An open university for women in Saudi Arabia: problems and prospects

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AN OPEN UNIVERSITY FOR WOMEN IN SAUDI ARABIA:
PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

BY
HAYA SAAD AL RAWAF

Degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the Loughborough University of Technology

1990
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26th December 1990

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This thesis is dedicated to my husband who encouraged me, and to my Mother and late Father who guided my steps through life.
This study investigates the prospects of setting up an open university for women in Saudi Arabia against the background of the problems which Saudi women face in pursuing higher education.

A review is given of the development of modern public education for women since its beginning in 1960, with emphasis on the more recent development of higher education for women.

The position of women in Islam and in contemporary Saudi society is examined as this has influenced their access to higher education. An account is also given of the development of women's position in contemporary Western society.

Three open universities, the United Kingdom Open University, the Sukhathai Thammahirat Open University (Thailand), and the Allama Iqbal Open University (Pakistan) are described in order to demonstrate how the idea of an Open University first arose (UKOU), and how it was later realized in a developing country (Thailand), and in an Islamic country (Pakistan).

A questionnaire was devised in order to gather data on attitudes to the setting up of an open university for women in Saudi Arabia, on perceptions of its feasibility, and on possible obstacles to its foundation. The questionnaire also included a section on the most suitable model for an open university for women in Saudi Arabia. The questionnaire was distributed in government bodies and higher educational establishments in Saudi Arabia to policy makers, academics, and female students.

An analysis of the data reveals a very positive response to the setting up of an open university for women in Saudi Arabia. Respondents, however, demonstrated a realistic awareness of the problems of gaining public acceptance for a new type of higher education and of the launching of a new project in a time of restrictions on government spending. Finally, on the basis of the findings from the survey, a proposal is made for the setting up of an open university suitable for women in Saudi Arabia today.
Many people have helped the researcher and contributed to the completion of this research. It would be impossible to thank all of them.

I am greatly indebted to my supervisor, Mr. Cyril Simmons, for his invaluable guidance, interest, and encouragement at all stages of the work. Dr. Twaijri, my local supervisor, made very useful comments and suggestions on successive drafts of the research. He also made possible the carrying out of the survey in his capacity as Dean of the College of Education, King Saud University. Dr. Sunbul also acted as a local supervisor and contributed greatly by his detailed comments and wise suggestions. Dr. Sharbini provided very useful advice on the statistical work of analysis of the survey.

Mr. Nawaf Al Thaan, secretary of the Dean of the College of Education, King Saud University, was kind enough to take charge of the distribution of the questionnaires to men in King Saud University. The library staff of The Women's Centre, King Saud University, were very cooperative and provided very useful help. Mr. Ghaleb Thabit, of the Bureau of Education for the Gulf Cooperation Council, helped with information on books. Mr. Ali Naseef and his wife gave inv-
aluable assistance by distributing the questionnaire in Jed-
dah.

At the Open University Regional Centre in Nottingham Mr. Beddows introduced me to many useful contacts. Mrs. Simmons gave very useful guidance in my study of the United Kingdom Open University.

The College of Education, King Saud University, gave encouragement and practical help which enabled me to devote myself to my research. My colleague Mrs. Rabab Al Mutlaq provided very useful assistance which enabled me to concentrate on my research. Mr. James Arthurs kindly read each revision of my research and helped with editing and typing. His advice and assistance, given patiently and loyally, were very useful.

My husband, Faris El Faris, encouraged me at all times and made great sacrifices to enable me to complete the work. Without his constant support and understanding, manifested in many practical ways, it would not have been possible. I offer him my sincere and lasting gratitude. My children Anas, Nasreen, Eyas, and Sousan, were patient with their busy mother and did not complain about the sacrifices which her commitment sometimes demanded.
My brothers Abdullah and Abdulmohsen gave encouragement and assistance. My brother Abdulrahman deserves special thanks because of his generous assistance and expert guidance on many occasions. My sisters Hissa and Johara also lent support at all times, while Moneera gave special help by providing books.

In expressing my sincere gratitude and appreciation to all of the above I would like to extend my thanks to all those others who helped in any way. Many people have contributed in different ways. Responsibility for errors is mine alone.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract i
Acknowledgments ii
List of Figures and Tables x

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY 1

Introduction 1
Statement of the Problem 4
Need for the Study 7
Limitations of the Study 8
Definition of Terms 9
Organization of this Study 12

CHAPTER II. HISTORY OF WOMEN'S EDUCATION IN SAUDI ARABIA 14

Introduction 14
Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Education 14
Characteristics of the Students of the Three Open Universities  109
The Programmes of Study in the Three Open Universities  112
The Organization of Study and Courses at the Three Open Universities  114
The Administration of the Three Open Universities  117
Costs of the Three Open Universities  120
Teaching Methods at the Three Open Universities  124
Findings  129
Open University: the Arab Experience  130
Conclusion  142

CHAPTER V. METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH  144

The Population  144
The Sample  147
Preparation of the Questionnaire  148
Distribution of the Questionnaire  152
Characteristics of Respondents  153

CHAPTER VI. ANALYSIS OF DATA  161

Introduction  161
Attitudes towards Establishing an Open University  162
CHAPTER VII. OUTLINE OF A PROPOSED OPEN UNIVERSITY FOR WOMEN IN SAUDI ARABIA

Introduction 251
Goals 252
Characteristics of Students 253
Programme of Study 253
Organization of Study 254
Costs 255
Teaching Methods 257
The System of Administration 262
Recommendation 267
Conclusion 270

viii
REFERENCES

APPENDIX A. Cover Letters for the Questionnaire 286
APPENDIX B. The Questionnaire (English Original) 287
APPENDIX C. The Questionnaire (Arabic Version) 313
# LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tables:</th>
<th>Page No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 - Development of the Girls' Elementary Schools over 28 years</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 - Development of Girls' Intermediate School over 25 years</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 - Development of Secondary Schools' over 25 years</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 - Fourth Plan Estimate of General Education, Enrollment and New Entrants</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1 - Costs of Open University and Conventional Universities</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 - Composition of the Sample</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 - The Fields of the Study of the Respondents</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3 - The Respondents According to Sex</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 - The Respondents According to Nationality</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5 - The Respondents According to Age</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6 - The Respondents According to Marital Status</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7 - The Respondents According to Academic Rank</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.8 - The Respondents According to Place of Work</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.9 - The Respondents According to Place of Most Recent Academic Qualification</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.10- The Respondents According to Present Position</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1 - Percentage Responses to Items 1 - 10</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2 - Cross-tabulation of Responses to Item 1 - 10 with Age of Respondents</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3 - Cross-tabulation of Responses to Items 1-10 with Marital Status of Respondents

6.4 - Cross-tabulation of Responses to Items 1-10 with Academic Status of Respondents

6.5 - Cross-tabulation of Responses to Items 1-10 with Place where Respondents Obtained their Most Recent Qualification

6.6 - Cross-tabulation of Responses to Items 1-10 with Present Place of Work of Respondents

6.7 - Cross-tabulation of Responses to Items 1-10 with Nationality of Respondents

6.8 - Cross-tabulation of Responses to Items 1-10 with Sex of Respondents

6.9 - Cross-tabulation of Responses to Items 1-10 with Present Position of Respondents

6.10 - Responses to Question 11 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

6.11 - Responses to Question 13 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

6.12 - Responses to Question 14 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

6.13 - Rate of Response as Percentage of the Whole Group to Question 15

6.14 - Response to Question 17 as Percentage of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

6.15 - Responses (%) to Question 18 on Allocation of Funding of an OU by Percent

6.16 - Source of Funding by Percent Cross-tabulated with Present Position of Respondents

6.17 - Responses to Question 19 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position
6.18- Responses to Question 20 as Percentages

6.19- Responses to Question 21 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents

6.20- Responses to Question 21 as Percentages of Respondents Group According to Academic Degree

6.21- Percentage Response to Question 22

6.22- The Subject Which People Suggested in the Open Question.

6.23- Cross-tabulation of Responses to Question 22 with Present Position of Respondents

6.24- Subject Area Choices Correlated With the Sex of Respondent

6.25- Responses to Question 23 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

6.26- Percentage Responses to Question 24

6.26a- Suggestions of Respondents About the Mixture to be used in an OU

6.27- Cross-tabulation of Responses to Question 24 with Present Position of Respondents

6.28- Responses to Question 25 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

6.29- Responses to Question 26 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

6.30- Percentage Responses to Question 27

6.31- Cross-tabulation of Responses to Question 27 with Present Position of Respondents

6.32- Responses to Question 28 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

6.33- Responses to Question 29 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>The Percentage of Total Respondents on the Resources Available to the Proposed Open University for Women in Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>Cross-tabulation of Responses to Question 30 with Present Position of Respondents</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>Cross-tabulation of Responses to Question 30 with Place of Work of Respondents</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>Responses to Question 31 as Percentages</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.38</td>
<td>Cross-tabulation of Responses to Question 31 with Place of Work of Respondents</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>Respondents' Views of Obstacles to an Open University</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>Cross-tabulation of Responses to Obstacles with Present Position of Respondents</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.41</td>
<td>Cross-tabulation of Responses to Obstacles with Place of Work of Respondents</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>Cross-tabulation of Responses to Obstacles with Sex of Respondents</td>
<td>243</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figures:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>Course Design at the OUW - Simplified Flowchart</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>OUW - Administrative Responsibility</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>OUW Regions and Regional Centers</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

In Saudi Arabia today there are schools for most children. This is the result of an expansion in the provision of education which began in the immediate post-war years and which accelerated greatly under the recent development plans. Students graduating from high school usually decide to proceed to university if they obtain the levels which universities require.

In 1989/90 29,090 male students and 25,909 female students graduated from secondary schools in Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Planning, 1990, pp. 320,321). Of these, 13,919 males and 10,810 females went on to enrol in the universities, that is, less than 50% of secondary school graduates in each case. However, while male secondary school graduates who do not go on to university have many opportunities in business and in military service, and can study abroad, there are few such opportunities for women.

Universities in the major cities of Saudi Arabia have grown rapidly to meet the need of growing numbers of applicants. They now play an important role in providing the new industries and organizations of modern Saudi Arabia with the highly trained personnel which they require.
No provision was made at first for female education in Saudi Arabia. It was only in 1960 that public schools for girls were opened. Since then, however, many girls' schools have been built and the participation of females in education has grown rapidly.

Universities were first opened for men, and, like all educational institutions in Saudi Arabia, are single sex. Later, some universities set up smaller, separate, campuses where courses were offered to women. These women's campuses do not have the same facilities and resources (e.g. laboratories, libraries) as the men's campuses. Women's university education is not regarded as being as urgent as men's university education either in terms of its intrinsic necessity or in terms of its function of training skilled personnel to work in and manage the industries and services of modern Saudi Arabia.

It is not only in Saudi Arabia that women have had difficulties in securing a place in higher education. All over the world they are comparative newcomers to that scene. In Saudi Arabia, however, they face particular problems stemming from the culture and traditions of a conservative society.
In Arab countries women are located in the context of home and family. As daughters and wives they are considered worthy of special protection and this is provided in the realm of the family home (Massialas and Jarrar, 1983, p. 234). The number of women engaged in work in Saudi Arabia was 136,800 (5.1% of the total female working-age population - 2,659,000) in 1985. It was expected to increase to 176,000 by 1989 (5.5% of the total female working-age population - 3,210,000) (Ministry of Planning, 1985, p. 89). Though many jobs (e.g. teaching in girls' schools, social work for women) can only be filled by women, social attitudes do not encourage a public role for women outside the family.

Some women who wish to go to university and are capable of university studies are prevented from doing so by certain restrictions on their mobility. In cities transportation can be a real problem. If they live outside cities the option of residing in university accommodation away from the family is not an easy one.

It is clear that the situation of women in Saudi Arabia calls for a flexible system to enable them to pursue their higher education. In this situation the open university system could be used to complement the work of the conventional campus-based universities in the education of women. This
system has been used in other countries to extend higher education to groups who are hindered in their pursuit of it by employment, family duties, or social or geographical factors. It could make use of the country’s post and telecommunications systems to further the education of its citizens. Radio, and to a lesser extent at first television, could be used to transmit lectures, thereby allowing one lecturer to reach a very wide audience. Although the student would have occasional tutorial facilities and could visit local centres, most of the work would be done in the comfort and privacy of her own home: reading set texts, using sound or video cassettes where possible, writing and learning from carefully designed courses and communicating with a tutor, mostly by post. This would solve some of the problems of transportation and relocation which deprive many women of access to higher education. It would do so without detriment to religion or traditional values.

Statement of the Problem

The Ministry of Planning (1990) in the *Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995* acknowledges that the rapid expansion of girls’ education at secondary level has created an urgent need for more opportunities for girls at post-secondary level.
The number of female secondary level graduates has increased more than tenfold, from 1,674 in 1395 (1975) to 18,211 in 1408 (1988), thus exceeding the number of male graduates, and according to the Fifth Plan projections, their number will reach 43,269 in 1415 (1995). However, this increase has not been accompanied by a commensurate increase in higher education opportunities for girls. Accordingly, post-secondary educational and training programs for girls should be created, which are in harmony both with the nature of Saudi females and with Islamic values. (Ministry of Planning, 1990. p.261.)

The Fifth Development Plan 1990-1995 goes on to consider specifically university education for girls and speaks of an urgent need for expansion in this area.

In the past, there has been rapid growth in the number of secondary level female graduates and this trend is expected to continue in the future also. On the other hand -- notwithstanding the substantial expansion realized by the General Presidency for Girls' Colleges and the universities -- university programs for females are still in their preliminary stages and are not sufficiently developed, either qualitatively or quantitatively, to cope with this increased flow of secondary level graduates. Comprehensive planning for the development of Saudi human resources requires that this issue should receive immediate attention. (Ministry of Planning, 1990. p. 262).

In the light of the above, this study considers the prospects of establishing an open university for women in Saudi Arabia in order to increase their access to higher education.
This study seeks to throw light on this problem by investigating the following questions:

1. What is the status of women in Saudi Arabia and what is the effect of education on their status?

2. What are the experiences of other countries in the field of open university that may help in establishing this system in Saudi Arabia?

3. What are the attitudes of academics, educational policy makers, and students towards the concept of the open university?

4. What are the existing facilities in Saudi Arabia that will help in setting up an open university?

5. What are the problems that face the implementation of the proposed open university in Saudi Arabia?

6. What are the strategies that should be followed in order to implement the proposed model?

In order to answer the above questions the researcher sheds some light on the following areas which are part of the background to them.
1. The extent to which higher education for women in Saudi Arabia is limited.

2. The effects of the social status of women in Saudi Arabia and of Islamic teaching on their education.

3. The differences between the status of women in Saudi Arabia and the status of women in the West.

4. The Western system of distance education as a suitable way to help increase Saudi women's access to higher education?

5. The most suitable model of distance education for Saudi Arabia, and the possibility of implementing this model.

Need for the Study

This study is important for several reasons. First, no study of its kind has yet been conducted in Saudi Arabia. Second, if Saudi Arabia applies the system of the open university in its educational programme, this will give hope to many women students who are facing problems such as oversubscription in almost all the universities of Saudi
Arabia, the inaccessibility of urban universities to some women because of distance or of lack of transport, and those problems which rise from their role in the family. Third, the open university system will allow each student to learn according to her own pace and ability. Finally, this system will help greatly in preparing women to take part in the social and economic development of their country.

