptance of industrial and vocational work.

Table 7.1.2.2 The relationship between acceptance of I&V work and the social status of work.

Samples	**Acceptance of I&V**	**Importance level.[1]**		**Total**
		Low	**High**	
Students	**Not Accepted**	17.5%	43.5%	61.0%
	Accepted	11.0%	28.0%	39.0%
	Total	28.5%	71.5%	100.0%
Father	**Not Accepted**	19.5%	34.0%	53.5%
	Accepted	23.5%	23.0%	46.5%
	Total	43.0%	57.0%	100.0%

[1] See 5.6: Data Analysis (Chapter Five).

S&F	Not Accepted	18.5%	38.8%	57.3%
	Accepted	17.3%	25.5%	42.8%
	Total	35.8%	64.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	005	1	.941
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	4030	1	.045
S & F	Pearson Chi-Square	2.753	1	.097

To see if there is a difference between students and fathers in relation to the importance they attach to the social status of their job, factor-influencing involvement in industrial and vocational sectors, an independent samples t tests were carried out. As shown in Table 7.1.2.3, a significant difference was found between the means of the two groups, students and fathers, in their scores for the importance of job status and acceptance to involve in industrial and vocational sectors. This result means that job status is more important to students than fathers in their choice of work.

Table 7.1.2.3 Independent Samples T Test: The difference according to importance of the work's social status.

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	1.72	.45	3.20E-02
Fathers	200	1.57	.50	3.51E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
31.999	.000	3.053	398	.002

7.1.3 Society gives social value of the clerical work more than I&V work.

Regarding the social value which given to clerical work compared to industrial and vocational work, Table 7.1.3.1 shows that half the students and 42% of fathers did

not agree (DA&SD) that industrial and vocational work confers more social status than clerical work. However, the majority of fathers' responses 52% (A&SA) indicated that the work in I&V gives more social status than clerical work. While 49% of students believed that there is a difference in social status between clerical and I&V work, 57% of fathers saw I&V and clerical work as equal in their social status. In relation to the likely future importance of clerical work, a majority of both samples (students 54% and fathers 57%) thought that clerical work will be less important in the near future.

Table 7.1.3.1 Distribution of the sample according to the social value of clerical work.

Factors	R	SD		DA		N		A		SA		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1.I&V work gives more social status than clerical work.	S	29	15	70	35	24	12	58	29	19	10	200	100
	F	19	10	63	32	15	8	74	37	29	15	200	100
2.There is no difference in the social status between clerical work and I&V work.	S	27	14	69	35	17	9	57	29	30	15	200	100
	F	22	11	60	30	5	3	83	42	30	15	200	100
3.Clerical work will be less important in the near future.	S	23	12	40	20	29	15	70	35	38	19	200	100
	F	20	10	59	30	9	5	79	40	33	17	200	100

In relation to the value given to clerical work compared to I&V, table 7.1.3.2 shows that 56% of students gave high social value to clerical work, compared to 65.5% of fathers. 44%. 34.5% of fathers indicated that clerical work has a low social value. The result for both samples, students and fathers (as group) revealed that 56% of respondents gave high social value to clerical work, while 44% of respondents gave it low social value, compared to I&V one.

To test the relationship between acceptance of industrial and vocational work and the relative values perceived for clerical and I&V work, cross-tabulation and chi-

square tests were carried out. Table 7.1.3.2 shows that there is a significant relationship between the social value of clerical work and acceptance of I&V work for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as group. This result means that, when the clerical work has a low status, I&V work will be more acceptable, and when clerical work has a high status, I&V will be less acceptable.

Table 7.1.3.2 The relationship between acceptance of I&V and giving clerical work higher social value than I&V work

Samples	Acceptance of I&V	The social value of clerical work.		Total
		Low	High	
Students	Not Accepted	19.0%	36.5%	55.5%
	Accepted	25.0%	19.5%	44.5%
	Total	44.0%	56.0%	100.0%
Father	Not Accepted	16.0%	45.0%	61.0%
	Accepted	18.5%	20.5%	39.0%
	Total	34.5%	65.5%	100.0%
S&F	Not Accepted	19.0%	36.5%	55.5%
	Accepted	25.0%	19.5%	44.5%
	Total	44.0%	56.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	9.655	1	.002
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	9.469	1	.002
S&F	Pearson Chi-Square	19.841	1	.000

To test if there is a difference between students and fathers in perception of the social value given to clerical work compared to industrial and vocational, an independent samples t test, as shown in Table 7.1.3.3, revealed that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups of students and fathers.

Table 7.1.3.3 Independent Samples T Test: The difference in the social value of clerical and I&V work

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	1.56	.50	3.52E-02
Fathers	200	1.66	.48	3.37E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
13.144	.000	-1.950	398	**.052**

7.1.4 The family's attitudes and acceptance of I&V work.

The results in Table 7.1.4.1 illustrate that 41% of students and 39% of fathers agreed that their family strongly disapproves of some types of occupations, though the majority of both samples (students 47% and fathers 48%) disagreed. Sixty seven percent (67%) of students and 70% of fathers said they would encourage relatives to be involved in I&V sectors, while only 26% and 28% of students and fathers, respectively would not. 77% and 85% of students' and fathers' responses (A&SA) revealed that the family encourages its members to work in any area in Saudi Arabia. The majority of students' responses (82%) revealed that the students hoped to find a better job than their fathers. Also, a very a high majority (93%) of fathers hoped their sons would find better job than theirs. Nevertheless, 66% of students indicated that they would be proud to follow the same job as their fathers, and 76% of fathers reported that they would be proud if their sons followed the same job as theirs. A high majority of fathers (91%) and nearly as many students (83%) considered that sons should consult their parents before choosing a job or vocation.

Table 7.1.4.1 Distribution of the sample according to family's attitudes.

Factors	R	SD		DA		N		A		SA		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. My family strongly disapproves of some types of occupations.	S	42	21	51	26	26	13	49	25	32	16	200	100
	F	37	19	77	39	10	5	61	31	15	8	200	100
2. The family encourages its members to work in any area in Saudi Arabia.	S	11	6	22	11	14	7	90	45	63	32	200	100
	F	10	5	20	10	1	1	104	52	65	33	200	100
3.I would encourage some of my relatives to have industrial and vocational careers.	S	17	9	33	17	17	9	84	42	49	25	200	100
	F	14	7	42	21	6	3	99	50	39	20	200	100
4.1 I should try to find a better job than my father.	S	7	4	14	7	16	8	67	34	96	48	200	100
4.2 My son should try to find a better job than mine.	F	3	2	11	6	1	1	30	15	155	78	200	100
5.1 I should be proud to follow the same job as my father.	S	13	7	43	22	13	7	66	33	65	33	200	100
5.2 I should be proud of my son to follow the same job as mine.	F	12	6	31	16	5	3	82	41	70	35	200	100
6.Sons should consult their parents before choosing a job or vocation.	S	12	6	20	10	3	2	67	34	98	49	200	100
	F	-	-	18	9	1	1	89	45	92	46	200	100

In relation to the influence of family on occupational choice, Table 7.1.4.2 illustrates that 66.5% of fathers and 62.5% students thought that family has a high influence on its members' choice of occupation, while 33.5% and 37.5% believed that the family has a high and low influence. Taking students and fathers together (as group), 64.5% of respondents rated family influence as high, 35.5% as low.

To test the relationship between acceptance of industrial and vocational work and perceived influence of the family on occupational choice, cross-tabulation and chi-square tests were carried out. Table 7.1.4.2 shows a significant relationship between the influence of the family on occupational choice and acceptance of I&V work; for fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a group, while there was no significant relationship for students. This result means that, when the family has low

influence, I&V work will be more acceptable, and when it has high influence on occupational choice, I&V will be less acceptable.

Table 7.1.4.2 The relationship between acceptance of I&V and influence of the family on occupational choice.

Samples	Acceptance of I&V	The influence level.		Total
		Low	High	
Students	Not Accepted	18.0%	37.5%	55.5%
	Accepted	19.5%	25.0%	44.5%
	Total	37.5%	62.5%	100.0%
Father	Not Accepted	15.5%	45.5%	61.0%
	Accepted	18.0%	21.0%	39.0%
	Total	33.5%	66.5%	100.0%
S&F	Not Accepted	16.8%	41.5%	58.3%
	Accepted	18.8%	23.0%	41.8%
	Total	35.5%	64.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	2.733	1	.098
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	9.191	1	.002
S&F	Pearson Chi-Square	.087	1	.001

To test if there is a difference between students and fathers in perceptions of family influence on occupational choice, Independent sample T Test results, as shown in Table 7.1.4.3, revealed no significant difference between the means of the two groups. This result means that fathers and students were equal in their view towards the influence of the family on occupational choice.

Table 7.1.4.3 Independent Samples T Test: The difference between students and fathers about family influence on occupational choice.

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	1.63	.49	3.43E-02
Fathers	200	1.67	.47	3.35E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
2.753	.098	-.835	398	**.404**

7.1.5 Rejecting of I&V work in the respondents' society.

Questions were asked to ascertain where rejection of industrial and vocational work comes from: tribe, family or society in general. Table 7.5.1.1 reveals that 63% of students and 59% of fathers considered that such work is rejected by the tribe. Sixty three percent (63%) of students and 58% of fathers responded that I&V work is rejected by the family. The majority of students (64%) and fathers 55% believed that I&V work is rejected in society generally.

Table 7.1.5.1 Distribution of the sample according to rejection of I&V work

Factors	R	SD		DA		N		A		SA		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1.Industrial and Vocational work rejected by tribe.	S	17	9	41	21	17	9	88	44	37	19	200	100
	F	19	10	63	32	1	1	79	40	38	19	200	100
2.Industrial and Vocational work rejected by family.	S	19	10	46	23	10	5	85	43	40	20	200	100
	F	16	8	67	34	3	2	75	38	39	20	200	100
3.Industrial and Vocational work rejected by society.	S	21	11	43	22	9	5	94	47	33	17	200	100
	F	20	10	68	34	2	1	76	38	34	17	200	100

An overview of responses on rejection of I&V work, Table 7.1.5.2, revealed that 47% of students and 41% fathers considered that there is a high rate of rejection of industrial and vocational work in their society (at tribe, family, and society levels), while the result for both samples, students and fathers (as group) revealed that 44% of

respondents thought that I&V work is undesirable or rejected in their society. Only a third of respondents thought that I&V work is desirable or has low rejection in society.

To test the relationship between individual acceptance of industrial and vocational work and rejection of I&V work by the respondents' society, cross-tabulation and chi-square tests were carried out. Table 7.1.5.2 shows that there is a significant relationship between rejection of I&V work in the respondents' society and individual acceptance of I&V work, for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as group. This result means that when I&V work is perceived to be less rejected by society, more people will accept it, and when the I&V work is perceived as being less highly regarded it will be less acceptable to the respondents.

Table 7.1.5.2 The relationship between acceptance of I&V and rejection of I&V work in the respondents' society.

Samples	Acceptance of I&V	Rejecting of I&V work			Total
		Low	Medium	High	
Students	Not Accepted	14.0%	14.5%	32.5%	61%
	Accepted	15.0%	9.5%	14.5%	39%
	Total	29.0%	24.0%	47.0%	100%
Father	Not Accepted	16.0%	10.5%	27.0%	53.5%
	Accepted	23.5%	8.5%	14.5%	46.5%
	Total	39.5%	19.0%	41.5%	100%
S&F	Not Accepted	15.0%	12.5%	29.8%	57.3%
	Accepted	19.3%	9.0%	14.5%	42.8%
	Total	34.3%	21.5%	44.3%	100%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	6.578	2	.037
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	9.868	2	.007
S&F	Pearson Chi-Square	17.366	2	.000

To test if there is a difference between students' and fathers' responses towards rejection of I&V in their society, independent samples t test results, as shown in Table

7.1.5.3, revealed that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups. This result means that the fathers and students were equal in their views towards rejection of I&V work, whether in the tribe, the family or in their society in general.

Table 7.1.5.3 Independent Samples T Test: the difference between students' and fathers' responses towards rejection of I&V in their society

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	2.18	.86	6.05E-02
Fathers	200	2.02	.90	6.38E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1.283	.258	1.820	398	**.069**

7.2 Cultural factors

7.2.1 Awareness of importance of I&V work.

The results in Table 7.2.1.1 illustrate that 83% of students and 90% of fathers though that I&V work is of real value to their society and the majority of both samples (students 65% and fathers 87%) also considered that I&V occupations are of real value to society. Nevertheless, 79% of students and 77% of fathers said that no one should have to do I&V work, when so many other jobs are available, and 76% of students and 84% of fathers indicated that many occupations in the society are better than I&V occupations. Only 18% of students and 22% of fathers believed that one should work in I&V sectors even if there are other jobs available. Also, few respondents, 15% of students and 13% of fathers did not prefer other work to industrial and vocational

work. Nevertheless, a large majority of respondents, 86% of students and 95% of fathers, were strongly aware that the country of Saudi Arabia needs industrial, vocational and technical skilled manpower.

In relation to levels of awareness of the importance I&V work among the respondents, Table 7.2.1.2 illustrates that fathers (45.5%) were more aware than students (30.5.%) of the importance of I&V work to their society. Conversely, 38.5% of students showed low awareness compared to 25% of fathers. The result for both samples, students and fathers (as a group) revealed that 38% of respondents were highly aware of the importance of I&V in the society, while 31% had low awareness of the importance of this kind of work.

Table 7.2.1.1 Distribution of the samples' awareness of importance of I&V work

Factors	R	SD		DA		N		A		SA		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1.I&V occupations represent a real value to modern society to continue its progress..	S	13	7	15	8	7	4	90	45	75	38	200	100
	F	2	1	15	8	4	2	109	55	70	35	200	100
2.I&V occupations are necessary for our society.	S	11	6	43	22	17	9	78	39	51	26	200	100
	F	3	2	19	10	4	2	84	42	90	45	200	100
3.No one should work in I&V work; when so many other jobs are available	S	11	6	23	12	10	5	91	46	65	33	200	100
	F	15	8	27	14	5	3	89	45	64	32	200	100
4.There are many occupations are better than I&V occupations.	S	5	3	23	12	20	10	90	45	62	31	200	100
	F	4	2	21	11	8	4	120	60	47	24	200	100
5. Our country needs more vocational industrial skilled manpower.	S	8	4	12	6	9	5	53	27	118	59	200	100
	F	-	-	9	5	2	1	53	27	136	68	200	100

To test the relationship between acceptance of industrial and vocational work and the awareness of its importance, cross-tabulation and chi-square tests were carried

out. As shown in Table 7.2.1.2, there is a significant relationship between awareness of the importance of I&V work and acceptance of I&V work; for students and for both samples (S&F) as group, but not for fathers. This result, generally, means that, when society is less aware of the importance of I&V work, this work will be less acceptable, and when awareness is high, it will be more acceptable.

Table 7.2.1.2 The relationship between acceptance of I&V and awareness of importance of I&V work

Samples	Acceptance of I&V	The awareness level.			Total
		Low	Medium	High	
Students	Not Accepted	29.0%	19.0%	13.0%	61.0%
	Accepted	9.5%	12.0%	17.5%	39.0%
	Total	38.5%	31.0%	30.5%	100.0%
Father	Not Accepted	16.0%	17.0%	20.5%	53.5%
	Accepted	9.0%	12.5%	25.0%	46.5%
	Total	25.0%	29.5%	45.5%	100%
S&F	Not Accepted	22.5%	18.0%	16.8%	57.3%
	Accepted	9.3%	12.3%	21.3%	42.8%
	Total	31.8%	30.3%	38.0%	100%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	15.303	2	**.000**
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	5.229	2	**.073**
S&F	Pearson Chi-Square	20.646	2	**.000**

To test the difference between students' and fathers' responses in relation to awareness of the importance of I&V work, Independent samples t test results, as shown in Table 7.2.1.3, revealed that there is a significant difference between the means of the two groups. This result means that the fathers were more aware of the importance of I&V work than students.

Table 7.2.1.3 Independent Samples T Test: The difference in awareness of importance of I&V work.

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	1.92	.83	5.86E-02
Fathers	200	2.21	.82	5.77E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
.140	.708	-3.465	398	**.001**

7.2.2 Preference of general education to I&V education.

The results in Table 7.2.2.1 illustrates that the majority (89%) of both students and fathers indicated that Saudi nationals are not qualified to work in I&V sectors. The table reveals that about 59% of both samples disagreed that I&V education is basically for those of low ability and low school achievement. However, 53% students and 67% of fathers believed that I&V education has less prestige in the society than general education, and 60% of both samples believed that taking the I&V diploma hinders students from entering higher education. In response to the suggestion that many vocational workers do not desire to teach their sons their vocations, 50% of students and 57% of fathers agreed. The table, also, shows that about 51% of students and fathers were thinking about the certificate first, then the work.

Table 7.2.2.1 Distribution of the sample according to preference for general education over I&V education.

Factors	R	SD		DA		N		A		SA		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Saudi nationals unqualified to work in I&V sectors.	S	10	5	9	5	6	3	68	34	107	54	200	100
	F	7	4	15	8	2	1	79	40	97	49	200	100

2 .I&V education is basically for those of low ability and low school achievement.	S	62	31	55	28	9	5	45	23	29	15	200	100
	F	54	27	61	31	5	3	52	26	28	14	200	100
3. I&V education has less prestige than general education.	S	16	8	43	22	36	18	71	36	34	17	200	100
	F	11	6	41	21	14	7	104	52	30	15	200	100
4. Taking the I&V diploma hinders students from further higher education.	S	23	12	37	19	22	11	71	36	47	24	200	100
	F	19	10	52	26	10	5	99	50	20	10	200	100
5. Many vocational workers do not desire to teach their sons their vocations.	S	20	10	44	22	36	18	62	31	38	19	200	100
	F	13	7	59	30	6	3	74	37	48	24	200	100
6.I always think about the certificate, then the work.	S	26	13	48	24	24	12	78	39	24	12	200	100
	F	22	11	63	32	15	8	76	38	24	12	200	100

In relation to preference for general education over I&V education, Table 7.2.2.2 shows that fathers (69%) were slightly more inclined to this view than students (63%). The result for both samples, students and fathers (as a group) revealed that the majority of respondents (64%) preferred general education more than I&V education. Only, 34% of respondents believed in the importance of I&V education.

To test the relationship between acceptance of industrial and vocational work and preference for general education over I&V education, cross-tabulation and chi-square tests were carried out. As shown in Table 7.2.2.2, there is a significant relationship between preference for general education and acceptance of I&V work, for students and for both samples (S&F) as group, but not for fathers. This result, generally, means that: when society has a preference for general education, I&V work will be less acceptable, and when general education has less preference, I&V work will be more accepted, though this association was not apparent for fathers.

Table 7.2.2.2 The relationship between acceptance of I&V and preference for general education over I&V education.

Samples	Acceptance of I&V	The Preference level.		Total
		Low	High	
Students	Not Accepted	25.0%	30.5%	55.5%
	Accepted	12.0%	32.5%	44.5%
	Total	37.0%	63.0%	100.0%
Father	Not Accepted	21.5%	39.5%	61.0%
	Accepted	9.5%	29.5%	39.0%
	Total	31.0%	69.0%	100.0%
S&F	Not Accepted	23.3%	35.0%	58.3%
	Accepted	10.8%	31.0%	41.8%
	Total	34.0%	66.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	6.926	1	**.008**
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	2.636	1	**.104**
S&F	Pearson Chi-Square	8.699	1	**.003**

To test the difference between students' and fathers' responses in relation to their preference for general education rather than I&V education, independent samples t test results, as shown in Table 7.2.2.3, revealed that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups in this issue. This result means that fathers and students were equal in their preference for general education over I&V education.

Table 7.2.2.3 Independent Samples T Test: The difference in preference for general education over I&V Education.

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	1.90	.79	5.60E-02
Fathers	200	2.00	.79	5.56E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
.977	.323	-1.267	398	.206

7.2.3 Preference of work with Saudi rather than other nationalities.

Table 7.2.3.1 illustrates that the majority of students (90%) and fathers (93%) expressed a preference to work with Saudis rather than other nationalities. Also, 86% and 67% of students and fathers respectively would not like to work under non-Saudi supervisors.

Table 7.2.3.1 Distribution of the sample according to preference to work with Saudis rather than with other nationalities

Factors	R	SD		DA		N		A		SA		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1.Work with Saudis better than work with foreign workers.	S	5	3	10	5	5	3	56	28	124	62	200	100
	F	3	2	12	6	-	-	70	35	115	58	200	100
2.I wouldn't mind working under non-Saudi supervisors.	S	80	40	52	26	11	6	40	20	17	9	200	100
	F	66	33	68	34	6	3	45	23	15	8	200	100

The level of preference to work with Saudis rather than with other nationalities, as shown in Table 7.2.3.2, was a high among students and fathers, 54.5% and 52% respectively, while 29% and 28% respectively had only a low level of preference. The result for both samples, students and fathers (as a group) revealed that the majority of respondents (53.3%) preferred to work with Saudis rather than others. Only, 28.8% of respondents, in general, were prepared to work with any nationality, whether Saudi or non-Saudi

To test the relationship between acceptance of I&V work and preference to work with Saudis rather than other nationalities, cross-tabulation and chi-square tests were carried out. The results, as shown in Table 7.2.3.2, revealed no significant

relationship between these variables, for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a group. This result means that the prospect of working with or under non-Saudi administration does not influence involvement in industrial and vocational sectors.

Table 7.2.3.2 The relationship between acceptance of I&V and preference for work with Saudis rather than with other nationalities.

Samples	Acceptance of I&V	The Preference level.			Total
		Low	Medium	High	
Students	Not Accepted	15.5%	10.5%	29.5%	55.5%
	Accepted	13.5%	6.0%	25.0%	44.5%
	Total	29.0%	16.5%	54.5%	100.0%
Father	Not Accepted	16.0%	13.0%	32.0%	61.0%
	Accepted	12.5%	6.5%	20.0%	39.0%
	Total	28.5%	19.5%	52.0%	100.0%
S&F	Not Accepted	15.8%	11.8%	30.8%	58.3%
	Accepted	13.0%	6.3%	22.5%	41.8%
	Total	28.8%	18.0%	53.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	1.066	2	.587
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	1.105	2	.576
S & F	Pearson Chi-Square	2.053	2	.358

Regarding preference for working with Saudis rather than other nationalities, Independent samples t test results, as shown in Table 7.2.3.3, revealed that there is no significant difference between the means of students and fathers on this issue. This result means that fathers and students were equal in their attitudes regarding colleagues' nationalities.

Table 7.2.3.3 Independent Samples T Test: The difference in preference for work with Saudis rather than with other nationalities

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	1.75	.88	6.22E-02
Fathers	200	1.77	.87	6.14E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
.237	.627	-.229	398	**.819**

7.3 Economic factors.

7.3.1 Impact of foreign labour.

The results in Table 7.3.1.1 illustrate that 81% of students and 87% of fathers thought that availability of foreign workers created a kind of dependence on these workers in I&V sectors, and the majority of students (82%) and fathers (92%) indicated that Saudis should replace all foreign workers. About 13% of students and fathers disagreed than the question of dependence on these workers in I&V sectors, and only 17% and 8% of students and fathers did not agree on replacing all foreign workers with Saudi labour. Moreover 75% of students and 79% of fathers believed that the government should impose more restrictions on importing foreign workers, against about 19% of both sets of respondents who disagreed with such restrictions.

Table 7.3.1.2 illustrates that 40.5% and 44.5% of students and fathers believed that availability of foreign labour has a high influence on involvement in I&V sectors. Respondents who perceived a low level of influence represented 31.5% of students and 27% of fathers. The result for both samples students and fathers (as a group) revealed that the largest group of respondents (42.5%) indicated that foreign

labour formed a high influence to involvement in I&V sectors, against 29.3% of respondents who represented low important of this issue.

Table 7.3.1.1 Distribution of sample according to impact of foreign labour.

Factors	R	SD		DA		N		A		SA		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1.Availability of foreign workers created a kind of dependence on these workers in I&V sectors.	S	14	7	11	6	13	7	46	23	116	58	200	100
	F	7	4	18	9	3	2	57	29	115	58	200	100
2.Saudis should replace all foreign workers	S	17	9	16	8	3	2	32	16	132	66	200	100
	F	8	4	7	4	3	2	55	28	127	64	200	100
3.The government should impose more restrictions on importing foreign workers.	S	9	5	27	14	15	8	56	28	93	47	200	100
	F	9	5	26	13	8	4	69	35	88	44	200	100

To test the relationship between acceptance of industrial and vocational work and influence of foreign labour, cross-tabulation and chi-square tests were carried out. As shown in Table 7.3.1.2, there was a significant relationship between these variables, for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a group. This result means that: when foreign labour is more obtainable, Saudi labour will have less tendency to accept work in I&V sectors.

Table 7.3.1.2 The relationship between of acceptance of I&V and the influence of foreign labour.

Samples	Acceptance of I&V	The influence level.			Total
		Low	Medium	High	
Students	Not Accepted	15.5%	20.0%	20.5%	56.0%
	Accepted	16.0%	8.0%	20.0%	44.0%
	Total	31.5%	28.0%	40.5%	100.0%

Father	Not Accepted	15.0%	22.5%	27.0%	64.5%
	Accepted	12.0%	6.0%	17.5%	35.5%
	Total	27.0%	28.5%	44.5%	100.0%
S&F	Not Accepted	15.0%	19.5%	23.8%	58.3%
	Accepted	14.3%	8.8%	18.8%	41.8%
	Total	29.3%	28.3%	42.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	7.543	2	.023
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	7.652	2	.022
S&F	Pearson Chi-Square	8.124	2	.017

To test the difference between students' and fathers' responses in relation to their opinions towards the influence of foreign labour on involvement in I&V sectors, independent samples t test results, as shown in Table 7.2.1.3, revealed that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups (students and fathers). This result means that the fathers and students were equivalent in their opinions in relation to the influence of foreign labour on the willingness of Saudi labour to be involved in I&V sectors.

Table 7.3.1.3 Independent Samples T Test: The difference in impact of foreign labour.

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	1.97	.77	5.46E-02
Fathers	200	2.02	.75	5.28E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
.928	.336	-.658	398	.511

7.3.2 Preference of work in the government I&V sectors rather than private I&V work.

There are various factors which might explain a preference for work in the government I&V sector rather than the private one, especially, job security. Table 7.3.2.1 shows that 45% of students and 44% of fathers indicated that if they took a job in the I&V private sectors it would be only temporary, against 51% of fathers and 44% of students who disagreed with this attitude. Almost three quarters of students (74%) and fathers (72%) thought that desk jobs in government better than desk jobs in the private sector, while the majority, 62% and 78%, of students and fathers respectively, indicated that work in government I&V jobs was better than work in private I&V jobs. In relation to job security as an important reason for involvement in the government sector (GS) rather than the private sector (PS), the table reveals that 72% and 83% of students and fathers, respectively, agreed with this reason, while 17% of students and 13% of fathers did not consider job security an important issue in accepting industrial and vocational work, whether in GS or PS.

Table 7.3.2.1 Distribution of the sample according to preference for work in government I&V rather than private I&V work.

Factors	R	SD		DA		N		A		SA		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1.If I took a job in I&V private sectors it would be only temporary.	S	24	12	63	32	24	12	68	34	21	11	200	100
	F	19	10	82	41	12	6	66	33	21	11	200	100
2.The work in government jobs (desk jobs) better than work in the private sector (desk jobs).	S	15	8	28	14	10	5	63	32	84	42	200	100
	F	17	9	33	17	6	3	84	42	60	30	200	100
3.The work in government jobs is (I&V) better than work in private jobs (I & V).	S	16	8	36	18	25	13	69	35	54	27	200	100
	F	15	8	23	12	8	4	95	48	59	30	200	100
4.Job security is the important reason for involvement in the GS rather than the PS.	S	9	5	24	12	24	12	92	46	51	26	200	100
	F	6	3	20	10	8	4	106	53	60	30	200	100

Regarding perceptions of the influence of job security and other factors on involvement in government I&V rather than I&V private sectors, Table 7.3.2.2 illustrates that 60.5% and 63.5% of students and fathers believed that job security had a strong influence. Respondents who thought this influence was low represented 39.5% of students and 36.5% of fathers. The result for both samples, students and fathers (as a group) revealed that the majority of respondents (62%) indicated that job security has a high influence on involvement in the government rather than private sectors, while 38% of respondents attached low importance of this factor.

To test the relationship between acceptance of I&V work and the influence of job security, cross-tabulation and chi-square tests were carried out. As shown in Table 7.3.2.2, there was a significant relationship between the influence of job security and acceptance of I&V work; for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a group. This result means that: when job security is more available, industrial and vocational work will be more acceptable, and when it is unavailable, I&V work will be less acceptable, whether in the government or private sector.

Table 7.3.2.2 The relationship between acceptance of I&V work and influence of job security on involvement in government I&V rather than private I&V work.

Samples	Acceptance of I&V	Influence level.		Total
		Low	High	
Students	Not Accepted	27.5%	28.0%	55.5%
	Accepted	12.0%	32.5%	44.5%
	Total	39.5%	60.5%	100%
Father	Not Accepted	26.0%	35.0%	61%
	Accepted	10.5%	28.5%	39%
	Total	36.5%	63.5%	100%
S&F	Not Accepted	26.8%	31.5%	58.3%
	Accepted	11.3%	30.5%	41.8%
	Total	38.0%	62.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	10.542	1	**.001**
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	5.060	1	**.024**
S&F	Pearson Chi-Square	14.869	1	**.000**

To test the difference between students and fathers responses in related to their opinions towards the influence of job security and other factors, (see Table 7.3.2.1), independent samples t test results, as shown in Table 7.3.2.3, revealed that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups This result means that the fathers and students were equivalent in their opinions towards the influence of job security on involvement in I&V sectors.

Table 7.3.2.3 Independent Samples T Test: The difference in preference for government I&V or private I&V sectors.

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	1.61	.49	3.47E-02
Fathers	200	1.64	.48	3.41E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1.504	.221	-.617	398	**.538**

7.3.3 Future jobs available in I&V sectors.

The results in Table 7.3.3.3 illustrate that 53% of students and 70% of fathers thought that the private sector (I&V) hiring policies could be seen as an obstacle to Saudization. Fifty-one percent (51%) of students and 59% of fathers indicated that it is easy to get a job in the industrial and vocational sectors, while 36% in each sample disagreed. Also, 52% and 65% of students and fathers indicated that it is difficult for

people to find a job suitable to their training in I&V sectors, and 53% and 60% of respondents (fathers and students) believed that there are not enough job opportunities in I&V sectors, as opposite to, about 38% of respondents who were confident of the existence of these opportunities. As regards whether respondents had a clear idea, in general, about the future of work in industrial and vocational sectors, only 26% of students and 34% of fathers had such an idea, and the majority, 66% and 73% of respondents (students and fathers) had no clear idea about the future of the industrial and vocational sectors, whether in the general or private sectors.

Table 7.3.3.1 Distribution of sample according to perception of future job availability in I&V sectors.

Factors	R	SD		DA		N		A		SA		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1.The private sector (I&V) hiring policies can be seen as an obstacle to Saudization.	S	27	14	34	17	33	17	64	32	42	21	200	100
	F	17	9	29	15	15	8	86	43	53	27	200	100
2.It is not easy to get a job in the industrial and vocational sector.	S	20	10	51	26	28	14	77	39	24	12	200	100
	F	18	9	54	27	11	6	92	46	25	13	200	100
3.It is difficult for people to find a job appropriate to their training in I&V sectors.	S	24	12	43	22	30	15	60	30	43	22	200	100
	F	19	10	43	22	9	5	85	43	44	22	200	100
4.There is no clear idea about the future of industrial and vocational work.	S	18	9	33	17	18	9	94	47	37	19	200	100
	F	13	7	54	27	8	4	97	49	28	14	200	100
5.There are not enough job opportunities in I&V sectors.	S	23	12	54	27	18	9	70	35	35	18	200	100
	F	17	9	57	29	7	4	86	43	33	17	200	100

In this regard, Table 7.3.3.2 shows that 41.5% of students and 31.5% of fathers believed that the likely future job situation in I&V sectors has a high influence on involvement in these sectors. Fathers were low influenced by this situation than students. The result of both samples, students and fathers (as a group) revealed that 38% of respondents believed that I&V work situation had a high influence on

involvement in the I&V sectors, against 34% of respondents who believed that the future job situation has a low influence, and the remaining (28%) of respondents believed that this situation in industrial and vocational sectors had an average influence.

To test the relationship between acceptance of industrial and vocational work and perceptions of the future situation in I&V sectors, cross-tabulation and chi-square tests were carried out. As shown in Table 7.3.3.2 no significant relationship was found either of the samples separately, though there was a significant relationship when the samples were combined.