Limitations of the Study

This study has the following limitations.

1. This study will be conducted in Saudi Arabia in the cities of Riyadh and Jeddah.

2. This study will deal with academics and students in universities and policy makers in government institutions.

3. This study is intended to begin in 1987 and expected to finish in 1990.

4. This study will have for its sample the following groups:
a. a sample of policy makers in higher education in Saudi Arabia.

b. a sample of academics, men and women.

c. a sample of women university students who are in third and fourth year.

Definition of Terms

Academics work at the universities and colleges in Saudi Arabia. They include full faculty members (who must hold a Ph.D degree) and lecturers (who must hold an Master’s degree at least) and teaching assistants (who must hold a Bachelor’s degree at least).

Dawa is the spreading of the message of Islam (the Quran and the authentic Hadith) so that people will embrace Islam by submitting to the one God.

Elementary school provides for children from the ages of six until twelve.

Hadith is the collections of the authentic sayings of the Prophet Mohammed (PBUH).
Intermediate school provides for children from the ages of twelve until fifteen. A certificate from elementary school is necessary for admission.

Intisab is a system which allows individuals to continue their higher education without attending lectures. The entry requirements for intisab are the same as those for ordinary higher education courses.

Kutab is a school where a religious man (motawa) or woman (motawa’a) gathers pupils or students in order to teach them to read the Holy Quran.

Mahram. If, for a woman, the possibility of marriage with a certain man is excluded because of ties of blood or some other reason, such a man is called a Mahram, and is regarded as a suitable guardian for the woman in public.

Open learning is an innovation permitting access to post-secondary education for groups outside the scope of formal full-time teaching. In open learning, modern methods of communication are used to overcome the problems of distance, or to satisfy the need for part-time study. It may prove to be more flexible, more easily adaptable to new needs in the working population and to the personal requirements and capabilities of students. It may also encourage greater self-reliance and a more independent style of learning.
An Open University system is an educational programme which aims to offer people the opportunity to study for a degree at home in their spare time. It is intended primarily for those who have missed out on educational opportunities in the past and might not possess the normal university entrance qualifications.

Policy Makers are administrators in government service who can make decisions affecting the future of education.

Saudi Arabia is a kingdom located in the Southwest of Asia and occupies close to four-fifths of the Arabian peninsula, with an area of over one million square miles. It is bounded by the Red Sea to the West, Jordan, Iraq, Kuwait to the north, the Arabian Gulf, Qatar, Bahrain, and the United Arab Emirates to the east, and Oman and Yemen to the south. Saudi Arabia is a Muslim country, and because it is the country where the Islamic religion was founded and where every Muslim wants to perform pilgrimage to Mecca, it has a special religious significance.

Secondary School provides for young people from the ages of fifteen until eighteen. A certificate from intermediate school is necessary for admittance. Secondary schools are sometimes called high schools, and for boys the American high school system is now being used.
Sharia is the body of teaching and prescription which comes from the Quran and the authentic Hadith of the Prophet Mohammed (Peace be upon him). It constitutes the basic law of Saudi Arabia.

Ulama are men who have studied the Quran and the Hadith extensively and who work as religious scholars to apply the Sharia. The senior Ulama advise the Government of Saudi Arabia.

Organization of this Study

This study is organized into seven chapters:

Chapter I contains an introduction to the study including the statement of the problem, the purpose of the research, its importance, limitations, and the definition of key terms.

Chapter II deals with the history of women's education in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter III deals with the status of women in Islam, in the second half of the 20th century, and in Saudi Arabia.
Chapter IV seeks to define distance education and examines the characteristics of three open universities.

Chapter V deals with the methodology of the research.

Chapter VI presents the findings of the survey with an analysis.

Chapter VII presents a model of the proposed open university for women in Saudi Arabia.
CHAPTER II

THE HISTORY OF WOMEN'S EDUCATION IN SAUDI ARABIA

Introduction

The history of education for women shows how Saudi Arabia arrived at its present system of education and defined its goals. This will enable the researcher to evaluate the inclusion of a new method of education and to judge whether there is a case for increasing access to higher education. Women's education is of recent origin and this chapter will look at the factors affecting its origin and growth as a national institution. The question of the goal of women's education and the curriculum that they follow will also be considered here. This study includes this chapter because the possible introduction of a new method of education must proceed from a full knowledge of the existing system.

Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Education

Education in Saudi Arabia is provided by the government, free of charge, to all Saudis and children of Arabic-speaking residents in the country who want it, from kinder-
garten up to and including secondary level. Private kindergartens and schools charge a fee. There has been a great expansion at all levels in the past twenty years. Although education continues to be non-compulsory, in 1986 56% of children aged 6-11 attended primary school, 64% of the boys and 48% of the girls; for intermediate and secondary school 31% of children aged 12-17 attended, 36% of boys and 26% of girls of that age group (Unesco, 1989, p.3-53). The total numbers of students at elementary school by 1987 were 810,774 boys and 649,509 girls. For intermediate schools the totals were 266,700 boys and 165,101 girls, while for secondary schools boys numbered 113,895 and girls 84,554. ("2.4 M Students." 1987).

The Fifth Development Plan (in "New Budget," 1990, p.16) notes that the present total number of students at all these levels is 1.4 million for boys, and 1.2 million for girls, and that these totals are expected to reach 1.9 million (for boys) and 1.6 million for girls by the end of the Fifth Development Plan in 1995.

With respect to the history of women's education, it is noted that there were some schools for women before 1940, where religion was studied under the guidance of a 'Motawa'ah'. These 'kutab' schools were informal. In
general, however, women were educated, if at all, within the family circle by a member of the family (Ministry of Education, 1981, p.10).

One of the first formal schools for girls was set up in Mecca in 1941. This Madrasat AlBanat AlAhlijah (Private School for Girls) was established by immigrants from Indonesia and Malawi, who had come as pilgrims to Mecca and stayed on. Mohsen bin Ali bin Abdulrahman Al Zawawi was the first principal. This was not a government school, but it was supervised by Dahlan Hassan Godery of Dar Al Allum (House of Religious Science), a cultural organization. The people of Mecca at that time were not interested in girls' education, and the initiative came from foreigners (Saleh, 1973, p. 289).

Another school for girls, AlFatat il Thagafah Al Tadbir AlManzily (Development of Girls in Home Economics), was opened in Mecca in 1947, by Hassan Abdul AlGani Felmban (Saleh, 1973, p. 289). His wife was headmistress. It followed the curriculum for boys' schools of the Ministry of Education, and remained an elementary school until 1953, when intermediate level classes were added.
The Al Zahrah School for Girls opened in Mecca in 1958, before the General Presidency of Girls' Education (GPGE) was set up. Its founder was Abdul Jabbar, and the principal was Naimah Mostapha who had studied in Egypt. Later, after 1960, as a government school, it introduced intermediate and secondary levels for girls in Mecca (Saleh, 1973, pp. 289-292).

In Jeddah in 1956 King Faisal opened Dar AlHanan School. It was supervised by his wife. This school had boarding facilities, and it eventually provided education at kindergarten, elementary, intermediate, and secondary levels, as noted in Parssinen (1980, pp.158-159).

An account of the opening of the first four schools for girls in Riyadh was given by bin Abdulaziz and bin Mohammad (1968, pp. 76-79). In Riyadh, the Moparat (Foundation) of King Saud was established in 1955, and was supervised by three daughters of King Saud. In this school, the curriculum was that of the Ministry of Education which was in effect in boys' schools. Home economics, embroidery, English and sports were added to this curriculum. Kindergarten and elementary level were offered, and the school provided education for 154 girls.
The Institution for Girls was later established in Riyadh and provided kindergarten, elementary, and intermediate education. It was established in 1957 and had 250 pupils and ten teachers. A blind man was assigned to teach religion. In this school the curriculum was almost the same as that of the Ministry of Education for boys.

The third school in Riyadh was the Moparat of King Abdulaziz which was established in 1958. The kindergarten and elementary levels contained 210 students. The school curriculum included religion, Arabic, home economics, embroidery, and English. It was supervised by His Royal Highness Prince Talal ibn Abdulaziz.

The fourth school was Al Nahda Al Shabia School for Girls. It was established and administered by a group of people who were interested in education. School textbooks were provided by the Ministry of Education and the school followed its curriculum. The fifth school was Al-Thagafa AlShabia, which was similar to Kutab schools. The curriculum included reading, writing, and mathematics. All the above was noted by bin Abdulaziz and bin Mohammed (1968, pp. 76 - 79).
Thus opportunities for girls to go to school in Saudi Arabia were slowly growing in the 1950's. As well as the above mentioned schools, some few others came into existence without much publicity, such as AlFaisaliya in Mecca (1955), Al-Nomodijiya in Mecca (1959), AlNomodijiya in Riyadh (1958), and AlNomodijiya in Dammam (1958) (Ministry of Education, 1981).

Another way in which girls could be educated was by private tuition, but this was usually restricted to the daughters of rich families because of the high costs involved. Teachers were hired from Arab countries to teach girls privately in their homes (Al Bassam, 1984, p. 250).

Although the first government department concerned with education, the General Directorate of Education for Boys, was established in 1926, education did not expand in Saudi Arabia until the income from oil provided the necessary capital. Al Manea, (1984, pp. 79-81) notes that this happened in the early 1950s, and the establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1954 gave proof of greater interest in education and an awareness of its necessity. While the government was increasing educational opportunities for boys, private philanthropic ventures provided for girls.
Another reason why the need for girls' schools became more apparent in the 1950s was that young educated Saudi men married foreign women because they felt that Saudi women were not compatible because of their lack of education. Saudi newspapers of the period 1955-1963 contain many complaints about the ignorance of young women and the effect this was having on marriage (Al-Baadi, 1982, p. 69).

Before 1960, then, the question of formal education for girls had been raised and some practical answers given, though most girls did not get a formal education. Some people sought a religious education for their daughters, in the style of the kutab schools. Some groups in different places, as described in the first part of this chapter, opened schools for girls in which they would get a similar education to that of boys, though only to secondary level. These early schools were philanthropic foundations, open to those who were interested, with no fees. These individual efforts showed that there was no united, agreed-upon, approach to the question of girls education. Three distinct groups can be identified by their attitudes to the education of girls.

The first group was reluctant to allow their daughters to go to school, but permitted them to go to the kutab
school where they would study the Quran and learn about their duties to God. Members of the second group felt that it was good for their daughters to go to school and study religion and some other areas in so far as they were necessary, as they thought, to help their daughters become good wives and good mothers. Most of the schools which opened before 1960 were elementary and included home economics and embroidery. Members of the third group wanted their daughters to study up to and possibly including college level. This group was very small. The speech of King Saud in 1959 addressed the contemporary situation in Saudi Arabia and the different attitudes to the question of girls' education noted above. This speech had great historic significance as it was the first time that the Saudi government had addressed the subject of girls' education in this way.

The speech was made on Thursday, 20th Rabia Al Thani 1379 (1959); and was broadcast by radio and published in the newspapers. The text of the speech given in Al Yamamah # 193, p.6, Rabia Al Thani 23, 1379) is as follows:

Thanks be to God, we have decided to bring into effect the desire of the Ulama in Saudi Arabia, and to open schools to teach our girls the science of our religion from the Quran, and belief and fuqaha (religious instruction), and other sciences which are in harmony with our religious beliefs, such as home economics and child rearing, and anything of which the effect on their belief will not make us fear for the present or
for the future. The schools will not have any negative effect on our belief or behavior or customs. To this end, we order that a committee be set up, its members being drawn from the important ulama, who we trust very much to organize this school, to decide on a programme, and to see that it is carried out. This committee will report to Sheikh Mohammed Ibn Ibrahim, and it must choose teachers from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia or other countries, but they must be Muslim. It will be responsible for those (girls') schools which have already been opened as well as for the establishment of new schools. The realization of this plan will take time, but I hope we will succeed quickly, trusting in no power but that of God.

This speech addressed common preoccupations with the issue of women's education with great skill and diplomacy. The King spoke to the men directly and did not legislate for their women over their heads. He allowed the women to be educated under the care of the religious leader, Sheikh Mohammed Ibn Ibrahim, whose authority was respected by the people. In this way he made the education of women part of the religious framework within which the people felt secure. The King also emphasized religious instruction and home economics which fitted in with the role of women as perceived in Saudi Arabia at that time, and indeed with what many considered to be the true Islamic role. He did not, however, rule out other areas of study. The King, then, made it possible for women to take a step forward without making those who feared greater freedom for women feel threatened.
The Committee which the King set up was named the General Presidency of Girls' Education (GPGE). The GPGE continues to be responsible for girls education at all levels, with the exception of the women's programmes in the universities founded for men. Although it is independent of the Ministry of Education and has a separate budget, it is not a ministry and its head does not sit on the Council of Ministers while the Minister of Education (for boys) does. Al Bassam (1984, p.256) notes that it is staffed by men whose background is in religious science.

Government education for girls, then, started later than government education for boys. When it started some people refused to let their daughters go to school because they were afraid that they would lose interest in their role in the home. Parsinnen (in Beling, 1980, p. 159) notes that there were isolated cases of opposition, the most notable occurring in Buraida, a town in Najd, where a demonstration against the introduction of education for girls necessitated the intervention of the National Guard. Conservative elements in Buraida saw the education of girls as something which would undermine the foundations of morality and family life. The government met this challenge by insisting on the opening of a girls' school and leaving people free to send their daughters to it or not. The
GPGE's strict adherence to traditional and religious values helped to satisfy the critics of girls' education.

In 1961, the year following the establishment of the General Presidency of Girls' Education, fifteen new schools were opened. The number of girls' schools has grown very rapidly, as shown in Table 2.1.

The Ministry of Education (1980, p. 52) notes that the goal of the elementary schools was to prepare girls for their role in running a household, with emphasis on tasks such as sewing, cooking, etc. In spite of these conservative views of the goals of girls' education it must be acknowledged that provision of basic education in literacy and numeracy for girls was a great step forward at a time when most Saudi women were illiterate.

Table 2.1
Development of Girls' Elementary Schools over 28 Years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960/61</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965/66</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>1,623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970/71</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>3,645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975/76</td>
<td>963</td>
<td>8,037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980/81</td>
<td>1,810</td>
<td>14,661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985/86</td>
<td>3,155</td>
<td>25,564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>3,370</td>
<td>29,092</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1964 the first four government intermediate schools for girls were opened, and they pursued the same goal as the elementary schools (GPGE, 1988, p. 3). The increase in number of these schools is shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2
Development of Girls’ Intermediate Schools over 25 Years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1963/1964</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965/1966</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969/1970</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973/1974</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977/1978</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>1,968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981/1982</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>3,609</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985/1986</td>
<td>831</td>
<td>5,514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>958</td>
<td>6,528</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In 1964 the first government secondary school for girls was opened. The goals of the secondary school were to prepare girls for their domestic roles and also for university studies (Ministry of Education, 1981, p. 5). This represents an acknowledgement of a wider role for girls than that noted above in the goals for elementary and intermediate schools. The statement of the goals for elementary schools resembles the second approach to girls' education before 1960 outlined above in this Chapter while the
statement of the goals for secondary schools resembled the third approach.

As shown in Table 2.3 the number of secondary schools for girls increased steadily.

Table 2.3
Development of Secondary Schools over 25 Years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No. of Schools</th>
<th>No. of Classes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1963/1964</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965/1966</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969/1970</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973/1974</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977/1978</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981/1982</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>1,510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985/1986</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>2,754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>3,317</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In the 1960s there was no provision for educating girls at university level. However, the people who planned secondary schools for girls must have been open to wider goals for girls' education. Their understanding of what was suitable education for a Saudi girl had developed at a time when the country was modernizing. Girls educated to secondary school level would be more suitable partners and helpmates for the Saudi man who was more involved in the modernizing process. The opening of secondary schools for
girls contains within it the seeds of the opening of universities to them, because secondary schools need university trained teachers and because people who have been educated at secondary schools will seek to further their education.

People's experience of the good effects of girls' education and of its faithfulness to religious ideals led to a growing demand for it. The steadily increasing income of the Kingdom in the 1960s and the oil-boom in the 1970s meant that money was readily available to open new schools. When elementary schools had been open for some years the next step was to open intermediate and high schools. This was the normal development over time as girls completed the first stage in elementary education and demanded to continue to a higher level. It was also in the interests of the GPGE to expand their operation.

By the mid 1970s a generation of younger educated women were rearing their own children. According to Al Suwaigh (1986-1987, p. 59) younger generation mothers had a much greater interest in their children's academic achievement than older generation mothers.

The expansion of girls' education outlined above did not mean the disappearance of traditional attitudes to the
place of women in society. The feeling that for girls to go outside the family home represented a failure in the families' protection of them and the fear that girls' education was a Western-inspired innovation, did not disappear after the schools had been opened. Textbooks for the girls' schools, especially at elementary level, show the GPGE adherence to the conservative view of the proper curriculum for women.

Textbooks specially written by the GPGE are used in girls' elementary schools, thereby having influence at the most impressionable age. The First Year Reader (GPGE, 1978) in the elementary schools gives many sentences which divide the roles of men and women. For example, "My father goes to work; my mother stays at home and cooks and cares for the family." In a topic in The Fourth Year Reader (GPGE, 1981, p.29) one girl describes her work. She says, "In my leisure time I do needlework; this is my sport. If I finish with my needlework I go to serve my family. After this I go to the kitchen because in the kitchen I have a noble position" (p.29). In another topic the child is instructed to love her father who provides for her by his work and her mother who bore her and who looks after her in the home, and who is always available to her (GPGE, 1981, p.209).
The Fifth Year Reader (GPGE, 1981) continues to concentrate on women's role in the home. Home economics is mentioned as the subject in which a girl should seek to excel. A Hadith is quoted (p.8) which directs her to future areas of study; this Hadith quotes the example of a woman, Umm Ateah, who followed seven warriors with the Prophet (PBUH), "I stay behind, cook and take care of the wounded and I serve them." This Hadith implies that woman's work is in the domestic area or in medicine.

A passage in The Sixth Year Reader (GPGE, 1988, p.237) warns girls against pursuing the deceptive liberty of foreign women. The emphasis of the book is on the traditional place of women in the home. The readers never refer to those areas where Saudi women now work outside the home, e.g. civil service and teaching, or portray a Saudi woman working outside the home or studying for a profession.

In intermediate and secondary school, where the curriculum in many areas is the same as that of the boys, the GPGE issues its own books for the girls, even where they are identical to the books for boys. Physical education and sport are not included in the girls' curriculum, but home economics and embroidery are added.
Higher Education

GPGE Colleges

The General Presidency of Girls' Education is the sole supervisor of all forms of schooling for girls up to higher education, and plays a major role in the supervision of their higher education, though several other bodies also work in this field. These include King Saud University in Riyadh, King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah, the University of Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud in Riyadh, King Faisal University in Dammam, and Umm al Qura in Mecca.

The first college for girls was established in 1970 in Riyadh under the supervision of the GPGE, as noted in Al Gady (1981 p. 137). This College admitted girls who had completed secondary school or the equivalent, as noted in the Report of the Supreme Council of Girls' Colleges (GPGE, 1988 p. 40). The goal of this College was to prepare girls for teaching. Gradually the GPGE found that they had to open new colleges to meet the demand for places. They opened twelve colleges in different regions of Saudi Arabia between 1970 and 1980.
In the College of Arts and Education in Riyadh the subjects offered included religion, education, Arabic, geography, history, English, psychology and home economics. In the College of Science and Education in Riyadh mathematics, physics, biology, botany and chemistry were offered. A college of arts was opened in Riyadh where the subjects included religion, Arabic, geography, history, English, and librarianship. In the College of Arts in Dammam all of these subjects were offered except librarianship. The College of Science in Dammam offered the same subjects as the College of Science and Education in Riyadh. Colleges of education were opened in Madina and Tabuk which offered a mixture of science and arts subjects: religion, Arabic, English, physics and mathematics. In Abha, Buraida, and Mecca colleges were opened offering the same subjects in arts as in Medina and Tabuk, but a different choice of subjects in science. Buraida offered biology, botany, and mathematics, while Abha offered physics and chemistry, and Mecca offered home economics. In Jeddah a college of education was opened offering both arts and science subjects. The above information about the twelve colleges is noted in an unpublished manuscript of the GPGE (1989, p. 3) which gives the number of graduates from all these colleges up to the date of its composition as 16,205.
These Colleges have a uniform system of admission. A quota was established limiting the numbers admitted to the Girls' Colleges every year. The students must have graduated from secondary school or the equivalent and registered within the specified dates; they must have good health and be of good character; they must also pass an interview, and must not be working, as noted in the Report of the Supreme Council of Girls' Colleges (GPGE, 1988, p. 40-41). Girls from poorer backgrounds are not disadvantaged because of lack of money, as there are no fees. In fact they are positively encouraged as the government pays a monthly allowance. Students receive money or land on graduating. The course of study for a degree lasts four years. Each academic year consists of twenty-six weeks full-time study, divided into two semesters with a break between. The students must attend not less than seventy-five percent of the lectures, and must achieve a mark of at least sixty percent in the examinations for each subject in order to pass. The students may not stay more than five years without a serious reason. Substantial interruptions of the course of study are not permitted without grave reason. The above rules are noted in The Report of the Supreme Council of Girls' Colleges (GPGE, 1988 p. 41-43).
In 1979 the GPGE opened junior colleges for girls. In the early years of state elementary education in Saudi Arabia some were enrolled as teachers who had just completed secondary education. Later, the government wanted to ensure that all elementary teachers were properly trained, and to train more school leavers as teachers to work in the rapidly growing school system. Serving teachers were therefore invited to spend two years at a junior college, during which time they received their full salary. New trainees who had completed secondary education joined them there.

In 1979/1980 three junior colleges for girls were opened in Al Qassim, in Madina, and in Ahsa. In 1980/81 one was opened in Taif and in 1981/1982 others in Al Jouf and Jizan. Other junior colleges were opened in 1982/83 in Mecca, Riyadh, Jeddah, Hail, and Arar, and in 1983/84 in Al Kharj, Al Rus, and Al Abha.

Their goals are to educate the girls according to Islam, to prepare them for motherhood and to participate in society. They also aim to train suitable candidates as elementary school teachers and to develop teachers who are already working in elementary schools. Furthermore,

Students study for two years to obtain an intermediate diploma in education in a subject area. They follow the same system as the Girls Colleges of Education (GPGE, 1986. p. 70). The criteria for admission are that applicants must have secondary school certificate or equivalent, the same as for the Colleges of Education for Girls. However, Junior College students make a contract to teach with the GPGE for at least three years. For those applicants who are already teaching, their grade (as appraised by the principal of their school) must have been very good for at least two years. The academic year and the examinations are the same as for the GPGE Colleges of Education. (Ministry of Higher Education, 1987. pp. 653-654).

The Universities

The universities of the Kingdom were established for men, and coeducation is not accepted in the Kingdom. However, because of the demand, the universities opened some colleges to girls, establishing separate campuses for them. The Centre for Girls' Studies at King Saud University was
opened in 1976. It offered courses in Arabic, history, geography, and English. The College of Public Administration offered economics and administration. The College of Medicine, the College of Dentistry, and the College of Nursing offered undergraduate courses, while the College of Education at first offered graduate programs in three subjects; teaching methodology, psychology, and education. The above was noted in the Guide for the University of Riyadh, Part I (Ministry of Higher Education, 1979, p. 93). The first dean of the Centre for Girls' Studies was a man but the present dean is a woman, as noted in the Guide to the University of King Saud 1987/1989 (King Saud University, 1987, pp. 175-176).

At the beginning, the criteria for entrance to these Colleges were the same as they had been for men, and this is still the case. These criteria were: completion of secondary school within the last five years, and not less than 50 percent in the secondary school certificate. Science subjects were necessary for entrance to the College of Medicine. Some colleges required an interview for admission. Although students who obtained less than 50 percent in the high school certificate were not admitted, students with the highest marks were admitted first and others after this until they available places were filled. Some colleges
required more than fifty percent. The above is noted in *The Guide for the University of Riyadh, Part I* (Ministry of Higher Education, 1979, p. 27).

*The Guide for King Saud University 1987-1989* (King Saud University, 1987, p. 27) outlines some recent changes in the criteria for admission. For the College of Arts, a level of 75 percent in the secondary school certificate or the equivalent in the comprehensive school examination is demanded. For the College of Administration, 80 percent or the equivalent is demanded. For the College of Education, 75 percent in Arts or in Science or the equivalent, together with an interview, is necessary for admission. For the College of Science 75 percent or the equivalent from the comprehensive school is demanded. For the College of Engineering 75 percent or the equivalent from the comprehensive school is demanded, with an additional requirement of 75 percent in mathematics, physics, and chemistry. The College of Agriculture demands 75 percent or the equivalent from the comprehensive school, plus 75 percent in chemistry, biology and physics. Overall, a higher standard is now demanded from university applicants.

As noted above in this Chapter the school population has grown considerably and the number of applicants for
university places has consequently increased. In 1975 4.1% of age group (20-24) were enrolled in higher education, 6.0% of men of that age group and 1.8% of women. For 1986 13.4% were enrolled, 15.0% of men and 11.4% of women (Unesco, 1989, 3-53). Although the number of places has increased, King Saud University has had to raise the entrance criteria in order to control the number of entrants.

All the Colleges of King Saud University now have centres for girls except the College of Engineering and the College of Architecture and Planning. The centres for girls are all in Riyadh, while for the men there are branches outside Riyadh, for example the Colleges in Abha and Qassim (King Saud University, 1987, p. 31-32).

The University follows the American credit hour system, and each student must complete twelve hours per semester, with at least 75 percent attendance at lectures. The pass mark for the courses is 60 percent. The courses at the Centre for Girls are taught by women teachers, or by male teachers through the medium of closed circuit television.

The girls study on two campuses, one for science subjects (with a male dean) and one for arts subjects (with a
There is limited accommodation available on the campus for those girls who do not live within travelling distance of the University. The above is noted in the Guide to King Saud University 1987-1989 (King Saud University, 1987, p. 246).

The University of King Abdulaziz in Jeddah, which was then a private university, admitted girls in 1967/1968. They were admitted to economics, arts, science, medicine, nursing, and home economics. The University opened a branch of the College of Education in Medina in the same year to which girls were admitted. The criteria for admission are approximately the same as those for King Saud University in Riyadh. Girls who live at a distance can also reside on campus, as in Riyadh. The above is noted in the Report on Higher Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Higher Education, 1984, p. 149).

King Abdulaziz University also follows the American credit hour system, except for the College of Medicine, which follows the British system. The study year is divided into two semesters of sixteen weeks each, with a summer semester of eight weeks. The degree requires three years and one summer semester at the minimum. The maximum allowed is six years. The student must complete 120-136 study
hours. The above is noted in the *Guide for Higher Education for the Arab Gulf* (Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States, 1985 p. 228).

The University of King Faisal in Dammam opened a centre for girls in 1978/79. The Colleges of Medicine, Nursing, Agriculture, Nutrition, and Home Economics, and Education were first opened for them, and in 1982/83 they were admitted to the Department of Interior Design in the College of Architecture (Ministry of Higher Education, 1984, p. 216).

The University of Umm al Qura in Mecca first admitted girls in 1971/72. Every department of the University is open to girls except the Departments of Physical Education, the Training of Judges, and Islamic Economics. The University now follows the American credit hour system. The girls have female teachers or follow lectures by male teachers over a closed circuit television network, as the *Students' Guide for Umm Al-Qura 1982/83* (University of Umm Al-Qura, 1982, pp. 46-48) relates.

The University of Umm al-Qura and King Faisal closely resemble King Abdulaziz and King Saud in their use of the American credit hour system and in their arrangement of the
semesters in the academic year, as noted in the *Guide to Higher Education in the Arab Gulf* (Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States, 1985, p.322).

The University of Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud in Riyadh admitted girls in 1984. Four departments are open to girls: Sharia, Dawa, Al Agida (Belief), and Tijahat Mu'asira (Contemporary Attitudes). The study system resembles that of the GPGE, as noted in the *Guide to the University of Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud* (Ministry of Higher Education, 1989, pp. 314-315). The girls study under female teachers, and have access to lectures by male teachers through closed circuit television.

The criteria for admission and the rules of attendance are roughly the same for all the universities in the Kingdom, but the Imam University and the GPGE Colleges follow a somewhat different system in evaluating students, as they do not follow the American credit hour system as the other universities do.

In every university in the Kingdom to which girls have been admitted, they have been admitted some time after the opening of the university to a limited range of subjects and have not enjoyed the level of facilities (libraries,
laboratories) available to the men. The area where women have been encouraged is in the teaching of girls, and statistics on education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1407 A.H. (1987) ("2.4M Students," 1987) show that in teacher training institutes the number of women (10,521) is less significantly lower than the number of men (11,841), than in universities (women: 43,111, men: 62,785). Hayani (1980), quoted in Massialas and Jarrar (1983, p. 237) also notes that teaching methods in the Arab world reinforce social attitudes by reminding girls that marriage and childbearing are their main objectives rather than encouraging them to break new ground by pursuing non-traditional careers.

The Experience of Saudi Arabia in Distance Education

The GPGE provided girls with an opportunity to participate in distance education, and this still continues. The GPGE Colleges of Arts in Riyadh and Dammam admit students to external study. The criteria for admission are similar to those for full-time students except that external students are required to have very good grades. The Councils of the Colleges limit the number of admissions to external study. Only in the matter of attendance do the external students differ from the ordinary full-time students.
Up to the end of the second year the external students are allowed to transfer to full-time attendance, if their grades are very high. The above was noted in The Report of the Tenth Meeting of the Higher Scientific Committee on External Study in the Girls' Colleges (GPGE, 1988, p.2).