Table 7.3.3.2 The relationship between acceptance of I&V work and influence of the future jobs available in I&V sectors

Samples	Acceptance of I&V	The awareness level			Total
		Low	Medium	High	
Students	Not Accepted	15.0%	18.5%	27.5%	61.0%
	Accepted	14.0%	11.0%	14.0%	39.0%
	Total	29.0%	29.5%	41.5%	100.0%
Father	Not Accepted	15.5%	18.5%	19.5%	53.5%
	Accepted	19.5%	15.0%	12.0%	46.5%
	Total	35.0%	33.5%	31.5%	100.0%
S&F	Not Accepted	16.5%	17.3%	23.5%	57.3%
	Accepted	17.5%	10.8%	14.5%	42.8%
	Total	34.0%	28.0%	38.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	3.138	2	.208
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	4.258	2	.119
S&F	Pearson Chi-Square	6.404	2	.041

To test the difference between students' and fathers' responses in relation to influence of the future prospects in I&V sectors, independent samples t test results, as shown in Table 7.3.3.3, revealed that there is a significant difference between the

means of the two groups (students and fathers). This result means that the fathers were more influenced of the future in I&V than students.

Table 7.3.3.3 Independent Samples T Test: The difference in influence of the future jobs available in I&V sectors.

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	1.86	.83	5.89E-02
Fathers	200	2.06	.85	6.04E-02

Independent Samples Test

F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
.081	.776	-2.370	398	**.018**

7.3.4 Income level in the private sectors (I&V).

The results in Table 7.3.1.1 illustrated that about 74% of both sets of respondents (students and fathers) believed that there are more economic advantages than disadvantages in I&V sectors. It was 65% of students and 76% of fathers revealed that if the salary for I&V work were higher than for clerical work, they would choose vocational and industrial work. The view that people give more consideration to salary, irrespective of the kind of vocation was accepted by 59% of students and 64% of fathers, while about 35% of respondents (S&F) disagreed with this attitude. Also, the results revealed that 66% and 76% of students and fathers considered a high paying vocational job in a rural area to be better than a low paying clerical job in the city. On the other hand, about 51% of students and fathers believed that one cannot keep up a decent standard of living in an I&V occupation, while 38% and 43% of respondents (students and fathers) disagreed.

Table 7.3.4.1 Distribution of the sample according to influence of income level in the private sectors (I&V).

Factors	R	SD		DA		N		A		SA		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1.There are economic advantages more than disadvantages in I&V sectors.	S	4	2	25	13	26	13	99	50	46	23	200	100
	F	7	4	32	16	14	7	96	48	51	26	200	100
2.One cannot keep up a decent standard of living in I&V occupation.	S	16	8	60	30	24	12	72	36	28	14	200	100
	F	25	13	60	30	15	8	85	43	15	8	200	100
3.If the salary for I&V work were higher than for clerical work, I would choose vocational-industrial work.	S	18	9	39	20	14	7	65	33	64	32	200	100
	F	4	2	42	21	2	1	82	41	70	35	200	100
4.People give more consideration to salary irrespective of the kind of vocation.	S	21	11	49	25	12	6	62	31	56	28	200	100
	F	13	7	55	28	5	3	87	44	40	20	200	100
5.A high paying vocational job in a rural area is better than low paying clerical job in the city.	S	15	8	33	17	21	11	81	41	50	25	200	100
	F	11	6	29	15	6	3	101	51	53	27	200	100

Regarding the relationship between acceptance of I&V work and influence of income level in the private sectors (I&V), Table 7.3.4.2 illustrates that 38% and 28% of students and fathers believed that income level in the private sectors (I&V) has a high influence an involvement in I&V sectors. Respondents who were less convinced of this influence represented 36% of students and 29% of fathers. The majority of fathers (42.5%) and about 25.5% of students thought that income level had a moderate influence on acceptance of I&V work in the private sector. Thirty four percent (34%) of respondents (students and fathers), as a group, believed that income level had a high influence on involvement in I&V private sectors, against 30.5% of respondents who believed that income level had only a low influence.

Table 7.3.4.2 The relation between acceptance of I&V work and influence of income level in the private sectors (I&V).

Samples	Acceptance of I&V	Impact level.			Total
		Low	Medium	High	
Students	Not Accepted	15.5%	15.0%	25.5%	56.0%
	Accepted	20.5%	10.5%	13.0%	44.0%
	Total	36.0%	25.5%	38.5%	100.0%
Father	Not Accepted	17.0%	25.0%	22.5%	64.5%
	Accepted	12.0%	17.5%	6.0%	35.5%
	Total	29.0%	42.5%	28.5%	100.0%
S&F	Not Accepted	16.3%	20.0%	24.0%	60.3%
	Accepted	16.3%	14.0%	9.5%	39.8%
	Total	32.5%	34.0%	33.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

SAMPLE		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Students	Pearson Chi-Square	8.334	2	**.015**
Fathers	Pearson Chi-Square	7.268	2	**.026**
S&F	Pearson Chi-Square	13.079	2	**.001**

To test the relationship between acceptance of industrial and vocational work and influence of income level in the private sectors (I&V), cross-tabulation and chi-square tests were carried out. The result, as shown in Table 7.3.4.2, revealed that there is a significant relationship between influence of income level in the private sectors (I&V) and acceptance of I&V work in these sectors; for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a group. This result means that: when income level in the private sectors is more satisfactory, industrial and vocational work, in the private sectors, will be more acceptable.

Table 7.3.4.3 Independent Samples T Test: The difference between students and fathers in influence of income level on involvement in private sector I&V.

Group Statistics

SAMPLE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Students	200	2.03	.86	6.12E-02
Fathers	200	2.00	.76	5.38E-02

Independent Samples Test				
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
14.197	.000	.368	398	**.713**

To test the difference between students' and fathers' responses in relation to their opinions towards the influence of income level on involvement in I&V work in the private sectors, an independent samples t test was carried out. The results are presented in Table 7.3.4.3.

The Levene's Test for Equality of Variances shows a significant F values (.000), which suggests that an equivalent non-parametric test should be selected instead of the t-test. The test used was the Mann-Whitney test (Table 7.3.4.4).

Table 7.3.4.4: Mann-Whitney Test: The difference between students and fathers in influence of income level on involvement in private sector I&V.

Mann-Whitney Test-Ranks			
SAMPLE	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Students	200	202.60	40519.00
Fathers	200	198.40	39681.00

Mann-Whitney Test-Statistics			
Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
19581.000	39681.000	-.384	**.701**

The Mann-Whitney Test result shows that there is no significant difference in the mean ranks between students and fathers in relation to their opinions on the influence of income level on involvement in I&V private sectors. Thus, it can be said that both samples (students and fathers) gave equal emphasis to the importance of income level for involvement in I&V sectors.

7.4 Conclusion

The data presented in this chapter, which related to some socio-cultural and economic factors influencing Saudi nationals involvement in industrial and vocational sectors, gave rise to the following main findings:

- The study revealed that 39.8% of respondents thought I&V work has a high social value, while 36.5% of them thought its social value was low.
- More than 64.3% of respondents attached high importance to the social status of work in relation to involvement in I&V sectors.
- Fifty six percent (56%) of students gave high social value to clerical work, compared to 65.5% of fathers. The result for both samples, students and fathers (as a group) revealed that 56% of respondents gave high social value to clerical work, while 44% of respondents gave it low social value, compared to I&V one.
- More than 66.5% of fathers and 62.5% students thought that family has a high influence on its members' choice of occupation, while 33.5% and 37.5% believed that the family has a low and low influence. Taking students and fathers together (as group), 64.5% of respondents rated family influence as high, 35.5% as low.
- More students and fathers considered that industrial and vocational work is highly rejected in their society (tribally, family, and socially) then otherwise.

Only, a third of respondents overall thought that I&V work is desirable or meets little rejection in society.

- Fathers (45.5%) were more awareness than students (30.5.%) of the importance of I&V work to their society. Overall, nearly a third of respondents showed low awareness of the importance of this kind of work.
- The majority of students (63%) and even more fathers (69%) preferred general education to I&V education. Only 34% of respondents believed in the importance of I&V education.
- More than half the students and fathers preferred to work with Saudis rather than work with non-Saudis (54.5% and 52%). Only, 28.8% of respondents, in general, were prepared to work with any nationality, whether Saudi or non-Saudi.
- More than forty percent (40.5%) of students and 44.5% fathers believed that availability of foreign labour had a high influence on involvement in I&V sectors. Only 29.3% of respondents attached low importance to this issue.
- Were 60.5% and 63.5% of students and fathers respectively believed that job security had a high influence on involvement in government I&V sectors rather than private one; overall, 38% of respondents attached low importance to this factor.
- More than 41.5% of students and 31.5% of fathers believed that the likely future job situation in I&V sectors has a high influence on involvement in these sectors. Fathers were low influenced by this situation than students. The result of both samples, students and fathers (as a group) revealed that 38% of

respondents believed that I&V work situation had a high influence on involvement in the I&V sectors.

- Thirty eight percent (38%) of students and 28% of fathers (a third of respondents overall) were believed that income level in the private sectors (I&V) had a strong influence on involvement in these sectors, while 36% of students and 29% of fathers took the opposite view.

CHAPTER----------8

INTERVIEWEES' RESPONSES

8.1 Responses Related to Influence of Social Factors.

8.2 Responses Related to Influence of Cultural Factors.

8.2 Responses Related to Influence of Economic Factors.

CHAPTER EIGHT: INTERVIEWEES' RESPONSES.

Introduction

The main aim of this chapter is to present the outcomes of interviews which elicited interviewees' ideas and opinions, to complement the research questionnaires. The interview sample represented three groups: secondary school head teachers, directors and administrators of some government and educational sectors, and managers of private sector companies and factories providing industrial and vocational work in Asir Province (see Chapter Five).

These interviews, in particular, attempted to investigate the relationship between some socio-cultural and economic factors and acceptance of industrial and vocational work in the study area, as perceived by interviewees, opinions, on the one hand, and to relate these opinions to the responses to the questionnaire survey, as support information, on the other. This relationship, however, will be discussed in the next chapter, Chapter Nine.

8.1 Responses related to influence of social factors.

A summary of responses to questions about social factors that might affect acceptance of I&V work is presented in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 Distribution of interviewees according to influence of social factors.

Interview Responses	Disagree		Agree	
	N	%	N	%
1. Saudi society places a high value on industrial and vocational work.	24	80	6	20
2. There is a relationship between social status and choice of industrial and vocational work.	10	33	20	67
3. Manual labour is socially disdained and office work socially esteemed among Saudi nationals.	-	-	30	100
4. There is a relationship between orientations of the family' occupation and involvement in I&V sectors.	12	40	18	60
5. Saudi nationals whose cultural backgrounds are tribal have less favourable attitudes towards I&V work	3	9	27	91

8.1.1 The social value of I&V work in Saudi society.

The results, statistically, revealed that twenty-four interviewees (80%) did not think that Saudis give a real value to I&V work. Many points emerged in the interviews, which, in general, emphasized that the Saudi society, despite changes in the manual work environment, still places a low value on this kind of work. Some typical comments made by the interviewees, were the following:

- *"The Saudi society and especially the tribal society, does not respect vocational labour. More than that, the Saudi society sees that type of labour as inferior labour and anyone who joins it will get no respect in the society."*

- *"Unfortunately, there are old reasons, inherited by generations, for the lack of respect for vocational work. Society nowadays looks one vocational labour with an eye different from that it takes to other types of shiny jobs."*

- *"People who have failed their studies go into this area and society still does not accept them."*

- *"There is nothing to show that view. Many of the private sector factories are run by foreign labour. The foreign labour in this section accounts for more than 90% of the labour force."*
- *"The old disdainful and negative view towards manual work still exists, so Saudi nationals see these vocational jobs as below their level."*
- *"People still think these are second-class jobs...they inherited old attitudes ...and it is not easy to get rid of them ...it will take a little bit of time."*
- *"Most youths think that joining the industrial and vocational sectors is a kind of under-development and is going back to old traditions, while the opposite is the truth."*

In more details, one of the secondary school head teachers said:

"In my opinion, the vocational sector is a good one to some extent. But there are some drawbacks which confuse youths when they join that sector. Most of these drawbacks are of a social nature. Someone who joins the vocational sector receives less respect in society when compared to his friends who join other types of work in offices or any other jobs. The people in society think that no-one would join the vocational sector unless he had failed to continue his learning at school and they think he is in need of sympathy."

Despite these opinions, some interviewees thought that this negative view of work in I&V sectors will not last for long, and that some changes in society's attitude are discernible.

In this regard, an industrial company director indicated:

"As a result of the high demand on admissions to universities, and high scores required by the universities, the pupils are starting to concentrate more on finding a place in the industrial sector. More than that, the new generation is starting to ignore the view of society towards working within that sector. More importance is attached to the gain from industrial and vocational sectors and the potential for promotion to high levels in these sectors."

One administrator, similarly, suggested:

"The criticisms which have been directed to those who join the industrial and vocational sectors are not of great concern to most youths. But the main barrier facing the youths, for example, is marriage. One of the conditions for marriage is that one must have a good job and a high wage, and so forth."

8.1.2 The relationship between social status of work and acceptance of I&V work.

Twenty interviewees (67%) agreed that there is relationship between the social status of work and the low acceptance of I&V work. They believed that society gives low social status to people working in the industrial and vocational sectors.

Accordingly, interviewees made the following comments:

- *"Most people are satisfied that the type of job is more important than gaining money. They think that the type of job they do is their key to society and to their position in society."*
- *"I agree, but I think the need for work during the current period is going to change this view."*

- *"Yes ... because they haven't come to the point of real need; as long as all the needs of life are secured, why look for a manual job? Most youths have the desire to become a figure in their society, even if they haven't got any qualifications for that. But if anyone comes to the point of real need, he will forget all these considerations."*

- *"The social position is decisive in every society, but in Saudi society it depends totally on the job that one has."*

- *"I agree that this phenomenon exists in our society. Some studies confirm that spiritual satisfaction is more important than material satisfaction for Saudi individuals."*

- *"I agree... since the society considers one who is involved in this kind of activity as a lower class person and they call him names which he doesn't like to hear."*

- *"Most of the pupils who join these activities come from low class families."*

- *"Most industrial jobs are not suitable, compared to the social position of a person in his tribe and his society. A person who is involved in this kind of activity might lose a lot of respect in his society."*

- *"There is strong concern with social traditions and tribal relations among most Saudi families."*

- *"The social view towards those who do vocational and industrial jobs is totally different from the view towards those in business or those who do security jobs."*

- *"The tendency of youths to be proud of their jobs has put a lot of pressure on many of them to escape from the society, when they join the industrial and vocational sectors. In addition, many families pressurise their sons to join certain comfortable jobs with high status."*

The few interviewees who did not see acceptance of I&V work as affected by social status thought that Saudi nationals in many cases, are more concerned about the economic factor or incentives, rather than social status. As one interviewee said:

"I disagree; the Saudi national looks for a high salary job which could cover his needs, regardless of the nature of the job."

8.1.3 Preference for office work over manual work.

All the interviewees agreed that manual work is socially disdained and office work socially esteemed among Saudi nationals, and suggested some reasons behind this phenomenon, as follows:

- *"I agree, because most youths prefer office jobs to manual ones. That is because the office job is clean and requires no hard effort, but when the incentives are provided, the view will change."*
- *"The problem is they are all looking for high-level management employment and are culturally not used to the idea of clerical jobs. There are plenty of jobs but not the sort they want. They want to sit in an office and manage and not be managed."*
- *"No doubt, youths will go towards manual work as time passes and when they find themselves with no office jobs, and that is a fact of today."*

- *"That is true, it is not preferred, because the alternative is still available, in addition to the social view which differentiates between the jobs."*
- *"I agree, because the social view has a great effect on that. Most youths prefer to stay at home instead of joining manual work."*
- *"Vocational and manual jobs are considered as hands-on jobs, while office jobs are comfortable and finish at a fixed time."*
- *"It becomes a habit with people...they think that this is important for social appearance."*
- *"Because there is no incentive to join manual work, such as money, comfortable accommodation and transport."*
- *"The new generations have never come across a hard experience because they depend upon their families, and because of some changes in their values as a result of the high development which has been witnessed in the country."*
- *"Unfortunately, the Saudi youths still want to sit in an office with air conditioning above their heads."*
- *"There is also still a stigma attached to manual work: Saudis would prefer administrative work at a lower wage rather than do manual work."*
- *"The Saudi individual evaluates the work within the industrial and vocational sectors negatively. That is because these sectors did not exist or were not considered in the early stages of development in Saudi society."*

A further reason for this situation, as one company manager indicated, is that students' education is not suitable for I&V work:

"... Saudis' productivity is lower and their price higher. If Saudis want technical work, they can find it. We often advertise and cannot find people. The people who have skipped school are different and we would not have them; the outputs of the Islamic universities go to the government for employment and the government is already saturated."

An interviewee from the Telecommunication Company added:

"Employment has become the government's headache, not the private sectors... When we were recruiting last year we took two or three out of two hundred applicants...Saudis will not become menial workers, such as telephone operators or secretaries. There have been recent articles on the young men who sit around the public parks doing nothing and the excuse given is that they grew up in the boom years...a day will come when Saudi natives will accept and take any job. This is because the time of major progress has gone and will not return. Moreover, the universities and colleges will not change for all those who wish to join them. The question then is, where will all those youths find jobs? And how can they secure their future? Efforts should be concentrated encouraging people to take any job. All sorts of jobs are honourable. It is not essential that all Saudis should become engineers and doctors. I suggest that will happen with the increase in awareness."

8.1.4 Family occupations and acceptance of I&V work.

It was thought by 60% percent of interviewees that there is a strong relationship between orientations of the family occupations and involvement in I&V work, while 40% thought otherwise.

- *"In most cases the job is connected to the family and inherited generation after generation. That is the case mainly, if the job is a profitable one at the current time."*
- *"To the extent that the traditional vocational job becomes near to the current types of jobs, this will give more motivation to join that job."*
- *"The son in most cases is affected by the vocational job of his father. Therefore, the son might take up the same occupation as his father."*
- *"There's a strong relationship. The youths who grow up in humble families such as shoe makers, poachers, blacksmiths and so on, are the successful ones in their study life as well as their working life. They occupy the highest jobs, in contrast to those who come from families who will not join these types of jobs and are proud of their origins."*
- *"The family plays a major role in the decision of the individual when selecting his job. Moreover, the role of the family might go to the extent of teaching the individual the job which had been done by his father and grandfather."*
- *"Yes, the family has a direct effect on its son from the first day of his life. The relationship between them is a negative one in most cases. The family has a great effect on how the son deals with the world around him and how he chooses his education and his job."*
- *"Everyone has his own physical and intellectual powers in either or both areas of studying or working. In most cases, the opinion of the family represents the major factor in the direction of the son. The family in most*

cases does not consider the ability and desire of the son. Therefore, there are many who failed in their life because of an unsuitable orientation."

- *"I strongly agree; Saudi families try to find a high ranking positions for their sons, where they can work with little effort and gain a lot in a short time."*

- *"If the father is working as a teacher or has got an excellent professional job such as a medical doctor or an engineer, or any other professional job, he likes his son to join the same job as himself."*

As an opposite opinion, it was more emphasised that the relationship depends on the type and status of the family or father's occupation. If the father professional, it will be more acceptable for the son to follow in his footsteps, than if he does manual work. Accordingly, one interviewee argued:

"That is not right. If that were the case, then the son of a father who does a vocational job would have to join the same job. It is not an inherent process."

8.1.5 The relationship between tribalism and acceptance of I&V work.

All interviewees, except three, agreed that tribalism in Saudi society is an important reason for non-acceptance of I&V work.

In this respect, some interviewees made to the following points:

- *"That is natural. The society, tribe, relatives and social position have a place in developing society...but hopefully education, better understanding and need will change this negative view."*

- *"No doubt about that, our society still has a lot of that. Our society is still developing in most Saudi cities and it hasn't yet completed its civilisation and progress for this phenomenon to disappear...we need more understanding of the requirements of life nowadays."*

- *"The negative view of the tribe is still affecting the thinking of these people who classified the vocational jobs as inferior jobs...people who join these jobs are afraid of being called bad names when the time comes to marry or at any social event."*

- *"I really agree, especially when we know that the social opinion has a great effect on acceptance of vocational and industrial jobs among those who have a close connection to their tribes...there are many people who have sacrificed their future for the sake of maintaining the negative tribal customs."*

The interviewees who disagreed with these opinions above believed that disdain for I&V work is not related to tribal traditions, but can be ascribed, in most cases, to lack of awareness and to economic conditions. In this respect, one of interviewee mentioned that:

" The matter does not relate to the negative view in the past, so much as to a lack of understanding of the requirements and changes of life."

Another indicated,

"The issue is not the traditional view, but the financial view. It is not logical for a Saudi youth to work for a salary of 800 Saudi riyals per month which will not cover his needs during this economic situation."

8.2 Responses related to influence of cultural factors.

The topics considered under this heading, and the pattern of responses, are summarised in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2 Distribution of interviewees according to influence of cultural factors.

Interview Responses	Disagree		Agree	
	N	%	N	%
1. Saudi nationals are aware of the importance of I&V work at the present time.	10	33	20	67
2. Saudi nationals prefer general education to I&V education	3	10	27	90
3. Saudi nationals prefer working with other Saudis rather than people of other nationalities.	9	30	21	70
4. The mass media have a big role in helping to increase Saudis' awareness of the value of I&V work	11	37	19	63
5. There is a strong relationship between the role of School and acceptance of I&V work.	24	80	6	20

8.2.1 Awareness of importance of I&V work at the present time.

Sixty seven percent of interviewees agreed that Saudi nationals are more aware of the importance of I&V work than in the past. Those who held this view thought that this increased awareness was a result of development within Saudi society and the spread of culture. In addition, they considered that media influence and the lack of alternative jobs have encouraged people to consider vocational and industrial jobs.

On the other hand, the following views were expressed by some interviewees:

- *"Not to a large extent, because youths can still get what they want in terms of food and other needs. They have not reached a needy situation as is the*

case in other countries...still more effort is needed to let the national understand the situation in this respect."

- *"That might be the case, but in most cases it is just for the sake of securing a job."*
- *"The Saudi people are not aware of the importance of the industrial and vocational sectors. Their lack of awareness could be seen through the billions of riyals which go out of the country."*
- *"I firmly disagree. If awareness existed, then youths would have joined that type of job. That should be the case, especially if we consider that a major aim of the development plans, the sixth one for example, has been to let the private sector employ most of the graduate students."*
- *"Information Technology jobs change as quickly as the world turns, and the sun rises and sets. Governments must set priorities to prepare for this new age of Information Technology by setting goals and raising standards for all their candidates for university. Tomorrow will be too late. Today is the day to start the work."*
- *"The economic boom of the seventies and early eighties left a significant section of our society ignorant of the importance of work, and the work ethic. There is now a most urgent need to make them aware of this importance so that they can reap maximum benefit from their work and their performance of their jobs."*

One of the secondary school head teachers was very concerned about the situation and behaviour of Saudi youth. As he put it:

"I have noticed a very strange change in the youths' lives. A change in the way they walk, talk, their morals and behaviour. I have noticed that they do not take life seriously and do not behave as real responsible men. All indicators show that if the situation continues like this, nothing of importance can be expected from those youths to their country in both the industrial or vocational sectors."

The interviewees, also, stressed if social awareness is to increase, first, the government and the private sectors should show more awareness of this issue. So, one interviewee of the Ministry of Labour directors mentioned:

"The work situation in Saudi Arabia is going to be more complex... and we have to be aware of that. Before, we were a very rich country. Now things are coming down a bit. That means we cannot just collect money. We have to learn, we have to train, we have to concentrate and we have to work."

He added:

"I would like to emphasize the fact that the survival of an employer depends largely on his productive or 'working' force. Helping a young citizen to pick up a profession and join the productive force lies on his own shoulders...also... the government has the bigger responsibility in taking the lead role in this issue and assuming strong and wise leadership in providing studies, planning and also the delivery of programmes to provide these young citizens with the proper tools to face the challenges of this tough life."

8.2.2 Preference for general education over I&V education.

Most interviewees (90%) agreed that Saudi nationals still prefer general education over I&V education. Some reasons and comments related to that view were offered:

- *"That reflects the lack of understanding of, and importance of, the industrial and vocational education. Since Saudi youths are still dealing with things from a general point of view in all respects and judging things according to what they have learned from their families, the general understanding is that general education is more important than vocational education."*
- *"There is no more clear evidence than the obvious tendency towards the general education all over Saudi Arabia."*
- *"Because general education for Saudi youths means a good future, a comfortable life and the possibility of higher education."*

The preference for general education, as mentioned by number of interviewees, was a result of the educational revolution in Saudi society, during the last three decades, which gave high social value to this education. This value might have been justified, in the days where there was a need to solve the illiteracy problem and when graduates had many work opportunities in the government sector, but nowadays, the situation is different and the society needs to give more attention to the training programmes and practical education.

Accordingly, the secretary-general of Chamber of Commerce & Industry, in Abha, mentioned that:

"Our youth scream in understandable frustration. What else do they need besides a university degree in economics or administration or social science? There are unfortunately a number of graduates holding these no-longer required qualifications. Tremendous changes have taken place in conditions for employment as we wait to say good-bye to the 20th century...Individuals qualify for employment not merely by producing a degree but by showing proof of the qualifications and skills required by the potential employer."

Also, one of the administrators said:

"In fact...we need to learn of the wisdom that said, 'If you give a man a fish he eats for one day. If you train a man to fish he will eat for a lifetime'...This is a solvable problem that will take the combined effort of employers and the government to work together to offer incentives for hiring agencies to establish on-the-job training and mentoring programmes for individuals that are without employable skills. It is workable if corporate and government leaders have the will to solve the problem."

8.2.3 Preference of work with Saudis rather than other nationalities.

Seventy percent of interviewees believed that Saudi nationals prefer to work with Saudis rather than other nationalities. Most attributed this preference to similarities in customs, language, and behaviour. Also, they indicated that working with Saudis might make a person to feel that he works within his own society, and not as a strange person.

On the other hand, interviewees who disagreed with this view indicated that Saudis who work with non-Saudi workers have more freedom and acceptance, and more are respected.

Accordingly, one of the interviewees indicated:

"I disagree with those who believe that most Saudis do not like to work with other nationalities, especially in the private sector. In the private sector, the Saudi national might find a kind of respect, a position, a full opinion and less effort."

8.2.4 The role of mass and Saudi' awareness of I&V work value.

Most interviewees (63%) agreed that the mass media in Saudi Arabia play a big role in increasing Saudis' awareness of the value of I&V work. The rest of the interviewees, who disagreed with this attitude, believed that the mass media in Saudi society, in general, still play only a directive role, rather than an effective role that could encourage people to join these activities.

Accordingly, a department head in Abha Technical Collage emphasized that:

"There is no clear idea in dealing with the importance of the industrial and vocational sectors. There are some examples showing that some people had started off in these kinds of activities and progressed to occupy a high rank in society. We found one who started his life as a blacksmith and finished as a space pioneer. Anyone who is aware of this information will know how important the industrial and vocational activities are in the life of people, and the nation...in fact, it is the responsibility of the media and those who are responsible for the industrial and vocational sectors...to make available all the information they have about these sectors, as well as the vacancies available in these sectors. There are many Saudi youths who are wondering around hoping to get any kind of job, as quickly as possible."

8.2.5 The role of school and acceptance of I&V work.

The majority of interviewees (80%) did not think that there is a strong relationship between the role of school and acceptance of I&V work.

Most interviewees' opinions and comments indicated that there is a real gap between school and university education and the requirements of practical life in society. They thought that with the lack of practical education, inside and outside of school, institutions, and universities, it is as if Saudi society is walking on one leg (general education) and it will not get to the end of the road.

According to this attitude, a director of one company said:

"...There is no excuse for universities which are not producing what is required. They should have long ago changed to an educational system relevant to the needs of today's world and that of the future as well... The government that pays for the education of its citizens must see that this change of direction is made so that its citizens cope with not only the country's requirements but also those of the outside worlds...the preparation of independent individuals capable of living in a technology-oriented world should start at earlier stages. It should start at school level; pre-university schooling lays down the necessary foundation for a successful individual."

The head of the research department in Abha Chamber of Commerce & Industry, pointed out:

"We must, before we called to work in the industrial and technical field, be sure that our university graduates are qualified for a wide range of jobs. How can they be trained prior to their appointments? How can we prepare them in order to get maximum benefit from them? These are important questions and the answers must not

only be well thought out but also well carried out. This will be to the advantage of the individuals as well as to the country as a whole...we should anticipate these requirements and let our schools prepare our people for taking these jobs. It is our job as responsible citizens to make sure that the educational curriculum reflects the needs of the market place and prepares qualified Saudis to take their places in it...we are now in the start of the 21st century with its new ideas and challenges. Those who are able to face the challenges without fearing changing realities will not enclose themselves in a time warp and they will surely be successful."

In this respect, one of administrator asked:

"Why not put more effort into increasing the level of thinking, development and invention? The aim of most activities in schools never goes beyond the teacher and the school, and to get a degree which might be of benefit. The target should be to seek out talented individuals and to encourage them to apply what they have studied. The private companies, also, should sponsor distinguished students before graduation, to give them the training and necessary experience to be hired at the end of their education."

In addition, the director of one large company said truthfully:

" In this age of globalisation and business dealings stretching from continent to continent across open borders...there is no place in our company for those who have not mastered English and who are not computer literate."

8.3 Responses related to influence of economic factors.

Table 8.3 shows the themes raised in relation to the economic dimension, and interviewees' responses.

Table 8.3 Distribution of interviewees according to influence of economic factors.

Interviews Responses		Disagree		Agree	
		N	%	N	%
1.	There is a relationship between foreign labour presence and Saudi nationals' involvement in I&V sectors.	6	20	24	80
2.	Saudi youth have no a clear idea about the future jobs available for them in I&V sectors.	4	13	26	87
3.	Saudi nationals prefer to work in the government I&V sectors rather than the private I&V sectors.	10	33	20	67
4.	There is a relationship between income level in the private sector (I&V) and Saudi nationals' involvement in these sectors	6	20	24	80
5.	The economic level of the Saudi family impacts on Saudi nationals' involvement in I&V sectors	3	10	27	90

8.3.1 Presence of foreign labour and acceptance of I&V work.

Eighty percent of interviewees agreed that there is a relationship between the presence of foreign labour and the low involvement of Saudi nationals in I&V sectors. The interviewees' argument, in general, was that the unlimited presence and availability of foreign workers created a real competition to Saudi nationals, particularly, in relation to the level of wages, which are not satisfactory to Saudi workers in the present situation.

Following are some interviewees' opinions in relation to this matter:

- *"There is more than enough non-Saudi labour in the local market, especially in vocational and industrial activities. Therefore, this foreign labour force represents real competition to the local labour force. That will be confirmed further when we consider that the foreign worker will accept a low wage which is not enough to cover the needs of his Saudi counterpart."*

- *"In fact, the foreign labour force represents strong competition to Saudi labour, especially at the present time. The time has come to put a limit on the dependence on foreign labour and to design a strategy which could help achieve self-sufficiency of the labour force."*

- *"It is natural, as long as cheap labour is available, that there will be no inclination from Saudis towards these activities, because of lack of incentives and lack of encouragement."*

- *"The rejection of Saudis employees as an alternative to foreign labour, results in a lack of the employers confidence in themselves and lack of understanding of the future."*

- *" The cheap hired labour will continue until the Saudis change their mentality and become proud of earning. This is less the case in the Eastern Province where the work ethic is more strongly ingrained as a result of their type of society, the oil industry and the presence of Saudi ARAMCO."*

Despite the opinions quoted above, some interviewees believed that the problem is not related to competition from foreign workers, which is a matter of economic forces (supply and demand), but it is related to in ability of Saudi nationals themselves to compete effectively. One interviewee (a factory manager) mentioned that:

"There are many factory owners who would be ready to send away all foreign labour if Saudi labour were available, but the negative experience with Saudi nationals has stopped them doing so."

A member of the Chambers of Commerce & Industry in Riyadh made the point:

"There is a real gap between expectations and reality, or between the skills available and the skills required. Intensive training programmes are needed to bridge this gap. It is easy to say that the private sector should take more Saudis but there is no legislation to enforce or encourage this. If there was some legislation to provide incentives to the private sector or to sub-sectors of the private sector it would be hugely encouraging and a massive training programme could be put in place."

The manager of one company in Abha indicated that the private sector has some responsibility toward indigenous Saudi labour, but it is not logical to solve one problem by creating anther. As he argued:

"The process of Saudization requires careful planning and organization. Initially, it is an administrative problem. We must plan to train a Saudi prior to his taking up a job. Some questions will inevitably be raised when we mention this. Among the first is what jobs will a Saudi national be able to fill after graduation? And what jobs will a Saudi national be unable to fill, even after graduation? He may well require additional training and experience in order to fill the job competently. What salary will he expect? What guarantee will there be that it is not a waste of both time and money to train Saudis? How can we be reasonably sure the Saudis will be of use to their employers? How can they be trained to meet job requirements? What changes must be made in the present curriculum being taught in schools and other institutions in order to prepare our youth for a wide range of jobs?"

He added:

"The policy of Saudization should focus on preparing the appropriate environment to match the supply of the job-seeking Saudis with the demand side, the private sector. It is unreasonable to expect companies to hire a Saudi citizen if he is

less productive and costs more than a foreigner! Supposing this happened, it would, on the one hand, solve the problem in the short run but, on the other hand, it would cause another problem in the long run."