The Report of the Supreme Council of Girls' Colleges (GPGE, 1988, pp. 63-64) notes that the teachers should meet with their external students once a semester to tell them about the study requirements and the prescribed textbooks and to give them other information related to their studies. After that they can come and see the teachers in the College if they wish. The teacher for the external students is the ordinary course teacher for full-time students, but The Report of the Tenth Meeting of the Higher Scientific Committee on External Study in the Girls' Colleges (GPGE, 1988, p.4) notes that the GPGE has set up an office where the students are informed of their admission and get their first information about courses, teachers, schedules, the times of tests, and the results of tests. The office also conducts correspondence with students where necessary. The number of girl students who engaged in external study with the GPGE from 1979 until 1988 was 414 in Riyadh and 1,068 in Dammam according to Recent Statistics for External Study for Colleges of Girls (GPGE, 1989, p.1).
The external student must successfully complete each year at the same rate as the ordinary student. They have the same time constraints as on-campus students, as *The Report of the Tenth Meeting of the Higher Scientific Committee on External Study in the Girls’ Colleges* (1988, p. 2) notes. If, however, they require another year, the reason may be submitted to the College Council who may grant an extra year.

King Saud University admitted girls as external students in 1966 to the College of Arts. English, history and sociology were offered in this College. In 1974/75 the number of women external students was 623. The external students had the same academic programme as the full-time students. In the beginning, when there were no permanent female staff at the university, some women were hired to provide occasional help to external students and students were informed when closed circuit television lessons were available, as noted in the *Guide to the College of Arts 1974-75* (University of Riyadh, 1974, p. 56). In 1976 the external study system was withdrawn. The credit hour system which had been introduced in the College of Education in 1973 did not fit together well with the external study system as it was then. There were also places available for
campus based university education for girls at the Centre for Girls' Studies which was opened in 1976.

King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah introduced external study in 1973/74 for men and women. It was available in the Colleges of Business Administration, Sociology, History and English. Twenty-five women students chose this method of study when it became available, and in 1980/81 there were 1500 women students following it. In 1980 the Council of the University decided to establish an Office for Registration for External Study. This office was to provide guidance for the students. The criteria for admission were the same as for full-time students.

In 1981/82 King Abdulaziz University introduced a new system for external students. New students had to attend an intensive introduction course of forty hours which was given in Jeddah in the summer. If the external student did not get good grades in this course she was not allowed to continue. The degree now consisted of six foundation units and twelve units in the student's subject area, and six skill units. The above is noted in the Guide to External Study for Women at King Abdulaziz University 1983/84 (Ministry of Higher Education, 1983, pp.7-12).
The Brief Account of the System of External Study at King Abdulaziz University (Ministry of Higher Education, 1989, pp.1-4) notes that in 1988/89 the system of external studies was modified as decided at Meeting No. 40 of the Higher Council of the University in 1988. The criteria for admission remain the same except that the intensive introduction course has been replaced by an interview or a test for admission. The reason why the intensive course was dropped was the difficulty which some students had in spending forty-five days in full-time study in Jeddah, either because their homes were at a distance from the city or because they were engaged in work or because they were women.

The above source notes that the external student was now to return to the same system and curriculum as the full-time student. This means that the study year has two semesters of fifteen weeks. Attendance for the external student is not compulsory (apart from the final examination). The teacher for the course to full-time students is also the advisor for the external students, and this advisor is available for consultation by telephone or in his/her office hours.

A degree can now be obtained through 134 study hours. The time limit for obtaining a degree is seven years, though students with a particular problem can get an extra year.
The Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud University opened external courses for women in 1965 in the College of Sharia. After that they opened external courses in the Departments of Aqida (Belief) Dawa, and Sunna, the Quran and Aloma (the Quran and its Science), History, Sociology, and Arabic. The criteria for admission were the same as for the male students. There were no full-time female students at that time. The Imam University opened a centre for the women where they could get information about their courses. They followed the same system as the full-time students. The only difference was that they weren’t required to attend lectures. They attended for examinations in the last semester only. In 1986/87 the Imam University withdrew the external study option according to Decision No. 122 of the Council of the University as noted in the Minutes of the Twelfth Meeting of the Council of the University (Imam University, 1987, p.5). The subjects which had been available through external study were now available to women through conventional study. The information centre for women was transferred to the facility for full-time study for women.

The number of women at the Imam University in full time and external study in 1988 was approximately 1,000. The Imam University did not admit any new external students from
1986/87 but allowed those students who were then enrolled to complete their courses.

From the above it is clear that Saudi Arabia has some experience of distance education, although at a relatively simple level. King Abdulaziz University has been an exception in trying to develop its distance education programme, as noted above. It also proposed the establishment of an open university and requested the Ministry of Higher Education to make a study to determine whether an open university would be useful in Saudi Arabia, as Idris (1983) notes. The establishment of a unified open university in Saudi Arabia, then, has been discussed, though no conclusion has been reached.

There are different attitudes to distance education in Saudi Arabia, and it has been debated in the Saudi Press. Some would like to see it extended, but other take a rather negative view. In AlAbbassi and Al Amri's article, "External study" (1983, p.3), Naseef stated that external study is the way to develop manpower in Saudi Arabia. Al-Raddad (1982, p.4), in "Intisab in King Abdulaziz University" stated his belief that a degree obtained by external study was the equivalent of a degree obtained by full-time study. He saw external study as a means of extending access to higher education and enabling people in Saudi Arabia to play a major role in development. AlAkala, quoted in "The
Intisab Issue" by Sweidi (1985, p.4), claimed that the American credit hour system was not suitable for external study. He therefore advocated the replacement of external study by full-time study, suggesting that scholarships could be paid to workers to enable them to give up their jobs in order to study. AlFawzan in the same article, on the other hand, stated that external study was useful. He referred particularly to its possible role in the necessary development of women teachers, some of whom are not qualified to degree level. He saw it as a way in which the universities could serve those who were unable for some reason to pursue higher education by full-time study.

Women's education in Saudi Arabia grew slowly in the wake of men's education during the decades of development and the era of the oil-boom. While men's education was increasingly seen as a vital way to provide trained manpower to replace foreign workers, women's education, especially at a higher level, continued to be seen as problematic. However, the Fourth Development Plan 1985-90 (Ministry of Planning, 1985, pp.55-56) spoke of a master plan for higher education development, including higher education of women, which would seek to make higher education systems more responsive to the requirements of development and the needs of the labor market. Table 2.4 shows that the Fourth Plan
estimates that the enrollment of females in elementary and intermediate schools would grow more quickly than for males between 1984 and 1989. The enrollment of females, however, would continue to lag behind that of males in general education.

Table 2.4
Fourth Plan Estimates of General Education Enrollment and New Entrants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Category and Level</th>
<th>1984/85 (Number)</th>
<th>1989/90 (Number)</th>
<th>Average Annual Growth %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Enrollment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>672,000</td>
<td>841,000</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>168,000</td>
<td>217,000</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>74,000</td>
<td>110,000</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Enrollment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>476,000</td>
<td>676,000</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>115,000</td>
<td>166,000</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>64,000</td>
<td>95,000</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male New Entrants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>123,000</td>
<td>142,000</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>59,000</td>
<td>86,000</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>27,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female New Entrants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>107,000</td>
<td>139,000</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>74,000</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>27,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11-6, Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990 (Ministry of Planning, 1985).

Expenditure for the Fourth Development Plan was estimated at 56,601.5 million Saudi Riyals for the Ministry of Education (for boys), and 28,630 million Saudi Riyals for girls (Ministry of Planning, 1985, p. 278). This allocation of money shows that the priority of the Kingdom is the
education of boys. In higher education the growth rate from 1979 to 1983 was 10.9% for men and 22% for women. However, an analysis of the numbers of students enrolled for 1983 shows that Saudi males made up 51.5% while Saudi females made up only 28%. The number of female students is smaller but growing more rapidly. The plan estimates that 10.8% of nineteen-year old females sought admission to higher education in 1984 and that 11.6% would seek admission in 1989/1990. The comparable estimates for males of age nineteen were 17.2% and 17.7% (Ministry of Planning, 1985, p.280).

Conclusion

The history of women's education in Saudi Arabia shows that women face unique difficulties in pursuing their education. These difficulties seem to fall into three categories. The first is the conservative attitude of people in Saudi Arabia to the education of women. The second is the cultural tradition of Saudi Arabia which holds that women's most important role is in the home. This does not encourage people to send their daughters to school and college. The third difficulty is that the opportunities given to women to study were very limited at the beginnings of women's education, and are still limited.
Several conclusions can be drawn from the above historical outline of women's education. These are as follows:

1. The education of women followed in the wake of that of men and was smaller in scale. This does not help women find their true place in modern Saudi society.

2. Women as a group are less educated than men.

3. In higher education some subjects, especially science subjects, were not available to women in some universities until long after they were available to men, and some science subjects are still closed to women, e.g. engineering.

4. The ulama and religious leaders have great power over the education of women.

5. Distance education could be a suitable way to help women in Saudi Arabia pursue higher education.

6. Saudi Arabia has already made use of external study in a way which is related to distance education, but has not done so in a way which makes use of modern advances in that field.
External study was used when the universities were limited in the courses they could offer to women on the conventional campuses. As soon as courses were available in a conventional setting external study was phased out.

External study was regarded as a stop-gap rather than as a method in its own right. The way in which the external study programmes were carried out was not very useful to the students and the universities preferred conventional study because they believed it was a better way than external study. However, in spite of the growth of the conventional higher education system, a radical solution is needed to solve the problems of those women who cannot obtain access to conventional higher education either because of the limited number of places and increasing demand, or because of their role in Saudi society.
CHAPTER III

STATUS OF WOMEN

Introduction

Education for women in Saudi Arabia functions in an Islamic society which is making a determined effort to develop its human resources, having already acquired the physical infrastructure of a modern society. The education of women has a relationship with their status, and so this chapter examines the place given to women in Islamic teaching. It looks at the place of women in contemporary Western society. It will also examine the status of women in Saudi Arabia and how far it exemplifies the Islamic status of women and will note the similarities and differences in the experience of women in Saudi Arabia and the West today.

The Status of Women in Islam

Women make up approximately half of every society, but in history there is little record of their playing important roles apart from those of motherhood and being a wife. Many
religions exclude women from their central hierarchies, and in many states the participation of women in the political sphere at public or responsible levels is low (Boulding, 1976, p.8). Apart from the unacknowledged contribution of women in every society, however, there have been some women who contributed a great deal and found a place in the record of history, as for example, Hagar, the second wife of Abraham, Khadija the wife of the Prophet Mohammed (PBUH), and in the more recent history of the West, Florence Nightingale and Margaret Thatcher. Such women seem to be the exception in the record of history.

When Islam came and spread through Arabia and then into other countries, it provided a new framework for society in which women found their special place. In Islam sacred and secular are not separated, and its teachings affect every aspect of social life. Ideally, the woman has full membership of the Islamic community. She has full rights and duties and is entitled to the same reward as man. The Quran says:

Whoever works righteousness, whether male or female while he or (she) is a believer, verily to him, we will give a good life (in this world) and we shall pay them certainly a reward in proportion to the best of what they used to do. (Quran, xvi:97).
Islam, for example, gives her the right to choose her husband and the right to inherit. As AlTurabi (1984, p.8) stated, Islam gives woman independence, quoting the cases of some women at the time of the Prophet (PBUH) who became Muslims and who were encouraged to remain independent of male relatives (or husbands) who had not become Muslims.

Islam, however, does not ignore the differences between the sexes, whether physical, psychological or in social role, but sees them as ordained by the Creator. Man and woman are complementary. They work together in marriage for each other and for their children.

In Islam, man and woman enter into marriage freely. The woman must give her consent. The protection given to the woman when she gets married is continued throughout marriage and even in the event of divorce. The family of the husband must make a gift to the bride and this dowry is her property, for her exclusive use, while the husband must use his resources to provide for his wife and family. Thus, for the husband marriage is not something to be entered into lightly, and the economics of the arrangement curb man's tendency to use and discard women. The dowry also gives the woman security and protection. Muslims must follow what the Quran says:
and give the women (whom you marry) their dowry (Maher) as gift but if they, of their own good pleasure, remit any part of it to you, take it and enjoy it without fear of any harm (as Allah has made it lawful). (Quran, IV:4).

This shows that the dowry remains in the woman's possession and under her control, but in fact most women will share it with their husbands if they need it.

Islam instituted a system for divorce which protects women. Although the husband has the right to end the marriage, this should only happen after a serious attempt on the part of the families of the couple to arbitrate and if possible to effect a reconciliation. Women do not have this right (to end the marriage) but they can include in their marriage contracts clauses stating grounds which would entitle them to a divorce. If a husband divorces his wife he must pay her an amount of money which has been decided on in the contract. Women may also seek a divorce on the grounds of irreconcilable differences. If the woman initiates divorce proceedings she must return the dowry to her husband. If, on the other hand, he has divorced her she keeps the dowry and also receives whatever divorce payment was agreed in the marriage contract. A wife can also initiate divorce on the grounds of impotence, insanity, or serious ill health. She can also ask for divorce if the husband is
imprisoned for a serious crime or imprisoned for a long period.

Divorce, however, is only permitted as a last resort. The current practice in Saudi Arabia follows Islamic teaching for both man and woman. The Prophet (PBUH) said 'Of all things God permitted the one he most dislikes is divorce'. In general, a couple should either hold together on reasonable terms or separate with kindness. And the Quran said "The divorce is only permissible twice, after that the parties should either hold together on reasonable terms or separate with kindness". (Quran 11: 229).

In the event of divorce, Islam allows a woman to choose between keeping the children with her and letting her husband keep them with him. Alternatively the husband and the wife may make an agreement for their support.

Islam changed the position of the married woman from that of unpaid slave to give her full rights over her property. Both man and woman have the right to inherit, as the Quran says:

There is a share for men and a share for women from what is left by parent and those nearest relatives, whether the property be small or large - a legal share.' (Quran IV:7).
It is clear from the teaching of Islam and Islamic history that women have political rights. They have the right to participate in public affairs. Early Moslem scholars, such as Abu Hanifa and AlTabary, quoted in Badawi (1975, p. 141), held that a woman can become a judge. Aisha, the wife of Prophet (PBUH), played a public role during his life and after his death, and in the election for leadership the Prophet (PBUH) sought the women's endorsement as Al Turabi (1984, p.13) notes. In early Islam women enjoyed an active role in the affairs of the community, but since then this has seldom been realized.

Bashier (1980, p.14) states that women have full membership of the Islamic community and share responsibility with men for maintaining the political and religious authority of God and His Messenger.

Women also have the right to run a business and to be involved in trading as they were in the society of the time of the Prophet and his Khalifs. For example, the Khalif Omar appointed a woman as official supervisor of business and pricing. A woman can also hold a teaching position, but she is not obliged to participate in Jihad and Dawah (Al
Some people however, see polygamy as depriving women of their rights. Polygamy was widespread in the world before the time of the Prophet. It was subject to many abuses and Islam sought to remedy these, protect women, and keep society stable. Islam did not impose polygamy. Monogamy is the norm and polygamy is a carefully regulated exception. A husband must treat all his wives with equal fairness and respect. The number of wives was limited to four by Islam. Life for a single woman was very difficult before the time of the Prophet (PBUH) and is still difficult today. Inter-tribal conflict in the past often led to a situation where women outnumbered men. These extra women might have sought protection in illicit relations with married men. The children born of such relations would have been disadvantaged and marked for life as illegitimate. Polygamy was a way of obtaining a balance in society.

Polygamy allows the husband to keep a wife who is chronically ill or who cannot have children. In such cases the wife need not lose the security and love of her home. People outside the Muslim world have often equated polygamy with licentiousness. There is certainly an abuse of polygamy and divorce in which men take wives and leave them
as they please. This is not in harmony with Islamic teaching which emphasizes just and kind treatment of women and respect for motherhood.

Another aspect of Islamic teaching which people sometimes find difficult is the teaching on inheritance. Because it is the man who is responsible for providing for his wife and children, he will inherit twice as much as the woman. The man is responsible for paying off all the debts that the dead person had, whereas women are exempt from this responsibility.

Though Islam gives many rights to women it does not ignore the differences between the sexes and the difference in their social roles. This is seen in the requirement for two witnesses if they are women. One must remember that the court of law in Islam is a religious court. It is judged more fitting for man than woman to play a public role in a religious context. In Christianity and Judaism, at least up until quite recently, official positions were held only by men and continue to be held only by men in the more traditional branches of these religions.

In Muslim society, the family is very important and close-knit and women exercise great influence as wives and
mothers. This influence extends far beyond the family. The mother is the first educator of her children. They are obliged to obey her and respect her all their lives. The mother has an important place in the religious education of her children both as instructor and as role model.

The above shows that Islam gives a woman equality with men before God and gives her a strong position in the family and in society. However, although this strong position was realized at the time of the Prophet (PBUH) and to a greater or lesser extent in the time immediately afterwards, in the later centuries, after Islam had spread widely, woman's position changed due to the weakness of man. A falling away from faith led men to substitute their own desires and convenience for the standards of Islam.

Answers to the questions about the status of women in developing Saudi Arabia must found in an Islamic framework. Some people wrongly believe that progress means departure from Islam. The teaching of Islam is the basic law of Saudi Arabia. In actual practice women benefit from full application of the laws regarding divorce and inheritance. However, in any Muslim society not everyone will live up to the full demands of Islamic teaching. Shaker, (1972, p.323) gives an account of how some people depart from the demands
of Islamic teaching, and cites arranged marriage without the consent of the bride and the demand for high dowries as examples of failure to reach the ideal.

The Status of Women
in the Second Half of the 20th Century in the West

In the early 20th century, according to Encel and McKenzie (1975, p.18), women in the West got some of their rights, such as the right to vote and hold political office, access to higher education, and property rights in marriage. However, Islam gave most of these rights to women a long time ago and women made use of them at the time of the Prophet (PBUH). Greer (1970, p. 12) notes that in the West, legislative bodies and the professions remained male-dominated long after women had gained access to them.

The 20th century has seen a steady movement of women into the workplace. Harriman (1985, p.33) states that in 1960, 37.3% of adult women in the United states were in the workplace:by 1981 this figure has risen to 52.1%. In 1983 52% of all wives in the US were working and a breakdown of this figure shows that the participation rate varied from 45% in the case of mothers of infants (0-2 years old) to a maximum of 67% in the case of mothers of school-age children.
(Harriman, 1985, p. 36). Similar trends exist in other Western countries. In Saudi Arabia the opportunities for women to work are few and many career options are not made available for them.

Changes in technology and the labor shortages created by two World Wars seem to have brought women into the workplace and given her a new status, more than the legal improvements won by the emancipation movement. Improved contraception techniques, especially the contraceptive pill, have been accompanied by a decrease in family size which leaves women with greater freedom for work outside the home. Giele (1977, p. 5) notes that some writers emphasize the extent to which the status of women is determined by their economic activities.

It is not clear that the freedom to work outside the home which was brought about by smaller family size and technology has really improved the position of women. Nicol quoted by Haddad (1987) in Wright et al. (1987, p. 47), stated that "technology aggravates the existing disparities in earnings and in socio-political efficacy between man and woman". The pattern of female employment has been underpaid, manual, and supportive. In Saudi Arabia, however, technological development has not led to the formation of a
pool of low paid women workers. Saudi women have made some entrance into technical and clerical work in special projects. However, because women are just entering the world of work in Saudi Arabia, and because they haven't yet developed skills, their numbers are few.

Brimelow (1981, p. 314) states that most women who work in the British Civil Service find themselves in low status, badly paid, unskilled work. There are many reasons for this. In most countries the husband is the breadwinner and is therefore seen as being more entitled to a well paid job. When a woman works outside the home her work is not seen as a serious contribution to the family's economic welfare. This is the case in Saudi Arabia. If a Saudi woman has a profession it may well be seen as a diversion or something taken up to give her the opportunity to have an active social role. Elsewhere a young woman may be seen as having ability or talent but she may also be perceived as a pretty girl whose eventual marriage may interrupt her career or at least give her a strong commitment outside the job, something which is not perceived in the case of her male counterparts.

Such perceptions, states Brimelow (1981, p. 329), can be very important in the recruitment and promotion of women.
Their careers may be seen as a poor investment in terms of time, money and energy, as they may well be interrupted by child bearing and child care. They (the careers) will be seen as secondary to their husbands', as traditionally a wife's status is derived from her husband's and she generally moves to follow the demands of her husband's career, rather than vice versa (Brimelow, 1981, p. 319).

Harriman (1985, p. 38,39) notes that the sexual division of labor has been a characteristic of every society, but that in the last decade the assignment by sex to specific tasks has actually decreased. However, it still exists, and Harriman (p. 39, citing Rytina and Bianchi, 1984) states that nearly half of all female professionals (in the US) are either nurses or teachers.

In Saudi Arabia, most working women are employed as teachers. However, because of the segregation of education in Saudi Arabia women's careers in teaching and school management are not in competition with men's, though education is controlled by ministries made up of men.

Although women in the West are increasingly finding opportunities in areas once largely confined to men, and at managerial levels, they are still lower earners. Overall,
Harriman (1985, p. 43) notes that from 1979 to 1982 (for workers over 25) average earnings for women rose from 61% to 64% of average earnings for men.

Through work outside the home women have the experience of independence and of being able to pursue their interests and to develop the professional skills which they had before marriage. They may also be able to contribute to the family income, and this can be very useful in today's consumer society. However, Brimelow (1981, p. 320) notes that the work involved in running the household is estimated at 17-20 hours per week and that the responsibility for the children continues, in most cases, to be the wife's. Work outside the family, then, can bring extra duties with a sometimes small reward, without diminishing domestic responsibility. (This is also true in Saudi Arabia.) Nevertheless, a 1979 U.S. Government survey (quoted in the American Academic Encyclopedia, 1981, p. 202) has shown that women in the U.S.A. are receiving more help than ever before from their husbands with domestic and child duties.

In Saudi Arabia the career of the wife comes second to her identity as wife and mother. In some cases the husband will veto it because he believes that his wife should not have an interest outside the home. However, some men treat
their wives more as partners, and are happy to see them having a career. This is one indication that the position of women may improve in future.

If entry to the world of work outside the home has not always improved women's status in the developed countries, its effect in developing countries has sometimes been even more negative. Haddad (in Wright et. al., 1987, pp.44-51) states that here, contact with the West, either through colonization or through a search for technological advancement, has changed the traditional social patterns of women's work. In these changes women often lose their productive role in the traditional family-centered economic unit and end up doing unskilled low-paid work in factories run by men. Development in Saudi Arabia has not led to women becoming wage-earners in the industrial and service sectors. Haddad (in Wright, 1987, p. 51) notes that the similarities in the way industrialization and technological change have affected women's economic status in developed and developing countries are remarkable.

The same prejudices which keep women in lower paid, low status jobs, and hinder their attainment of equal representation in higher status jobs, deny many gifted women access to higher education. Education, especially higher educa-
tion, is the path to a career, and statistics quoted in the Encyclopedia Britannica (1975 p. 913) for the U.S.A., Great Britain, France, West Germany and Scandinavia, show a strong positive correlation between the educational level and the employment of women. In many countries a family will prefer to allocate its resources to the education of sons rather than daughters, as marriage is seen as the way forward for a girl. However, the Encyclopedia Britannica (1975, p. 913) notes that the prestige and practical economic value of higher education has led to its no longer being seen as having a negative effect on a girls' chances of marriage.

In Saudi Arabia, the education level of a prospective wife will be considered carefully by a man. If she is highly educated, it will be seen as negative by some, positive by others. The confidence and independence of an educated wife will affect the family structure and the rearing of the children, hopefully in a positive way for future society.

The emancipation of women and their emergence into the world of work outside the home has been positive in some of its effects and negative in others. When a woman is able to earn an independent income and have a role in the wider society outside the home her status grows. When she leaves
the domestic world and spends much of her working life competing with man on an equal basis or in a subordinate role, she is subject to new pressures. She can sometimes find herself devalued or valued only as a plaything, she may end up by trying to succeed by pleasing man.

**The Status of Women in Saudi Arabia**

Development in Saudi Arabia has proceeded as in other countries but at a much faster rate. Although many aspects of the society have changed due to modernization, the position of women has remained largely unchanged. In November 1988, Nasseef, in Arab News (1988, p. 11) in an address on the position of women in felt it necessary to re-state the traditional view that the main task of woman is to take care of the family, create a healthy home environment, and ensure that her husband is satisfied so that the whole family is living in a healthy and happy home.

In some cases, the position of women has been adversely affected by the recent transformation of Saudi society following the oil boom. Rehemi (1983, p.36) cites studies made in the 1970’s (Boserup, 1970; Buvinic, 1976; E. Boulding, 1976) which show that the introduction of new technologies does not usually benefit women. Al Baadi (1982) and Bould-
ing (1976) note that women may lose their productive role and be limited to a domestic role when technological development supplants traditional industries.

Before modernization, Saudi women in the cities were busy in their homes, providing food and clothing for their families and taking care of them when they were ill. Women outside the cities worked in the fields or with the herds. Poorer women sold the products of their work in the women's markets. Al Baadi (1982, p. 202) notes that these roles were diminished or swept away when the goods and services of the new economy arrived with the oil boom. Similarly Osama (1987, p. 155) states that the oil boom actually harmed women in Saudi Arabia by turning them into consumers of foreign goods and by depriving them of their positive role through dependence on foreign labor. Because women's education is of recent origin women do not have the confidence in or awareness of a new role in modern society that is found in the West, where education for women has been generally available for about one hundred years.

As in the West, they may be burdened with two roles, i.e. the roles of home maker and wage earner. Most educated women in Saudi Arabia and many women in the West must carry out two roles, because even if women take up work outside
the home, they cannot leave their role as mother in any country. On the other hand, educated women are often dissatisfied if they are confined to their roles as wives and mothers, and seek a role outside the home.

Saudi Arabia is the country in which Islam was revealed. This has influenced the role of women before development, and also the search for a new role during development. The Islamic definition of the woman’s role, noted Rehemi (1983) in his *Survey of the Attitude of Saudi Men and Women towards Saudi Female Participation in Saudi Arabian Development*, (pp. 11-12) is not designed to restrict women but to give them an honorable place in the divine order of things. However, Naseef (1988, p. 11) admits that in the last few decades of great social and economic change women have been neglected and have been given lower status in society. He also stresses the need to restore the social, political, and educational systems according to the Islamic model in which women will find their true role.

Cultural practices have influenced the way in which Quranic prescription is realized in Moslem countries. Women have been excluded from the educational process and their participation in social, economic, and political affairs has been limited. As we have seen in the section on the Status
of Women in Islam, this does not reflect the strong position which Islam gives women and which was found at the time of the Prophet (PBUH). Traditionally women are expected to be home-makers, not only responsible for the tasks of cleaning, cooking, and childrearing, but also for maintaining good family relationships. Hallawani’s research (1982, p. 107) showed that most Saudi women see their first responsibilities as being to their husbands and children, with work outside the home being in a secondary place. This is true in many societies, where marriage comes first for women and work outside the home second.

Saudi Arabia has accepted the benefits of new technology but its people strongly desire to preserve their own identity and traditions.

The oil-created prosperity of the 1950’s and early 1960’s according to Al Baadi (1982, p. 100), resulted in the emergence of a middle class of men who sought compatible wives to share their modern and more sophisticated lives. The rapid urbanization of this era had an effect on the place of women, as Al Suwaigh (no date, p.6) notes. She attributes the slow development of women’s position in urban Saudi Arabia to deeply rooted social norms, limitations in the quality and quantity of women’s education, and the ex-
clusion of women from full participation in the labour market (Al Suwaigh, pp. 21, 22). The extended family gave way to the nuclear family and polygamy became rarer (Al Suwaigh, p. 18). However, she also states that the traditional role of women was not modified so much, partly due to their being largely excluded from job opportunities in the modern sector, although there is a need for skilled manpower in Saudi Arabia (Al Suwaigh, pp. 21, 22).

The perception of the changing role of women in Saudi Arabia focussed more on their becoming successful wives and mothers in the rapidly modernizing society than on their playing an active role outside the home.

Al Baadi (1982, p. 100) notes that the growing number of middle class men saw modern schools as the means by which the educational level of Saudi girls could be improved, as a way to bridging the gap between the sexes. Although there was opposition from conservative quarters, the need for more literate and modern housewives prevailed and girls schools were opened in 1960 under the jurisdiction of the Islamic scholars.

In an analysis of 84 relevant newspaper articles from 5 Saudi Arabian newspapers between 1955 and 1961, Al Baadi
found that the young men of the middle class felt that Saudi girls did not make suitable wives because of their lack of education. As a result of this many of them married foreign women. Al Baadi also notes (pp. 73,74) that more than 100 foreign brides arrived in Saudi Arabia every year at this time. This offended the national pride and led to an awareness of the need for women's education.

Saudi Arabia had been isolated from foreign influences up to the 1950s, when some steps in modernizing transportation and communications were made. Foreign travel, radio and books from abroad increased Saudi women's awareness of other societies where women were less disadvantaged. This awareness gave the women new role models and encouraged them to pursue educational opportunities.