Another company manager believed that the presence of non-Saudi workers in the Kingdom is quite natural, so he pointed out that:

"There is sufficient justification for their numbers in certain jobs and professions... We of course acknowledge that our national Saudi work force could not keep up with the recent tremendous increase in job requirements of varying specifications. This rapid increase has been due to economic and industrial progress and is also related to skill and potential in certain other professions. Even if we had a plentiful supply of qualified and competent youth who were capable of handling the most complex jobs and sophisticated tasks in the private sector, we still face tactical weakness and lack of flexibility in the job absorption process."

An administrator from the Administration of General Education in Abha indicated that the private sector has no real intention to contribute to employment of Saudi nationals, which they still see as the government's problem. Accordingly, he said:

"Saudi youth are seeking jobs which are there in large numbers in the private sector. Some companies, however, seem unwilling to offer even the required minimum percentage of jobs to Saudis, even though it would be a great service to the nation if they just managed to reach that target."

Also, he added:

"We should bear in mind that since the founding of the Kingdom, they have never been asked to fulfil any duty to unemployed Saudi youth. Until very recently,

nobody bothered to point out to them their obligation in developing the country's manpower potential. Formerly, the government was the principal employer of Saudis, while the private sector preferred, on various pretexts, to import most of its employees, from white-collar levels down to labourers. This in fact imposed an additional load on government services and was detrimental to the national economy in that billions of riyals in foreign exchange were sent abroad in the form of workers' remittances. The number of these overseas workers has steadily increased so that they now almost equal the Saudi population."

8.3.2 The awareness of future job available in I&V sectors.

The majority (87%) of interviewees' responses indicated that Saudi nationals have no clear idea about the future jobs available in I&V sectors. In relation to this issue, some of interviewees made the following points:

- *"Maybe there are many who are aware of the importance of vocational and industrial work, but they are not aware of the future importance of those activities. That relates to the lack of clarity of the view of different organisations regarding employment policies and prospective of employment vacancies. The most important element of these is the lack of data which could help give more indication of demand and supply levels in both public and private sectors."*

- *"There are a lot of data which could be used to solve a lot of problems and to design future plans, especially in the vocational and employment areas. Unfortunately, these sort of data are considered secret in most cases and released only when they are out of date."*

- *"Most of the people in society don't know about their real future in vocational and industrial activities...it is the responsibility of many agencies in the public and private sector... and moreover it still needs a lot of effort and encouragement through all types of media."*

Taking up this issue in detail, a head teacher of secondary school said:

"A helpful start to a solution would be encouraging the business community to get more involved in programmes to sponsor students' education, and to work with universities in establishing the collective needs of businesses everywhere. Students need to know what kinds of jobs will be available when they graduate. A desirable job at the end of the educational tunnel is a powerful incentive...most students have no idea about work situations and job opportunities until they have their diplomas in hand and are then left to wonder what is next."

In relation to data and its availability, one interviewee from Abha Literary Club pointed out that:

"Nobody knows the exact number of unemployed people in Saudi society. Nor do we have any idea of the number who will face the threat of unemployment in the next few years. Nor do we know the amount of money leaving the country as investments transferred abroad. A man who is formulating policy, without proper data concerning the problems he must deal with, is like a blind man groping his way along a highway. He does not know where he is going to put foot next - into a hole or onto the pavement or in the middle of speeding traffic...Unemployment is a matter of heated discussion. A great deal of money and time are spent on finding solutions for the problem, though nobody knows the precise number of employees required in any particular field within the next three years ...Over seven million people have been

brought to the region from twenty countries to perform different types of jobs while a few thousand people here are unemployed. We can only say "a few thousand" because we unfortunately do not have accurate data on the numbers."

And he added:

"An attempt to find a solution for any problem without exact and detailed information is comparable to putting the cart before the horse.... The collection of data is the first step toward solving the problem. Publishing that data, instead of hiding it as one would a vital military secret, is very essential for the welfare of individuals, companies and governments."

A number of interviewees emphasised that policy makers, in both private and public sectors, need to be more aware that unemployment is a real problem and that more efforts, cooperation and openness are needed to limit its impact, socially and economically.

An interviewee from the Education Authority indicated that:

"The emphasis on developing human resources and creating new job opportunities must be commended. It is the need of the hour. The issue must be the top concern of the nation and also of the employment authorities in the private and public sectors. The number of young men searching for jobs has increased in recent years. This issue must be addressed without delay. The most dangerous threat to any society is a high percentage of unemployed among its members."

Similarly, one interviewee from Abha' institute of Technical Education and Vocational Training mentioned:

"The increasing number of Saudi job seekers is to be accommodated at any cost. Strong and tireless efforts are needed to find new employment opportunities. Achievement of a normal and healthy balance between the employment demand and supply is not the responsibility of the government alone. It is the joint responsibility of all the sectors in the society, including private and government. Not achieving this balance will produce a great calamity from which no one will escape."

8.3.3 Preference for I&V work in public sector rather than private sector.

The results indicated that 67% of interviewees considered that Saudi nationals would prefer I&V work in the public sector rather than the private sector. This preference is attributed to several factors, emphasised by interviewees as follows:

- *"The incentives, money gain, full movement, flexibility and minimum responsibility are the main motivations for them. The public sector can secure these desires more than the private sector."*
- *"Employees have got more confidence when dealing with the government in matters like stability, social insurance, health insurance, holidays, pensions and so on. ... Jobs in the public sector are more secure than jobs in the private sector ... in the private sector could get rid of their employee for any emergent reason in any of its institutions."*
- *"Among the constraints facing industrial and vocational labour is the obstacle to the ambitions of those who work in these sectors without opportunity for progression."*
- *"Many Saudi youths have no experience of being independent and responsible of own lives and future. Many youths stay at home waiting for a*

chance in the public sectors, while there are hundreds of work opportunities in the society ...the situation, in fact, needs to kind of precession and guidance to change this adaptability."

- *"Some Saudi nationals are not used to starting at the bottom of the ladder or working long and regular hours; they expect to be on higher salaries than Third World nationals, and they find jobs in government service more comfortable and secure. Other career opportunities could be found in financial services or in the armed forces, if the numbers were increased."*

- *"One difficulty is to identify the young Saudis who understand business. They have to cross the barriers between home and office. Very often young Saudis do not understand the constraints of business: that you have to be in the office at the right time and that family responsibilities must not get in the way."*

Furthermore, director of one factory in *Khamees Mousheet* (the second city in the Southern Region- east of Abha) emphasised the importance of technical and vocational education in preparation for jobs in the private sector and emphasised that obtaining high quality productive graduates is more important than the financial grants, which become, in most cases, on end in themselves.

On this point he mentioned:

"The country needs more graduates from the technical colleges but some of these graduates get a SR 100,000 loan and start a business. The lower and middle grade technical institutes do not produce enough people. If they pass their exams, they get a government grant, set up a little shop, sign on the dotted line that they will work there themselves and then they hire a third country national to run it. The government

should stop these grants and give more attention to the quality of training and education."

Some interviewees, however, disagree that work in public sector is preferred over the private sectors. They thought the real problem was the inability of many prospective individuals to meet the requirement for I&V work.

According to one executive:

"Despite the government's balance and intelligence in relation to the issue of Saudization, unfortunately the job-seeking Saudi might have to wait a long time before he gains the necessary qualifications and experience. If we examine the attitudes of many employers and companies, we can quickly conclude that they are not serious about providing jobs for young Saudis."

Accordingly, one General Educational Administrator mentioned:

"The advertisements did not stop at demanding experience from the new graduates. They put other demands -- we may say obstacles -- in the way of Saudi job seekers. They required the applicant to be well versed in spoken and written English and to be computer literate with a good knowledge of several different programs. Above all, the researcher found that the salaries and benefits offered in these advertisements were not at all attractive to Saudis nor did they match the high standard of living in the Kingdom."

He, also, added:

"...It is understandable that the private sector is looking for able and qualified workers...but, at the same time, when requirements are set down, they should be

reasonable and realistic...they should not be designed to prevent Saudis from getting jobs in private companies."

A manager of one factory, in Abha, indicated that the government procedures and the low encouragement of individuals to begin their life independently are among factors that lead Saudis to work in public sectors rather than I&V sectors.

So, he said:

"There are many constraints facing the Saudi youths to join such vocational jobs. In most cases, it is beyond his control. He faces the disrespect of his society, not being given the tools he needs to start, such as land, loans and so forth. From my own experience, I have been waiting for 14 years to be given a piece of land where I can start an industrial project...the government should actively encourage the private sector in job creation because there are many young people on the streets without jobs...young Saudis are graduating every year and finding difficulties in getting jobs."

8.3.4 Influence of income level on involvement in private I&V sectors.

It was thought by 80% of interviewees that the income level in the private sector is one of the important reasons behind non-acceptance of I&V work

In relation to some reasons behind this situation, a number of interviewees indicated that:

- *"The private sector looks for the profit and material gain, while the national wants equality in income with the public sector."*
- *"The small business organisations are not capable of meeting the designs of youths who look for high salaries. The huge business organisations should pave the way in providing jobs.*

- *"Nationals like to work with huge companies which have large capital and repute such as SABIC, ARAMCO and others."*
- *"Saudi youths would be prepared to do all types of jobs, if these jobs provided what they are looking for. The youths are looking for good salaries and incentives which cover their needs. But the private sector hasn't got the desire to employ Saudi youths, because it has cheap labour alternatives from abroad."*

Many interviewees, particularly those involved in the private sector, indicated that the private sector is in an awkward situation. Many companies are working on contracts for the government sector or ministries, which will always accept the lowest bid. A major component of the tender is manpower, and foreign labour is cheaper. This blocks opportunities for Saudis.

One interviewee (a businessman) said:

"The issue is more complex than to be related to the Saudis salary or income level in the private sector ...we as businessmen are aware of this problem but it is difficult to solve easily, since the profitability in government contracts depends on the government policy of taking the lowest tender on public sector contracts."

As a result, he argued:

"There will be an incentive for Saudi companies to bring in cheap imported labour for the duration of a government contract. Some people say that this is partly a question of mentality. Saudi businessmen are merchants, not entrepreneurs: they do not like taking risks and prefer to have cheap mobile labour. If they stared using Saudi labour, prices would inevitably go up, and they would lose out on government

contracts to any company using foreign labour. Further, the government could not afford the higher prices demanded by using local labour."

As mentioned earlier, however, some interviewees saw this is as an excuse, among Saudi nationals, and they did not consider it to be the real reason behind low acceptance of I&V work. In this regard, one interviewee (a factory supervisor) stated:

"There are a lot of important vocational and industrial aspects which are not known to Saudi youths, especially from the financial point of view. The gain from these aspects is not less than the gain when joining the public sector, but it is far more. That is, if we don't stick to the social appearance."

Finally, an interviewee (an administrator in the public sector) highlighted the important role that could be played by labour offices in Saudi society, to solve such problems by establishing clear legislation and rules to govern the rights of employers and employees:

"The Labour Office would have to adopt a new attitude. Appointments should not be forced upon individuals but carefully matched with their qualifications and experience. A system must be established in which job descriptions and salaries would be clearly set out and fixed. Working hours must also be clear. Employers must expect both good candidates and bad ones, whether foreigners or Saudis. It is unfair to consider an entire group of Saudis unproductive because of forcing good workers into the same group as poor ones. At the same time, however, it should be unfair for the private sector to refuse to appoint well-qualified and trained Saudis."

8.3.5 Impact of economic level of Saudi national on involvement in I&V work.

Ninety percent (90%) of interviewees agreed that the economic level influences Saudi nationals' involvement in I&V sectors. Most interviewees thought that the high economic level of some families in Saudi society was behind the rejection of these kinds of work. Also, a number of interviewees indicated that the disdain for manual work is not new, but can be traced back many years, since families in higher economic groups viewed manual workers, especially in some occupations, as low class and used them as servants. Even those who came from less economically families, who might be expected to be more accepting of this kind of work, cannot do it, because they have to consider what is acceptable among their tribe or society.

Accordingly, some interviewees pointed out:

- *"For sure. If income levels were generally low, people would be more prepared to do vocational work (in order to earn a living)".*
- *"The economic level of the individual or the family might have a role to play in accepting such jobs. But the acceptance of such jobs comes as a result of (economic) need, not as a result of desire."*
- *"In the past, yes, especially if we connect the acceptance of the vocational job to the low economic level...so...at present...the effect of the tribe is still there despite the low income level for most of the people"*

As an opposite opinion, some interviewees indicated that it is not fair to generalize about the economic level of the Saudi family and its affect on the acceptance or non-acceptance of I&V work. Consequently, one interviewee indicated: *"If the issue is that the Saudi national, in most cases, has got a high level of income,*

and that this income has an effect on his acceptance to join vocational and industrial labour, in this case, I disagree. It is essential to ask, what level we are talking about, if we know that the monthly income of the individual is not enough to cover his basic needs. I think the connection between acceptance of these vocations and the economic level of the individual, in general, is not altogether acceptable."

8.4 Conclusion

Many points and opinions had emerged within these interviews. These findings will give more detailed and depth to the study as a whole.

The interviews yielded the following main points:

- Industrial and vocational work still has low value and social status in Saudi society, but there is hope that this situation may change as a result of environmental changes in relation to job opportunities, university admissions, privatisation, and so on.

- From a social point of view, office work is preferred to manual work, since it is clean, flexible, and requires no hard effort, and because graduates' education does not equip them for manual work.

- The majority (60%) of interviewees perceived a strong relationship between family occupational orientations and acceptance of I&V work in Saudi society. This relationship, in many cases, is negative in its relation with I&V work. Others, however, believed that an occupation's status has more impact than the family's orientation.

- The interviews revealed that the tribe still plays a big role in acceptance of I&V work. So, acceptance of this kind of work varies according to the extent of individuals' relationships with the tribal life.

- It was widely agreed that Saudi nationals are more aware of the importance of I&V work than in the past, although, more effort is needed by government agencies and the private sector to promote this awareness.

- The interviewees emphasised that Saudi society prefers general education over I&V education. This preference is a result of the educational revolution, in Saudi society, in the early years. As time passes it has become a problem, and there is a need to rethink many present educational programmes.

- Since the Saudi society is very close-knit, it was thought that Saudi nationals prefer to work with other Saudis.

- Most interviewees perceived that there is a real gap between school and university education and the requirements of practical life in Saudi society.

- It was widely agreed that there is a relationship between availability of foreign labour and the low involvement of Saudis in I&V sectors. Some interviewees thought that the problem is not the presence of foreign labour per se, but the failure of Saudis to present themselves as a competitive alternative to this labour.

- The interviews revealed that Saudi nationals have no clear idea about the future jobs available in I&V sectors, largely because of the shortage of data.

- Interviewees considered that Saudi nationals prefer I&V work in the public sector rather than the private sector, because of more attractive, stability, holidays, social

and health insurance, salary, freedom of movement, flexibility and minimum responsibility.

- Interviewees agreed that the low-income level in the private sector, which is insufficient to meet the living requirements of Saudi nationals, is one of the important reasons behind non-acceptance of I&V work.

- The majority of interviewees thought that the high economic level of some families in Saudi society was behind their reluctance to be involved in these kinds of work.

CHAPTER----------9

THE STUDY

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

9.1 Acceptance of I&V Work in Saudi Society.

9.2 The Difference between Students and Fathers in Acceptance of I&V Work

9.3 The Relationship Between some Socio-cultural and Economic Factors and Acceptance of I&V Work.

CHAPTER NINE: THE STUDY RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS.

Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the socio-economic factors influencing Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational work. The investigation was developed to answer three main questions (see Chapter One) which related to: acceptance of industrial and vocational work in the study society, the difference between Saudi youth and fathers in perception of this kind of work, and the relationship between some socio-cultural and economic factors and acceptance of industrial and vocational work.

This chapter highlights and discusses the main findings that emerged in the study, especially, in the last three chapters (six, seven and eight). These results and their discussion are important to emphasise the significance of the study, on the one hand, and to lead to important conclusions and recommendations, which will be the subject of the next and last chapter in the study (Chapter Ten) on the other.

9.1 Is industrial and vocational work acceptable in the Saudi society?

The answers to this question were related to respondents' occupational background and experience, and the association of respondents and their families with I&V work. These results, also, will reveal the difference between Saudi youth and fathers in perceptions of industrial and vocational work:

- The largest occupational category for both students' fathers and fathers was clerical work. Military work was the second most common occupation among both samples (27%). Only 9% of both samples worked in industrial and vocational sectors. Significantly, the results revealed that that the fathers, did not accept of I&V work as an alternative to their current occupations.

- The data revealed that 93% of students' mothers and 96% of fathers' wives did not have a formal occupation. It is assumed that the mothers and wives of respondents would be, like the previous generation of women in Saudi Arabia, predominantly illiterate and housewives. However, the study revealed that no relationship between mothers' and wives' work situation and acceptance of I&V work.

- Clerical and military occupations were the preferred occupations among the respondents' families (43% and 37%). 17% of students and 19% of fathers reported business as the occupation preferred by their families. Only 4% of students and 10% of fathers stated that their families preferred industrial and vocational occupations. There was a significant association between preferred occupations and acceptance of industrial and vocational work. Families who preferred clerical work (60.1%) and the military (63.3%) expressed the least acceptance of I&V work.

- There were significant associations between respondents' preferred occupations for the future and their acceptance or otherwise of I&V work. Military (22%) clerical (15%) and teaching (14%) occupations were most desired by students, and by fathers for their sons. The rate of acceptance of I&V work was 12%. Such work seemed to be more favoured by fathers than students. Only 15% of

the fathers were happy to give their sons complete freedom in deciding their future as they wish, while 14% of the students were not sure what they were going to do in the future and had no plan.

- There was a highly significant relationship between family occupational preferences and future occupational plans. For example, respondents whose families favoured military occupations were more likely to plan to do this kind of work in the future.

- Only 25% of students had held jobs in the past - these jobs were most likely part-time or summer jobs, and only a small portion were steady jobs. About two thirds of those who had jobs were employed in sectors related to clerical work and the rest had experience related to I&V work. A significant relationship was found between students' having work experience and their acceptance of industrial and vocational work in the future.

- Fifty-one percent of students and 48% of the fathers engage in domestic work such as driving, carpentry, decor, shaving ...and so on, while 18% of students and only 9.6% of fathers did some housework (cleaning, washing, cooking...and so on); 30% and 42% of students and fathers respectively did not accept involvement in any tasks. For both students and fathers, respondents who engaged in domestic work and housework were more likely to accept industrial and vocational work.

- The majority of students (59%) and fathers (52%) had no desire to engage in I&V work. Industrial and vocational work, in general, was more acceptable to fathers than students. Nevertheless, there was no significant difference between

them in mean score in this regard. Thus, it can be said that both samples, students and fathers, were equally reluctant to be involved in I&V sectors.

- Only 15% of students and 23% of fathers had tried to engage in I&V work.
- Eighty percent of students' families and 76% of fathers' families had no members with I&V jobs. Twelve percent of the students' family members and 16% of fathers' family members were involved in school, college or other programmes related to industrial, technical and vocational sectors. Only 6% of students' families and 7% of fathers' families had industrial or vocational workshops.
- The majority of families (71% for students and 57% for fathers) did not encourage their members to enter industrial and vocational work.

It is obvious from these results that the overwhelming majority of respondents and their families showed very negative attitudes towards vocational and industrial work and greater preference for other occupations, especially clerical work, military, teaching, medicine, and so on. This result means that changing Saudi nationals' attitudes will not be an easy task; the negative attitude towards industrial and vocational work reflects, essentially, the low status accorded to manual work in the society. The society's cultural background, in general, is still dominant with regard to the individual's choice of occupation. Occupations which demand manual labour, long hours, physical exertion and dirty hands are generally considered undesirable and un-respected, since they are associated with low status (see Chapter Two, occupational choice). Also, the similarity between students and fathers in this negative view indicated that social mobility is still very slow in comparison with more urbanized

environments, where the individual's position depends much more on his occupation, production and personal efforts.

These findings are consistent with those of previous studies suggesting that manual work is disdained and not acceptable: Van Derkroef (1963. p. 176) noticed, "*Manual labour is disdained by the majority of people in the developing countries*". In Jordan, Al-Bukhari (1969) pointed out that only twenty seven percent of the industrial vocational graduates were using the skills they had acquired. Twenty years later, a study was conducted by Al-Moshigah (1989) among students of community colleges in Jordan, with the aim of identifying the factors preventing secondary school students from entering technical education. It was found that only 12 percent of the respondents entered the community college because this was their genuine preference.

Raddady (1977), exploring the question, "*Why do the Bedouins in Saudi society look down on manual work?*", indicated that the Bedouin looks down on manual work because he has developed certain values and norms that constitute traditional ideals and virtues, without which he is hardly considered an affective member in his society. Al-Ghofaily (1980) conducted a similar study of the factors affecting young Saudis' attitudes towards work and vocational education as a constraint on economic development. Eighty percent of Saudi youth did not accept manual labour.

Kisnawi (1981) found that school students had negative attitudes toward both vocational-industrial education and manual occupations, while their fathers' attitudes were slightly more positive, but the difference was not statistically significant. Campbell (1981) pointed out that the reason why 70-75 percent of the Saudi work force is non-Saudi is the low enrolment in technical and vocational programmes. Meliakan and Al-Isa (1982) conducted a study in Qatar State, the main purpose of

which was to measure the social classification of groups of professions still practised at the time the study was carried out. The researchers interpreted the result in the light of the society's culture which still disdained manual work and glorified non-manual work. The results of the study conducted by Al-Ghamdi (1994), revealed that the majority of respondents, 60.7 per cent, indicated that among the main reasons for the shortage of Saudi trained manpower is the disdain for vocational work (see Chapter Two: previous studies).

However, it can be said that the low enrolment in technical and vocational work, and before that, its related education, cannot be attributed to a single factor or motive, but is a result of a number of related socio-cultural and economic factors which have influenced the attitudes and wishes of individuals in Saudi society.

9.2 What is the relationship between some socio-cultural and economic factors and acceptance of industrial and vocational work?

9.2.1 Social factors:

1. What value does the society place on industrial and vocational work?

- Forty one percent (41%) of fathers' responses suggested a high social value for I&V work, compared with 38.5% for students. Taking both samples, students and fathers as a single group, 39.8% of respondents thought the social value of I&V work was high, while 36.5% of them thought it was low.
- There is a significant relationship between the perceived social value level of I&V and acceptance of I&V work for both students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as group.

- There is no significant difference between the means of the two groups, students and fathers, in their view of the social value of industrial and vocational work.

Although a high social value for I&V work was perceived by a majority respondents, particularly by fathers, a significant relationship existed between the perceived social value of I&V work and acceptance of this kind of work. As shown in tables 7.1.1.2 and 7.1.1.3, the generally low social value given to I&V in the society negatively influences acceptance of industrial and vocational work; there was no difference between students and fathers in this view towards such work. Accordingly, 80% percent of interviewees believed that Saudi nationals give no real value to I&V work.

Although the country has become modernized in many aspects of its life-style, these results reflect the social view as one of the main factors that deter Saudi nationals from accepting I&V work, and, also, reflect that Saudi people are still conservative and some retain their tribal culture and pride in being associated with their heritage. Consequently, the younger generation, who are affected by this culture, try to engage in traditional occupations, mainly military service, clerical work, or as security guards, and are reluctant to enter industry-related occupations. Katakura (1974) noted that the socio-economic changes accruing in the country had not displaced traditional values. Among the cultural values that remain is a disdain by most tribesmen for work such as hair-cutting, plumbing, carpentry, smithing and others involving manual labour, which are considered demeaning.

2. Is there any relationship between social status or the prestige of the occupation and enrolment in industrial and vocational sectors?

- Students attached higher importance to occupational status than fathers (71.5% and 57%). Taking students and fathers together (as a group), 64.3% of respondents attached high importance to occupational status in relation to involvement in I&V sectors.

- There is a significant relationship between importance of the social ranking of I&V occupations and acceptance of this kind of work for fathers, while no significant relationship between this variable and acceptance of I&V work was found for students and for both samples (S&F) as a group.

- A significant difference was found between the means of the two groups, students and fathers, in their view of the importance of work occupational status in industrial and vocational sectors.

It is clear from these results, in general, that the majority of students and fathers attach high importance to occupational status in the choice of work. Among fathers, those who gave more importance to such ranking were less inclined towards I&V work. Despite the lack of any significant relationship between occupational status and the acceptance of industrial and vocational work for students and for respondents as group (see table 7.1.2.2) the results, according to t-test, revealed that occupational status is more important to students than fathers in their choice of work (see table 7.1.2.3). Also, revealed that 67% percent of interviewees agreed that there is a strong relationship between the social status of work and low choice of I&V work in the study society.

Since the society has a negative attitudes to I&V work, its social status and position will, also be low and less acceptable in eyes of this society. So, after twenty years, these results still conform to those of other studies such Al-Ghofailys' study (1980) which revealed that 64% of respondents considered the prestige motive of an occupation as more important than the economic motives. These results and those of other similar studies emphasise that the status of a person is still related to his family's status and his occupation that he/she practises. Moreover, as Ghamdi (1994) mentioned, another common misconception regarding technical and vocational work, is to its relation to the concept of crafts passed from one generation to the next; inherited occupations of this sort were traditionally related to social class. This confusion constitutes a real obstacle to the distribution of technical and vocational education and work, except among a limited category of people.

Because of the importance attached to work's social position, it is noticed that individuals, in a developing country like Saudi Arabia, still take pride in themselves and their relatives according to the kind of occupation in which they are engaged. Very often, an individual is called by his professional title and his name at the same time, as reflecting the prestige attached to the profession by family, friends and society. Warner (1964) pointed out that an individual, in such a society, is very sensitive and protective of his social and occupational status. Hence, he values his occupation according to the social appreciation of it, irrespective of other factors. This can be attributed, Warner said, to the nature of social life of the majority of people before the unification of the country in 1932, or the availability of other work opportunities.

Although many factors contribute in determining the social status of the individual in society, such as income, education, age or property, occupations in general, and vocations in particular, are considered important, in influencing the status

of the individual, both in his society and in the work place. In general, it is noted that individuals are very sensitive to the status or social importance ascribed by others to their occupations. Lipsky (1959) discusses extensively the impact of social values on manual labour in Saudi society. He draws attention to the low status attached to manual labour and the prestige, in contrast, associated with supervisory and administrative work. Consequently, respectable Arabs, whether nomadic or settled, disdain manual work, leaving it to be performed by persons from low-status groups, such as the non-tribal Arabs and Negroes. Taylor (1968) indicated that occupation continues to contribute more to an individual's social status than most other factors in life.

3. Is manual labour socially disdained and office work socially esteemed among Saudi nationals?

- Fifty six percent (56%) of students gave high social value to clerical work, compared to 65.5% of fathers. The result for both samples, students and fathers (as a group) revealed that 56% of respondents gave high social value to clerical work, while 44% of respondents gave it low social value, compared to I&V work.
- There is a significant relationship between the social value of clerical work and acceptance of I&V work for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a group. This result means that, when clerical work has a low status, I&V work will be more acceptable, and the converse is also true.
- There is no significant difference between the means of the two groups, students and fathers, in relation to the social value of clerical work compared with I&V one.

According to these results, it is apparent that manual work is generally accorded a lower social status than clerical work among occupations in Saudi society, in spite of the changes in tools, work methods and the place of work. It also shows the negative attitudes of Saudi youth towards manual work; which will cause the country to depend heavily on expatriate labour in the foreseeable future, especially after expansion in the industrial sectors. This fact was emphasised by the research interviews, when all interviewees agreed that manual work is socially disdained and office work socially esteemed among Saudi nationals (see 1.3, Chapter Eight).

This result is consistent with many other studies: Vanderkroef (1963) found that the majority of people in the developing countries disdain manual labour. Clerical work in government is socially esteemed and sought, even at low pay. In Bartschs' study (1971) of Iranian youth, it was noted that youth were never committed to a life of manual labour in the first place, and accepted admission to vocational training schools only following failure to gain entrance to general secondary schools, with the intention of using their diplomas as a stepping-stone to a desk job. Meliakan and Al-Isa (1982) in their study in Qatar State indicated that society's culture still disdained manual work and glorified non-manual work. Mehdi and Robinson (1983), in his study about economic development and the labour market in Iraq, indicated that the entry demand on vocational schools was normally less than their capacity due to the low status of such schools and the low status of manual work in general, and students had no real interest in becoming skilled if higher-status jobs were available. Al-Ghamdi (1994) concluded that one of the most important factors behind Saudi youth's reluctance to accept vocational work is the low social status of vocational work and the lack of promotion prospects in vocational work compared with office work.

However, it is important to indicate that acceptance or non-acceptance of manual work is related to the society's orientations and perceptions of its members of the importance of one kind of work over others. Thus, people in developed societies have a different perception of such work, from those in developing societies. For example, Stuart Alison (1971) conducted a study of some factors affecting the career choices of school leavers in Liverpool. Students were asked first to determine which economic sectors they would most prefer to enter and, if possible, to specify the kind of job they would like most to do. The main findings of the study were that the industrial and commercial sectors were the most desirable areas. Career aspiration was similar to career expectation. It may be, of course, that these expectations and aspirations were influenced by inability to enter higher education.

4. What is the impact of families' occupational orientations on involvement in industrial and vocational sectors?

- More than 66.5% of fathers and 62.5% of students thought that family has a high influence on its members' choice of occupation, while 33.5% and 37.5% believed that the family has a low and low influence. Taking students and fathers together (as a group), 64.5% of respondents rated family influence as high, 35.5% as low.

- A significant relationship was found between the influence of the family on occupational choice and acceptance of I&V work, for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a group. This result means that, when the family has low influence, I&V work will be more acceptable, and when it has high influence on occupational choice, I&V will be less acceptable.

- No significant difference was found between the means of the two groups. This result means that fathers and students were similar in their view towards the influence of the family on occupational choice.

These results reveal that the family still has a strong influence upon its members in relation to their education and their choice of work, especially related to I&V sector. Also, it is clear, according to the similarly between fathers and students in this view, that transition of values, in society such as Saudi Arabia, from father to son is something that should always be considered, especially among members of the *Gabeely*, who still behave in a traditional fashion toward some specific occupations. In this respect, 60% percent of interviewees emphasised that there is a strong relationship between family occupational orientations, in Saudi society, and the low involvement in I&V work

Taylor (1968) indicated that occupational perception and choice of work, in the developing countries, are very greatly influenced by parents or families. The family gives children an opportunity to observe many adult roles, some of which are occupational. Even though much occupational activity is largely separated from families, the family's style of life is influenced by occupation, which in turn affects how young people perceive occupational conditions. Families in many cases provide specific occupational information, or are influential in giving occupational directives. In a few cases they still provide a demonstration of occupational skills. Also, families may exert pressure on young people for certain kinds of occupational choices, or the absence of such pressure may contribute to a general disorganization in occupational aspiration. Notions of occupational training, success, and satisfaction are in the main influenced by families.

Accordingly, the family in Saudi society still plays a significant role in decision-making in regard to its members' affairs, particularly in the matters of marriage, education and work. Although the family does not deny the individual a right to choose in these matters, it certainly exerts pressure on him to choose in accordance with family preferences, and may respond with criticism to a choice which does not conform with family opinion. For instance, the family still looks on work in the government sector as being associated with respected social status and long-term security, whereas work in the private sector is seen as merely a means of living, not a source of pride, as in the government sector. It was therefore decided to investigate the family influence, especially that of fathers, on the attitudes of their sons. Also, the complete agreement among the participants reflects their similar culture in religious and social terms. From the religious standpoint, children must obey their parents, as long as their guidance and advice is not contradictory with religious teachings. In addition to the religious values which urge children to respect, obey and look after their parents, social values give the father the greatest importance in guiding and advising his children on all matters, including occupational choice. This status is a consequence of the father's position in the family and his experience in the world of work.

In related studies, Al-Ghofaily (1980) indicated that the majority (80%) of Saudi youth preferred jobs near their families and relatives, which means that Saudi youth have a low acceptance of personal mobility for work under this kind of family influence and system. However, family influence, in fact, is not confined to developing societies, like Saudi Arabia, alone, but it extends to the whole world, as a result of the importance of the family role in human life. A study conducted by the American National Research Centre (ANRC), in the United States (1975) (see Chapter Two),

revealed the relationship between family income, father's occupation and education and the student's plans after graduation. A positive relationship was found between students' plans and the level of the father's occupation. For instance, students whose fathers were professionals had plans for further study, whereas students whose fathers were farmers had less aspiration for further study.

5. **What has the most influence on acceptance I&V work: family, tribe, or society in general?**

- More students and fathers considered that industrial and vocational work is highly rejected in their society (tribally, familial, and socially) then otherwise. Only a third of respondents, overall, thought that I&V work is desirable or meets little rejection in society.

- There is a significant relationship between rejection of I&V work in the respondents' society and individual acceptance of I&V work, for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as group. This result means that when I&V work is less rejected by society, more people will accept it, and when the I&V work is or more rejected socially, it will be less acceptable to the respondents.

- There is no significant difference between the means of the two groups. This result means that the fathers and students were similar in their views towards rejection of I&V work, whether in the tribe, the family or in their society in general.