The General Presidency of Girls Education states as its objective that women should be educated in a sound Islamic way, so that they can fulfill their role in life as successful housewives, ideal wives, and good mothers, and be prepared for other activities that suit their nature, such as teaching, nursing, and medicine. (The traditions and values of some societies limit the kind of work considered appropriate for women, though not to the extent that Saudi Arabia does, and often a small number of women make news by
finding a place in an occupation traditionally regarded as for men only. Even in those societies where women do most kinds of work that men do there are special conditions for their employment, especially in hazardous tasks such as mining.) The objective of the General Presidency is based on religious views and aims to prepare the girl for a life of service dedicated to her husband. 'The ideal woman according to Islam is seen as being loyal to Islam, domestic in her activities, retiring before male strangers and committed to the honor of her husband's family' (Minai, in Rehemi p.51). Both in the desert and the town family obligations take precedence and the world of the woman is her family. The men of the family have obligations and duties to their womenfolk.

However, the opening of the schools was in direct opposition to the view that woman's role as wife and mother did not require formal education for its fulfillment. This view is still found in conservative circles in Saudi Arabia.

When women's education had been in operation for some years, the debate on its effect on society continued. The Ulama continued to view modern education, especially for girls, with suspicion, while the intellectuals who encouraged its development saw it as a way forward in a
rapidly developing society from which they felt women were being excluded. This suspicion of the religious authorities came from the belief that if the woman was allowed to work outside her home it would destroy her behavior and lead ultimately to the breakdown of the family unit. Jamal (1980), a conservative writer, quoted four reasons why negative attitudes towards college educated young women are sometimes found: independence in thinking, less willingness to obey their husbands, an inclination to assume western ways, and no interest in housework. Such women, he felt, would want fewer children.

It is true that an educated woman is more likely to want to discuss things with her husband rather than to offer servile, unquestioning obedience, and that she will have an interest wider than housework. It doesn’t follow that she will be less good wife or mother and indeed, as noted above, Al Baadi (1982, p. 98) found that Saudi men wanted educated wives in the early 1950s and 1960s. As education opens the possibility of roles other than those of wife and mother, family size may decrease. However, it is wrong to suggest that the extension of opportunities for women necessarily destroys their position in the family.
In Saudi Arabia, under the guidance of Islam, and true to the traditions which place great value on family ties, women can enjoy a partnership with their husbands which gives them the strength to have a role outside the home without damaging their role within it. This may not be the norm, but it is increasingly common. This is also the ideal which many pursue in the West.

Women’s education, continued to expand, as outlined in Chapter II. In 1968, according to Al Manea (1984, p. 96), a Royal Decree merged the curricula of boys and girls schools except for physical education and with the addition of home management and child care for the girls.

However, The Educational Policy in the Saudi Arabian Kingdom (K.S.A., 1974, p. 28) states that the object of female education is to produce good wives and mothers. The second goal is to produce teachers of girls. To this end, the government opened new teacher training colleges in 1970 for young Saudi women, thereby opening to them a new role as workers to meet the demands of the girls’ education sector.

153 "The object of woman (sic) education is to bring her up in a sound Islamic way so that she can fulfill her role in life as a successful housewife, ideal wife and good mother, and to prepare her for other activities that suit her nature such as teaching, nursing and medicine.
The State takes interest in teaching girls, providing necessary and possible facilities to accommodate all those who reach schooling age and giving them the opportunity to fill teaching posts that suit their nature and meet the demands of the country."

In 1960, when the government first allowed girls' schools, the teaching posts had to be filled by expatriates. As late as 1965 there were no female Saudi teachers. Now most working women in Saudi Arabia are employed as teachers in girls' schools or colleges, where men are not permitted to work. By 1989 there were 54,659 Saudi women teachers in government schools (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1989, p.2). In the West also, in modern times, the first large-scale movement of educated women into paid work was through teaching. The segregation of education in Saudi Arabia ensures that they have a guarantee of many work positions.

Some Saudi writers such as Jamal have said that the curricula of girls' schools should prepare pupils for home and motherhood and not for employment. The examples quoted from the girls' schools textbooks in Chapter II reflect this view. Al Duraibi (1966) in Al Manea (1984, p. 93,94) noted that some officials held the view that girls' education should not go beyond intermediate level. They believed that intermediate education was sufficient for women's education and that higher education would lead them into roles where, after professional training, they would mix with men.
The access of women to higher education in Saudi Arabia is less than that of men though it has been growing at a faster rate in recent years. Women need more access to higher education because of their increasing participation in secondary education and because secondary education does not by itself put them in a position to find work or lead to a sufficiently high level of attainment in a rapidly developing country.

Some conservatives, however, are more concerned with controlling women's access to higher education than with increasing it. Al Manea (1984, p. 109,110) quoted a report presented at the General Symposium on Higher Education held during the autumn of 1982 by a high ranking official of the GPGE. In his report, 'Directing Women's Higher Education towards the Nation's Need', he asked the universities to close their doors to women, so that there would be one institution where women would pursue their higher education (the GPGE) rather than six. This is clearly a restriction of the access of women to higher education. This view is not representative but it is clear that some people in Saudi Arabia believe that the education of women is not important, especially higher education.
The provision of higher education at graduate level in most areas outside Arabic and Islamic studies has been slow to develop in the Kingdom. Many young men were given scholarships to travel abroad for graduate studies in order to meet the need for Saudi university staff. Previously some women were given scholarships for graduate work abroad but the number was much smaller than the number of men. Opportunities for women were mainly limited to the wives of male graduate students studying abroad. For women who remained in Saudi Arabia, opportunities for graduate work have always been fewer than for men.

Al-Mana (1981, p.264) notes some examples of changing government policies in the 1960s and 70s. Saudi Arabia in the 1960s granted some scholarships to females without restrictions. In 1981 scholarships for women were discontinued, and the authorities insisted that those women already abroad be accompanied by a mahram. As a result, at present it is normally possible for a married woman to study abroad only when she is in the company of her husband who is himself studying on a scholarship. To receive financial aid is primarily for the husband, not the wife.

More recent laws have allowed women to travel abroad alone, providing that they carry written permission to do so
from their mahram (male guardian). Educated women find this requirement, i.e., the carrying of a written authorization, demeaning, as it constantly reminds them of their inferior position. This feeling is also common among younger women, but older women react to it in a different way. They do not see the carrying of a paper as sufficient, and prefer to be accompanied by a mahram, seeing this as necessary under Islam. However, AlBaadi (1982, p.132) notes that the possibility of travelling unescorted is a step forward in the independence of women.

Bahry (1982, p.513-514) notes that girls have been allowed to leave home and live on the university campus whilst 20 years previously it was unheard of for a girl to leave her family home until the time came for her to be married. However, these girls live under the protection and control of a guardian, so the traditional values are enforced even when some innovation in practice is permitted. Again, today some women play active parts in welfare societies, and no objections are raised. However, women depend on the agreement and co-operation of their male relatives if they are to carry out these roles.

Much of higher education today is seen as enabling the student to take up a useful position in complex, modern
society. In a developing country where skilled workers are in short supply and great demand this is especially true. Higher education has been opened to women in Saudi Arabia, as seen in the chapter on the History of Women’s Education in Saudi Arabia and many have succeeded in this area, in spite of the difficulties. The question of a role for female university graduates in the development of Saudi Arabia has been debated for years, for example in the interview with AlAwaji, and in the theses of Shaker, AlMana, (1981), Al Baadi (1984), Rehemi (1984), and Al Manea, (1984). However, the West has been producing women graduates for many years but they still find themselves at a disadvantage in their careers as Brimelow (1981, p. 313-315) notes.

Although many women have tried to play a part in development, centralized planning has led to a limitation of opportunities and an imbalance in their distribution. For example, Rehemi (1983, p.46), citing Minces, noted that there was a surplus of Saudi teachers for elementary schools and a lack of opportunity for women with higher degrees. Against the present background of falling oil revenues and the desire to reduce the country’s dependence on foreign labor, the question of women’s participation in development demands an urgent answer.
At present, women’s contribution to the labor force in the Gulf region is still very low, despite the educational revolution and the great need for labor. The Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990 (Ministry of Planning, 1985, p. 84, Table 5-7) states that Saudi women civilian employees (government employees, including teachers) in 1984/1985 were 7.7% of the total Saudi civilian employment though this was expected to rise to 8.2 percent by 1989/1990. A Special Report on Women’s Role in the Arab World compiled by the International Labour Organization office in Beirut (1982) and quoted in Rehemi (1983, p. 39) warned that the ambitious goals of the developing Arab countries will not be met unless women are included in the work of development. Nelson (in Rehemi, 1983, p. 40) notes that it is destructive to build institutions and infrastructures in a developing country without allowing the people to participate in creating and running them. Development without the participation of women is inefficient and will fail to benefit the whole society. It will widen the gap between men and women and increase the subordination of the latter. The subordination of women is also reinforced by the traditions and customs of Saudi Arabia.

In the West many families need two incomes. In Saudi Arabia this is seldom the case. At present in Saudi Arabia,
men are urgently seeking paid employment and a wage economy is rapidly coming into existence. According to the teaching of Islam the wife is dependent on her husband and female participation in the workforce is taking second place to the establishment of a Saudi male workforce. Furthermore, most women in Saudi Arabia do not have higher education and do not look for work.

It is the belief that women have no role outside the home, together with the lack of educational opportunities for women, that prevents them from finding a place in the developing economy of the region. Al Marsougi, according to AlHarethi (1985, p.2), said that being a woman in the Middle East is like being handicapped. The effect of traditional norms on women have kept them frozen in traditional roles. For example, there have been schools for nursing in Saudi Arabia for the past twenty-seven years, but today Saudi nurses are rare, even in women’s hospitals. Given that Saudi society has been experiencing very rapid socio-economic changes and a great expansion in the variety of roles open to men the relative status of women has diminished. Even their productive roles in the household have been undermined. The widespread introduction of expatriate domestic help has diminished the traditional role of the Saudi woman.
In his study of development in the Arabian Peninsula, Osama (1987) arrives at the same conclusion. In Saudi Arabia, women are not under pressure to go out to work. In the West, many families need two incomes. In Saudi Arabia, the husband must provide for his wife according to Sharia as noted in the section on the Status of Women in Islam. Even if the family is poor, local tradition does not see the contribution which could be made by a wage-earning wife as the answer. Education, especially higher education, is less widespread among women than in the West. There is no employment for women in low-paid service jobs in Saudi Arabia as there is in the West, and there are only a few positions for well qualified women.

The question of whether women should work or not, and in which fields they should be allowed to work, has been discussed at government level in Saudi Arabia. The government is nervous about encouraging women's participation in new fields. This is clear from the speech of the Deputy Minister of the Interior Dr. Ibrahim Al Awaji in a symposium on the problems of manpower in Saudi Arabia.

What I know is that there is a high commission set up to study the roles or fields in which the (Saudi) woman can work. I think that if you were to question all (government) authorities and all citizens today on this matter of women's work, they would all agree that she should work. But the real question, actually, is,
'where should a woman work?' This, i.e., the question of where women should work, is an ambiguous point. Where should a woman work? Where are the exact boundaries of her work within which our traditions and values will not be violated. We cannot address women's work in an absolute manner: we must decide the specific fields in which she can work without falling into any violations of morality (mahthoorat). (Al Riyadh 4632. 11/7/1400 A.H. - 1980 ., p.6).

Al-Awaji's statement shows a government awareness of the question of women’s work and of the moral and social values which make any changes in this area difficult. Naseef (1988, p.11) admits that women have a part to play in development although he emphasizes the need to preserve their primary role as mothers and wives and the conditions of segregation under which they must work. The official reaction, then, to the question of women’s work is to define their traditional place in society which work is seen as threatening.

The government has employed increasing number of women in the Civil Service, and private enterprises run and staffed by women have appeared. All of these follow government regulation on segregation. However, the workforce remains almost exclusively male outside education where Saudi women instruct Saudi girls.
That the acute manpower shortage could be drastically reduced by allowing women to work is clear. Naseef (1980), a male engineer, wrote an article in Al-Jazeera's women's section, suggesting some other areas where Saudi women could work.

Someone reading the introduction of my article might think that I am calling for a complete integration of men's and women's work. I am not. Such (an integration) may not be suitable for our society at the present time. What I am calling for, however, is that more fields of work be opened for Saudi women to contribute more to the development of their society and also to fulfill themselves, especially as we have such an acute shortage of Saudi workers and employ almost two million foreign workers to do jobs many of which Saudi female citizens can do .... I will mention just a few of such (work) fields as examples" the sorting of mail: typing; clerical work and filing and record keeping. (AlJazeera, 2960, 9/14/1980, p.2).

If development has largely left women out of the new world of work in the modern sector it has also left them at a disadvantage in the new areas of home loans and financial assistance. These loans were originally for both men and women, but in 1977 a new regulation restricted home loans and financial assistance to widowed and divorced women who owned land. The reason for this restriction was that the programme had created problems between women and their husbands or guardians due to quarrels about money and had led to an increase in the divorce rate.
The government felt obliged to modify a programme which was having a negative influence on families. However, even where women were allowed loans or financial assistance, they needed the help of a man in order to gain access to the government agencies which administer these loans because of the cultural prohibition against women going to those offices staffed by males. Few women, notes Almana (1981, p. 185-187), can either afford to hire a male attorney or can be sure of the assistance of a male guardian in the timeconsuming task of processing these papers.

Although 85% of the women employed by the government are in the Directorate of Girls' Schools, Al Mana (1981, pp. 62, 63) notes that the top posts are reserved for men. The remaining 15% of women employed by the government have to find a place in those areas open to women, e.g. university education, the medical profession, etc.

Rehemi (1983, p. 60) notes that although women hold middle management posts in government social work, they have very little influence on policy and decision making. In Saudi Arabia, the culture makes it difficult for a woman to play an executive role even in organizations staffed by women. Though women may be at the top in such organizations they are always controlled or responsible to men who have
the real authority. However, Osama (1987, p.183) notes that in the West, where many women work, few of them occupy top administrative jobs, quoting a ratio of one woman to six hundred men at this level in the United States. Brimelow (1981, p.313) observed that in the British Civil service in 1980 women were over-represented at the lower grades and very much under-represented at higher grades.

Algadi in Allaghi and Almana (1984, p.25) lists some of the difficulties that face working women in Saudi Arabia. Their husbands, fathers, or brothers might stop them working or might not provide the necessary transportation. There are few jobs for women, mostly in the female sector of public education, social work, and health. If women find work, they can be hindered by lack of child care facilities. There is a lack of economic incentive as it is the husband's duty to earn the family income as already noted in this study. Finally, cultural heritage dictates the division of labor between the sexes.

Saudi women who work have numerous problems, principally those of meeting the demands of family responsibility while working. Child care, household duties, and transportation are everyday problems. Saidi (1989) summarizes the research of Al Nimir which shows that 58% of
working women face serious problems in transportation, while 29% face less acute problems. The latter include depending on relatives and length of time spent in waiting. In some cases husbands may not wish their wives to work. The two month maternity leave is widely considered to be too short. There is a scarcity of daycare centers which would permit the working mother to be close to her baby for feeding. Sometimes the job can be very frustrating because of bureaucracy. Some men fear that a woman with a job will not respect her husband because of her financial independence (House, 1981, p.20). In Saudi Arabia male pride demands that the wife be dependent. In the West, however, while it is now accepted that both husband and wife may work, many people still regard it as unusual when a wife earns a lot more than her husband or when the husband is unemployed and the wife becomes the breadwinner for the family: here male pride demands that the wife does not become the main provider.

Saudi Arabia is an Islamic country, and according to Islamic teaching, as Naseef (1988, p.11) stated in an interview, the mixing of the sexes in the workplace should be very much limited. This raises practical questions in areas such as nursing, but the Saudi Government has encouraged the training of nurses, and in maternity hospitals mixing of the sexes can be minimized.
From the above we can see that women in Saudi Arabia are in a difficult position because their hands are tied and whichever way they turn they find family restrictions and bureaucracy frustrating their attempts to further their education and seek a place in the labor market. Without the active encouragement of a male, whether father, husband, brother, or son to ease their progress they are unable to move forward. They are imprisoned within the traditional restrictions of Saudi society. These traditions are intensified when the woman becomes a mother because the norms of society make her feel guilty when she wants to continue with her education or work. Saidi (1989, p.11) noted from Al Nimir's survey that only 26% of women interviewed felt that their work was strongly appreciated by society, while 63% felt that their work wasn't much appreciated, and 11% felt that their work was totally rejected by society. Positive government action, according to Rehemi (1983, p.129-131), is needed to integrate women into the development of the country. To date, government development programs have been aimed mainly at meeting the needs of men who are the main providers. Men cling to the tradition which gives them control over women. This makes true cooperation and partnership difficult as the man's prestige and status are defined in terms of his control. Women, according to this view, would not fit into roles where they have control over men.
Women, then, are dependent on the good-will of men if they wish to pursue any activities outside the home. One activity which is very important to many of them is education. The provision of higher education by distance education would give them greater freedom in pursuing it and reduce the conflict which exists between their roles as wives and mothers and their roles as students. It would also suit the traditions and customs of Saudi Arabia and the Islamic order which stresses the importance of the woman's role of rearing her children and being available to her family.

The status of women in Saudi Arabia is still based on the traditional values and the Islamic teaching which are dominant in the country. The Islamic teaching will not be set aside in the modernization of the country but people must become aware of the dignity of women within Islam. Saudi Arabia will not just become a modern country but a modern Islamic country. The impetus for the education of women and for their participation in development comes from Islam. Some local customs and traditions, however, do not make it easy for women to exercise their full rights. The status of women is different in different countries, but in all countries she is tied by her childbearing and childrearing responsibilities. Even when full equality and full
emancipation are accepted in law, as in the West, her role in the family means that she cannot pursue her public role with the same freedom as man. The rapid pace of development in Saudi Arabia and the traditions of Islamic society has meant that the questions raised about women’s status in the country are unique.

Conclusion

It is apparent from the above that women face unique difficulties in achieving a status that is comparable to that of men. These difficulties seem to fall into three categories. The first category includes those that deal with the organizational barriers that are built into the social system. The second category includes those traditions and attitudes which restrict women. The third category concerns difficulties stemming from the role of women in the home. The following observations can be made on the status of women.

1. Women have two roles, inside the home and outside. The tension between these two roles can limit their progress outside the home.

2. There are fewer women than men in the labor force.

4. There is a traditional barrier in Saudi Arabia to women's freedom to move outside the home.

5. Although women in the West seem to have more freedom than women in Saudi Arabia, their status is not equal to that of men.

6. Some problems in the status of women in Saudi Arabia stem from traditional values and customs.

7. There is a relationship between the status of women and their education. When women have education their status is high, and when they do not have education their status is inferior.

8. Islam makes the status of women high but many Muslim countries do not actually apply Islamic law.

9. Women in any country face problems when they want to pursue higher education and to continue their work.
These points give the background for consideration of ways to extend women's access to education.
CHAPTER FOUR

DISTANCE EDUCATION

Introduction

The Chapters on the History of Education for Women and the Status of Women indicate that there are barriers which hinder women in their pursuit of higher education. The study now turns to the investigation of a possible method which might help women in this pursuit.

It was noted in Chapter II that distance education has been used in Saudi Arabia in a simple form. This study, therefore, examines the idea of distance education and the structure and operation of three open universities. The study reviews discussion of the open university in the Arab World. The ideas contained in this chapter may help in the consideration of an open university for women in Saudi Arabia.
History and Definition of Distance Education

There are many terms in use to denote distance education; correspondence study, independent study, external study, and distance teaching. These terms have been used to name particular ventures which have been set up over the past hundred years, and often overlap. This study seeks to define distance education as it is realized in an open distance teaching university. Not all distance education is open, e.g., external study as it was used in Saudi Arabia.

Perraton (1981, p.13) defined distance education as an educational process in which a significant proportion of teaching is conducted by someone removed in space and/or time from the learner. This definition focuses on the most striking difference between conventional education and distance education, that is, the separation in space of the student from the teacher and the freedom in time which the student enjoys.

Wedemeyer (1977, p.2114-2121) notes that in the U.S.A. the use of the term independent study links distance education with developments in conventional education. He defines independent study as those arrangements in which teacher and learner carry out their essential tasks apart
from one another, though they communicate in a variety of ways. He also emphasizes the role of the learner and mentions the variety of ways of communication by which the distance between learner and teacher is bridged.

Dressel and Thompson (1973, in Wedemeyer, 1977, p.2115) define independent study as the student's self-directed pursuit of academic competence in as autonomous a manner as he is able to exercise. For them, the capacity to study independently is a virtue and a major goal of education including conventional education.

Holmberg (1977) defines distance education as study which benefits from the guidance and tuition of an organization, but not in a physically immediate way as in conventional education (Keegan, 1980, in Sewart et al., 1983, p.6)

Keegan (1980, in Sewart et al., 1983, p.30) analysed four definitions of distance education and surveyed forms of distance education and other forms similar to distance education but not identical with it, such as extension programs and the external degree. He identifies six main elements of a definition of distance education. The first of these, the separation of teacher and student, was the characteristic which Perraton (above) chose for his definition. The influence of an educational organization, his
second characteristic, shows the difference between distance education and private study. His third characteristic is the use of technical media, through which teaching is brought to many more students than is possible in the classroom. His fourth characteristic is the possibility of dialogue (either face-to-face or by telephone, for example) between the student and his or her tutor or counsellor. The fifth characteristic is the possibility of learning in a group or of simply meeting with fellow-students and tutors. Peters' theory of distance education (1981, in Sewart et al., 1983, pp. 95-113) as an industrialized form of education is the basis of the sixth characteristic. Peters compares the difference between the roles of teacher in the classroom and in distance education with the difference between the work of the individual craftsman and industrial production. Course planning and production by a team, together with the mass production and distribution of materials to a theoretically unlimited number of students, lead him to see qualities analogous to industry in distance education. Keegan refuses to give a new definition but he accepted Holmberg's definition because it focussed on the needs of the learner, provided that all the elements mentioned above were kept in mind.
For the purpose of this study the definition of distance education does not differ greatly from those noted above. This definition states that distance education is a system where the learner enjoys freedom in space and time and has autonomy. Distance education as defined in this way would seem to be suitable for women in Saudi Arabia, whose position is outlined in Chapter III.

Women in Saudi Arabia need freedom in time to study so that they can use those periods which are suitable for them and withdraw temporarily from study when other duties demand this. Freedom in space is important for women in Saudi Arabia because of the size of the country and the problems women in Saudi Arabia have with transportation and living away from home as noted in Chapter III. The autonomy of the learner is advocated in contemporary education and indeed, was found in Saudi Arabia in the early school known as the Kuttab school. In these the learner enjoyed autonomy in choosing his or her area of study and the relationship of teacher to learner was almost like that of colleagues. The learner set his own pace and was not forced to follow a fixed schedule in his or her progress. The Al Fahd School in Riyadh continues this tradition and gives the pupil greater choice in and control over his or her education than the public schools. For these reasons this study will use the above definition.
Historical Development of Open Universities

Distance education has been introduced in many countries for the purpose of meeting certain demands and of achieving certain goals. It can be a way of bridging a gap between the growing number of people who want or need education and the limited resources of conventional education. The latter has tended to cater for specific age groups and specific areas. While conventional education is carried out in an institution in a place to which people come, distance education reaches out to impart knowledge and skills in the learner’s own environment.

The theory and definition of distance education is drawn from observation of the many new institutions which have sprung up in the last twenty years. One of the first of these was the United Kingdom Open University (UKOU) which has served as a model for similar projects in many other countries.

The UKOU arose from the search of a small group of people for the best way to meet the social needs of the 1960’s and to provide the new technical expertise that Britain needed. They believed that radio and television could be used to provide for home study up to university level.
Harold Wilson’s speech of September 1963, in which he outlined the University of the Air, was, according to Hawkridge (1976) based partly on what he had seen in the United States (Chicago Television College) and in the Soviet Union. This speech was an important boost from a major political figure aware of the need to expand technical education and of the possibility of using broadcasting to improve correspondence education. Wilson envisaged a consortium of universities and other bodies (broadcasting and publishing) creating and administering a set of nationally organized correspondence courses. His main concern was to harness the new developments in television and the well established radio network to technical education. Perry (1976), however, states that the first outline of the University of the Air underwent many changes before the Open University was established.

In 1965, as noted in Perry (1976, pp. 12-13), Wilson made Jennie Lee responsible for the Arts and for the University of the Air. She added her own ideas which are not to be found in Wilson’s speeches. The University of the Air was to offer the opportunity of studying for a degree to all. This degree was to be equal in value to that of the other universities; there was to be no compromise on standards. Formal entrance qualifications, however, were not to
be demanded. In 1966 (Perry, 1976, p.16) the Labour Party committed itself to the University of the Air in its election Manifesto, and referred to it as 'open university' (i.e. open to all), a name which came to replace the earlier one.

In 1969 the Report of the Planning Committee (Open University Planning Committee, 1969) was accepted by the Government and in the same year the Open University received its charter. One major change from Wilson's first outline was that broadcasting was seen as only one of many means of instruction (Report, paragraph 21, p.6). The Open University offered a new kind of degree which gave students more flexibility than the traditional British degree, as Ferguson (1975, p.15-16) notes. He describes the Open University degree as combining the freedom of the American system (a credit system which allows the student to accumulate credit through the successful completion of individual courses) with the sense of direction of the British system. In any event, Calder and Farnes (1982, p.84) note that the new institution had an impressive first intake of twenty-five thousand students in January 1971.

Keegan (1983, p.124) note that other distance teaching universities followed in many countries: UNED in Spain
(1973); Allama Iqbal Open University in Pakistan (1975); Athabasca University in Canada (1975); Fernuniversitaet in the Federal Republic of Germany (1975); Everyman’s University in Israel (1976); UEED in Costa Rica (1978); the Free University of Iran (1978); the Open University, Sri Lanka (1980); the Open University, Thailand, (1981); the Open University in the Netherlands (1981). All of these universities were established to meet the needs of the people of the countries in which they were set up. This study cannot cover all the distance teaching universities of the world but will focus on three open universities to give a clear idea how open universities serve many kinds of needs.

The United Kingdom Open University (UKOU) provided inspiration for many new foundations and helped some directly. Others acknowledge its influence even if they could not or would not copy its formula. The Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU) serves an Islamic country, similar to Saudi Arabia in its religion and the protection of women which this enjoins. Its experience may help in planning an open university for women in Saudi Arabia. The Sukhothai Thammahirat Open University (STOU) of Thailand enrolled approximately 370,000 students from its beginning in 1981 until 1985 as noted by Srisa-an (1986, p.25) and faces the problems of catering for a widely scattered, rural popula-
tion in a country where the conventional universities are concentrated in the capital, Bangkok. In Saudi Arabia the universities and colleges of education are concentrated in the three urban centers (Jeddah, Riyadh, and Dammam) and the tradition which does not encourage daughters to leave the family home adds to the problems of providing university education for women in villages and in the country.

These three open universities serve both men and women. However, the AIOU was entrusted with a special responsibility for the education of women throughout Pakistan, as noted in Akhtar (1986, p.12). This study will investigate the feasibility of an open university specifically catering for women because of the special situation in Saudi Arabia which was described in Chapter III. At present women have more need of extra provision in higher education and an open university for them would be useful in itself and would serve as an experiment before wider use of this method was undertaken.

**The Goals of the three Open Universities**

Each of the three open universities mentioned above has a goal which attempts to meet the needs of the country in which it was established. Thus the Report of the Planning
Committee for the Open University (Open University Planning Committee, 1969, p. 5, para 18) states the goal of the UKOU:

to provide opportunities, at both undergraduate and postgraduate level, of higher education to all those who, for any reason, have been or are being recluded from achieving their aims through an existing institution of higher education. This does not imply competition with existing institutions, but rather an attempt on a national scale to complement their efforts; an attempt which may well increase the demand upon existing institutions, as students, stimulated by the experience of part-time study, increasingly come to want the opportunity of full-time study.

The People's Open University Act of Pakistan, quoted in Rumble and Harry (1982, p. 120), states some of the main objectives of the Allama Iqbal Open University (AIOU). One is to provide widespread educational facilities to people who could not leave their homes and jobs. The training of teachers was also specifically mentioned as an important goal. Allana, (1986, p.18) notes that another important objective was to provide education for women, especially those living in rural areas.

The goals of Sukhothai Thammahirat Open University, as quoted in Srisa-an (1986, p.5, 27), are to democratize higher education and to provide opportunities for mature students to pursue their studies without having to withdraw from work and lose the economic benefit to themselves and their country.
The goals of each of these three open universities are to complete what is missing in the educational provision of the countries in which they were established. The UKOU was established in a developed country to give wider access to higher education. Those people who had not had the chance to gain admission to university when they were younger were to be offered a second chance. It was recognized that social class and wealth had been decisive factors in university entrance. Britain at that time also needed a better-educated workforce to face the economic challenges of the day.

The AIOU was to provide the people of Pakistan with useful skills, so that they could develop themselves without giving up their work. Indeed, the AIOU has recently set up a bureau for university extension and special programs to assist in outreach in literacy and basic education. One project which this bureau will develop is aimed primarily at educating women who have not had any educational opportunity with a view to bringing them into the general stream of middle level education in the country. The AIOU will take into consideration the special needs of families who observe purdah and will provide opportunities for women to receive education at home over a flexible time-span in order to improve their work and professional skills and lead to a better quality of life as noted in Allana (1987, p.34).
The Second World War and the regional conflicts in neighboring countries which have lasted up to the present drew new technology into Thailand at a rate almost too fast to permit assimilation as Srisa-an (1986, p.2) noted. Building on the foundation of the five universities which had been established in Thailand by the end of the Second World War many new institutions sought to meet the demand for studies through which people could obtain the new skills which would give them employment in their rapidly developing country. The conventional universities in Thailand are concentrated in the capital, and the open university in Thailand attempts to reach out to those people who are outside the scope of the conventional universities. Therefore, the main role of the STOU was to provide access to higher education for everyone in this very large country, something which could best be done practically by an open university (Srisa-an, 1986, pp.4-5).