The above question was aimed, specifically, to recognize if tribalism still play a big influence on society members' attitudes toward I&V work. The results, as shown in table 7.1.5.1 (Chapter Seven), revealed that 63% of students and 59% of fathers

considered that the tribe rejects such work. Accordingly, the results above showed, significantly, the negative influence of the tribe, as well as family and society in general, on acceptance of manual work. This situation was expressed, also, within the research interviews, since most interviewees indicated that tribalism, in the study society, was one important reason behind non-acceptance of I&V work.

This result emphasises what Shartle (1959) mentioned when he indicated that a child is born into a particular family and community, within which socio-economic setting the individual develops concepts, values and attitudes toward work. So, in Saudi society, as Niblock (1982) mentioned, traditional values have come through into the modern state in Saudi Arabia: a man's first loyalty is to his family, then his tribe, then his country.

Also, many studies have emphasized that the tribe in the Saudi society remains the main frame of reference for the individual, whether in urban areas or areas outside the tribes' boundaries. Al Zahrani (1986) indicated that the majority of people in the country at present hold their tribe's name as their last name, or middle name. This continuation of the tribal surname at a time when the tribal system no longer exists reflects the significant role held by the tribe in the past, in regulating behavioural aspects of individuals, social organization and especially the 'descent', which grants a person social recognition and prestige among his society's people and in the face of other groups. This influence continues to be passed on from one generation to the next, with few changes regarding such matters as manual labour. Traditionally, lineage and occupation have been the important criteria of status and still are, especially in marriage. Inter-marriage between tribal and non-tribal people is still strictly prohibited, as a result of inequality in descent.

These negative attitudes are completely unrelated to religious teachings, which simply encourage and emphasize the importance of work and its role in building society and achieving social welfare. Indeed, Islam demands equality among all individuals in the society, with no exception, whether poor or rich, black or white. In this connection, God the Almighty in the Qur'an, reminds human beings that all were created equal. The division into nations and tribes is intended to be a source of diversity and a means of identification, not a basis for disdain. In the eyes of God, piety is the only characteristic that marks people out for distinction. It is evident from this, that the distinction between tribal and non-tribal is a result of the social values and customs of bedouin society and has no connection with religion.

6. **Is there a relationship between family size and acceptance of industrial and vocational work?**

- Only 1% of the families had three people or fewer, while the vast majority consisted of at least four people; almost 90% of students and 87% of fathers were from families of six to ten people or more.
- No significant relationship was found between the family size and acceptance of industrial and vocational work.

The researcher's expectation, when posing this question, was that respondents from a large family would be more likely to accept I&V work in the light of the decrease of job opportunities in government sectors. However, the results showed otherwise.

Although the results, significantly, indicated that there is no positive or negative relationship between family size and acceptance of I&V work, it should be indicated that the size of respondents' families reflect the high population growth in

Saudi society. The population of Saudi Arabia, according to the census held in 1992, was about 17 millions. It is expected to reach 18.9 million by of 2001 and 30.6 million by 2020, with rate of increase of 4% per annum (see demographic features, Chapter Three). This growth is attributed to a high birth rate, considerable decrease in the death rate as a result of health services, and, mostly, the values typical of a traditional society.

However, the continuing rapid rates of population growth and growing number of young educated nationals entering the labour force, in the absence of rational planning of the future, will pose a real challenge for employment. It is widely believed that the ability of governments to generate employment has reached its limits in most of the public sectors (see Chapter Four).

7. Is there a relationship between place of residence (urban and rural) and acceptance of industrial and vocational work?

- The majority of respondents, 52% of students and 51% fathers, lived in cities, 35% and 38% lived in villages, 9% and 8% lived in towns, and only 5% of students and 4% of fathers were still living a nomadic life.
- There is a significant relationship between place of residence and acceptance of industrial and vocational work. Respondents from urban areas were more accepting of involvement in I&V work than these living in rural areas: villages, towns and the nomadic.

It can be seen very clearly, from these results and the preceding ones, that the choice of work and occupational aspirations of those raised in nomadic and rural societies are restricted by their society's culture, which strongly guides individual behaviour. As Lynn Jamieson (2000) mentioned, in study concerning young people's

reasons for leaving or remaining in a rural area of Britain, the Scottish Borders, that "*The claims that locality, kinship, and social class are no longer the basis of ties that bind and of limited significance for identity in late modernity, remain seductive, despite their critics. Those who remain rooted are then presented as inhabitants of traditional backwaters, outside the mainstream of social change*"(p.203). So, in these societies, an individual has little or no identity in his own right. Membership of a household, a lineage, a clan, and a tribe serves to place him in a meaningful social context; because he perceives himself and is perceived by others in these types of relations. On the basis of this, the social status of a person and his self-respect depends almost entirely on the respect he is accorded by others. Accordingly, the social system plays a significant role in the preservation and continuation of the rural and bedouin's cultural integrity in Saudi society (see socio-cultural factors, Chapter Two).

These results, which revealed that I&V work is more acceptable in urban than rural areas can be linked to many studies which indicate that the individual's character and attitudes reflect the quality of the social and cultural attributes of the territory in which he grew up. As Inkeles and Smith (1976) concluded, urban experience has little direct effect on modernisation, but they believed that it has a powerful indirect effect. The cities in the developing countries are the main force for introducing new ideas, new ways of doing things, new techniques, and new consumption and production patterns. In the cities there are the greatest concentrations of modernizing institutions such as the school, the factory, and the mass media. Therefore, urban experience, through these modernizing institutions, exerts strong influence on individuals' attitudes and behaviours.

However, the view of Saudi society of manual work differs from one area to another. The situation in the Eastern Province, where the work ethic is more strongly

ingrained as a result of their type of society, the oil industry and the presence of Saudi ARAMCO, is different than in the South Province. Even in the same province, a differences of views can be found; for instance, the occupation of carpentry is considered acceptable by some southern tribes, but to others in the same district, is disdained and not practised by tribal people. This reveals the influence of the cultural area in determining the social value of occupations in the society, and on the other hand shows that there is a general agreement throughout the society that some occupations are acceptable and others, not.

9.2.2 Cultural factors:

1. **Are Saudi nationals aware of the importance of industrial and vocational work?**

- Fathers (45.5%) were more aware than students (30.5.%) of the importance of I&V work to their society. Overall, nearly a third of respondents showed low awareness of the importance of this kind of work.

- A significant relationship was found between low awareness of the importance of I&V work and acceptance of I&V work; for students and for both samples (S&F) as group, but not for fathers. This result, generally, means that, when society is less aware of the importance of I&V work, this work will be less acceptable, and when awareness is high, it will be more acceptable.

- There is a significant difference between the means of the two groups. This result means that the fathers were more aware of the importance of I&V work than students.

These results, particularly those related to fathers, were similar to the results in relation to the first question, about the social value that respondents give to I&V work.

This similarity indicates that those respondents gave a big value of I&V work and were aware of the importance of this kind of work, but did not want to be involved in such work themselves. Regarding level of awareness, sixty seven percent of interviewees, also, were agreed that Saudi nationals have become more aware of the importance of I&V work than in the past.

These responses reflect the social and cultural stress that faces individuals in this society. This is in line with Moore's (1959) theory that the traditional kinship structure provides a barrier to industrial development, since it encourages reliance of the individual upon its security rather than upon his own devices. Also, he points out that new occupations are incompatible with traditional standards of prestige, or are disdained because they involve manual labour and because job placement and promotion, being based on merit, cut across the traditional status groups based on age, kinship position, caste, and so on.

In fact, despite these discordant situations and the results that revealed that study's society is not highly aware of the importance of I&V work in general, these results, also, reflect individuals' views and opinions, which give evidence that the society is on way to change, at least on the individual level. This change is very important and will be supportive to change the society's' views toward some important development concerns, such as manual work and industrial and vocational sectors.

However, the awareness of manual work related to the I&V sectors is not unique to Saudi Arabian society. Velez and Psacharopoulos (1986) found that only 9 per cent of agricultural secondary school graduates in Colombia were employed in the farm-related occupations for which they were trained. In Iran, Jacobs (1966) found that students who attended vocational schools did not want true vocational training. They

hoped to use vocational education to upgrade themselves occupationally to the ranks of the educated chair warmers. In another study, Motooka (1973) reported that: "*Nearly all of the capable students in agricultural secondary schools in the Philippines are studying not so much to work in agriculture after graduation, but to advance to higher education. They prefer agricultural schools not because they can learn agricultural subjects but because the tuition fees of agricultural secondary school are lower than those of general secondary schools*" (p.240). Similarly, Robinson and Vaizey (1966) found that 80 per cent of the graduates of vocational schools in Ghana end up as clerical workers in the government. In Jordan, Al Bukhari (1969) found that only 27.0 per cent of industrial graduates were practising the skills they had acquired, while the majority of students were engaged in work unrelated to their previous education.

In this connection, Sanders (1966) pointed out that one of the most acute problems encountered in regard to technical education and training is the generally low level of education in developing countries and the fact that large numbers of the population have not been able to go to school at all. Those who have had this opportunity often consider themselves as elite and are reluctant to enter occupations involving manual work, even if they have been trained for this kind of work.

2. Do Saudi nationals prefer general education to industrial and vocational education?

- The majority of students (63%) and even more fathers (69%) preferred general education to I&V education. Only 34% of respondents believed in the importance of I&V education.
- There is a significant relationship between preference for general education and acceptance of I&V work, for students and for both samples (S&F) as a group, but not for fathers. This result, generally, means that: when society has

a preference for general education, I&V work will be less acceptable, and when general education has less preference, I&V work will be more accepted, though this association was not apparent for fathers.

- There is no significant difference between the means of the two groups in this issue. This result means that fathers and students were similar in their preference for general education over I&V education.

As a result of the low social status of vocational and manual occupations in comparison with professional and clerical ones, the majority of parents, when their sons have finished secondary school, urge them to enter higher education to qualify in a profession which has high status in the society, such as security and military positions, medicine, teaching, engineering or accounting and so on, which have a higher social status than other types. Although the job market is already saturated in some of the more prestigious professions, parents still encourage their sons to study these subjects, though there will not be jobs available after graduation. This situation is reflected in the results above.

From the previous results, also, it can be reiterated that Saudi society has more respect for academic education than the vocational branch. The relative ease with which students can meet the admission requirements of this kind of education and the various motives for joining it may have been partly responsible for people's attitude towards the level of technical and vocational education. There is inadequate cooperation between educational establishments that produce manpower and the central planning of the state. It is not surprising that fathers sometimes ask the education administration to allow children to repeat an academic year they have already passed, in the hope that they will obtain higher grades and qualify for the

college to which they or their fathers aspire. The research interviews, in relation to this issue, revealed that 90% percent of interviewees thought that the Saudi society preferred general education to I&V education. This preference, as emphasised by some of interviewees, was a result of the theoretical educational revolution, in Saudi society, in the early years. So, as time passes it has become a vital problem, which needs strategic solutions and rethinking about many present educational programmes.

Irrespective of the importance of the social situation, perhaps one of the reasons behind the preference for general education is the availability of free education from the primary stage to higher education, and the incentives given to students in higher education, such as monthly allowances, free accommodation and transportation and cut-price meals during the period of study. These incentives may lead fathers to encourage their children to continue their education, since parents are not required to make any financial contribution to their children's education (see education, Chapter Three).

Many previous studies have emphasized that the majority of technical and vocational education students joined this kind of education, not because they had a real desire and interest, but because they could not continue in academic education, or because of other circumstances such as financial problems, or as a result of having passed the age at which they could be accepted in day school. Birks and Sinclair (1980) conducted a study of migration and development in the Arab region. They indicated that only those who were academically less able or who had dropped out entered vocational education. Al-Malik (1986), in his study about attitudes of educational personnel toward vocational education, revealed that students enrolled in vocational education because they could not cope with academic courses. Also, Soliba

(1971) found that the rate of enrolment in technical and vocational education did not exceed 16.0 per cent of the total enrolments in secondary education in the Arab world.

Also, some studies emphasised that the choice of general education in preference to I&V education is not due to a preference for the education itself, but it, mostly, referred to the preference for work after graduation. Al-Ghamdi (1994) revealed that the vast majority of students, 82.8 per cent, indicated that the prevalent idea in Saudi society is that TVE is for failed students or those who do not wish to continue their academic education; only 17.3 per cent of the respondents suggested that Saudi society does not distinguish between students who enter technical and vocational education and those who join the academic branch. Another factor that inhibits individuals from vocational work is that manual work has traditionally been associated with the poor and uneducated, who have low socio-economic status in the eyes of society as a whole. Therefore, the common thought is that technical and vocational education is designed for a category of students, whose special circumstances prevent them from continuing general education. So it remained for a long time isolated from the majority of the population.

Since white-collar jobs based on academic education have more status and greater social prestige in Saudi society, irrespective of the nature of the work, the level of income and responsibility, the negative attitudes of society towards vocational work lead to increasing numbers of students in academic education and decreasing numbers in non-academic education. Dore (1976) pointed out that a tendency for students to be instrumentally motivated, being concerned only to obtain a qualification as a means towards status and income, rather than concerned to master a subject for its own sake. Thus, they pursue particular programmes of study, not out of giving interest and aptitude, but because they hope to secure a position in a field of work which carries

social prestige. In this study, for example, the results reveal that more than 50% of students and fathers thought about the certificate first, then the work (see table 7.2.2.1, Chapter Seven).

In this connection, Collins (1981) criticized negative attitudes towards vocational education. He pointed out that: "*At the very heart of our problem is a national attitude that says vocational education is designed for somebody else's children. This attitude is shared by businessmen, labour unions, administrators, teachers, parents and students. We are all guilty. We have promoted the idea that the only good education is an education capped by four years of college. This idea, transmitted by our values, our aspiration and our silent support, is snobbish, undemocratic, and a revelation of why schools fail so many students*".

However, despite the negative social values attached to vocational and manual education and its related work, the changes that have occurred in the developing countries, including Saudi Arabia, and considerably affected their socio-economic and political structure, might be expected to have an impact on the social structure in general and to change society's attitude towards industrial and vocational work in particular.

3. Do Saudi nationals prefer working with other Saudis, rather than people of other nationalities?

- More than half the students and fathers preferred to work with Saudis rather than work with non-Saudis (54.5% and 52%). Only 28.8% of respondents, in general, were prepared to work with any nationality, whether Saudi or non-Saudi.

- No significant relationship was found between these variables, for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a group. This result means that the prospect of working with or under non-Saudi administration does not influence involvement in industrial and vocational sectors.

- There is no significant difference between the means of students and fathers on this issue. This result means that fathers and students were similar in their attitudes regarding colleagues' nationalities.

Since the industrial and vocational sectors, especially in the private sector, are occupied by expatriates, the purpose of the above question, mainly, was to investigate the respondents' attitude toward non-Saudi workers and supervisors and the relationship between their attitude and acceptance of this kind of work. So, the answers to this question are important to give an idea about Saudis' adaptation to these circumstances, and whither they have become more accepting of economic development and its orientations.

However, the results, in general, indicated that respondents still preferred to work with Saudis rather than work with others nationalities. This situation was, also, verified by the research interviews, which revealed that seventy percent of interviewees perceived this to be the prevailing attitude. These results conform, statistically, with Al-Ghofailys' study (1980), which revealed that most respondents would rather work for relatives than strangers. But, significantly, this study revealed no real significant relationship between these variables, and the fathers and students were similar in this attitude regarding work with non-Saudi nationalities.

Accordingly, it could be seen that Saudi nationals are becoming more accepting of the others and more flexible than in the past. This change, in time, will affect many

habits and traditions that hinder Saudis from engaging in some kinds of work and prepare the new generation to be more aware, responsible, and knowledgeable of economic and labour conditions in a time of globalisation.

4. **Is there any relationship between family education level and involvement in industrial and vocational sectors?**

- Almost half (47%) of students' fathers had received only elementary education, while 17% were uneducated or, at best, received informal education. There were 34% who had middle school and higher education, and only 2% of students' fathers had received industrial and vocational education.
- The education level of the father's sample was not very different from educational level of the students' fathers; 58% had elementary and middle education, 25% had higher education and only 3% had received in industrial and vocational education.
- The majority (69%) of students' mothers were illiterate, as were 55% of fathers' wives. Also, none of the respondents' mothers and wives had any industrial and vocational education.
- There were significant relationships between fathers' and mothers' education and acceptance of industrial and vocational work. The majority of those who did not accept I&V work were low educated or illiterate. This suggests that less educated families have less awareness and acceptance of I&V work.

There is little doubt that educated parents affect their children's perception of work and life as a whole. The atmosphere in a home with educated parents is certainly different from that in a home with uneducated or illiterate parents. A broader

dimension of experience is passed to the child and more understanding of what channels are suitable for the child in the future exist in a home with educated parents.

However, it is clear from the above results that the level of father and mother's education for the vast majority of respondents is low. This level of education corresponds with the findings of some previous Saudi studies such as Alogla's study (1990) which showed that the majority (58.7%) of students' fathers had no formal education. Obied's study (1993), about some factors affecting student dropout in secondary industrial education, revealed that nearly 85% of students' fathers had not progressed through the education system; about half of them (43.9%) were illiterate and were 71% of respondents' mothers were illiterate.

This level of education, in general, might be referred to the situation of those fathers and mothers who grew up in a time when the Saudi educational system was still in its infancy, so they did not have the opportunities that their children have. Also, those who had high school or some education were likely to have been the product of the non-formal educational system (before the 1960s – see education, Chapter Three) or the night school educational system, which provided minimum learning. More importantly, asking for information such mothers' education or work would be perceived by some Saudis to be too intrusive a question.

The study, significantly, emphasised the relationship between this level of family education and low acceptance of industrial and vocational work. Respondents who came from low educational backgrounds were more inclined to reject this kind of work. This conclusion corresponds with Al-Harthi's (1985) in his study, "*Attitudes and attitudes change of Saudi students in the United States towards some social issues*". The study demonstrated statistically that the higher the level of education of the

respondent, the more positive their attitudes towards manual labour and vocational education. Also, Khal (1953), Sowell and Shah (1968), the American National Research Centre (NORC) (1975), Esslinger (1976), and Mulla (1987), were generally in agreement that parents' educational level had an impact on the students' educational and work decisions (see Chapter Two).

5. **Is there a relationship between students' academic achievement and favourite study subjects and acceptance of I&V work?**

- Almost half the students (45%) had a moderate level of academic achievement. The remainder were equally distributed between high and low achievement.

- Linguistic, religious and social subjects were preferred by 61% of students and scientific subjects were the second choice, preferred by 39%.

- No significant relationship was found between students' academic achievement or favourite study subjects and acceptance of I&V work.

Although this result did not show a relationship between academic achievement and acceptance of I&V work, they suggest that students prefer to study subjects which will equip them for a comfortable clerical job in the future, rather than scientific subjects which could lead them to involvement in I&V sectors. So, this result highlights the fact that education in the earlier stages is still theoretical and does not serve development goals, and also reflects the preference of students for theoretical academic education rather than practical subjects

In relation to academic achievement, many previous studies in developing countries in general and in the Arab countries in particular, have found that technical and vocational education attracts mostly the dropouts from academic education and

those who are academically less intelligent. Al-Ghamdi's study (1994), found that the majority of vocational training students (49.1 percent) and industrial school students (33.3 percent) indicated that their failure in academic education was one of the most important reasons for not continuing academic education. Also, the results are similar to those of Al-Badah (1986), who found that the majority (51%) of enrolees in industrial secondary schools in Saudi Arabia had low averages when they graduated from intermediate education. This result reflects the view of the majority of people in the society, that I&V education is the proper place for students who are not intelligent or not able to make satisfactory progress in general education.

In Saudi society, it is common also for children to be asked about the next stages of their education, and the subjects in which they would like to specialize. This discussion with children, whether in their early years or later, aims to encourage and direct the children, directly or indirectly, to continue their education to university, or at least high school level, irrespective of the abilities and interests of the child, or the likely availability of work opportunities in the future. This reflects the attitude of society towards academic education, which leads to respected status, as compared with a non-academic path. In this respect, comparing the numbers of students entering industrial and higher education in developing and industrial countries, Al Jarajrh (1986) stated that in the latter, 80 per cent of students enter industrial education, rather than higher education. This high percentage reflects the expansion in the industrial education programmes and the availability of necessary facilities, such as financial resources, staff, raw material and good planning. Also it reflects that university education in the advanced countries is not seen as the main route to social status.

Despite Al Jarajrh's study results, the study connected by the American National Research Centre (NORC) revealed a positive relationship between family

class background and the types of subjects studied by students at graduate level. The importance of this relationship is that these subjects would enable them to enter occupations which are highly rewarded, socially and economically, such as law and medicine.

6. Is there a relationship between a background in manual work and involvement in industrial and vocational work?

- The study revealed that 59% of students and fathers thought that manual work was more accepted in the past, but only about 26% of students and fathers stated that manual work was currently acceptable to them and to their families.
- A significant difference in attitude between the past and present was expressed by students, but not by fathers, although there was a significant difference in the attitude between the past and present acceptance of manual work among students and fathers (as a group).
- No significant difference was found in the mean score between students and fathers, in their views towards acceptance and non-acceptance manual work in past and present.

Generally, these results indicated that respondents believed that manual work is more rejected in the present time than it was in the past.

These results might be explained by many factors: (1) Most manual work in the past was related to agriculture which was acceptable as one the essential economic resources of society. (2) Life used to be more simple and social class differentiates less obvious. (3) Need force many people to accept any kind of work to live. (4) After the period of oil discovery, manual work as an essential source of sustenance became

unnecessary, as many other kinds of economic resources became available. (5) The rapid change which happened during the last three decades created a negative social view towards manual work, since most of people been started looking for socio-economic status and prestige. (6) This change, also, shaped some new values and perceptions of work status, leading to disdain of manual work; Raddady (1977) indicates that a person looks down on manual work because he has developed certain values and norms that constitute traditional ideals and virtues, without which he is hardly considered an effective member in his society. (7) The transfer from personal manual work to formal manual work made manual work unacceptable, since workers resented doing for others, what they would have done for themselves, out of necessity.

In addition to what is stated above, this result may, also, suggest that the respondents and their families who had experience of manual work in the past were more rejecting of this work at present, as a result of the social view and their desire to change their social and economic status. This situation is more obvious in rural areas that still are governed by tribal life. As Katakura (1977) found, some traditional values remain almost untouched in Saudi Arabia society and are persistently observed. Certain categories of work (like hair-cutting, butchery, and carpentry) are held by most tribesmen to be contemptible and demeaning. Al-Ghofaily (1980) thought that changing Saudi youths' attitudes would not be an easy task due to the very strong influence of a traditional Arab tribal culture on these attitudes, such that youth still had traditional attitudes and behaviours in relation to production. So, in the present time, for instance, it is noticeable that immigrants from rural to urban areas, mostly, prefer non-manual work and try to improve their educational level to provide them with suitable social and economic status.

In this regard, the Alexandria University study in 1978, about the attitudes of Egyptian society towards manual labour, suggested that, even worse than the negative attitude of society in general towards vocational work, was the negative attitude of technical and vocational workers themselves, who did not want their sons to follow in their footsteps, but preferred them to complete general education, which leads to university education, despite their recognition of the importance of vocational education for society and the financial rewards available for vocational work. Also, in this respect, the study by the American National Research Centre (NORC) in the United States (1975) revealed that the family class background has a strong impact upon the occupational choice of family members.

7. Are the mass media helping to increase Saudis' awareness of the value of industrial and vocational work?

- A 77% majority of both samples, students and fathers, considered that the media has a high role in encouraging Saudi national to engage in industrial, technical and vocational sectors.
- Perceptions of the impact of the media were not reflected in acceptance or non-acceptance of I&V work, for either sample, fathers and students.
- No significant difference in the mean scores of students and fathers, in relation to their view of the role of the media in encouraging Saudi nationals to be involved in industrial and vocational sectors.
- Seventy seven percent of students and 69% of fathers had read or heard about some industrial, technical and vocational sectors, but only 44% of the students and 38% of fathers' respondents had received books or leaflets related to industrial and vocational sectors.

No one can ignore the influence of the mass media, both on people's attitudes and on pursuit of development programmes. Many countries have successfully used the media in many fields such as health, education, industry, agriculture and so on. For this reason, the researcher tried to assess the role of the mass media in encouraging Saudi nationals to be involved in industrial and vocational sectors.

The results, statistically, revealed a positive view toward the role of the mass media in demonstrating importance of I&V sectors and related work. Although this positive view was emphasised, also, by most interviewees, its appears that the role of mass media has still not been strong enough to influence Saudi nationals to accept industrial and vocational work. For that reason the result, significantly, revealed that there is no relationship between this role and acceptance of this kind of work.

This result corresponds with the findings of Al-Ghamdis' study (1994) which revealed that those who said that the mass media play an excellent role formed only 2.2 per cent of intermediate school students, 1.5 per cent of industrial secondary school students and 3.9 per cent of vocational training students respectively. The vast majority of respondents, 80.2 per cent, reported that they had not received any leaflets about technical and vocational education programmes. Also, the media were seen as a source of information, according to Alogla's study (1990) by a small percentage of respondents: only 16.7% in the private sector and 6.1% in the public sector. Therefore, Alogla commented, "*Saudi media are like the ostrich hiding its head in the sand, and do not confront the issue openly on a scientific basis*".

In this respect, the negative view of the mass media in changing social values and attitudes in the society of Saudi Arabia is not very different from that in other societies. Accordingly, some scholars have concluded that mass communication might

not be very effective in bringing about fundamental changes in attitudes and values. For instance, Joseph Klapper (1960) after reviewing hundreds of studies on the effect of the mass media in the developed countries concluded that Mass communication in general is not in itself a determinant of audience response, but rather functions as part of a complex web of interacting factors and influences.

However, and despite what is mentioned above, there is no doubt mass media facilities, techniques and technologies could be potentially very important and very effective to change many socio- economic and cultural aspects in the society. The problem is not related to mass media themselves, but to the way in which society achieves this role and makes it effective. Accordingly, Inkeles and Smith (1976) reported that the wide diffusion of the media of mass communication is one of the best indicators of advanced economic development. Also, there is no doubt of the importance of publications in delivering information about I&V sectors and their contribution in influencing and persuading youth to enrol in technical and vocational work and programmes. Such publications can show them the available specializations, the moral, financial and other incentives provided for students during the period of study and after graduation; and also work opportunities after they finish their school study.

From the previous analysis, it can be concluded that at present, the mass media are having relatively little real effect on industrial, technical and vocational work and programmes. Nevertheless, they could be effective, alongside other factors, in changing the social attitudes toward I&V work and emphasising its importance in preparing indigenous labour in various fields.

8. What is the relationship between views of the school role and acceptance of work in I&V sectors?

- The majority of students (61%) considered that school has a low role in encouraging students to enter I&V sectors, while 68% of fathers considered that the school has a high role in encouraging students towards these sectors.
- Only 24% of students had visited some industrial, technical and vocational sectors with their schools, and only 39% had been advised by their teacher to enter these sectors.
- A significant relationship was found, in the responses of the students, between non-acceptance of I&V work and perception of the low role of the school in encouraging such work. Fathers' responses revealed a significant relationship between acceptance of I&V and perception of the high role of the school in encouraging such work.
- There is a significant difference in the mean scores of responses between the two samples, students and fathers. This result means that fathers and students were different in their views toward the role of the school in encouraging students to be involved in industrial and vocational sectors.

The results, significantly, reflect the importance of the school's influence on acceptance and not acceptance of I&V education and work in the society. The students thought that school did not encourage them to be involved in industrial and vocational sectors, and they considered that there is no relationship between school's education and I&V education, training and work. The weakness of this relationship was emphasised by the small proportion of students who had visited I&V sectors, and or been advised by the school to enter these kinds of work sectors.

Despite the negative perception of students, the fathers' responses suggested that school could play an important role in encouraging students to enrol in I&V sectors and related education. Fathers gave more importance to the school than students, according to their thought and experience. The research interviews, however, were more in line with students' views, as most interviewees' opinions and comments indicated that there is a real gap between school and university education and the requirement of practical life in Saudi society.

There is no doubt, from these results and according to school education in Saudi society, that the role of education with regard to non-academic activities represents an essential element in educational guidance in general, and particularly in relation to introducing students to various activities in their society. Such activities can increase awareness and knowledge, and help to reveal the abilities, aptitudes and attitudes of students regarding activities that they would like to perform in the future.

This lack of connection with work sectors and activities is not related to general education only, but extends, also, to I&V education. In this respect, Anderson and Bowman (1965) pointed out that many intermediate technical institutes in many developing countries, built at considerable cost, remain partially empty or are filled with students who are for the most part composed of rejects from selective academic type institutes. This is true regarding technical education and vocational training centres in Saudi society, where many industrial institutes and vocational training centres suffer low enrolment and a lack of high quality students who are really willing to learn. On the other hand, the researcher noticed that, as yet, there is no educational and vocational counselling service in schools, which should be one of the basic duties of each school. Absence of such programmes in education in general is one of the reasons for lack of knowledge and awareness of occupational and educational

opportunities in the society. As a result, many students are unlikely to make a wise and realistic choice of their major field of study.

In this connection, it is significant that, Al-Ghamdi's study (1994) revealed that only 15.6 percent of industrial institutes and vocational training centres students reported that they had been invited to visit some I&V sectors. Over three-quarters of the respondents indicated that they had not received practical training in the work place. In a related study, Alturaigi (1997) indicated that the Saudi Arabian workforce dilemma is related to difficult transitions between school and work, and the poor communications channels, in general, between educational institutions, the private sector market, labour forces, and prospective employees.

In this respect, Harbison and Myers (1965), who surveyed several studies relating to manpower requirements and educational planning, concluded that education in the developing countries is not very compatible with the needs for manpower of those countries. This is due to the fact that there are wide gaps between educational planning and economic development plans. Most developing nations do not have adequate statistical records regarding their present and future manpower needs, and most developing countries invest inefficiently in human resources. They put money into the wrong kinds of formal education and fail to integrate formal education effectively within service training.

The absence of co-operation can be noted in the huge number of students in general academic education as compared with the small number of students who join technical and vocational education each year. It is well known among educators and planners that the function of education is not only to enable people to read and write; it has another major function, which has a direct effect on individual and socio-economic

development, namely, to raise people's awareness in order to create a better life. This function has not yet been achieved in the Saudi educational curriculum, especially with regard to the introduction of practical or theoretical courses related to technical and vocational education, in order to promote positive attitudes towards industrial work in general, and technical and vocational education in particular. In this respect, Flander, cited in Jawed (1987) conducted a study concerned with the development in technical and vocational education in 23 developing countries. He reported that: "*The absence of adequate financial resources, the limitation of technological components in the general education curriculum and the lack of educational and vocational guidance had a negative effect on the quantity and the quality of students in technical and vocational education*"(p.5).

In this connection, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (1982) drew attention to the frequent mismatch between vocational education and training policies on the one hand and the general economic, industrial, scientific and other policies of governments on the other. Governments decisions such matters as trade, economic policy, investment or general development, and sometimes even education have often been made without taking vocational education into account, so that it is not properly integrated into public policy.

It is clear from these evidences that the role of school (general education), mostly, does not go beyond the school gates. This problem is common among the developing countries, like Saudi society, where general education, and even practical education, is largely isolated from the natural work environment. This deficiency, generally, is attributed to the policies of education system which are not closely linked operationally with other development policies of the country. For instance, in 1960, the Saudi government decided to open five agricultural intermediate schools. Some of

these schools were established in areas where there was little or no demand for the students they produced. Some others were built in areas where agricultural land was very limited and economic markets did not exist. Consequently, those schools were closed five years after their establishment.

Finally, it is important to mention that the linkage between education system and other economic activities in society is one of the main factors that will help to increase the status of manual work in the society. Also, it would contribute to the improvement of students' skills and their performance; and also help to develop the education itself by ensuring that its policy and aims are related to comprehensive socio-economic development.

9.2.3 Economic factors:

1. **What is the impact of foreign labour presence on Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors?**

   - More than forty percent (40.5%) of students and 44.5% of fathers believed that availability of foreign labour had a high influence on involvement in I&V sectors. Only 29.3% of respondents attached low importance to this issue.

- The results show that 51% of respondents' families employed workers, the vast majority of whom were non-Saudi. Most were employed for farm work, then service. I&V workers were employed by 7.8% of respondents' families and finally 1.0% had clerical workers.

- There was a significant relationship between these variables, for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a group. This result means that: when

foreign labour is more obtainable, Saudi labour will have less tendency to accept work in I&V sectors.

- There is no significant difference between the means of the two groups (students and fathers). This result means that the fathers and students were similar in their opinions in relation to the influence of foreign labour on the willingness of Saudi labour to be involved in I&V sectors.

During the early years of planned development, it was apparent that the Kingdom's population and the size of its national work force were insufficient to meet the total manpower requirements of the rapidly developing economy. Recognising this constraint, the development strategy in the early phase opted for importing as many expatriate workers as were needed to facilitate achievement of the Kingdom's development objectives. This solution, to face the development requirements, normally takes the form of allowing expatriates to immigrate for a specific period of time and /or allowing domestic employers to temporarily employ a foreign worker.

The rationale behind this practice was the expectation that the labour shortage would disappear after a while and that foreigners would go back to their countries once their services were no longer needed (see labour force and Saudization, Chapter Four). But, the number of expatriates in Saudi Arabia grew from a mere three and half million in 1973 to seven million in the end of 1999 (Mahdi, 2000). As a result, this massive foreign labour presence has become one of the factors that hinder Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors.

Accordingly, the results of this study indicated that respondents believed that availability of foreign labour had a high influence on involvement in I&V sectors, and there was no difference in views between students and fathers in relation to this issue.

Also, the results indicate that the society of the study preferred non-Saudi workers more than Saudi workers. This fact, also, was indicated within the study interviews, in which there emerged a high level of agreement among interviewees that there is a relationship between the presence and competition of foreign labour, and the low involvement in I&V sectors.

This result corresponds with a finding of Alturaigi's study (1997) on the Saudi Arabian workforce dilemma. The study found that employers in the private sector had negative attitudes towards the issue of indigenisation, and had an attitude of dependence on expatriates, that was created during the oil boom era, while the Kingdom was building its infrastructure. Also, the study indicated that the "low cost" of employing expatriates, and their being "easy to manage" and "easy to hire and fire" were the major reasons for employment of expatriates in the Saudi Arabian private sector. Al-Thomaly (1986), in his study of the effects of expatriates on domestic wage and employment levels in the private sector, concluded that expatriate workers caused wage growth to decline and probably displaced natives in the private sectors, affected the domestic supply of labour, and that if substitution (i.e., indigenisation or Saudization) did not proceed smoothly, conditions were likely to worsen in the future.

Ghanem (1989) conducted a study related to industrialization problems in the UAE with particular reference to the shortage of indigenous skilled manpower. The findings of the study indicated that foreigners made up 98 % of the industrial workforce. The industrial sectors suffered from local competition due to duplication of projects caused by lack of co-ordination between the emirates and from foreign competition, due to lack of production, since the state has a free trade policy.

Similar issues were discussed in relation to the West European experience by Bohning in 1974. Bohning theorized that labour migration passes through four development stages of a process he called "maturity" in migratory flow. Over these four stages, the need for extra social infrastructure is cumulative, and in the final stage, immigrants will start consuming more than they actually produce and hence, immigration becomes self-feeding. Therefore, in the long run, a net gain from importing labour is questionable as the dependency on expatriate workers continues. If that is the case, then the very problem that the expatriates are brought in to solve is not solved.

In the light of the study's results on the impact of foreign workers, as well as the lessons from other related studies, it is obvious that a complete reversal in Saudi immigration policy is essential to its economic survival (see Chapter Four). But such a policy needs to be accompanied serious programmes to develop Saudi national manpower to be able to replace these expatriate workers and to be able to handle their own national responsibility, if given the chance.

2. Do Saudi nationals prefer to work in the government I&V sectors rather than the private I&V sectors?

- 60.5% and 63.5% of students and fathers respectively believed that job security had a high influence on preference for government rather than private I&V sectors; overall, 62% of respondents indicated that job security has a high influence on involvement in the government rather than private sector, while 38% of respondents attached low importance to this factor.

- There was a significant relationship between the influence of job security and acceptance of I&V work; for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a

group. This result means that: when job security is more available, industrial and vocational work will be more acceptable, and when it is unavailable, I&V work will be less acceptable, whether in the government sector or the private sector.

- There is no significant difference between the means of the two groups This result means that the fathers and students were equivalent in their opinions towards the influence of job security on involvement in I&V sectors.

There may be several reasons behind Saudi nationals' preference for public I&V work rather than private I&V work. One is the social respect or prestige in the government sector, as Lipsky (1959) indicated that, "The traditionally preferred employment of the upper social groups has been and continues to be government service.... Even on the lower levels, government employees enjoy considerable respect in the eyes of the public" (p160). This study, however, tried to give another dimension to this preference by studying job security as one of the important factors related to this issue.

The results, statistically, revealed that there is a strong relationship between job security and acceptance of this kind of work, in the private sectors, among all respondents, and that fathers and students were similar in their opinions towards this influence and relationship. Similarity, 67% of interviewees considered that Saudi nationals prefer I&V work in the public sector rather than the private sector.

In studies related to this issue, Alaki (1972) points out that despite the comparability of wages and benefits between the government and the industry, government jobs were sought for the social prestige, the shorter hours of work per day and, above all, job security, since the government seldom fires its employees. Al-Ghofaily (1980) indicated that sixty-four percent of his study respondents preferred

government jobs to private jobs, and fifty percent of vocational students preferred occupations unrelated to their training. Also, Al-Ghamdi (1994) found that only a small percentage of participants (4%) mentioned that they would prefer to join the private sector. A total of 15.2 percent of respondents indicated that they intended to open their own workshops after graduation.

These results, in light of the opinion of Lipsky (1959), reflect the preference for government jobs in the Arab countries in general and in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in particular. This preference is due, not to financial considerations only, but also to some other privileges, such as social prestige; the shorter working day; lack of control over employees' productivity, so that the employee can carry out his own personal work or that of his family during his official working hours, without permission; and social security, which represents the most significant factor (see socio-cultural factors, Chapter Two).

In fact, this situation emphasises that the government needs to change its employment policy and fill the gap between its employment regulations and the employment in the private sector (see labour market strategy, Chapter Four). Also, it appears that the private sector needs general regulations which preserve the rights of the employees and require a certain percentage of the work force to be Saudis. Such regulations will guarantee the rights of the employees and look after their interests.

3. Do Saudi youth have a clear idea about the future jobs available for them in industrial and vocational sectors?

- More than 41.5% of students and 31.5% of fathers believed that the future job prospects in I&V sectors are highly influential on involvement in these sectors. Fathers perceived low influence in this situation than students.

Overall, only a third of respondents (34%) believed that the future job situation had a low influence.

- No significant relationship was found between the future job situation and acceptance of I&V work, in either of the samples separately, though there was a significant relationship when the samples were combined.

- There is a significant difference between the means of the two groups (students and fathers). This result means that the fathers were more aware of the future situation in I&V than students.

- The method most used to look for a job, among students and fathers, was consulting friends and relatives; almost 52% of students and 33% of fathers relied upon this method. The Civil Service Bureau and Office of Work & Labour, as formal sources of this kind of information, played a very limited role, being cited by only 4% of students and 6% of fathers.

It is clear from the results above that the respondents' had a negative view of the future job availability in private industrial and vocational sectors. This view reflects their impression about some issues related to these sectors, such as hiring policies unfavourable to Saudization, the difficulty of finding a job appropriate to one's training, limited job opportunities, and unclear ideas about future schemes and plans in these sectors. Those factors (as shown in table 7.3.3.1) and many others (see Saudization, Chapter Four) have a strong influence on acceptance of work in private I&V sectors. Since the fathers were more experienced in practical life, the study results revealed that they were more aware of the situation in I&V sectors than students. In this regard, the study interviews, also, revealed that the Saudi nationals have no clear idea about the future jobs available in I&V sectors and that this lack of awareness can

be attributed, in most cases, to the absence of data which give a clear idea about present and future opportunities in the industrial and vocational sectors.

From the results related to the method most used to look for a job, it is clear that occupational choice and securing labour for hire still suffer from a complex personnel-relations problem in Saudi society. As Niblock (1982) mentioned, traditional values still prevail in modern Saudi Arabia, so that family and tribal loyalties take precedence over national loyalties. Nepotism, far from being considered unethical, is expected, and it would be considered shameful to refuse to help a close relative to secure employment. A similar point was made by Lipsky (1959) who noted that family, social and personal considerations have priority over considerations of work efficiency and competence.

The type of job involved is of great importance in determining the source from which personnel may be recruited. If the position to be filled is a desirable one involving supervisory responsibilities or offering opportunities for advancement, the employer is expected to look first in his own family and subsequently in the circle of his close relatives, and friends for possible recruits. Reciprocally, friends, relatives, and important personages may recommend to an employer an individual whom they believe to deserve consideration, and employers find themselves pressed to employ such persons, without regard to the need for their services. In some kinds of jobs, especially those involving menial labour, the employer may ask employees already in his service to help in recruitment. They are, in turn, obliged to seek recruits from among their relatives and friends. Again, even the lowliest expects his employer to assist in finding work for friends. Thus, intermediation still plays a large part in the whole process of seeking and giving work. Only at the level of menial employment would a man be likely to apply directly for a job without the good offices of a friend or

acquaintance, and even then, an intermediary is preferred. A man with any talent or social status seeking a higher-level job will usually be introduced by someone.

The situation is not the same in other cultures, where formal sources may be preferred instead of personal relationships. In Alison's study (1971) about some factors affecting the career choices of school leavers in Liverpool, the three groups were main sources of information were school, external sources and home. The first group, school, formed the most important source of the information about future careers (27.4 percent). In the second group, nearly three quarters of the sample (73.5 percent) mentioned that they obtained a lot of information from the prospectuses of universities and colleges. In the "home" category, 21.4 percent of respondents obtained information from parents, while 22.8 percent obtained it from relations and friends.

The situation of dependence on family, relatives and personal relationships to provide people with the necessary information or to give them an idea about educational and job opportunities in the future, in fact, helps to explain Saudi nationals' preference to work in government sectors rather than private sectors and raises some doubt about their awareness of future opportunities in private sectors. It also, implies the limited effectiveness of many of formal institutions in the society. One of the problems contributing to this condition (see labour market strategy, Chapter Four) is the insufficient information flow between the different labour market sectors. The availability of up-to-date and complete information on job seekers and potential employers in the public and private sector would be an important element of an efficient labour market clearing system. So, a national data bank could be created with the purpose of matching national job seekers with the available positions in the private sector. Before that, there is a need to fill the wide gap between educational planning

and economic development plans and having adequate statistical records regarding present and future manpower needs.

4.Is there a relationship between income level in the private sector (I & V) and Saudi nationals' involvement in these sectors?

- Thirty eight percent (38.5%) of students and 28.5% of fathers (a third of respondents overall) believed that income level in the private sectors (I&V) had a strong influence on involvement in these sectors, while 36% of students and 29% of fathers took the opposite view.

- A significant relationship was found between influence of income level in the private sectors (I&V) and acceptance of I&V work in these sectors; for students and fathers and for both samples (S&F) as a group.

- There was no significant difference in the mean ranks between students and fathers in relation to their opinions on the influence of income level on involvement in I&V private sectors.

Although the results, statistically, revealed only a moderate influence of income level in the private sector, it appears: when income level in the private sectors is more satisfactory, industrial and vocational work, in the private sectors, will be more acceptable. Also, the results indicated that both samples (students and fathers) gave equal emphasis to this influence. These views were conformed by the interviews, were 80% percent of interviewees agreed that the low-income level in private sectors, which is insufficient to meet the livelihood needs of Saudi nationals, is one of the important reasons behind non-acceptance of I&V work

In relation to this concern, Al Othimeen in his study in 1986 emphasised the role of incentives as influential factors for enrolment in technical and vocational

education and practice after graduation. He claimed that the essential problem could be attributed to a large extent to the lack of financial and non-financial incentives. The system of salaries and wages, especially in the private sector, which accounts for the majority of such work, is not encouraging.

There is no doubt, as mentioned before, that as long as technical and vocational sectors and its related education, in Saudi society, are seen by students as leading to lower paid occupations and low status in society, they remain undesirable options. As Harbison (1967) and Foster (1983) pointed out, the financial rewards and the extent of employment opportunities in technical and vocational sectors were never in proportion with opportunities in the clerical field. As a result, the product of the academic school was manifestly more advantageously placed. Even students who intended to enrol in industrial and vocational sectors were trying, as Callaway (1971) mentioned, "to *compete to gain the extra years of higher professional training because their life earnings might thereby be as much as ten times as high. Here the problem is not one of educational planning but of incomes*" (p.22).

However, it should be mentioned here, that the situation of economic level in I&V sectors, at the present time, is different; at the individual level, for a person who can change his mind, in relation to social status, prestige, *Gabeely* and so on, and own a workshop and practise, seriously, any kind of technical or vocational work, the level of income will not be an influencing factor any more. But, when the situation is related to industrial and vocational organizations or institutions, the level of income, in most cases, is not satisfactory and not appropriate to the economic level and living expenses in Saudi society. This situation, also, is related to many other factors. Some of these factors concern to employers; such as competition of foreign workers, the small size of

many companies and plants, thinking of profit, and so on, and some are related to the seriousness, sufficient supply and capability of employees.

5. What is the impact of the economic level on Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors?

- Sixty eight percent of the students and 73% of fathers lived in big houses (villas), and the majority of them, 89% and 92%, owned their houses. A small percentage of respondents, only 11% and 3% of students and fathers respectively, were still living in traditional houses and tents.

- The study revealed that the majority of respondents (56%) came from families whose monthly income level was less than 6000 SR. Reasonably high income levels (10,000 SR & more) accounted for about 23% of the respondents' families for samples, students and fathers.

- The results revealed a significant relationship between family income level and acceptance of I&V work. Those from the lower income families were more likely to reject industrial and vocational work.

There is no doubt that family background plays a key role in the occupational and educational aspirations of its members. Many previous studies have indicated that family income, parent's occupation and education have a strong relationship with children's educational and occupational plans. Therefore, it was important to determine the relationship between income level of the family in Saudi society and the decision of Saudi nationals to enter industrial and vocational sectors.

The results related to this factor, as shown above, revealed, significantly, that respondents who came from families that had low economic status were more reluctant to engage in industrial and vocational work. These results, however, disagreed with the

interview respondent who thought that the high economic level of the families in Saudi society was behind their rejection of these kinds of work. There is, also, a common concept among many people that those who join technical and vocational education and work come from families that have low incomes or as a result of their failure in general academic education; while students who belong to the middle and upper classes prefer to continue with higher education or look for opportunities which will lead to more prestigious occupations.

Accordingly, the study, also, disagreed with some previous studies which gave more importance to the high economic level of the family as an obstacle to acceptance of I&V education and work. For example, Al-Ghamdi (1994) found that the vast majority of respondents (90.1%) suggested that higher economic level of the family negatively influences the enrolment of its sons in technical and vocational education. Only a small percentage of the sample believed that high family income has no such negative influence. A similar result to Al-Ghamdi's study, was found in a study conducted by Cunnningham (1973) in the community colleges in Jordan. The study found that the main reasons why the majority of students had enrolled in the technical colleges were the low income of the family, since university education needs much expenditure. The study found only 12.0 per cent of the sample mentioned that they had chosen to study in these colleges as a result of their real wishes. Also, Al-Sadam (1980), in his research into the social characteristics of students directed to secondary vocational education, found that the majority of students enrolled came from low-income families. Al-Sadam suggested that direction towards secondary vocational education was not based upon principles which would guarantee its success.

In fact, the differences which can be found, between this study and previous ones, do not mean that high economic level leads to greater acceptance of this kind of work, in Saudi society, or otherwise. Of more importance is the social value and the social status of

work. So, respondents from families of low economic and social status were more rejecting of this kind of work or education as a result of their desire to improve their position and status in society, and respondents who came from families with high economic and social status families also, rejected any kind of work or education which, in their view, would lead to the loss of their social value and status in society.

Moreover, it is important to mention that, according to these results, the situation of work values, especially industrial and vocational work, in Saudi society is complex. It is not related, only to one or two factors, such as income level or study level and so on. It is, in fact, related to the whole ethos of the society with its economy, its culture, and its social values. There is, therefore, a need for strategic plans to improve awareness about I&V work and its importance to individuals, to the family, society and to the next generations.

CHAPTER----------10

CONCLUSIONS

AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

10.1 Conclusions.

10.2 The Study Recommendations.

10.3 Suggestions for Future Research.

CHAPTER TEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

Introduction

This study aimed to assess to what extent industrial and vocational work is acceptable in Saudi society, the difference between Saudi youth and fathers in perception of this kind of work and the relationship between some socio-cultural and economic factors and acceptance of industrial and vocational work. Based on the many findings and opinions that emerged in the previous chapters, this chapter presents conclusions regarding the major socio-cultural and economic factors that contribute to the low involvement of Saudi nationals in I&V work, and offers recommendations to address the problem, as well as suggestions for further research.

10.1 Conclusions.

The study results revealed that industrial and vocational work in Saudi society is still undesirable and Saudi nationals have little involvement in I&V sectors. It also showed that there are some socio-cultural and economic factors behind this phenomenon. In the light of these findings, the following main conclusions can be drawn.

10.1.1 Acceptance of I&V work.

The study revealed that industrial and vocational work and manual work are generally accorded low acceptance, status, and social value in Saudi society.

Consequently, the majority of respondents and their families showed very negative attitudes towards vocational and industrial work and greater preference for other occupations, especially clerical work, the military, teaching, medicine, and so on. This situation is attributable to the following main socio-cultural and economic factors:

10.1.2 Socio-cultural factors:

- A low social value and position is given to industrial and vocational work compared to other occupations in society. So, clerical work, for instance, was preferred as a result of its social position.

- Family, tribe, relatives and personal relationship have a strong influence upon Saudi nationals in relation to their education and their choice of work, especially related to the I&V sector. In this regard:

  - Respondents from urban areas were more accepting of involvement in I&V work than those living in rural areas: villages, towns and the nomadic.

  - Manual work is more rejected in the present time than it was in the past.

  - Respondents' families generally had low educational backgrounds, which affected their attitudes to industrial and vocational work.

  - The respondents who came from families that had low economic and social status were more reluctant to engage in industrial and vocational work.

  - The method most used to look for a job, among the respondents, was consulting friends and relatives.

  - Saudis generally prefer to work with Saudis rather than work with other nationalities.

- There is a gap between general education and I&V education, training and work. In this regard, the results revealed that:
  - Saudi nationals have more respect for academic education than the vocational branch.
  - Students prefer to study linguistic and religious subjects, which will equip them for a socially respected and comfortable job in the future.
  - Schools do not play an effective role in encouraging students to be involved in industrial and vocational sectors.
  - Unawareness of importance of vocational and industrial education in view of the lack of practical training opportunities and the lack of manual skills within the curriculum of the general educational stages.

10.13 Economic factors:

- The view that governmental posts offer the best kind of work is still predominant among most Saudi nationals. Factors associated with this situation are the following:
  - Some sectors of the society tend to urge their children to work in government offices mainly because work in the civil service enjoys more respect from the society than work in the private sector.
  - There are insufficient job security guarantees for the national labour in the private sector. For instance, the employer can fire or lay off employees whenever he likes. He can also dismiss someone in accordance with a recommendation from the personnel official, who is sometimes a citizen of

anther Arab, Islamic or foreign country without paying attention to any objective considerations.

- Excessively high conditions are set by the private sector when recruiting for jobs. These conditions far exceed the requirements of the jobs or vacancy in question. The reason for this is to exclude Saudi labour under the pretext that it does not meet the conditions; yet foreign labour which does not meet the minimum level of these conditions and qualifications is recruited by the private sector.

- There is competition between the public sector and the private sector in the employment of national labour and a difference in working conditions in the two sectors. In the public sector, the work is simple and easy with no competition among the employees, daily working hours are fewer and there are more weekly and annual leaves. In the private sector, on the other hand, the work is serious and competitive as tangible achievements are required according to specific criteria and it is necessary to work to a strict timetable, the working day is longer and the volume of work greater than in the private sector. Therefore, the Saudi youths tend to work in the public sector because of the employment benefits, leaving posts in the private sector to be filled by foreign labour.

- Salaries and wages in the private sector are insufficient to meet the livelihood needs of Saudi nationals, this is one of the most important reasons behind non-acceptance of I&V work. Also, the government sector provides better chances for promotion than the private sector.

- The dependence on foreign labour has led to the emergence of the dependence phenomenon among Saudi nationals in relation to I&V work. Some reasons behind this factor were:
    - The economic boom which the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia witnessed during the 1970s and 80s made Saudi youths somewhat dependent on others. This in effect, made some Saudi youths less serious about looking for work or even exerting their efforts or capabilities in the type of work they perform.
    - Many Saudi youths do not recognize the importance of work and perseverance. Thus, they become dependent on their families, society, and foreign workers.
    - Some Saudi youth refuse to work in vocational jobs as a result of customs, traditions and social attitudes towards such jobs. Thus, large number of Saudi citizens did not join the training programmes for those jobs and sought clerical posts instead.
    - Because foreign labour is seen to be less qualified and live in more poverty, Saudi nationals are deterred from the vocations associated with these foreigners.
    - The private sector's economic point of view is that foreign labour is more profitable than the national labour, as the former will accept lower wages Saudi employees demand extravagant salaries which sometimes reach five or six times the salaries of foreign labour. This will put more costs on the private sector which might well affect its activities and the objectives it tries to achieve.
    - Higher educational institutions are unable to provide the specialisations needed by the private sector. For instance, in some universities, the number

the students who graduate from theoretical faculties is far greater than the number of students who graduate from scientific and industrial faculties. This leads to a shortage of specialists in scientific fields. Therefore, the private sector is forced to resort to foreign labour. This will in effect save the private sector the need to invest further amounts of money in training and qualifying the national labour.

- Saudi employees lack commitment as regards the work regulations such as the daily working hours, the time of work as well as the weekly and annual leaves.
- The private sector seeks to make the utmost use of the capabilities of the foreign labour by employing such labour for longer periods than is stated in the contract between the two parties.
- Saudi youths lack stamina for the working conditions in the private sector which might require them to do field work or move between the different regions of the Kingdom.
- Government development plans (1970-1995) failed to address the national manpower issues, and even where solutions were suggested, they were not adequately implemented. Moreover, the government has control and monopoly of the private sector market.

- Saudi nationals lack awareness about future job opportunities in the private sectors and the situation of the labour market generally. This factor, in more details, refers to:
  - Absence of the Civil Service Administrations and Offices of Work & Labour role as the main and formal sources of the labour information.

- Lack of public awareness programmes to enlighten nationals about workforce and economic related issues.
- The poor communication channels between educational institutions, private sector market, labour offices, and prospective employees.
- Lack of related to labour force, labour market, and demographic data on regular basis.

10.1.4 The difference between students and fathers towards I&V work:

Identifying the difference, if any, between students and fathers in relation to acceptance of I&V work in Saudi society was one of the study's main objectives. The results, in general, despite the significant difference between students and fathers according to the cultural factors (see Appendix), revealed no great difference between students and fathers in their acceptance of involvement in I&V sectors.

It can be suggested that the reasons behind this similarity between students and fathers in their low acceptance of I&V work might be referred to the following two factors:

***Culture factor*:** The growth of organized work has led to great changes in occupations over the past two generations, but Saudi society is still in transition and experiencing culture conflict. On the one hand, the authorities and the older generation are trying to reinforce traditional values, while, on the other hand, the continuous influx of technology, education, and modernity increasingly push for diversion from the old social system. So, the fathers' generation is still more influenced by the traditional culture that gives more importance to family status and tribal life, especially in rural areas. Consequently, the low acceptance of I&V work might be referred, in most cases, to the belief in this culture and incapability to change it easily.

Economic factor: The younger generation of Saudis, also, are not excluded from the effects of culture, and follow in the footsteps of their fathers with regard to occupational status: the younger generation, represented by students, is affected by the occupational level of their parents. But, more importantly, the effect of development on Saudi youth, during recent decades, has been to encourage consumption rather than production. This situation has contributed to the lack participation of Saudi youth in economic activities and created a type of dependence on foreign labour which helped in the emergence of the dependence phenomenon. Many young adults, nowadays, continue to depend financially on their parents' support, whether employed or unemployed, making them less motivated towards employment which demands physical effort and, long hours, or that requires work far away from the location of the family. Therefore, this economic factor, together with the previous factor (the cultural factor) leads Saudi youth to reject and be disdainful of manual work. Such attitudes, in turn, have created a negative attitude among private sector employers toward the issue of labour indigenisation (see interviews, Chapter Eight).

10.2 The study recommendations.

10.2.1 Recommendation related to Socio-cultural factors:

The research's recommendations, in relation to socio-cultural factors, will focus on two factors, awareness and the education system, which appears to be most important factors that could contribute in changing Saudi attitudes and perceptions of industrial and vocational work.

10.2.1.1 Awareness factors:

Since the findings of this study and many other studies indicated that Saudi nationals influenced by family, society, and the traditional culture in relation to involvement in manual work and I&V sectors, ways need to be found to improve Saudi nationals' awareness in relation to this phenomenon. Some suggestions are as follows:

1. Religious factor:

It is worth emphasising that the biased attitudes of traditional tribal culture are not consistent with Islamic work values. Islam respects work and supports an individual's initiative in acquiring new skills and in working with his hands. Islam came to change the dominant beliefs and encouraged people to take up useful trades and manual work. It set up examples of the trades taken up or practised by the Prophets. Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) said, "*Allah has not sent a Prophet but that he used to shepherd the (goats and sheep). His Companions said to him: even you O Messenger of Allah? He said, even me. I used to shepherd them for the people of Makka in return for qarareets [a kind of money].*" (Al-Musheegh, 1989: p.151).

The Prophet used to work with his own hands. He worked with his Companions in building his Mosque, in the building of Qubba Mosque and in digging the trench around Al-Madina at the Battle of the Trench. The Holy Quran also tells us that Prophet Moses used to work as a shepherd saying, "*He said: this is my stick, whereon I lean, and wherewith I beat down branches for my sheep, and wherein I find other uses.*" Furthermore, the Holy Quran tells us that Prophet Noah (peace be on him) was a carpenter, "*And as he was constructing the ship, whenever the chiefs of his people passed by him, they made a mockery of him.*" Prophet Dawud (David), peace be on him, was a blacksmith who used to make body chain armour. The Holy Quran indicates that

this ability was part of great favour bestowed on him by Allah, who conferred him Prophethood, Kingdom and establishment in the land. The Quran says, "*And indeed we bestowed grace on David from Us (saying): O you mountains, glorify Allah with him! And you birds (also)! And we made iron soft for him saying: Make you perfect coats of mail, balancing well the rings of chain armour, and work you (men) righteousness. Truly, I am All Seer of what you do.*" With regard to the interpretation of "*balancing well the chains of ring armour*", Ibn Kathir stated in his *Mukhtasar* that this is an instruction from Allah to Prophet David teaching him the manufacture of body chain armour. (Al-Hilali and Khan, 1996: p.775).

The Messenger of Allah, Muhammad (peace be on him) says, "Nobody has ever eaten a food better than from the work of his hand and that the Prophet of Allah, David used to eat from the work of his hands." In Sahihi Al-Bukhari, David "does not eat except from the work of his hand". Prophet Muhammad says, "Prophet Zakariyya (Zachariah) was a carpenter". He also says, "It is better for one of you to carry wood on his back (to sell it) than to ask people (beg) whether they give him (money) or not". (Al-Bukhari, 1988: p. 9, 15).

The Holy Quran and the Sunna (tradition) of Prophet Muhammad, then, are full of honourable instructions about the importance of taking up vocations and industries that are necessary in the life of the Muslim nation. These instructions also reject the misconception which was dominant among the Arab tribes during the "time of ignorance" (the pre Islamic era). Therefore, these Islamic work values and attitudes can be used in a campaign among Saudi nationals to promote the dignity of manual work and I&V occupations to change their biased attitudes. Religion, which has a strong influence on people in Saudi Arabia, is a source of stability and support for

development. It is accredited with the prevailing harmony and integration of people, and national development should be adjusted to the Islamic culture and integrated into it.

2. Mass media:

The mass media have recently progressed very rapidly as a result of the advancement in the printing equipment in and means of communication. The written, audio and visual mass media now influence the direction and orientation of both the individual and the society. They have various means of conveying information and having an impact on the public.

One of the main reasons why vocational and industrial education is not given the social consideration it deserves is the weakness of publicity, leading to society's ignorance about its importance. This ignorance increases as we go further away from the main cities towards the rural areas.

- In order to deal with this phenomenon, a mass media campaign should be intensified. Television programmes could be broadcast related to various fields of work and the opportunities of getting industrial jobs, as well as more general programmes about industry and economics, in addition to the different services. Special programmes in which manual work is established and respected should also be created.

- Scientific awareness can also be spread through the intensification of the programmes on scientific and industrial culture. Audio and visual symposiums could also be held with the participation of the specialists and those who work in the different establishments of vocational and industrial

education, as well as relevant bodies from the industrial, agricultural and health sectors.

- Symposiums on vocational and industrial education could be held and given coverage in the media, such as newspapers, magazines, radio and television.
- Interviews should be conducted in newspapers and magazines and on radio, with the heads of schools and institutes as well as the officials in charge of the vocational and industrial education. Interviews should also be held with the outstanding students among the graduates of vocational schools and industrial institutes in the their work place in both the public and private sectors.
- The written word still has its magic, which has been well known since ancient times, despite the strong competition from radio and television. The magic and impact of the written word can be enhanced by good presentation and by the pictures and colours that accompany it. Therefore, newspaper articles, news and interviews on the value of I&V work should be intensified.
- Booklets should be issued, such as a guide for students and parents, to be distributed to students in their schools and made available in libraries. Such a guide could include the different vocational and industrial schools, institutes and colleges.
- An annual job guidebook form should be issued, in which all types of vocations are illustrated, including their description, domains and locations. This book should be distributed in the various educational establishments, employment agencies and libraries.

- When young people are invited through the mass media to join the vocational and industrial education, recruiters should avoid appealing and begging them to join just because this a national service. Young people are well aware that work in the government offices, commerce and other useful occupations is a national service as well. Therefore, it would be better to highlight the merits of this type of education, the work domains, and job opportunities in addition to making interviews with those who are outstanding in their work field while they carry out their jobs in workshops, factories and laboratories. Encouraging prizes should be awarded to workers and technicians, who could be nominated annually, and such events should be covered by the media.
- In addition, the media should investigate major economic and occupational problems that need more analysis and research.

3. Role of school:

Educational establishments (schools, institutes and colleges) are capable of having an influence on the surrounding environment and are crucial in conveying information to inhabitants of the area in which they are located. This role can be carried out through the following means:

- The parents' councils which are held in the vocational and technical schools could be expanded by inviting some people from outside the school who are not student parents of students at that school. The intermediate and secondary schools could benefit from the parent councils in the discussion of certain aspects of vocational and technical education, in order to manifest its merits to those who attend such councils.

- A programme should be organised for third year students in the intermediate stage to visit vocational and technical institutes in order to have a look at their laboratories, workshops and, equipment and see the specialisations that are taught inside these institutes. The students should also be supplied with information bulletins as well as publicity videotapes so that they can be aware of the different channels of this type of education and the specialisations to which they lead. Similarly, students in general secondary schools and vocational institutes could visit intermediate technical colleges, for the same objective, which is to gain knowledge about the study opportunities and the jobs they lead to.

- In order to enable the students at the general secondary schools and the vocational schools to have more knowledge about some subjects in their syllabus or those related to their study and work in the future, it would be useful to arrange visits to the various industrial establishments, agricultural projects and service sectors. It would be even better if they could meet people who graduated in the previous years from technical or similar institutes and now work in such fields. The students should also be supplied with bulletins and publicity tapes about the various establishments.

- The teacher's role in directing the students is very important. Therefore the teachers should be further prepared to convey the correct information about the importance of vocational and technical education and its role in production and development. Therefore, short and comprehensive courses should be conducted in order to raise the awareness of teachers in the different stages of the general education.

- Lectures and symposiums are important ways of giving intensive and detailed information. They allow questions to be posed by the audience, and answers and solutions given by the specialists and experts. It is a quicker and easier way than the other means because the lecturer or the members of the symposium can move to the school location at a specific time, date and place, and a general invitation be issued to all members of the society who wish to attend. Means of illustration such as overhead projectors or recorded material might be used in addition to the distribution of some leaflets.

- Exhibitions are a good means of drawing the public attention. The general public as well as the specialists visit them. Their influence, however, will depend on the quantity and quality of the exhibited material, in addition to good organisation.

10.2.1.2 Education system:

There are many reasons why a society such as Saudi Arabia is moving only slowly towards technology, but education still remains the basis for every successful movement. Every sound development has to be linked with a sound education and every systematic progress has to be linked with a systematic education as well. The education system is the main axis in the process of developing the national labour force in both quantity and quality. It is the basis for qualifying the national cadres that run the national economy and move it forward in various fields.

In Saudi Arabia, however, the existing educational systems, which were designed at a previous stage to suit the requirements and needs of that stage, are no longer able to achieve the objectives and aspirations of the present era, as far as the

economic development in the Kingdom is concerned. Therefore, it is necessary to review these systems and structure them in a way that matches the employment needs of the labour market.

The graduates of the general secondary schools, for instance, do not find any solution before them other than to join the university or at least the high institutes. This is because the general secondary school certificate does not qualify them for anything other than that. Therefore, they have to complete their high study or become a wasted energy. This is an old problem in Arabic societies in general and in Saudi society particularly, although there has been little attempt at serious solutions. Al-Gosiabi (1978) was convinced that the system needed to be radically changed and in support of his view claimed that Arab educational systems, prepare students for clerical jobs and further academic study, but cannot be relied upon to provide electricians, mechanics, painters, surveyors and other skilled workers. Such workers, he argued, were far more necessary to the socio-economic development of their societies than were clerks and some university graduates. Anticipating the argument that vocational and technical education was available, he commented that it was not fully integrated into the educational system in the sense that a student opting for this type of education was henceforth cut off from routes to higher education. He went as, *"If the present trend, i.e. the present educational system, is allowed to continue we will in the near future find ourselves facing an army of historians, geographic people, men of letters, and economists at the time we are most in need for plumbers, mechanics and surveyors... economic development needs the efforts of those who pave the roads, establish buildings and lay pipelines before it needs the efforts of poets and writers"*(p.26).

Motivated by similar concerns, Haikal (1988) went so far as to suggest the radical step of abolition of general secondary education in its present form and making

secondary education technical in its entirety. Under his proposal, only distinguished students who had completed technical education would be allowed to enrol on university courses, and even then, their numbers would be limited in accordance with the needs of the country for various specialisations. In his view, such a scheme would ensure all secondary school age students would learn something of value to society, inability to secure a university place would not consign students to a hopeless future, and technical education would have its due consideration and status. Finally, a trained work force would be prepared, to meet the needs of the country.

In order to increase students' interest in industrial and vocational education, to recruit high quality candidates so this kind of education can play its real role in economic and social development, and to correct the imbalance in the Saudi work force, the obstacles which lead to the lack of interest in this type of education should be tackled. Some solutions would be as follows:

- A balance should be struck between the employment needed by the private sector and the graduates of the educational institutions from various administrative and technical fields, whereby the demand for each occupation or job becomes the prime criterion for the number of students enrolled in the corresponding fields.
- A strong link needs to be created between the syllabuses of the educational system and the requirements of the real job market. This would mean less focus on theoretical subjects and more focus on scientific subjects which can be applied in real life.
- Educational syllabuses should be reviewed and supported with some basic skills such as languages and computer technology.

- Educational syllabuses reformulated in a way that prompts the students to be more interactive in the educational process, develop their skills of creative thinking and helping them to apply the theories and knowledge they acquire to real life problems.
- Efforts should be made towards the early detection of students' talents and development of such talents through establishing workshops and facilities for simple handicrafts. This will help them to conceder examine their directions in life and make it easier to direct them towards suitable trades.
- A strong boost should be given to intermediate and higher technical education based on of accurate studies of the employment requirements with regard to technical labour in the various vocations and specialisations, in order to achieve a larger expansion of the Saudi labour force in all employment fields.
- Educational syllabuses should foster the behaviours and values needed for work in the private sector, such as commitment, seriousness, perseverance, initiative, creativity, invention, high productivity, ...etc.
- Interaction between educational establishments, especially the universities, and the establishments of the private sector should be encouraged. This can be done through the expansion of research programmes and consultancy work performed by the teaching staff for the benefit of these establishments. This would encourage high quality production in the establishments of the private sector, while at the same time enabling the teaching staff to acquire experience of the private sector, which will be reflected in university syllabuses and teaching methods. In this way, university courses will be more closely linked with what is going on in real life.

- Paying attention to work and field training in the various syllabuses with their different specialisation fields and levels. So, the successful pass grade in training field should be the basic condition for the students moving forward in the various educational stages.

- The intensification and support of the summer training and vocational programmes for students in the private sector establishments would be desirable in order to connect them with the actual work systems and methods as well as enlightening them about the performance behaviour related to this sector.

- The value of vocational work should be integrated within the educational objectives in the general education stages by the introduction into the curriculum of manual skills, to give students the opportunity to discover their abilities; and guarantee the harmony between their interests and the society's needs.

- It is rare for the students to receive proper and encouraging information about vocational and technical education during their period in general education study. The main reason for this is that the teachers in the secondary and intermediate schools are university graduates who have no knowledge or experience about this type of education or its scope. Therefore, these schools should be supplied with additional teachers from the technical colleges (both intermediary and university) to teach scientific subjects. This will have great effect on the students' understanding of the value of manual vocational work and respect for it. Thus, there will be more interest in joining the vocational and technical education.

- The educational ladder needs to be redesigned to make it consistent with the present requirements, and the education plan should be linked to plans for comprehensive development.
- The certificates awarded by the establishments of vocational and technical education should be treated on the same footing as the corresponding general education certificates and opportunities be provided for the graduates to pursue higher studies in their specialisations.
- There should be a balance in the geographical distribution of the schools, institutes and colleges of vocational and technical education.
- An annual fair could be held where projects submitted by students during their training are presented, and prizes awarded for the successful students and schools. A prize could be awarded annually for the best project or research in the field of technical education.

10.2.2 Recommendation related to Economic factors:

The survey respondents' negative view of the future in industrial and vocational sectors, in general, reflects some economic and organization issues, such as hiring policies unfavourable to Saudization, the difficulty of finding a job appropriate to one's training, unsatisfactory wages and incentives, limited job opportunities, and unclear ideas about future schemes and plans in these sectors. In the light of these factors, the following four recommendations could be made.

- The lack of financial incentives plays an important role in the youth lack of interest in industrial and vocational sectors. This is because salaries are determined on the basis of certificates, not on the basis on the type of work or the efficient performance of the employee in that work. Thus, the financial

status of most I&V sectors as reflected in the salary structure and the employment ladder is far from what might be hoped for in a society which endeavours towards development and progress. Therefore, it is necessary to improve the financial status of the industrial and vocational employees commensurate with their importance. They should be given both financial and moral incentives, as well as job security.

- The problems of labour in the Saudi economy are structural problems which require solutions and correctional measures both in the short and long term. The objective here is to make appropriate changes in the human resources with regard to quantity by achieving a regular increase in the rate of employing national labour; and with regard to quality by achieving a larger spread of this labour in the various aspects of industrial and vocational work. Thus, the private and government sectors are strongly urged at this stage to increase their contribution in providing suitable work opportunities and modern outlets to employ national labour. This is not only from a nationalistic or human view but also from an economic view based on requirement for economic stability in the long term, to enable continuous self-development. Also, the private sector institutions, in particular, should reconsider the employment of national labour and reduce reliance on foreign labour.

- The situation demands a new look at development policies in Saudi society; such development which should include human attitudes, job security, workers' rights, meeting the changing labour market needs and increased participation of people in the development process. Theses are at present more

important than high consumption rates, high economic growth, and high revenues for oil.

- There can be no real development and progress without real and clear data. In this age of the Internet and globalisation, there is no place for secrecy; what matters is the ability to achieve development targets in the right way at the right time. So, availability of up-to-date and complete data is an important element of an efficient development and labour market clearing system.

10.3 Suggestions for Future Research:

In bringing this study to an end, it is hoped that it has adequately answered the questions it set out to answer. At the same time, it also hoped that it has raised some intriguing questions that can be treated as a foundation for future research. It would be gratifying to know that the work in this study affords other researchers some insight about the researched issue and helps them avoid the drawbacks and limitations inherent in this study. To help achieve these ends, some recommendations for future research are advanced as follows:

- A study is needed to explore the effect of the economic boom on Saudi nationals and their acceptance to be involved in I&V sectors.

- It is very important to hold field surveys among Saudi people who are doing industrial or vocational jobs, to investigate the reasons which encouraged them to join these sectors, to what extent they are happy with their jobs, to what extent they have been accepted during doing their jobs and how that affects their performance. This kind of research will be beneficial to many people; especially those who are currently reluctant to join I&V sectors.

- Extensive research is needed to consider how the general education curriculum and system can be better fitted to industrial and economic development needs.

- More research is needed to find out the reasons why Saudi youths are keeping away from the industrial and vocational sectors, especially the private sector. Also, it is necessary to study the reasons why Saudi youths are not punctual in their work, vocational or any other job.

- A scientific team of researchers drawn from all major educational institutions and other related organizations (such as universities, research centres, Chamber of Commerce, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Ministry of Interior, Manpower Council, Civil Service Bureau, etc.), could be brought together to conduct a large scale longitudinal survey to monitor the changes and developments in work and labour markets over the next two decades and beyond.

- A comprehensive evaluation of women's education is needed on the basis of the factors and requirements of the present stage, which makes it necessary to activate the role of women and increase their contribution in the various activities. Since the education of women is one of the main factors in preparing and providing women work force, therefore, one of the basic pillars upon which this education has to be based is accurate knowledge about the needs of the development plans with regard to work force, both in quantity and quality. This makes it necessary to conduct a number of detailed studies that produce accurate statistics of supply and demand aspects of women's employment at the level of available jobs and employment sectors, thus

creating a link between the number of the graduates of the educational system and the available work fields, as well as expanding such fields according to what is permitted by women's special work status. In addition to that, the content of the educational programmes and their methods should be developed on a continuous basis.

APPENDICES

A. General Plan of the Study (diagram).

B. The Questionnaires (English & Arabic).

C. The Interview Schedule (English & Arabic).

D. Tables Related to the Study Sample.

E. Statistical Tests.

F. Correspondence.

G. Bibliography.

APPENDIX----------A

GENERAL PLAN OF THE STUDY

(DIAGRAM)

Socio-cultural and economic factors influencing Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors

Social factors

1.The social view of industrial and vocational work.

2.The social status of work and choice of I&V.

3.The society gives social value of the clerical work more than I&V.

4.The family occupation orientations and acceptance of I&V.

5.The more influence; family, tribe, or society in general.

Cultural factors

1.Awareness of important of I&V work.

2.Preference of general education to I&V education.

3.Preference of work with Saudis rather than other nationalities.

Economic factors

1.Impact of foreign labour presence on Saudi nationals' involvement in I&V.

2.Preference of work in the government I&V rather than the private I&V sectors.

3.The future jobs available in industrial and vocational sectors.

4.Income level in the private sector (I&V).

Acceptance of I&V work

The difference between S&F in related to S, C &E factors and acceptance of I&V work.

The difference between S, C & E factors in relation to their effect on acceptance of I&V work

APPENDIX----------B

THE QUESTIONNAIRES

(ENGLISH & ARABIC)

Questionnaire

(1)

Students

Dear Student

This questionnaire is part of a research I'm undertaking for a doctoral degree at Hull University (UK). It investigates some socioeconomic factors influencing Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors.

To aid my research, I would be grateful if you would spare some of your valuable time to fill in this questionnaire. Your honest and complete answers are very essential to the success of this project and will be greatly appreciated.

Please note that there are no right and wrong answers; your honest opinion is what is needed. Although you may find some similarities between some of the statements, they are in fact very different, so please answer them all.

Let me assure you that your answers will be dealt in great confidentiality. The overall statistical results will be reported and no reference to individual responses will be made.

Please allow me to thank you in advance for your personal cooperation and consideration.

The researcher

Mushabab G. H. Al-Asmari.

Hull University

United Kingdom.

PART: I

PLEASE TELL US ABOUT YOUR BACKGROUND:

1- Your age:

1	2	3	4
17-18 years	19-20 years	21-22years	Over 22 years

2- Your place of origin:

1	2	3	4
City	Town	Village	Nomadic

3-Accommodation type:

1	2	3	4
Tent	Traditional house	Flat	Villa

4- Accommodation status:

Own	Rental	State accommodation

5-Number of family members?

1	2	3	4
1-3	4-6	7-9	10 & more

6- What is your parents' level of education?

Education level	Father	Mother
1. Illiterate.		
2. Can read and write.		
3. Elementary.		
4. Middle school.		
5. Vocational or Industrial education.		
6. Secondary.		
7. Higher education.		

7- What is your family average monthly income (Saudi Riyal)?

1	2	3	4	5
1,000 – 3,000	4,000 – 6,000	7,000 – 9,000	10,000-12,000	13,000 & over

8- Which of the following occupations are acceptable among your society members?

1-	Computer		2-	Mechanics	
3-	Salesman		4-	Electricity	
5-	Cooking or waiting		6-	Plumbing	
7-	Hairdressing		8-	Electronics	
9-	Car body work		10-	Welding	
11-	Carpentry		12-	Tailoring	
13-	Farming		14-	Wheelwright	
15-	Mining		16-	Clean worker	
17-	Air-Conditioning		18-	Aluminium work	
19-	Photography		20-	Construction	
21-	Printing		22-	Office equipment	
23-	Butchery		24-	Paint	
25-	No choice.		26-	Other (please state):	

9- Which kind of work is preferred among your family?

1	2	3	4	5	6
Farming	Clerical Work	I&V Work	Military	Manual Work	Business

10- Which of these things do you do at home to help your family?

1-	Electricity		2-	Plumbing	
3-	Welding		4-	Carpentry	
5-	Cooking		6-	Painting	
7-	Skinning		8-	Decoration	
9-	Tailoring		10-	Nothing	
11-	Other (Please state):	1-.....		2-	

11- What is (was) your father's occupation?

1-	Farmer – Shepherd.		5-	Self- Employed.	
2-	Military.		6-	Manual work.	
3-	Businessman.		7-	Vocational or Industrial work.	
4-	Unemployed.		8-	Others (Please state):	

12- Is (or was) your mother working?

1-	Yes		2-	No	

- If yes, please give a specific occupation title (.....)

13-Which kinds of workers are working with your family?

1-	Farming workers		2-	Vocational workers	
3-	Industrial workers		4-	Service workers	
5-	Clerical workers		6-	No workers	

14- If you have workers what is their nationality:

1.Saudi		2. Non Saudi		3. Saudi and Non Saudi	

15- Have you ever held a job in the past (including summer job)?

1- Yes		2- No	

- If yes please: what kind of work was it?

1- Clerical work		2- Industrial or vocational work.	

16- What was your study level in the last term?

1	2	3	4	5
Weak	Acceptable	Good	Very good	Excellent

17- During your study; what are your favourite subjects?

1. Science		2.Social & administration.		3- Linguistic & religious	

18- What job would you like to do after this stage?

1- Military	2- Industrial	3- Vocational	4-Agricultural	5- Literature
6- Medicine	7- Business	8- Teaching	9- I don't know	10- Others:
				.....

19-What is your most important source of information about job opportunities?

1-	School		2-	Media	
3-	Friends & relatives		4-	Civil service bureau	
5-	Office of work & labour.		6-	Other (Please state):.....	

PART: II
PLEASE ANSWER (*YES)* OR (*NO)* TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS:

Questions	Answers	
	Yes	No
20- Do any of your family have an industrial or vocational job?		
21- Is any one of your family enrolled in I&V programmes?		
22- Does any member of your family or relative have a workshop?		
23- Have you ever heard or read about I&V programmes?		
24- Do you wish to work in I&V sectors?		
25- Did you visit with your school I&V sectors or technical colleges?		
26- Have you ever received leaflets or books which talk about I&V work?		
27- Do media in Saudi Arabia have a big role to direct youths to I&V work?		
28- Did you try to enrol in vocational, industrial programmes or schools?		
29- Have any of your family advised you to be involved in I&V work?		
30- Have any of your teachers advised you to be involved in I&V work?		
31- Were manual vocations acceptable in your society in the past?		
32- Are manual vocations acceptable in your society in the present?		

PART: III
PLEASE CHOOSE *ONE* ANSWER TO THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS:

SD = Strongly Disagree. D = Disagree. N = No Opinion. A = Agree. SA = Strong Agree.

STATEMENTS	SD	D	N	A	SA
	1	2	3	4	5
33- Society gives a big value to I&V work.					
34- There is no difference between the social value of I&V and the social value of the other kinds of work					
35- I prefer work in I&V sectors.					
36- I would be willing to work in I &V sectors but only in a high status job.					
37- My family strongly disapproves of some types of occupation.					
38- Availability of foreign workers created kind of dependence on these workers in I&V sectors.					

STATEMENTS	SD	D	N	A	SA
	1	2	3	4	5
39- Saudis should replace all foreign workers					
40- Saudi workers unqualified to work in I&V sectors.					
41- The government should impose more restrictions on importing foreign workers.					
42- The family encourages its members to work in any area in Saudi Arabia.					
43- Occupations such as carpenter, smith, butcher, tanner, are not acceptable socially.					
44- Work with Saudis better than work with foreign workers.					
45- The Job security more important than other incentives.					
46- I wouldn't mind working under non-Saudi supervisors.					
47- If I took a job in the industrial or vocational sectors it would be only temporary.					
48- My family encourage me to take a job in any area in Saudi Arabia.					
49- The private sector (I&V) hiring policies can be seen as an obstacle to Saudization.					
50- It is easy to get a job in the I&V sector.					
51- Accepting I&V work would lower my social value.					
52- Industrial and vocational occupations have low prestige in society.					
53- It is difficult for people to find a job appropriate to their training in the I&V sectors.					
54- Job social status is more importance to the family and friends than to provide a lot of money.					
55- Industrial and vocational jobs are basically for those of low ability and low school achievement.					
56- People place more importance on respect for a job than pay for it.					
57- I would encourage some of my relatives to have I&V careers.					
58- I should try to find a better job than my father.					
59- I should be proud to follow the same job as my father.					
60- The work in government jobs (desk jobs) better than work in private jobs (I & V).					
61- The work in government jobs (I&V) better than work in private jobs (I & V).					
62- Vocational industrial education has less prestige than general education.					
63- Vocational industrial occupations are of real value to modern society.					
64- Vocational industrial occupations are necessary for society.					
65- There are advantages more than disadvantages in I&V occupations.					
66- One cannot keep up a decent standard of living in vocational and industrial occupation.					
67- Only a less intelligent person could be satisfied with vocational industrial work.					

STATEMENTS	SD	D	N	A	SA
	1	2	3	4	5
68- Who has a low social status more acceptance of I&V work.					
69- No one should work in I&V work when so many other jobs are better.					
70- Industrial and Vocational work give person a big value more than other works.					
71- There are many occupations better than the I&V occupations.					
72- If the salary for industrial vocational work were higher than for clerical work, I would choose I&V work.					
73- Vocational & industrial occupations are very important to our country to continue its progress in technical areas.					
74- Our country needs more vocational industrial skilled manpower.					
75- Taking the vocational or industrial diploma hinders students from further higher education.					
76- Many vocational workers do not desire to teach their sons their vocations.					
77- Vocational and industrial work gives more social status than clerical work.					
78- Sons should consult their parents before choosing a job or vocation.					
79- Saudi mass media play a big role to educate youth about I &V work.					
80- People give more consideration to salary irrespective of the kind of vocation.					
81- An educated girl does not desire to marry an industrial or vocational worker.					
82- There is no difference in the social status between clerical work and I&V work.					
83- There is awareness of the importance of I&V in the present time.					
84- Clerical work will be less important in the near future.					
85- Industrial and vocational work is beginning to be more acceptable in our society.					
86- Industrial and vocational work is still socially despised.					
87- There is no clear idea about the future of I&V work.					
88- There are not enough job opportunities in I&V sectors.					
89- Security is a very important reason for involvement in the general sector rather than the private V&I sectors.					
90- A high paying vocational job in a rural area is better than low paying job in the city.					
91- Industrial and Vocational work undesirable tribally.					
92- Industrial and Vocational work undesirable familially.					
93- Industrial and Vocational work undesirable socially.					
94- I always think about the certificate, then the work.					
95- I always think about work, then the certificate.					

PART: IV

96- Please choose the word from each numbered pair (group A or B) which you think best describes industrial & vocational work:

	A		B	
	Easy.		**Hard.**	
1-	Clean		Dirty	
2-	Prestige		Shame.	
3-	Success.		Failure.	
4-	Respect.		Disrespect.	
5-	Security.		Insecurity.	
6-	Convenience.		Inconvenience.	
7-	High salary.		Low salary.	
8-	Promotion.		No promotion.	
9-	Unlimited study.		Limited study.	
10-	Short term.		Long term.	
11-	Quiet.		Noisy.	
12-	Not dangerous.		Dangerous	
13-	Good reputation.		Bad reputation.	
14-	Unlimited future.		Limited future	
15-	Nearby.		Faraway.	

96- In your opinion, which of the following factors or measures will help to attract Saudi nationals to industrial & vocational sectors?

N	Helping factors		N	Helping factors	
1-	Increase awareness of I&V work value.		2-	Limit imported labour	
3-	Increase allowances & grants for industrial, technical & vocational students.		4-	Limit the acceptance of students in the university.	
5-	Improve role of the universities in industrial and technical fields.		6-	Establish a legal minimum wage level in I&V sectors.	
7-	Open industrial and technical colleges (un-centralisation) equal to university colleges.		8-	Create strong relations between IVE and general education.	
9-	Increase expatriates' importation fee.		10-	Other factors; please write below:	

.....

98- Please, I would like you if you can to write in your own words – in the space below - at least three important obstacles which stop Saudi nationals working in I&V sectors:

N	Obstacles
1-	.....
2-	.....
3-	.....
4-	.....
5-	.....

99- Could you please, specify one, two or three occupations that you would like to do?

1-.....	2-.....	3-.....

100- Do you have any comments or ideas you would like to add regarding the subject of this questionnaire?

.....

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.....

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.....

.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

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Questionnaire

(2)

Fathers

Dear Student's Father

This questionnaire is part of a research I'm undertaking for a doctoral degree at Hull University (UK). It investigates some socioeconomic factors influencing Saudi nationals' involvement in industrial and vocational sectors.

To aid my research, I would be grateful if you would spare some of your valuable time to fill in this questionnaire. Your honest and complete answers are very essential to the success of this project and will be greatly appreciated.

Please note that there are no right and wrong answers; your honest opinion is what is needed. Although you may find some similarities between some of the statements, they are in fact very different, so please answer them all.

Let me assure you that your answers will be dealt in great confidentiality. The overall statistical results will be reported and no reference to individual responses will be made.

Please allow me to thank you in advance for your personal cooperation and consideration.

The researcher

Mushabab G. H. Al-Asmari.

Hull University

United Kingdom.

PART: I

PLEASE TELL US ABOUT YOUR BACKGROUND:

1- Your age:

1	2	3	4
30-40 years	41-50 years	51-60years	61years & more.

2- Your place of origin:

1	2	3	4
City	Town	Village	Nomadic

3-Accommodation type:

1	2	3	4
Tent	Traditional house	Flat	Villa

4- Accommodation status:

Own	Rental	State accommodation

5-Number of family members?

1	2	3	4
1-3	4-6	7-9	10 & more

6- What is your level of education and your wife?

Education level	Father	Wife
1. Illiterate.		
2. Can read and write.		
3. Elementary.		
4. Middle school.		
5. Vocational or Industrial education.		
6. Secondary.		
7. Higher education.		

7- What is your family average monthly income (Saudi Riyal)?

1	2	3	4	5
1,000 – 3,000	4,000 – 6,000	7,000 – 9,000	10,000-12,000	13,000 & over

8- Which of the following occupations are acceptable among your society members?

1-	Computer		2-	Mechanics	
3-	Salesman		4-	Electricity	
5-	Cooking or waiting		6-	Plumbing	
7-	Hairdressing		8-	Electronics	
9-	Car body work		10-	Welding	
11-	Carpentry		12-	Tailoring	
13-	Farming		14-	Wheelwright	
15-	Mining		16-	Clean worker	
17-	Air-Conditioning		18-	Aluminium work	
19-	Photography		20-	Construction	
21-	Printing		22-	Office equipment	
23-	Butchery		24-	Paint	
25-	No choice.		26-	Other (please state):	

9- Which kind of work is preferred among your family?

1	2	3	4	5	6
Farming	Clerical Work	I&V Work	Military	Manual Work	Business

10- Which of these things do you do at home to help your family?

1-	Electricity		2-	Plumbing	
3-	Welding		4-	Carpentry	
5-	Cooking		6-	Painting	
7-	Skinning		8-	Decoration	
9-	Tailoring		10-	Nothing	
11-	Other (Please state):	1-.....		2-	

11- What is (was) your occupation?

1-	Farmer – Shepherd.		5-	Self- Employed.	
2-	Military.		6-	Manual work.	
3-	Businessman.		7-	Vocational or Industrial work.	
4-	Unemployed.		8-	Others (Please state):	.....

12- Is (or was) your wife working?			
1- Yes		2- No	
- If yes, please give a specific occupation title:	.....		

13-Which kinds of workers are working with your family?					
1-	Farming workers		2-	Vocational workers	
3-	Industrial workers		4-	Service workers	
5-	Clerical workers		6-	No workers	

14- If you have workers what is their nationality:					
1.Saudi		2. Non Saudi		3. Saudi and Non Saudi	

15- What job that you prefer to your son after this stage?				
1- Military	2- Industrial	3- Vocational	4-Agricultural	5- Literature
6- Medicine	7- Business	8- Teaching	9- I don't know	10- Others:
				.....

16-What is your most important source of information about job opportunities?					
1-	School & colleges		2-	Media	
3-	Friends & relatives		4-	Civil service bureau	
5-	Office of work & labour.		6-	Other (Please state):	.....

PART: II

PLEASE ANSWER (*YES)* OR (*NO)* TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS:

Questions	Answers	
	Yes	No
17. Do any of your family have an industrial or vocational job?		
18. Is any one of your family enrolled in I&V programmes?		
19. Does any member of your family or relative have a workshop?		
20. Have you ever heard or read about I&V programmes?		
21. Do you wish to work in I&V sectors?		
22. Did you visit I&V sectors or technical colleges?		

23. Have you ever received leaflets or books which talk about I&V work?		
24. Do media in Saudi Arabia have a big role to direct youths to I&V work?		
25. Did you try to enrol in vocational, industrial programmes or schools?		
26. Have you advised any of your family to be involved in I&V work?		
27. Do you think that school encourage students to be involved in I&V work?		
28. Were manual vocations acceptable in your society in the past?		
29. Are manual vocations acceptable in your society in the present?		

PART: III

PLEASE CHOOSE *ONE* ANSWER TO THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS:

SD = Strongly Disagree. D = Disagree. N = No Opinion. A = Agree. SA = Strong Agree.

STATEMENTS	SD	D	N	A	SA
	1	2	3	4	5
30- Society gives a big value to I&V work.					
31- There is no difference between the social value of I&V and the social value of the other kinds of work					
32- I prefer work in Vocational and vocational sectors.					
33- I would be willing to work in I &V sectors but only in a high status job.					
34- My family strongly disapproves of some types of occupation.					
35- Availability of foreign workers created kin of dependence on these workers in I&V sectors.					
36- Saudis should replace all foreign workers					
37- Saudi workers unqualified to work in I&V sectors.					
38- The government should impose more restrictions on importing foreign workers.					
39- The family encourages its members to work in any area in Saudi Arabia.					
40- Occupations such as carpenter, smith, butcher, tanner, are not acceptable socially.					
41- Work with Saudis better than work with foreign workers.					
42- The Job security more important than other incentives.					
43- I wouldn't mind working under non-Saudi supervisors.					
44- If any of my sons took a job in the industrial or vocational sectors it would be only temporary.					
45- We encourage any of our family to take a job in any area of Saudi Arabia.					

STATEMENTS	SD	D	N	A	SA
	1	2	3	4	5
46- The private sector (I&VI) hiring policies can be seen as an obstacle to Saudization.					
47- It is easy to get a job in the industrial and vocational sector.					
48- Accepting I&V work would lower my social value.					
49- Industrial and vocational occupations have low prestige in society.					
50- It is difficult for people to find a job appropriate to their training in the industrial and vocational sectors.					
51- Job social status more importance of the family and friends than to provide a lot of money.					
52- Industrial and vocational jobs are basically for those of low ability and low school achievement.					
53- People place more importance on respect for a job than pay for it.					
54- I would encourage some of my family and relatives to have industrial and vocational careers.					
55- I prefer to my son to find a better job than mine.					
56- I should be proud if my sons follow the same job as mine.					
57- The work in government jobs (disk jobs) better than work in private jobs (I & V).					
58- The work in government jobs (I&V) better than work in private jobs (I & V).					
59- Vocational industrial education has less prestige than general education.					
60- Vocational industrial occupations are of real value to modern society.					
61- Vocational industrial occupations are necessary for society.					
62- There are advantages more than disadvantages in industrial and vocational occupations.					
63- One cannot keep up a decent standard of living in vocational and industrial occupation.					
64- Only a less intelligent person could be satisfied with vocational industrial work.					
65- Who has a low social status more acceptance of I&V work.					
66- No one should work in industrial and vocational work when so many other jobs are better.					
67- Industrial and Vocational work give person a big value more than other works.					
68- There are many occupations better than the industrial and vocational occupations.					
69- If the salary for industrial vocational work were higher than for clerical work, I would choose I&V work.					
70- Vocational & industrial occupations are very important to our country to continue its progress in technical areas.					
71- Our country needs more vocational industrial skilled manpower.					
72- Taking the vocational or industrial diploma hinders students from further higher education.					
73- Many vocational workers do not desire to teach their sons their vocations.					
74- Vocational and industrial work gives more social status than clerical work.					

STATEMENTS	SD	D	N	A	SA
	1	2	3	4	5
75- Sons should consult their parents before choosing a job or vocation.					
76- Saudi mass media play a big role to educate youth about I &V work.					
77- People give more consideration to salary irrespective of the kind of vocation.					
78- An educated girl does not desire to marry an industrial or vocational worker.					
79- There is no difference in the social status between clerical work and I&V work.					
80- There is awareness of the importance of industrial and vocational in the present time.					
81- Clerical work will be less important in the near future.					
82- Industrial and vocational work is beginning to be more acceptable in our society.					
83- Industrial and vocational work is still socially despised.					
84- There is no clear idea about the future of industrial and vocational work.					
85- There are not enough job opportunities in industrial and vocational sectors.					
86- Security is a very important reason for involvement in the general sector rather than the private V&I sectors.					
87- A high paying vocational job in a rural area is better than low paying job in the city.					
88- Industrial and Vocational work undesirable tribally.					
89- Industrial and Vocational work undesirable familial.					
90- Industrial and Vocational work undesirable socially.					
91- I always think about the certificate, then the work.					
92- I always think about work, then the certificate.					

PART: IV

93- Please choose the word from each numbered pair (group A or B) which you think best describes industrial & vocational work:

	A			B	
1-	Easy.			Hard.	
2-	Clean			Dirty	
3-	Prestige			Shame.	
4-	Success.			Failure.	
5-	Respect.			Disrespect.	
6-	Security.			Insecurity.	

7-	Convenience.		Inconvenience.		
8-	High salary.		Low salary.		
9-	Promotion.		No promotion.		
10-	Unlimited study.		Limited study.		
11-	Short term.		Long term.		
12-	Quiet.		Noisy.		
13-	Not dangerous.		Dangerous		
14-	Good reputation.		Bad reputation.		
15-	Unlimited future.		Limited future		
16-	Nearby.		Faraway.		

94- In your opinion, which of the following factors or measures will help to attract Saudi nationals to industrial & vocational sectors?

N	Helping factors		N	Helping factors	
1-	Increase awareness of industrial and vocational work value.		2-	Limit imported labour	
3-	Increase allowances & grants for industrial, technical & vocational students.		4-	Limit the acceptance of students in the university.	
5-	Improve role of the universities in industrial and technical fields.		6-	Establish a legal minimum wage level in I&V sectors.	
7-	Open industrial and technical colleges (un-centralisation) equal to university colleges.		8-	Create strong relations between IVE and general education.	
9-	Increase expatriates' importation fee.		10-	Other factors; please write bellow :	
.....					

95- Please, I would like you if you can to write in your own words – in the space below - at least three important obstacles which stop Saudi nationals working in industrial and vocational sectors:

N	Obstacles
1-	.....
2-	.....
3-	.....
4-	.....
5-	.....

96- Could you please, specify one, two or three occupations that you would like to do?

1-	2-	3- .....

97- Do you have any comments or ideas you would like to add regarding the subject of this questionnaire?

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

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الاستبيـــــان
(1)
الطـــــلاب

1) الرقم التسلسلي : .....

2) المدينة أو القرية : .....

3) الوقت المستغرق لتعبئة الاستبانة : .....

4) تاريخ تعبئة الاستبانة : .....

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

عزيزي الطالب

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته وبعد :

الاستبيان الذي بين يديك يتعلق ببحث "بعض العوامل الاجتماعية والاقتصادية التي تحد من تقبل المواطن السعودي للعمل في القطاع المهني والصناعي" وذلك لنيل درجة الدكتوراه – من جامعة (هل) المملكة المتحدة - تحت إشراف جامعة الملك عبد العزيز .

ولتحقيق هذا الهدف ، سأكون ممتنا لك إذا ضحيت بشي من وقتك الثمين لملء هذا الاستبيان. مصداقيتك واستكمالك لكافة الإجابات عنصر أساسي لنجاح هذا الموضوع وسيكون موضع تقدير كبير.

فضلا .. أود أن تعلم بأن ليس هناك إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة ؛ فقط رأيك الصادق الذي نحتاج إليه ؛إضافة إلى ذلك قد تجد بعض التشابه بين بعض التساؤلات أو الاستجابات ، كل هذه الحالات في الواقع مختلفة ، لذلك نرجو إجابتها جميعا .

كل إجاباتك ستكون في سرية تامة ولن تستخدم سوى لأغراض هذا البحث الذي سيتعامل مع هذه الإجابات كنتائج إحصائية كلية دون الرجوع إلى الاستجابات الفردية .

و أخيرا .. أرجو أن تسمح لي بأن أقدم لك جزيل الشكر لحسن تعاونك واهتمامك الشخصي.

الباحث

مشبب غرامة حسن الأسمري

جامعة الملك عبد العزيز

قسم الاجتماع

ملاحظة :-

عزيزي الطالب

(ضع فقط علامة " "في المربع المقابل للإجابة المناسبة ماعدا الإجابات التي تتطلب إجابات مباشرة وخاصة في نهاية الاستبيان)

الجزء الأول:

- معلومات عامة :

1- العمر :			
17- 18سنة	19-20 سنة	21- 22سنة	22 سنة فاكثر

2- مقر الإقامة الأصلي :			
مدينة	مركز	قرية	بداوة

3- ما هو المستوى التعليمي للوالدين؟

المستوى التعليمي	الوالد	الوالدة
1. أمي		
2. يقرأ ويكتب		
3. ابتدائي		
4. متوسط		
5. ثانوي		
6. جامعي		
7. تعليم عالي		

4- ما نوع التعليم الذي تلقاه الوالدان؟

رقم	نوع التعليم	الوالد	الوالدة
-1	تعليم عام		
-2	تعليم صناعي		
-3	تعليم مهني		

5- عدد أعضاء الأسرة؟

3-1	6-4	9-7	10 فاكثر

6- هل السكن :

ملك		مستأجر		سكن حكومي	

7- نوع السكن :

خيمة	بيت شعبي	شقة	فيلا

8- ما مقدار متوسط الدخل الشهري للأسرة؟

3.000-1.000	6.000-4.000	9.000-7.000	12.000-10.000	13.000 فأكثر

9 – ما مقدار ما تنفقه على نفسك- فقط - تقريبا كل شهر؟

- (من فضلك ضعه هنا.....).

10- ما هي المهنة المقبولة وغير المقبولة لك ولأفراد أسرتك من المهن التالية؟

	نوع المهنة	مقبولة	غير مقبولة		نوع المهنة	مقبولة	غير مقبولة
1-	مشغل حاسبات			11-	جزار		
2-	بقال			12-	ميكانيكي		
3-	طباخ			13-	كهرباني		
4-	حلاق			14-	سباك		
5-	نجار			15-	مصلح إلكترونيات		
6-	مزارع			16-	خياط		
7-	معدن			17-	بنشري		
8-	بناء			18-	لحام		
9-	مصور(فوتوغرافي)			19-	عامل نظافة		
10-	سمكري			20-	دهان		

11- هل أحد من أفراد أسرتك أو أقاربك يعمل في أي من المهن الصناعية التالية؟

1-	صناعة الغذاء والمشروبات		2-	صناعة النسيج و الملبوسات	
3-	صناعة الورق والمطبوعات		4-	صناعة الخشب والأثاث	
5-	الصناعات الكيميائية والبلاستيكية		6-	صناعة مواد البناء	
7-	صناعة الحديد والمعادن		8-	صناعة المعدات والآلات الثقيلة	
9-	النقل والتخزين		10-	لا أحد يعمل بهذه المهن	

12- ما هو نوع العمل المفضل بين أفراد أسرتك؟

1- العمل الزراعي	2- العمل المهني أو الصناعي	3- العمل العسكري	4- العمل ا لتجاري	5- عمل مدني (مكتبي)

13- أي من الأشياء التالية التي تعمل على مساعدة الأسرة بها داخل المنزل؟

1-	كهرباء		2-	سباكة	
3-	لحام		4-	نجارة	
5-	طبخ		6-	دهان	
7-	غسيل		8-	ديكور	
9-	خياطة		10-	لاشيء مما ذكر	

14- ما هي مهنة الوالد؟							
1-	عمل زراعي		2-	عمل مهني أو صناعي			
3-	عمل تجاري		4-	عمل عسكري			
5-	عمل مدنـــي		6-	لا يعمل			
15- هل تعمل الوالدة ؟							
1-	نعم		2-	لا			
- إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم فضلا : ما هو نوع العمل؟ (.....)							
16- ما نوع العمالة التي تعمل مع أسرتك؟							
1-	عمالة زراعية		2-	عمالة مهنية			
3-	عمالة صناعية		4-	عمالة خدمات			
5-	عمالة مكتبية		6-	لا يوجد عمالة			
17- إذا كان لديكم عماله فهل هي عمالة:							
1- سعودية		2- غير سعودية			3- سعودية وغير سعودية		
18- هل سبق لك أن عملت في الماضي (بما في ذلك العمل خلال إجازة الصيف)؟							
1-	نعم		2-	لا			
- إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم فضلا: ما هو العمل؟ (.....) وهل هو :							
1-	عمل مكتبي		2-	عمل مهني أو صناعي			
19- كيف كان مستواك الدراسي في الفصل الماضي؟							
ضعيف		مقبول		جيد		جيد جدا	ممتاز
20- ما هي المواد الدراسية التي تفضلها أثناء دراستك؟							
1-	المواد العلمية		2-	الاجتماعية والإدارية		3- الشرعية والعربية	
21- ما هو نوع العمل الذي ترغب أن تلتحق به بعد هذه المرحلة؟							
1 - عسكري		4- تدريس			7- طبي		
2- صناعي		5- تجاري			8- زراعي		
3- مهني		6- أدبي			9- لا أعلم		
22- ما هو أهم مصدر للمعلومات يمكنك الاعتماد عليه لمعرفة الفرص الوظيفية؟							
1-	المدرسة		2-	وسائل الأعلام			
3-	الأصدقاء والأقارب		4-	مكتب الخدمة المدنية			
5-	مكتب العمل والعمال						

الجزء الثاني.

- من فضلك اجب ب(نعم أو لا) على الأسئلة التالية :

الأسئلة	الإجابات	
	نعم	لا
23. هل من أسرتك من لديه عمل مهني أو صناعي؟		
24. هل هناك أحد من أسرتك ملتحق بأحد البرامج المهنية أو الصناعية؟		
25. هل من أسرتك من يعمل في ورشه مهنية أو صناعية خاصة به؟		
26. هل سبق أن قرأت أو سمعت عن البرامج المهنية أو الصناعية؟		
27. هل لديك رغبة في العمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
28. هل سبق أن زرت مع مدرستك أماكن صناعية ؟		
29. هل سبق أن تسلمت كتب أو منشورات تتعلق بالعمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
30. هل للإعلام دور كبير في توجيه المواطن السعودي للعمل المهني والصناعي؟		
31. هل سبق أن حاولت الالتحاق ببعض البرامج أو المدارس المهنية أو الصناعية؟		
32. هل أحد من أسرتك نصحك أن تلتحق بالعمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
33. هل أحد من مدرسيك نصحك بالانخراط بالعمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
34. هل تفضل العمل المكتبي اكثر من العمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
35. هل تشجع الأفراد الآخرين من أسرتك للالتحاق بالعمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
36. هل كانت الحرف اليدوية مقبولة بين أفراد أسرتك في الماضي؟		
37. هل الحرف اليدوية مقبولة بين أفراد أسرتك في الوقت الحاضر؟		
38. هل ترى أن هناك اختلاف في الوضع الاجتماعي بين الحرف اليدوية في الماضي والعمل المهني في الوقت الحاضر ؟		
39. هل تفضل العمل بمرتب أعلى مع منزلة اجتماعية متدنية ؟		
40. هل تفضل عمل بمرتب أعلى بعيدا عن الأسرة والأصدقاء؟		

الجزء الثالث:

فضلا أختر(إجابة واحدة) تعبر عن رأيك في الأوضاع التالية :

	الاستجابات	موافق بشدة	موافق	ليس لي رأي	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
41.	المجتمع يمنح قيمة اجتماعية كبيرة للعمل المهني والصناعي.					
42.	ليس هناك فرق بين القيمة الاجتماعية للعمل المهني والصناعي وبين القيمة الاجتماعية للأعمال الأخرى.					
43.	أفضل العمل في القطاعات المهنية أو الصناعية.					
44.	أفضل العمل في القطاع المهني أو الصناعي على أن يكون العمل ذا منزلة اجتماعية أعلى.					
45.	أسرتي تعارض بشدة بعض أنواع المهن الصناعية والمهنية.					
46.	توفر العمالة غير السعودية يخلق نوع من الاتكالية على هذه العمالة في العمل المهني والصناعي.					
47.	يفضل أن تحل العمالة السعودية محل العمالة الأجنبية.					
48.	العمالة السعودية غير مؤهلة للعمل المهني والصناعي.					
49.	يفضل وضع إجراءات اكثر صرامة للحد من استقدام العمالة الأجنبية.					
50.	الأمن الوظيفي يحد من تقبل العمل في القطاع المهني والصناعي .					
51.	مهن مثل- النجارة، الجزارة ،الحلاقة، الحدادة - غير مقبولة عندي.					
52.	أفضل العمل مع السعوديين على العمل مع غيرهم.					
53.	ميزة العمل الآمن اكثر أهمية عندي من مميزات العمل الأخرى.					
54.	لا يهمني العمل تحت إشراف إدارة غير سعودية.					
55.	إذا عملت في القطاع المهني أو الصناعي فان ذلك سيكون مؤقتا.					
56.	أسرتي تشجع على لالتحاق بالعمل في أي منطقة من مناطق المملكة.					
57.	القطاع الخاص (الصناعي والمهني) يضع سياسات وإجراءات تحد من عملية السعودة.					
58.	من السهل الالتحاق بالعمل في القطاع المهني أو الصناعي.					
59.	قبول العمل المهني أو الصناعي سيفقدني منزلتي الاجتماعية.					
60.	العمل المهني والصناعي يحظى بمنزلة اجتماعية أدنى.					
61.	يصعب على الكثير من المتدربين أن يجدوا فرص عمل مناسبة في القطاع الصناعي والمهني.					
62.	العمل المحترم اكثر أهمية للأسرة والأصدقاء من العمل ذي الدخل المرتفع .					
63.	الأعمال المهنية والصناعية اكثر ملائمة لذوي القدرة والدافعية الأقل .					
64.	المجتمع يضع أهمية أكبر للعمل المحترم أكثر من دخل ذلك العمل.					
65.	أنا أشجع البعض من أقاربي للالتحاق بالعمل المهني أو الصناعي.					
66.	أفضل البحث عن عمل أفضل من عمل والدي .					
67.	ساكون فخور أن أتبع والدي في نفس مهنته.					
68.	العمل في الوظائف الحكومية (الأعمال المكتبية) أفضل من العمل في القطاع الخاص (صناعي أو مهني).					
69.	العمل في الوظائف الحكومية (مهني أو صناعي) أفضل من العمل في القطاع الخاص (مهني أو صناعي).					
70.	التعليم المهني والصناعي أقل قيمة من التعليم العام.					
71.	الأعمال المهنية والصناعية تمثل قيمة حقيقية للمجتمع المتحضر.					

	الاستجابات	موافق بشدة	موافق	ليس لي رأي	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
.72	الأعمال المهنية ذات أهمية رئيسية في حياتي.					
.73	هناك إيجابيات أكثر من السلبيات في مجال العمل المهني والصناعي.					
.74	لا يستطيع أحد أن يحتفظ بمستوى معيشي مقبول عندما يعمل في القطاع المهني أو الصناعي.					
.75	الأقل ذكاء هو فقط الذي يرضى بالعمل المهني أو الصناعي.					
.76	ذو المكانة الاجتماعية المنخفضة أكثر قابلية للعمل المهني والصناعي.					
.77	ليس من الضروري العمل في القطاع المهني والصناعي عندما يوجد فرص وظيفية أفضل.					
.78	العمل المهني والصناعي يجعل صاحبه ذو قيمة كبيرة مقارنة بالأعمال الأخرى.					
.79	هناك الكثير من المهن تعتبر أفضل من الأعمال المهنية والصناعية.					
.80	إذا كان مرتب العمل المهني والصناعي أكبر من مرتب العمل المكتبي ، سوف أختار العمل المهني أو الصناعي.					
.81	الأعمال المهنية والصناعية مهمة جدا لمجتمعنا لاستكمال نموه وتطوره.					
.82	مجتمعنا بحاجة إلى الكثير من الثروة البشرية المدربة مهنيا وصناعيا.					
.83	الحصول على شهادة الدبلوم المهني أو الصناعي يحد من قبول الطلبة لمستوى تعليمي أعلى.					
.84	الكثير من العمال المهنيين لا يرغبون في تعليم مهنهم لأبنائهم.					
.85	العمل المهني والصناعي يمنح صاحبه منزلة اجتماعية أكبر مما يمنحه العمل المكتبي.					
.86	على الأبناء استشارة آبائهم قبل اختيار العمل أو المهنة .					
.87	الإعلام أهم وسيلة لتوجيه الشباب للعمل المهني والصناعي.					
.88	المجتمع يعطي اهتمام أكبر بالمرتب بغض النظر عن نوع المهنة.					
.89	الفتاه المتعلمة لا ترغب أن تتزوج من العامل المهني أو لصناعي.					
.90	ليس هناك اختلاف في القيم الاجتماعية بين العمل المكتبي والعمل المهني أو الصناعي.					
.91	هناك إدراك بأهمية العمل المهني والصناعي في الوقت الحاضر.					
.92	العمل المكتبي سيكون أقل أهمية في المستقبل القريب.					
.93	العمل المهني والصناعي أصبح أكثر قبولا في مجتمعنا .					
.94	العمل المهني والصناعي لا يزال من الأعمال المحتقرة اجتماعيا.					
.95	ليس لدي فكرة واضحة عن المستقبل في العمل المهني والصناعي.					
.96	لا يوجد هناك فرص وظيفية كافية في القطاع المهني والصناعي.					
.97	الأمن الوظيفي السبب الأكثر أهمية للانخراط في العمل الحكومي اكثر من القطاع الخاص(المهني والصناعي).					
.98	العمل المهني ذو الدخل المرتفع في المناطق الريفية أفضل من العمل ذو الدخل المنخفض في المدينة.					
.99	العمل المهني والصناعي غير مرغوب قبليا.					
.100	العمل المهني والصناعي غير مرغوب اسريا.					
.101	العمل المهني والصناعي غير مرغوب اجتماعيا.					
.102	أفكر دائما في الشهادة ثم العمل بعد ذلك .					
.103	أفكر دائما في العمل ثم في الشهادة بعد ذلك.					

الجزء الرابع:

104- فضلا ضع علامة " " أمام الكلمة التي تراها مناسبة لوصف العمل المهني والصناعي من وجهة نظرك:

العمل المهني والصناعي					
أ			ب		
1	سهل		صعب		
2	نظيف		غير نظيف		
3	معتبر		غير معتبر		
4	ناجح		قاصر		
5	محترم		غير محترم		
6	آمن		غير آمن		
7	ملائم		غير ملائم		
8	دخل مرتفع		دخل منخفض		
9	يوجد فرص للترقي		لا يوجد فرص للترقي		
10	دراسة محدودة		غير محدودة		
11	وقت العمل طويل		وقت العمل قصير		
12	هادئ		صاخب		
13	غير خطر		خطر		
14	سمعة حسنة		سمعة غير حسنة		
15	مستقبل غير محدود		مستقبل محدود		
16	قريب من مكان الإقامة		بعيد عن مكان الإقامة		

105 - في رأيك ، أي من العوامل التالية أو الاجرآت التي يمكن أن تجذ ب المواطن السعودي إلى المجالات المهنية والصناعية؟

رقم	عوامل مساعدة		رقم	عوامل مساعدة	
1	العمل على زيادة الإدراك بقيمة العمل المهني والصناعي.		2	الحد من استقدام العمالة الأجنبية.	
3	زيادة المكافآت والمنح للطلبة الملتحقين بالتعليم المهني أو الصناعي.		4	تشجيع وتوجيه الطلبة للتعليم المهني والصناعي والحد من القبول في التعليم الجامعي.	
5	تنمية دور الجامعات في المجالات التقنية والصناعية .		6	وضع حد أدنى للمرتبات في القطاعات المهنية والصناعية.	
7	فتح كليات تقنية وصناعية (غير مركزية) بمستوى يعادل الكليات الجامعية .		8	خلق علاقات قوية بين التعليم المهني والصناعي وبين التعليم العام .	
9	زيادة الرسوم على استقدام العمالة الأجنبية .		10	فضلا؛ إذا كان لديك عوامل أخرى اكتبها أدناه	
11	.....				
12	.....				

106- فضلا .. نود منك إذا أمكن أن تكتب بكلماتك - في الفراغ أدناه - على الأقل ثلاثة معوقات التي ترى أنها تحد من قبول المواطن السعودي العمل في القطاعات المهنية والصناعية:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

107- من فضلك تعين مهنة أو مهنتين أو ثلاث مهن التي ترغب أن تعملها على أن يكون ذلك بالترتيب حسب الأهمية:

1-.....	2-	3- .....

108- هل لديك أي تعليقات أو أفكار ترغب أن تضيفها فيما يتعلق بموضوع هذا الاستبيان:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

شـــكـــرا عـلـى حـســن تـعـاونكـــم

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****

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الاستبيـــــان
(1)
الآبـــــــاء

1) الرقم التسلسلي : .....

2) المدينة أو القرية : .....

3) الوقت المستغرق لتعبئة الاستبانة : .....

4) تاريخ تعبئة الاستبانة : .....

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

عزيزي الأب (أو ولي أمر الطالب)

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبعد :

الاستبيان الذي بين يديك يتعلق ببحث "بعض العوامل الاجتماعية والاقتصادية التي تحد من تقبل المواطن السعودي للعمل في القطاع المهني والصناعي" وذلك لنيل درجة الدكتوراه ـ من جامعة (هل) المملكة المتحدة - تحت إشراف جامعة الملك عبد العزيز .

ولتحقيق هذا الهدف ، سأكون ممتنا لك إذا ضحيت بشي من وقتك الثمين لملء هذا الاستبيان. مصداقيتك واستكمالك لكافة الإجابات عنصر أساسي لنجاح هذا الموضوع وسيكون موضع تقدير كبير.

فضلا .. أود أن تعلم بأن ليس هناك إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة ؛ فقط رأيك الصادق الذي نحتاج إليه ؛إضافة إلى ذلك قد تجد بعض التشابه بين بعض التساؤلات أو الاستجابات ، كل هذه الحالات في الواقع مختلفة ، لذلك نرجو إجابتها جميعا .

كل إجاباتك ستكون في سرية تامة ولن تستخدم سوى لأغراض هذا البحث الذي سيتعامل مع هذه الإجابات كنتائج إحصائية كلية دون الرجوع إلى الاستجابات الفردية .

و أخيرا .. أرجو أن تسمح لي بأن أقدم لك جزيل الشكر لحسن تعاونك واهتمامك الشخصي.

الباحث

مشبب غرامة حسن الأسمري

جامعة الملك عبد العزيز

قسم الاجتماع

ملاحظة :-

عزيزي الأب (أو ولي أمر الطالب)

(ضع فقط علامة " "في المربع المقابل للإجابة المناسبة ماعدا الإجابات التي تتطلب إجابات مباشرة وخاصة في نهاية الاستبيان)

الجزء الأول:

- معلومات عامة.

1- العمر :				
20 - 30 سنة	31 - 40 سنة	41 - 50 سنة	51 - 60 سنة	61 سنة فأكثر

2- مقر الإقامة الأصلي :			
مدينة	مركز	قرية	بداوة

3- عدد أعضاء الأسرة؟			
3-1	6-4	9-7	10 فأكثر

4- هل السكن :					
ملك		مستأجر		سكن حكومي	

5- نوع السكن :			
1	2	3	4
خيمة	بيت شعبي	شقة	فيلا

6- ما هو وضعك التعليمي؟					
1- أمي		3- متوسط		5- تعليم مهني	
2- ابتدائي		4- تعليم عالي		6- تعليم صناعي	

7- ما نوع التعليم الذي تلقاه الوالدين؟			
رقم	نوع التعليم	الوالد	الوالدة
1-	تعليم عام		
2-	تعليم صناعي		
3-	تعليم مهني		
4-	لاشيء		

8- ما هو عملك ؟					
1-	عمل زراعي		2-	عمل مهني أو صناعي	
3-	عمل تجاري		4-	عمل عسكري	
5-	عمل مدنـــي		6-	لا يعمل	

9- هل تعمل زوجتك؟					
1-	نعم		2-	لا	

- إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم فضلا : ما هو نوع العمل؟ (.....)

10- ما مقدار متوسط الدخل الشهري للأسرة؟

1	2	3	4	5
3.000-1.000	6.000-4.000	9.000-7.000	12.000-10.000	13.000 فأكثر

11 - ما مقدار ما تنفقه تقريبا - على من تعول - شهريا؟

- (من فضلك ضعه هنا.....).

12- ما هي المهنة المقبولة وغير المقبولة لك ولأفراد أسرتك من المهن التالية؟

	نوع المهنة	مقبولة	غير مقبولة		نوع المهنة	مقبولة	غير مقبولة
1-	مشغل حاسبات			11-	جزار		
2-	بقال			12-	ميكانيكي		
3-	طباخ			13-	كهربائي		
4-	حلاق			14-	سباك		
5-	نجار			15-	مصلح إلكترونيات		
6-	مزارع			16-	خياط		
7-	معدن			17-	بنشري		
8-	بناء			18-	لحام		
9-	مصور(فوتوغرافي)			19-	عامل نظافة		
10-	سمكري			20-	دهان		

13- هل أحد من أفراد أسرتك أو أقاربك يعمل في أي من المهن الصناعية التالية؟

1-	صناعة الغذاء والمشروبات		2-	صناعة النسيج و الملبوسات			
3-	صناعة الورق والمطبوعات		4-	صناعة الخشب والأثاث			
5-	الصناعات الكيميائية والبلاستيكية		6-	صناعة مواد البناء			
7-	صناعة الحديد والمعادن		8-	صناعة المعدات والآلات الثقيلة			
9-	النقل والتخزين		10-	لا أحد يعمل بهذه المهن			

14- ما هو نوع العمل المفضل بين أفراد أسرتك؟

1	2	3	4	5
العمل الزراعي	العمل المهني أو الصناعي	العمل العسكري	العمل ا لتجاري	عمل مدني (مكتبي)

15- أي من الأشياء التالية التي تعمل على مساعدة الأسرة بها داخل المنزل؟

1-	كهرباء		2-	سباكة			
3-	لحام		4-	نجارة			
5-	طبخ		6-	دهان			
7-	غسيل		8-	ديكور			
9-	خياطة		10-	لاشيء مما ذكر			

16- ما نوع العمالة التي تعمل معك أو مع أسرتك؟					
1-	عمالة زراعية		2-	عمالة مهنية	
3-	عمالة صناعية		4-	عمالة خدمات	
5-	عمالة مكتبية		6-	لا يوجد عمالة	

17- إذا كان لديك عمالة فهل هي عمالة :					
1- سعودية		2- غير سعودية		3- سعودية وغير سعودية	

18- ما هو العمل الذي تفضله لابنك؟					
1-	العمل المكتبي		2-	العمل المهني أو الصناعي	

19- ما هو نوع العمل الذي ترغب أن يلتحق به ابنك بعد هذه المرحلة؟

1	2	3	4	5
عسكري	صناعي	مهني	زراعي	أدبي
6	7	8	9	10
طبي	تجاري	تدريس	حسب رغبته	لا أعلم

20- ما هو أهم مصدر للمعلومات يمكنك الاعتماد عليه لمعرفة الفرص الوظيفية؟					
1-	الجهات التعليمية		2-	وسائل الأعلام	
3-	الأصدقاء والأقارب		4-	مكتب الخدمة المدنية	
5-	مكتب العمل والعمال		6-		

الجزء الثاني:

من فضلك اجب ب(*نعم* أو *لا*) على الأسئلة التالية :

الأسئـــــلة	الإجابات	
	نعم	لا
21. هل أحد من أفراد أسرتك لديه عمل مهني أو صناعي؟		
22. هل أحد من أفراد أسرتك ملتحق بأحد البرامج المهنية أو الصناعية؟		
23. هل أحد من أفراد أسرتك يعمل في ورشه مهنية أو صناعية خاصة به؟		
24. هل سبق أن قرأت أو سمعت عن البرامج المهنية أو الصناعية؟		
25. هل لديك رغبة في العمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
26. هل سبق أن تسلمت كتب أو منشورات تتعلق بالعمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
27. هل للإعلام دور كبير في توجيه المواطن السعودي للعمل المهني والصناعي؟		
28. هل سبق أن حاولت الالتحاق ببعض البرامج أو المدارس المهنية أو الصناعية؟		

29. هل نصحت أحد من أسرتك أن يلتحق بالعمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
30. هل ترى أن للمدرسة دور في توجيه أبنائك للعمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
31. هل تفضل العمل المكتبي اكثر من العمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
32. هل تشجع الأفراد الآخرين من أسرتك للالتحاق بالعمل المهني أو الصناعي؟		
33. هل كانت الحرف اليدوية مقبولة بين أفراد أسرتك في الماضي؟		
34. هل الحرف اليدوية مقبولة بين أفراد أسرتك في الوقت الحاضر؟		
35. هل ترى أن هناك اختلاف في الوضع الاجتماعي بين الحرف اليدوية في الماضي والعمل المهني في الوقت الحاضر ؟		
36. هل تفضل العمل بمرتب أعلى مع منزلة اجتماعية متدنية ؟		
37. هل تفضل لأبنك عمل بمرتب أعلى بعيدا عن الأسرة والأصدقاء؟		
38. هل لوسائل الإعلام دور مؤثر في توجيه الشباب للعمل المهني والصناعي؟		

الجزء الثالث:

فضلا أختر (إجابة واحدة) تعبر عن رأيك في الأوضاع التالية :

الاستجابات	موافق بشدة	موافق	ليس لي رأي	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
39. أفضل العمل في القطاعات المهنية أو الصناعية.					
40. المجتمع يمنح قيمة اجتماعية كبيرة للعمل المهني والصناعي.					
41. أفضل العمل في القطاع المهني أو الصناعي على أن يكون العمل 42. ذا منزلة اجتماعية أعلى.					
42. هناك بعض المهن الصناعية والمهنية لا تعجبني.					
43. ليس هناك فرق بين القيمة الاجتماعية للعمل المهني والصناعي وبين القيمة الاجتماعية للأعمال الأخرى.					
44. توفر العمالة غير السعودية يخلق نوع من الاتكالية على هذه العمالة في العمل المهني والصناعي.					
45. يفضل أن تحل العمالة السعودية محل العمالة الأجنبية.					
46. العمالة السعودية غير مؤهلة للعمل المهني والصناعي.					
47. يفضل وضع إجراءات اكثر صرامة للحد من استقدام العمالة الأجنبية.					
48. الأمن الوظيفي يحد من تقبل العمل في القطاع المهني الصناعي .					
49. مهن مثل- النجارة، الجزارة، الحلاقة، الحدادة - غير مقبولة عندي.					
50. أفضل العمل مع السعوديين على العمل مع غيرهم.					
51. ميزة العمل الآمن اكثر أهمية عندي من مميزات العمل الأخرى.					

الاستجابات	موافق بشدة	موافق	ليس لي رأي	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
52. لا يهمني العمل تحت إشراف إدارة غير سعودية.					
53. إذا عمل أحد أبنائي في القطاع المهني أو الصناعي فان ذلك سيكون مؤقتا.					
54. أشجع أسرتي على لالتحاق بالعمل في أي منطقة من مناطق المملكة.					
55. القطاع الخاص (الصناعي والمهني) يضع سياسات وإجراءات تحد من عملية السعودة.					
56. من السهل الالتحاق بعمل بالقطاع المهني أو الصناعي.					
57. قبول العمل المهني أو الصناعي يفقد الأسرة منزلتها الاجتماعية.					
58. العمل المهني والصناعي يحظى بمنزلة اجتماعية أدنى.					
59. يصعب على الكثير من المتدربين - مهنيا وصناعيا - أن يجدوا فرص عمل مناسبة في القطاع الصناعي والمهني.					
60. العمل المحترم اكثر أهمية للأسرة والأصدقاء اكثر من العمل ذو الدخل المرتفع .					
61. الأعمال المهنية والصناعية اكثر ملائمة لذوي القدرة و الدافعية الأقل.					
62. المجتمع يضع أهمية أكبر للعمل المحترم أكثر من دخل ذلك العمل.					
63. اعمل على تشجيع البعض من أسرتي و أقاربي للالتحاق بالعمل المهني أو الصناعي.					
64. أفضل لأبنائي عمل افضل من عملي .					
65. سأكون فخور إذا اتبع أبنائي نفس مهنتي.					
66. العمل في الوظائف الحكومية (الأعمال المكتبية) أفضل من العمل في القطاع الخاص (صناعي أو مهني).					
67. العمل في الوظائف الحكومية (مهني أو صناعي) أفضل من العمل في القطاع الخاص (مهني أو صناعي).					
68. التعليم المهني والصناعي أقل قيمة من التعليم العام.					
69. الأعمال المهنية والصناعية تمثل قيمة حقيقية للمجتمع المتحضر.					
70. الأعمال المهنية أصبحت ذات أهمية رئيسية في حياتنا.					
71. الإيجابيات أكثر من السلبيات في مجال العمل المهني والصناعي.					
72. لا يستطيع أحد أن يحتفظ بمستوى معيشي مقبول عندما يعمل في القطاع المهني أو الصناعي.					
73. الأقل ذكاء هو فقط الذي يرضى بالعمل المهني أو الصناعي.					
74. ذو المكانة الاجتماعية المنخفضة أكثر قبولا للعمل المهني والصناعي.					
75. ليس من الضروري العمل في القطاع المهني والصناعي عندما يوجد فرص وظيفية أفضل.					
76. العمل المهني والصناعي يجعل صاحبه ذو قيمة كبيرة مقارنة بالأعمال الأخرى.					

الاستجابات	موافق بشدة	موافق	ليس لي رأي	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
77. هناك الكثير من المهن تعتبر أفضل من الأعمال المهنية والصناعية.					
78. إذا كان مرتب العمل المهني أو الصناعي أكبر من مرتب العمل المكتبي ، يفضل العمل المهني أو الصناعي.					
79. الأعمال المهنية والصناعية مهمة جدا لمجتمعنا لاستكمال نموه وتطوره.					
80. مجتمعنا بحاجة إلى الكثير من الثروة البشرية المدربة مهنيا وصناعيا.					
81. الحصول على شهادة الدبلوم المهني أو الصناعي يحد من قبول الطلبة لمستوى تعليمي أعلى.					
82. الكثير من العمال المهنيين لا يرغبون تعليم مهنهم لأبنائهم.					
83. العمل المهني والصناعي يمنح صاحبه منزلة اجتماعية أكبر مما يمنحه العمل المكتبي.					
84. على الأبناء استشارة آبائهم قبل اختيار العمل أو المهنة .					
85. الإعلام أهم وسيلة لتوجيه الشباب للعمل المهني والصناعي.					
86. المجتمع يعطي اهتمام أكبر بالمرتب بغض النظر عن نوع المهنة.					
87. الفتاه المتعلمة لا ترغب أن تتزوج من العامل المهني أو الصناعي .					
88. ليس هناك اختلاف في القيم الاجتماعية بين العمل المكتبي والعمل المهني أو الصناعي.					
89. هناك إدراك بأهمية العمل المهني والصناعي في الوقت الحاضر.					
90. العمل المكتبي سيكون أقل أهمية في المستقبل القريب.					
91. العمل المهني والصناعي أصبح أكثر قبولا في مجتمعنا .					
92. العمل المهني والصناعي لا يزال من الأعمال المحتقرة اجتماعيا.					
93. ليس لدي فكرة واضحة عن المستقبل في العمل المهني والصناعي.					
94. لا يوجد هناك فرص وظيفية كافية في القطاع المهني والصناعي.					
95. الأمن الوظيفي السبب الأكثر أهمية للانخراط في العمل الحكومي اكثر من القطاع الخاص (المهني والصناعي).					
96. العمل المهني ذو الدخل المرتفع في المناطق الريفية أفضل من العمل ذو الدخل المنخفض في المدينة.					
97. العمل المهني والصناعي غير مرغوب قبليا.					
98. العمل المهني والصناعي غير مرغوب اسريا.					
99. العمل المهني والصناعي غير مرغوب اجتماعيا.					
100. أفضل التفكير في الشهادة ثم العمل بعد ذلك .					
101. أفضل التفكير في العمل ثم في الشهادة بعد ذلك.					

الجزء الرابع:

102- فضلا ضع علامة " " أمام الكلمة التي تراها مناسبة لوصف العمل المهني والصناعي.

العمل المهني والصناعي			
1	سهل		صعب
2	نظيف		غير نظيف
3	معتبر		غير معتبر
4	ناجح		قاصر
5	محترم		غير محترم
6	آمن		غير آمن
7	ملائم		غير ملائم
8	دخل مرتفع		دخل منخفض
9	يوجد فرص للترقي		لا يوجد فرص للترقي
10	دراسة محدودة		غير محدودة
11	وقت العمل طويل		وقت العمل قصير
12	هادئ		صاخب
13	غير خطر		خطر
14	سمعة حسنة		سمعة غير حسنة
15	مستقبل غير محدود		مستقبل محدود
16	قريب من مكان الإقامة		بعيد عن مكان الإقامة

103- في رأيك ، أي من العوامل التالية أو الاجرآت التي يمكن أن تجذب المواطن السعودي إلى المجالات المهنية والصناعية؟

رقم	عوامل مساعدة		رقم	عوامل مساعدة	
1	العمل على زيادة الإدراك بقيمة العمل المهني والصناعي.		2	الحد من استقدام العمالة الأجنبية.	
3	زيادة المكافآت والمنح للطلبة الملتحقين بالتعليم المهني أو الصناعي.		4	تشجيع وتوجيه الطلبة للتعليم المهني والصناعي والحد من القبول في التعليم الجامعي.	
5	تنمية دور الجامعات في المجالات التقنية والصناعية .		6	وضع حد أدنى للمرتبات في القطاعات المهنية والصناعية.	
7	فتح كليات تقنية وصناعية (غير مركزية) بمستوى يعادل الكليات الجامعية .		8	خلق علاقات قوية بين التعليم المهني والصناعي وبين التعليم العام .	
9	زيادة الرسوم على استقدام العمالة الأجنبية .		10	فضلا؛ إذا كان لديك عوامل أخرى اكتبها أدناه	
11	.....				
12	.....				

104- فضلا ؛ نود منك إذا أمكن أن تكتب بكلماتك - في الفراغ أدناه - على الأقل ثلاثة معوقات التي ترى إنها تحد من قبول المواطن السعودي العمل في القطاعات المهنية والصناعية:

1- .....

2- .....

3- .....

4- .....

105- من فضلك تعين مهنة أو مهنتين أو ثلاث مهن التي تفضل أو كنت تفضل أن تعملها على أن يكون ذلك بالترتيب حسب الأهمية :

1-	2-	3- .....

106- هل لديك أي تعليقات أو أفكار ترغب أن تضيفها فيما يتعلق بموضوع هذا الاستبيان:

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.....

.....

.....

.....

شـــكـــرا عـلـى حـســن تـعـاونـكـــم

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APPENDIX----------C

THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

(ENGLISH & ARABIC)

Interview Schedule of some individuals concerning of Industrial and Vocational work in Saudi Society (Asir Province)

Hypothesis	Strongly Agree	Agree	No opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Explain / Way?
1- Saudi society places a high value on industrial and vocational work.						
2- There is a relationship between social status and choice of industrial and vocational work.						
3-There is a difference between Saudi youth and fathers in perceptions of V&I work.						
4-Manual labour is socially disdained and office work socially esteemed among Saudi nationals.						
5-Saudi nationals are motivated more by the prestige of an occupation than financial gain, in making career choice.						
6-There is a relationship between kind of the family' occupation and involvement in V&I sectors.						
7-Saudi nationals prefer to work in the government V&I sectors rather than the private V&I sectors.						

Hypothesis	Strongly Agree	Agree	No opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Explain / Way?
8-Saudi nationals are aware of the importance of V&I work at the present time.						
9-There is a relationship between the traditional view of work in Saudi society and acceptance of work in V&I sectors.						
10-Saudi nationals whose cultural backgrounds are tribal have less favourable attitudes towards V&I work						
11-There is a relationship between education level of the family and involvement in V&I sectors.						
12-There is a relationship between the type of education and occupation which Saudi families' desire for their children and involvement in V&I sectors						
13-There is a negative relationship between a background in manual work and involvement in V&I work.						
14-Saudi youth prefer general education to V&I education						

Hypothesis	Strongly Agree	Agree	No opinion	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Explain / Way?
15-The mass media have a big role in helping to increase Saudis' awareness of the value of V&I work						
16-Saudi nationals prefer working with other Saudis, rather than people of other nationalities.						
17- The economic level of the Saudi family impacts on Saudi nationals' involvement in V&I sectors						
18-There is a relationship between salaries in the private sector (V&I) and Saudi nationals' involvement in these sectors						
19-There is a relationship between foreign labour presence and Saudi nationals' involvement in V&I sectors.						
20-Saudi youth have a clear idea about the future jobs available for them in V&I sectors.						

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

أستاذي العزيز

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته وبعد :

استبيان المقابلة الذي بين يديك يتعلق ببحث"بعض العوامل الاجتماعية والاقتصادية التي تحد من تقبل المـواطن السعودي للعمل في القطاع المهني والصناعي" وذلك لنيل درجة الدكتوراه – من جامعة (هل) المملكة المتحدة - تحت إشراف جامعة الملك عبد العزيز .

ولتحقيق هذا الهدف ، سأكون ممتنا لك إذا ضحيت بشي من وقتك الثمين لملء هـذا الاستبيان. مصداقيتك واستكمالك لكافة الإجابات عنصر أساسي لنجاح هذا الموضوع وسيكون موضع تقدير كبير. فضلا .. أود أن تعلم بأن ليس هناك إجابات صحيحة أو خـاطئة ؛ فقط رأيك الصادق الـذي نحتاج إليه ؛ إضافة إلى ذلك قد تجد بعض التشابه بين بعض التساؤلات أو الاستجابات ، كل هذه الحالات في الواقع مختلفة، لذلك نرجو إجابتها جميعا .

كل إجاباتك ستكون في سرية تامة ولن تستخدم سوى لأغراض هذا البحث الذي سيتعامل مع هذه الإجابات كنتائج إحصائية كلية دون الرجوع إلى الاستجابات الفردية .

وأخيرا .. أرجو يا أستاذي العزيز .. ألا تخيب أملي في انتظار استجابتكم ومساهمتكم معنا في إنجاز ما يخدم البحث العلمي وأهدافه.. وانتم خير من يدرك ذلك.. لما فيه من مصلحة تعود على الجميع ..

والله يحفظكم،،،

الباحث

مشبب غرامة حسن الأسمري

جامعة الملك عبد العزيز

قسم الاجتماع

أستاذي العزيز .. نرجو الملاحظة .. بان المطلوب هو :

1- وضع علامة " " في المربع المناسب أمام كل تساءل سواء كانت الإجابة (موافق ، موفق بشدة ، ليس لي رأي ... الخ).
2- من المهم جدا التعليق على كل إجابة حتى نتمكن من معرفة وجهة نضركم أمام كل تساءل من التساؤلات المطلوبة .. مع الرغبة في التعليق على الموضوع بشكل عام وعلى التساؤلات بشكل خاص على ظهر الاستبيان إذا أمكنكم ذلك.
3- إذا كان لديكم حلول ومقترحات تتعلق بهذا الموضوع نكون شاكرين لكم إضافتها على الوجه الآخر من الاستبيان.
4- نرجو التكرم بتعبئة الاستبيان المطلوب إضافة إلى تزويدنا بأي معلومات وإحصاءات تتعلق بهذا الموضوع سواء باللغة العربية أو الإنجليزية .
5- نرجو التكرم بإعادة الاستبيان وما يمكن إرفاقه من معلومات قبل تاريخ 25 /10 /1419 حتى يمكن الاستفادة منها - وذلك على العنوان التالي : مشبب غرامة الأسمري – بالسمر – الاثنين بالسمر - ص ب 26 . ت : 055762093

(استبيان مقابلة مع بعض المهتمين بالعمل المهني والصناعي في المجتمع العربي والسعود- منطقة عسير)

الاستجابات	موافق بشدة	موافق	ليس لي رأي	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة	تعليقات
1. المجتمع السعودي يمنح العمل المهني والصناعي قيمة اجتماعية كبيرة .						
2. هناك علاقة بين المنزلة الاجتماعية والانخراط في المجالات المهنية والصناعية .						
3. ليس هناك اختلاف بين الآباء ولأبناء في نظرتهم للعمل المهني والصناعي.						
4. العمل اليدوي غير مرغوب اجتماعيا بعكس العمل المكتبي .						
5. يهتم المواطن السعودي بالوجاهة الوظيفية أكثر من الكسب المادي عند اختيار المهنة .						
6. هناك علاقة بين نوعية المهن الأسرية وبين الالتحاق بالمجالات المهنية والصناعية .						

7. المواطن السعودي يفضل العمل في المجال المهني والصناعي (الحكومي) أكثر من المجال المهني والصناعي (الخاص).						
8. المواطن السعودي مدرك لأهمية العمل المهني والصناعي في الوقت الحاضر .						
9. هناك علاقة بين النظرة التقليدية السلبية للعمل المهني وبين تقبل الأعمال المهنية والصناعية في الوقت الحاضر.						
10. المواطن السعودي الأكثر تمسكا بقبليته اقل توجها للعمل المهني والصناعي .						
11. هناك علاقة بين المستوى التعليمي الأسري وبين نسبة الإقبال على العمل المهني والصناعي .						
12. هناك علاقة بين نوعية التعليم والمهنة التي ترغبها الأسرة للابن وبين الالتحاق بالعمل المهني والصناعي.						
13. هناك علاقة سلبية بين من كان لديه أعمال يدوية في الماضي وبين تقبل العمل المهني والصناعي في الوقت الحاضر.						

14. الشباب السعودي يفضل التعليم العام على التعليم المهني والصناعي.						
15. وسائل الإعلام لها دور كبير في زيادة الإدراك بقيمة العمل المهني والصناعي.						
16. المواطن السعودي يفضل العمل مع السعوديين أكثر من العمل مع الجنسيات أخرى.						
17. المستوى الاقتصادي للمواطن السعودي له اثر كبير في مدى تقبله للعمل في المجالات المهنية والصناعية.						
18. هناك علاقة سلبية بين مستوى الدخل في القطاع الخاص- مهني وصناعي - وبين انخراط المواطن السعودي في هذه المجالات.						
19. توفر العمالة غير السعودية له اثر كبير في انخفاض نسبة التحاق المواطنين السعوديين بالمجالات المهنية والصناعية.						
20. الشباب السعودي ليس لديه فكرة واضحة عن مستقبله في المجالات المهنية والصناعية .						

APPENDIX----------D

TABLES

RELATED TO THE STUDY SAMPLE

Achieved Sample by School and Region.

No	School	Region	The Secondary School Third Year								Total		Sample (10%)	
			Religion & Language		Social Science		Science		Technical					
			Class	*Student*	*Class*	*Student*	*Class*	*Student*	*Class*	*Student*	*Class*	*Student*	*Students*	*Fathers*
01	Abha First S. School	Abha	3	95	1	8	2	63			6	166	16	16
02	Honain	=	-	-	-	-	2	51	-	-	2	51		
03	Alfath	=	2	67			3	107	-	-	5	174	17	17
04	Alfahad	=	2	95	1	12	3	101	1	16	7	224	21	21
05	Alnamothajee'ah	=	-	-	-	-	1	34	-	-	1	34		
06	Al Serhan	Al Serhan	1	46	-	-	1	28	-	-	2	74		
07	Kood	Al Nwihed	2	63	-	-	1	33	-	-	3	96	10	10
08	Balat Al Shohada	Al Jomah	-	-	-	-	1	29	-	-	1	29		
09	Lajwan	Al Delhem	1	37	-	-	1	30	-	-	2	67		
10	Alfowaz	Ahad Rofidah	2	48	-	-	2	47	-	-	4	95	10	10
11	Bahat Rabe'ah	Bahat Rabe'ah	1	43	-	-	1	30	-	-	2	73	7	7
12	Ohod	Alheemah	-	-	-	-	2	26	-	-	2	26		
13	Ballasmar	Ballasmar	3	79	-	-	1	19	-	-	4	98	9	9
14	Bani Jaberah	Bani Jaberah	2	78	-	-	1	26	-	-	3	104	10	10
15	Tendahah	Tendahah	1	38	-	-	1	26	-	-	2	64	6	6
16	Khamees Moshait	Al Khamees	1	41	1	28	3	99	-	-	5	168	16	16
17	Alsadeeg	=	2	101	1	26	3	135	-	-	6	262	25	25
18	Al faisal	=	3	95	1	11	3	89	-	-	7	195	18	18
19	King Khaled	=	3	108	-	-	4	150	-	-	7	258	24	24
20	That Alsawari	=	2	52	-	-	2	57	-	-	4	109	10	10

21	Alshalfa	Alshalfa	1	30	-	-	1	27	-	-	4	57		
22	Sabah	Sabah	-	-	-	-	1	32	-	-	1	32	3	3
23	Safwan	Safwan	2	47	-	-	2	49	-	-	4	96		
24	Tabab	Tabab	-	-	-	-	1	20	-	-	1	20		
25	Almaween	Almaween	1	28	-	-	2	31	-	-	3	59	6	6
26	Madinat Soltan	Madinat Soltan	1	18	-	-	1	19	-	-	2	37		
27	Albihagi	AlHareer	1	31	-	-	2	62	-	-	3	93		
28	Ben Hashbal	Wadi Ben Hashbal	2	60	-	-	1	35	-	-	2	95	9	9
29	Alfara'een	Wadi Alfar'een	1	24	-	-	2	38	-	-	3	62		
30	Alwadi'een	Alwadi'een	2	71	-	-	2	54	-	-	4	125	12	12
31	Ya'ra	Ya'ra	-	-	-	-	1	31	-	-	1	31		
32	Tahfeed Al Kora'n	Abha	2	29	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	29		
33	Sa'ad Ben Obadah	Behan	-	-	-	-	1	31	-	-	1	31	3	3
34	Albra'a Ben Malik	Alhafair	-	-	-	-	1	16	-	-	1	16		
35	Soheel Ben Amro	Alsoga	-	-	-	-	1	28	-	-	1	28		
36	Alargm	AlKhamees	1	28	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	28		
37	Abdullah Ben Abdulaziz	Abha	1	32	-	-	2	43	-	-	3	75		
38	Almasa'aiah	Abha	2	92	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	92		
39	Jobeer Ben Motem	Alronah	1	28	-	-	2	56	-	-	3	84	8	8
Total			49	1604	5	85	61	1752	1	16	117	3457	-	-
Total of the Sample Population			35	1190	5	85	39	1221	1	16	80	2512		
The Study Sample			114 (47.3%)		8 (3.3%)		116 (48.3%)		2 (1%)		-	-	240	240
Return Responds			-		-		-		-		-	-	223 (92%)	216 (89%)
The Study Final Sample			-		-		-		-		-	-	200	200

لإدارة العامة للتعليم بمنطقة عسير – قسم الإحصاء التربوي { بيان بالمدارس والفصول والطلاب للمرحلة الثانوية – الصف الثالث الثانوي – لجميع التخصصات } . خلاصة : للفصل الاول من السنة الدراسية لعام 1419

الرقم	اسم المدرسة	المكان	القطاع	الصف الثالث الثانوي										المجموع		العينة	ملاحظات
				شرعية و عربية		إدارية واجتماعية		طبيعية		تقنية							
				ط	ف	ط	ف	ط	ف	ط	ف			ط	ف		
1.	ثانوية أبها الأولى	أبها	أبها	95	3	8	1	63	2	-	-			166	6	13	
2.	= أنس بن مالك	=	=	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			-	-	-	
3.	= حنين	=	=	-	-	-	-	51	2	-	-			51	-	-	
4.	= الفتح	=	=	67	2	-	-	107	3	-	-			174	5	14	
5.	= الفهد	=	=	95	2	12	1	101	3	16	1			224	7	18	
6.	= النموذجية	=	=	-	-	-	-	34	1	-	-			34	1		
7.	= آل سرحان	آل سرحان	=	46	1	-	-	28	1	-	-			74	2		
8.	= كود	آل نوبهض	=	63	2	-	-	33	1	-	-			96	3	8	
9.	= بلاط الشهداء	آل جمعة	=	-	-	-	-	29	1	-	-			29	1		
10.	= لجوان	آل دلهم	=	37	1	-	-	30	1	-	-			67	2		
11.	= الفواز	أحد رفيدة	أحد رفيدة	48	2	-	-	47	2	-	-			95	4	8	
12.	= باحة ربيعة	باحة ربيعة	أبها	43	1	-	-	30	1	-	-			73	2	6	
13.	= أحد	الحيمة	بللحمر	-	-	-	-	26	2	-	-			26	2	-	
14.	= بللسمر	بللسمر	بللسمر	79	3	-	-	19	1	-	-			98	4	8	
15.	= بني جابرة	بني جابرة	؟	78	2	-	-	26	1	-	-			104	3	8	
16.	= تندحه	تندحة	تندحة	38	1	-	-	26	1	-	-			64	2	5	
17.	= خميس مشيط	الخميس	الخميس	41	1	28	1	99	3	-	-			168	5	13	
18.	= الصديق	=	=	101	2	26	1	135	3	-	-			262	6	21	
19.	= الفيصل	=	=	95	3	11	1	89	3	-	-			195	7	16	
20.	= الملك خالد	=	=	108	3	-	-	150	4	-	-			258	7	21	
21.	= ذات الصواري	=	=	52	2	-	-	57	2	-	-			109	4	9	
22.	= الشلفاء	الشلفاء	أبها	30	1	-	-	27	1	-	-			57	4		
23.	= صبح	صبح	بللحمر	-	-	-	-	32	1	-	-			32	1	3	
24.	= صفوان	صفوان	الخميس	47	2	-	-	49	2	-	-			96	4		

.25	= طبب	طبب	أبها	-	-	-	1	20	-	-	1	20		
.26	= عبل	عبل	بللحمر	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
.27	= الماوين	الماوين	=	28	1	-	2	31	-	-	3	59	5	
.28	= مدينة سلطان	م سلطان	؟	18	1	-	1	19	-	-	2	37		
.29	= البيهقي	الهرير	؟	31	1	-	2	62	-	-	3	93		
.30	= و ب هشبل	وادي بن هشبل	وادي بن هشبل	60	2	-	1	35	-	-	3	95	8	
.31	= الفرعين	وادي الفرعين	قحطان	24	1	-	2	38	-	-	3	62		
.32	= الواديين	الواديين	قحطان	71	2	-	2	54	-	-	4	125	10	
.33	= يعرا	يعرا	يعرا	-	-	-	1	31	-	-	3	31		
.34	= ت ق الكريم	أبها	أبها	29	2	-	-	-	-	-	2	29		
.35	= سعد بن عبادة	بيحان	بللحمر	-	-	-	1	32	-	-	1	32	3	
.36	= البراء بن مالك	الحفاير	الحفاير	-	-	-	1	16	-	-	1	16		
.37	= سهيل بن عمرو	السقا	أبها	-	-	-	1	28	-	-	1	28		
.38	= الارقم (ت ق ك)	الخميس	الخميس	28	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	28		
.39	= عبدالله بن عبدالعزيز	أبها	أبها	32	1	-	2	43	-	-	3	75		
.40	= المسانية	؟	أبها	92	2	-	-	-	-	-	2	92		
.41	= جبير ابن مطعم	الرونة	الخميس	28	1	-	2	56	-	-	3	84	7	
.42	= عمورية	تهامة	تهامة	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
.43	= ام القرى	الشعف	الشعف	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
.44	= الفرقان	تهامة	مربة	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
.45	= طيبة	؟	؟	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
.46	= المعتصم	أبها	أبها	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
.47	= ثوبان	تهامة	تهامة	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
.48	= صقلية	؟	؟	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
.49	= مجاهد	الجهيفة	تهامة	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
.50	= غرناطة	؟	؟	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
.51	= أبو داؤود	بهوان	بللحمر	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
المجموع				1604	49	85	61	1753	5	16	116	3458	204	%8

APPENDIX----------E

STATISTICAL TESTS

	Social Factors				
1-	Society gives a big value to I&V work.	S			41
2-	There is no deference between the social value of I&V and the social value of the other kids of work	S			42
3-	I prefer work in Vocational and vocational sectors.	S	D=P2[1]		43
4-	I would be willing to work in I &V sectors but only in a high status job.	S			44
5-	My family strongly disapproves of some types of occupation.	S			45
6-	Occupations such as carpenter, smith, butcher, tanner, are not acceptable to me.	S			51
7-	The family encourages its members to work in any area in Saudi Arabia.	S			56
8-	Accepting I&V work would loser my social value.	S			59
9-	Industrial and vocational occupations have low prestige in society.	S			60
10-	Social status of the Job more importance to the family and friends than the job with high salary.	S			62
11-	People place more importance on respect for a job than pay for it.	S			64
12-	I would encourage some of my relatives to have industrial and vocational careers.	S			65
13-	I should try to find a better job than my father.	S			66
14-	I should be proud to follow the same job as my father.	S			67
15-	Who has a law social status more acceptance of I&V work.	S			76
16-	Industrial and Vocational work give person a big value more than other works.	S			78
17-	Vocational and industrial work gives more social status than clerical work.	S			85
18-	Sons should consult their parents before choosing a job or vocation.	S			86
19-	There is no difference in the social status between clerical work and I&V work.	S			90
20-	Clerical work will be less important in the near future.	S			92
21-	Industrial and vocational work is beginning to be more acceptable in our society.	S			93
22-	Industrial and vocational work is still socially despised.	S			94
23-	Industrial and Vocational work undesirable tribally.	S			99
24-	Industrial and Vocational work undesirable familial.	S			100
25-	Industrial and Vocational work undesirable socially.	S			101
	Cultural Factors				
26-	Saudi workers unqualified to work in I&V sectors.	C			48
27-	Work with Saudis better than work with foreign workers.	C			52
28-	I wouldn't mind working under non-Saudi supervisors.	C			54
29-	Industrial and vocational jobs are basically for those of low ability and low school achievement.	C			63
30-	Vocational industrial education has less prestige than general education.	C			70
31-	Vocational industrial occupations represent a real value to modern society.	C			71
32-	Vocational industrial occupations are necessary for society.	C			72
33-	Only a less intelligent person could be satisfied with vocational industrial work.	C	D=63		75

[1] Some items were deleted since they were same as some other items.

34-	No one should work in industrial and vocational work when so many other jobs are better.	C			77
35-	There are many occupations are better than the industrial and vocational occupations.	C			79
36-	Vocational & industrial occupations are very important to our country to continue its progress in technical areas.	C			81
37-	Our country needs more vocational industrial skilled manpower.	C			82
38-	Taking the vocational or industrial diploma hinders students from further higher education.	C			83
39-	Many vocational workers do not desire to teach their sons their vocations.	C			84
40-	Saudi mass media play a big role to educate youth about I &V work.	C	D		87
41-	An educated girl does not desire to marry an industrial or vocational worker.	C	D		89
42-	There is awareness of the importance of industrial and vocational in the present time.	C	D		91
43-	I always think about the certificate, then the work.	C			102
44-	I always think about work, then the certificate.	C	D=102		103
	Economic Factors				
45-	Availability of foreign workers created kin of dependence on these workers in I&V sectors.	E			46
46-	Saudis should replace all foreign workers	E			47
47-	The government should impose more restrictions on importing foreign workers.	E			49
48-	The Job security limit of acceptance of I&V work.	E	D=97		50
49-	The Job security more important than other incentives.	E	D=97		53
50-	If I took a job in the industrial or vocational sectors it would be only temporary.	E			55
51-	The private sector (industrial & vocational) hiring policies can be seen as an obstacle to Saudization.	E			57
52-	It is easy to get a job in the industrial and vocational sector.	E			58
53-	It is difficult for people to find a job appropriate to their training in the industrial and vocational sectors.	E			61
54-	The work in government jobs (disk jobs) better than work in private jobs (I & V).	E			68
55-	The work in government jobs (I&V) better than work in private jobs (I & V).	E			69
56-	There are economic advantages more than disadvantages in industrial and vocational occupations.	E			73
57-	One cannot keep up a decent standard of living in vocational and industrial occupation.	E			74
58-	If the salary for I&V work were higher than for clerical work, I would choose vocational-industrial work.	E			80
59-	People give more consideration to salary irrespective of the kind of vocation.	E			88
60-	There is no clear idea about the future of industrial and vocational work.	E			95
61-	There are not enough job opportunities in industrial and vocational sectors.	E			96
62-	Job security is a very important reason for involvement in the general sector rather than the private V&I sectors.	E			97
63-	A high paying vocational job in a rural area is better than low paying job in the city.	E			98
	Social Factors				
	1. The social view of industrial and vocational work.				
1-	Society gives a big value to I&V work.	S			41
2-	There is no deference between the social value of I&V and the social value of the other kinds of work	S			42

3-	Occupations such as carpenter, smith, butcher, tanner, are not acceptable socially.	S				51
4-	Who has a law social status more acceptances of I&V work.	S				76
5-	Industrial and Vocational work give person a big value more than other works.	S				78
6-	Industrial and vocational work is beginning to be more acceptable in our society.	S				93
7-	Industrial and vocational work is still socially despised.	S				94
2. The social status of work and choice of I&V.						
8-	I would be willing to work in I &V sectors but only in a high status job.	S				44
9-	Accepting I&V work would loser my social value.	S				59
10-	Industrial and vocational occupations have low prestige in society.	S				60
11-	Social status of the Job more importance to the family and friends than the job with high salary.	S				62
12-	People place more importance on respect for a job than pay for it.	S				64
3. The society gives social value of the clerical work more than I&V.						
13-	Vocational and industrial work gives more social status than clerical work.	S				85
14-	There is no difference in the social status between clerical work and I&V work.	S				90
15-	Clerical work will be less important in the near future.	S				92
4. The family occupation orientations and acceptance of I&V.						
16-	My family strongly disapproves of some types of occupation.	S				45
17-	The family encourages its members to work in any area in Saudi Arabia.	S				56
18-	I would encourage some of my relatives to have industrial and vocational careers.	S				65
19-	I should try to find a better job than my father.	S				66
20-	I should be proud to follow the same job as my father.	S				67
21-	Sons should consult their parents before choosing a job or vocation.	S				86
5. The more influence on the Saudi national to acceptance I&V; his family, his tribe, or his society in general.						
22-	Industrial and Vocational work undesirable tribally.	S				99
23-	Industrial and Vocational work undesirable familial.	S				100
24-	Industrial and Vocational work undesirable socially.	S				101
Cultural Factors						
1. Awareness of important of I&V work.						
25-	Vocational industrial occupations represent a real value to modern society.	C				71
26-	Vocational industrial occupations are necessary for society.	C				72
27-	No one should work in industrial and vocational work when so many other jobs are available.	C				77
28-	There are many occupations are better than the industrial and vocational occupations.	C				79
29-	Vocational & industrial occupations are very important to our country to continue its progress in technical areas.	C				81
30-	Our country needs more vocational industrial skilled manpower.	C				82
2. Preference of general education to I&V education.						
31-	Industrial and vocational jobs are basically for those of low ability and low school achievement.	C				63
32-	Vocational industrial education has less prestige than general education.	C				70

33- Taking the vocational or industrial diploma hinders students from further higher education.	C				83
34- Many vocational workers do not desire to teach their sons their vocations.	C				84
35- I always think about the certificate, then the work.	C				102
36- Saudi nationals unqualified to work in I&V sectors.	C				48
3. Preference of work with Saudis rather than other nationalities.					
37- Work with Saudis better than work with foreign workers.	C				52
38- I wouldn't mind working under non-Saudi supervisors.	C				54
Economic Factors					
1. Impact of foreign labour presence on Saudi nationals' involvement in I&V.					
39- Availability of foreign workers created kin of dependence on these workers in I&V sectors.	E				46
40- Saudis should replace all foreign workers	E				47
41- The government should impose more restrictions on importing foreign workers.	E				49
2. Preference of work in the government I&V rather than the private I&V sectors.					
42- If I took a job in the industrial or vocational sectors it would be only temporary.	E				55
43- The work in government jobs (disk jobs) better than work in the private sector (disk jobs).	E				68
44- The work in government jobs (I&V) better than work in private jobs (I & V).	E				69
45- Job security is a very important reason for involvement in the general sector rather than the private V&I sectors.	E				97
3. The future jobs available in industrial and vocational sectors.					
46- There is no clear idea about the future of industrial and vocational work.	E				95
47- The private sector (industrial & vocational) hiring policies can be seen as an obstacle to Saudization.	E				57
48- It is easy to get a job in the industrial and vocational sector.	E				58
49- It is difficult for people to find a job appropriate to their training in the industrial and vocational sectors.	E				61
50- There are not enough job opportunities in industrial and vocational sectors.	E				96
4. Income level in the private sector (I&V).					
51- There are economic advantages more than disadvantages in industrial and vocational occupations.	E				73
52- One cannot keep up a decent standard of living in vocational and industrial occupation.	E				74
53- If the salary for I&V work were higher than for clerical work, I would choose vocational-industrial work.	E				80
54- People give more consideration to salary irrespective of the kind of vocation.	E				88
55- A high paying vocational job in a rural area is better than low paying clerical job in the city.	E				98

APPENDIX----------F

CORRESPONDENCE

KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA
Ministry of Higher Education
KING ABDULAZIZ UNIVERSITY
Faculty of Arts and Humanities

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعة الملك عبد العزيز
كلية الآداب والعلوم الانسانية

Ref. : ———————
Date : ———————
Encl. : ———————

مكتب العميد

الرقم : ٥٦٨٦/١/د ع
التاريخ : ١٤/٧/١٤٢٩
المرفقات : ———————

سعادة مدير عام التعليم بمنطقة عسير حفظه الله

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،،،

انطلاقا من مبدأ التعاون بين قطاعات الدولة المختلفة وتأكيدا لسياسة الدولة في دعم حركة البحث العلمي نفيد سعادتكم بأن مبتعث قسم الاجتماع السيد/ مشبب بن غرامة الاسمري يقوم الآن برحلة علمية لجمع المعلومات والإحصاءات اللازمة لبحثه لرسالة الدكتوراه بعنوان" العوامل الاجتماعية والاقتصادية التي تحد من تقبل العمل المهني والصناعي في المجتمع العربي السعودي ".

نأمل من سعادتكم التكرم بتسهيل مهمته والتنسيق مع الجهات التابعة لكم لمده بالمعلومات اللازمة .

شاكرين ومقدرين لسعادتكم حسن وكريم تعاونكم.

عميد كلية الآداب والعلوم الإنسانية

د. إسماعيل بن خليل كتبخانة

ص.ب ٩٠٣٢ جدة ٢١٤١٣ برقياً : جامعة عبدالعزيز تلكس ٦٠١١٤١ كايوني اس جيه ☎ : ٦٩٥٢٩٣٠ فاكس : ٦٤٠١٠٤٣
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المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعة الملك عبد العزيز
كلية الآداب والعلوم الانسانية

Ref. : _____
Date : _____
Encl. : _____

مكتب العميد

الرقم : ٩٦٨/١٨٥٩ ص
التاريخ : ١٤٢٩/٧/١٤هـ
المرفقات : _____

سعادة رئيس الغرفة التجارية الصناعية بمنطقة عسير حفظه الله

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،،،

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شاكرين ومقدرين لسعادتكم حسن وكريم تعاونكم.

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مكتب العميد

الرقم : ع د/١٨٧٠/١٤٩١هـ
التاريخ : ١٤/٧/١٤٩١م
المرفقات : ———————

إلى من يهمه الأمر

انطلاقا من مبدأ التعاون بين قطاعات الدولة المختلفة وتأكيدا لسياسة الدولة في دعم حركة البحث العلمي نفيد سعادتكم بأن مبتعث قسم الاجتماع السيد/ مشبب بن غرامة الاسمري يقوم الآن برحلة علمية لجمع المعلومات والإحصاءات اللازمة لبحثه لرسالة الدكتوراه بعنوان" العوامل الاجتماعية والاقتصادية التي تحد من تقبل العمل المهني والصناعي في المجتمع العربي السعودي ".

نأمل من سعادة التكرم بتسهيل مهمته والتنسيق مع الجهات التابعة لكم لمده بالمعلومات اللازمة .

شاكرين ومقدرين لساعدتكم حسن وكريم تعاونكم.

عميد كلية الآداب والعلوم الإنسانية

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المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة المعارف
الإدارة العامة للتعليم بمنطقة عسير

التطوير التربوي / البحوث التربوية

الرقم: .....
التاريخ / / ١٤هـ
المرفقات: .....

الموضوع : .....
.....

المكرمون مديري ثانويات منطقة عسير المحترمون

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته . وبعد : فأأن من منكم تسهيل مهمة الباحث مشبب محمد حسن الأسمري في تطبيق بحثه (بعض العوامل الاجتماعية والاقتصادية التي تحد من تقبل المواطنة السعودي للعمل في القطاع المهني والصناعي) والذي تقدم به لنيل الدكتوراه من جامعة (هل) في المملكة المتحدة .

شاكراً اهتمامكم ولكم تحياتي ،

مدير عام التعليم بمنطقة عسير

د / أحمد بن محمد الشعوز

سنترال :٢٢٤٦٨١٣ / ٢٢٤٧١٠٢ / ٢٢٤٩٣٠١ - تلكس : ٩٠١٠٧٣ - ص.ب ٤٤٩ - فاكس : ٢٢٤٦٥٢٨

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الغرفة التجارية الصناعية

أبها - المملكة العربية السعودية

Chamber of Commerce & Industry

Abha - Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

الرقم : ٦/١٩/١٦٧٢٢ التاريخ ١/٩/١٤١٩هـ

السادة / المحترمون

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

أود الاحاطة بانه قد وردنا خطاب جامعة الملك عبدالعزيز بجدة – كلية الاداب والعلوم الانسانية رقم ١٨٦٩ وتاريخ ١٤١٩/٧/١٢هـ ، والمتضمن ان المبتعث الاستاذ مشبب بن غرامة الاسمرى والذى يقوم فى الوقت الراهن بجمع المعلومات والاحصاءات اللازمة لبحثه المسمى(العوامل الاجتماعية والاقتصادية التى تحد من تقبل العمل المهنى والصناعى فى المجتمع العربى السعودى) الخاص للتحضير لنيل شهادة الدكتوراة .

ونظرا لاهمية موضوع هذه الرسالة ، نامل مساعدته وتسهيل مهمته وذلك بتزويده بما يتوفر لديكم من المعلومات والاحصاءات حول هذا الموضوع .

شاكرين سلفا تعاونكم واهتمامكم المعهود .

وتقبلوا خالص تحياتي وتقديري .

الامين العام

حمدي بن علي المالكي

REC / 2 /2

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APPENDIX----------G

BIBLIOGRAPHY

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