A common feature of the establishment of these three open universities is a desire to make higher education more widespread geographically and socially.
Characteristics of the Students of the Three Open Universities

According to the Report of the Planning Committee to the Secretary of State for Education and Science on the Open University (Open University Planning Committee, 1969, p.16, para 57), the UKOU was founded to provide higher education on a 'first come first served' basis. Its name, the Open University, indicates the purpose of providing opportunities for people to whom they had been closed.

Rumble (1982, p.10) notes that the UKOU aimed at those adults who wanted to study for a degree and who had been unable to on leaving school either because they did not have the academic requirements or because they could not then obtain a place in a conventional university. Initially 'adult' was interpreted to mean twenty-one and over. Mcintosh (1974, p.55) notes that the largest groups of students at first were in their late twenties and early thirties, with the next largest group roughly ten years older. However, there has been a trend towards younger students, and in 1974 the UKOU opened its doors to eighteen year olds as an experiment.
Vanderheyden (1972, pp.49-50) noted that the 'first come, first served' ideal was modified by a quota system which attempted to ensure that different classes and regions were represented fairly and that the faculties of the University had sufficient numbers. In the first years a great number of teachers applied and an upper limit of thirty percent was applied in their case. More recently it has been found unnecessary to have a strict occupational quota system, but there is still a concern to attract students from the working class.

As Rumble and Harry (1982, p.126) state, the AIOU gives priority to the occupational needs of teachers, farmers, and skilled workers. Its orientation was functional, towards giving training which would be useful in society, rather than towards university studies for their own sakes. The question of admitting normally unqualified students to university level education, therefore, did not arise, and the AIOU continues to cater for students of widely differing academic level, from those who require basic literacy training to those who are capable of postgraduate work (Rumble and Harry, 1982, pp. 128-132).

The background of the AIOU students reflects the wide range of courses offered. Most students are adult. While
many of the teacher training and agriculture students are nominated by their provinces and receive free education, other students pay low fees or no fees at all. There are different fees for different courses (Rumble and Harry, p.137).

Srisa-an (1986, p.24) states that the STOU provides courses for secondary school graduates who live in rural areas and want to work and study at the same time. In Thailand eight-five percent of the people live in rural towns and villages. Students who are widely scattered and distant from the capital, Bangkok, which is the only strong center of learning in Thailand, can make use of the variety of degree and non-degree programs which the STOU offers.

All students of the STOU must have completed secondary school, but while some are fresh from secondary school, others are adult workers. Most of them are mature, because their lifestyle is more compatible with what the STOU offers and they are more motivated, while the younger students are more accustomed to the routines of conventional education.

To enroll for a degree program at the STOU students must either take an entrance examination or have completed education at upper secondary school or lower secondary
school followed by five years of work experience or hold a
diploma or degree or their equivalent from an approved in-
stitution of higher education (Srisa-an, 1986, pp. 32-33).

Whereas the UKOU caters for adult students and only
later admitted younger students, the STOU catered from its
inception for secondary school leavers and adults. In the
AIOU, however, most of the students were adult when it
began, and only later, when a degree program was offered,
did young people join in large numbers. This was because
students sought something appropriate to their personal
needs from the university. The AIOU and STOU did not set
strict age limits.

Because the UKOU is in a developed country where almost
everybody has education up to secondary level it does not
have any required level of study for entrance. As AIOU and
STOU are in developing countries where university education
is the ambition of a very large number and where primary and
secondary education systems are not fully developed, there
is a requirement for entry for university level courses.

The Programmes of Study in the Three Open Universities

The programme of study is important in any university.
This study will outline the programmes of these three
universities. The UKOU, according to Woodly and McIntosh,
(1980, p.12), has six faculties; Arts, Social Sciences, Mathematics, Science, Technology, and Educational Studies. Rumble (1982, p.13) states that the main programmes of the UKOU are the undergraduate programme, the continuing education programmes, and the higher degree programme, and the research programme.

Allana (1987, p.2) notes that the AIOU offers courses from literacy to postgraduate level. Rumble and Harry (1982, p.127-132) list the four main programme areas; teacher education, functional areas, general education, and research and development. In general studies the courses are now being divided into six majoring areas; business studies, social sciences, language and literature, Islamic studies, technical and vocational studies, and home economics. Only a few courses have been provided in the area of functional education. These courses have aimed at farmers. Courses for rural women are being prepared. Some people have suggested that the private student system by which students may study externally for a degree at a conventional university, should be replaced by the AIOU general education course. At present the systems work side by side. In 1979 the AIOU offered four courses, and the number of courses has grown considerably since then.
In 1980, Srisa-an (1986, p. 25) notes that the STOU had two schools, Educational Studies and Management. By 1985 there were ten schools: Liberal Arts, Educational Studies, Management Science, Health Science, Law, Economics, Home Economics, Agricultural Extension and Cooperative, Political Science, and Communication Arts.

The UKOU programme follows the pattern of conventional British universities, though there is considerably more emphasis on undergraduate studies than on research. The AIOU and STOU programmes are influenced by the practical needs of the countries.

The Organization of Study and Courses
at the Three Open Universities

The Organization of study and courses, through which the programmes of these universities are realized, does not differ very much for each of the three universities. In the UKOU the courses are taught from February to November and end with an examination. Rumble (1982, p.14) notes that the UKOU degree is awarded on the basis of credits, eight credits being necessary for a B.A. honours degree and six credits for an unclassified degree. Credits are acquired by the successful completion of courses lasting thirty two to
thirty four weeks. A full credit course will involve twelve to fifteen hours work per week from the students and a half credit course will involve half this amount.

The student at the UKOU can choose from about 130 different courses, and the *Guide to the BA degree programme 1990* (OU, 1989, p.6) notes that the University tries to keep restriction on choice of course to a minimum, and that students may combine courses from different faculties. In their first year students take foundation courses, which they can follow with second level courses which give a wider choice of subject matter. They may then specialize in third and fourth level courses which are of honors standard.

The UKOU may award credit exemptions to a maximum of three. They are awarded at the rate of one for each year of full-time study at a higher educational institution. The *Guide to the BA degree programme 1990* (OU, 1989, p.10) also notes that the University has entered into agreements with sixteen other universities for a direct transfer of credits whereby two credits may be awarded for each year of full-time study up to a maximum of four credits.

The rate at which the students study depends on themselves. If they take two full credit courses a year they
can obtain a B.A. pass degree in three years and an honors degree in four years. However, according to the Guide to the BA degree programme 1990 (OU, 1989, p. 6) they may allow themselves a year to gain a half credit, or take a year or more off.

The AIOU begins its shorter functional courses in January and July and the longer, twenty week, teacher training and general educational courses in April and October, according to Rumble and Harry (1982, p. 138). They state that in the latter eight to ten hours of work is needed for the completion of each unit (p. 133). Full courses have eighteen units and half courses nine. Students must obtain six full credits for an intermediate certificate and eight for a B.A. degree. They are limited to taking two full credits in each six-monthly semester (Rumble and Harry, 1982, p. 139).

In the STOU the student is expected to study approximately thirteen hours per week during a fifteen week semester. The STOU employs an two-semester system. Students can gain a degree in four to twelve years. They follow courses arranged in blocks which are worth six credits. A total of 132 to 144 credits is needed for a B.A. degree as Srisa-an (1986, pp. 17-18) states.
The amount of work needed for a degree at any of these three universities is not less than that for a conventional university. The open universities, however, give the student greater flexibility, thus enabling him to attend to his job and family commitments while studying. This is achieved by the use of special teaching methods and a system whose main features are common to the three OUs.

The Administration of the Three Open Universities

Perry (1976, p. 202) notes that the Charter of the Open University was based on the traditional model to save time and win acceptance for an otherwise innovative institution. The Council is the main fiscal and financial controlling body and is the executive governing body (Perry, 1976, p.203). Its members are usually important people in the community with a minority made up of academic staff from the University. The Vice-chancellor is a member. The Senate is chaired by the Vice-chancellor and includes all members of the academic staff together with elected representatives of other staff and students (Perry, 1976, p.209). There are currently 800 members. The Academic Boards report to the Senate on degree structures and the teaching of courses. The Student Affairs and Awards Board reports to the Senate
on student registration (Perry, 1976, p. 206). Rumble and Harry (1982, p. 185) note that planning is undertaken by the Planning Board which reports to the Senate on student registration.

In Britain academic staff in conventional universities carry out a substantial amount of administration. In the UKOU the academic staff make up a relatively small proportion of the total staff. Rumble (in Kay and Rumble 1981, p. 180-186) notes that although they seek to control the formulation and carrying out of policy decisions through committees it is the non-academic administrative staff which carries out the decisions in practice.

Distance education, in which course materials must be produced regularly and distributed punctually, resembles a business enterprise and requires a new style of university management to meet complex design, production, and teaching processes. Academics will find themselves cooperating in a more inter-dependent way with colleagues and others in course teams, and with administrative staff. As Rumble (in Kay and Rumble, 1981, p. 186-198) notes, this is very different from the independence which they have traditionally enjoyed. Perry (1976, p. 92) noted that the fact that course team members were full time members of staff of the
UKOU was important in contributing to the high quality of the courses, and he believed that the same quality would not have been reached by employing outside consultants.

In the AIOU there are three areas, academic, service and operational, and administrative departments. Rumble and Harry (1982, p. 143) note that administration includes the registration department, admissions, examinations, accounts, and progress and development. There are about twenty senior administrative staff, about thirty senior service and operation staff, and nearly fifty academic staff. Britain has funded an advisory team since 1976 which is made up mostly of UKOU personnel (Rumble and Harry, 1982, p. 144).

In the STOU the governing bodies are the University Council and the Academic Senate. Srisa-an (1986, p. 40) notes that the STOU is the only university in Thailand which has an academic senate. The division of responsibility between council and senate resembles the division in the UKOU. A team approach is employed in administrative decision-making in the University. This is shown in the preparation of the annual operational plan. Administrators from all offices and departments together with the academic senate join in a two-day intensive workshop and map out the annual plan (Srisa-an, 1986, p. 50-51).
From the above, the administration of open universities is seen to resemble that of conventional universities. One reason for this was that their founders wanted to foster confidence in them, and it was feared that too much novelty would undermine this. On the other hand, the administration on open universities cannot be identical with that of conventional universities because of the way in which they (OUs) admit students and teach them.

**Costs of the Three Open Universities**

Although Britain opened many new conventional universities in the 1960s it would have been economically impossible to have provided general access to higher education in this way. The teaching system of a university determines its cost structure. In conventional universities the largest single item in recurrent expenditure is academic salaries and this is directly linked to the number of students. In the UKOU the only major cost that varies with the number of students is that concerned with the provision of personal tuition services. This means that significant savings can be made for a larger number of students. At a time when economic resources are scarce the open university method would allow more students to be taught at less cost.
The higher degree and research programme of the UKOU is small, as Rumble (1976, p. 5) notes. In 1984, as Raggat and Harry (1984) noted in *Trends in Distance Higher Education* (p. 24), there were 600 postgraduate students out of total student body of 108,000. Its post-experience course programme is small and is intended to be self-financing.

Wedemeyer (1982, p. 66) identifies three major costs for universities: the start-up costs, operating costs, and maintenance costs. The start-up costs for the UKOU were about seventeen million dollars, while a conventional university serving the same number of students would have cost eighty million dollars. Although it was estimated that the UKOU would have to open to twenty-five thousand students if it was to have a lower per unit cost than traditional university education, in fact it needed only nine thousand students to reach this goal as unit costs fell below those for conventional universities. Wagner (1972) has made a comparison of the Open University and Conventional Universities, at 1971 prices, assuming 15,000 annual student intake at the OU.
Table 4.1.
Costs of the Open University and conventional universities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CALCULATION</th>
<th>OPEN UNIVERSITY</th>
<th>CONVENTIONAL UNIVERSITY</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average recurrent cost per equivalent undergraduate</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital cost per student place</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average recurrent cost per graduate</td>
<td>4,000 at 85% drop-out rate.</td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource cost per equivalent undergraduate</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>1,577</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


As the average recurrent cost per graduate varies with the drop-out rate, he quotes the cost when the drop-out rate is 85%, as at this rate the cost is equal to that of conventional universities. Below this rate, the cost is less than that for conventional universities. For a fifty percent drop-out rate the average recurrent cost per graduate at the Open University is UK pounds 1,231 which is considerably cheaper than equivalent costs for a conventional university.

Although Wagner (1972) in Baxter et al. (1977, p. 189) refuses to draw any very definite conclusions from these figures he says that they show a substantial cost advantage for the UKOU over conventional universities particularly in regard to capital costs. He concluded that the use of mass media allows more students per pound sterling to be taught above a certain number.
An Evaluation Mission from the UK overseas Development Administration which visited the AIOU in 1979 pointed out that the University would contribute to the national economy by training much needed manpower in employment-related skills. The Mission's report (Collister (1980 p. 144-145) stated the opinion that the AIOU would bring about a progressive saving because its per capita costs decrease as student numbers grow. However, the Mission did not arrive at a full comparison of the cost of the AIOU and conventional undergraduate courses in the country. The report points out that AIOU courses have led to a more efficient use of existing educational facilities. The fact that AIOU enables students to continue working and earning money while taking vocational and professional courses is economically positive.

In Thailand government universities generally receive about ninety percent of their expenditure from the government. The STOU received less than twenty percent of its institutional costs from the government in 1985. As for operating costs per head, those for the Thai Open Universities (STOU and Ramkhamhaeng University), expressed as a percentage of those for the restricted admission conventional universities varied from 2.13 percent in humanities to 11.35 percent in business studies. Srisa-an (1986, pp.
51-53) notes that costs to the students are less (6.6 percent of an average monthly income) than if they attended a conventional university. Sris-an also note that STOU students are generally in full employment, making a contribution to the gross national product of the country (Srisa-an, 1986, p.55).

From the above it is clear that the cost of these open universities is less than that of the conventional universities. The cost of a conventional university rises with the number of students, but above a certain number, those of the open universities do not rise significantly. The role of the open universities is to make education available to all who want it, and they allow those who take advantage of what they offer to continue in their jobs. They thus help the economy of a country in two ways, by providing education cheaply, and by not withdrawing people from their work.

Teaching Methods at the three Open Universities

In the UKOU the teaching materials for the courses are produced by course teams, unlike the traditional conventional university where the courses are largely an individual responsibility. Perry (1976) describes the teams as being made up of three groups, academics, educational
technologists, and BBC production staff. The course team is responsible for what is taught and how it is taught. They decide on a suitable use of media.

Lewis (1971a, p.5) notes that packaged correspondence material, including study notes, exercises, experiments, and self-administered comprehension tests, constitute the core materials of the course. Packages are sent by post to the students at intervals of four to six weeks. They also contain homework assignments which will be marked either by correspondence tutor or the computer. These marks will be taken into consideration, together with the final examination, in the awarding of course credit (Lewis, 1975, p. 211). Lewis (1971b, p.112) notes that radio programmes give students and staff the opportunity to discuss current problems on the air as they arise.

Students have access to teachers and counsellors by post, by telephone, and face to face. The University has about two hundred and fifty study centres located in local educational institutions. The students can meet there for informal discussion or for tutorials and seminars. The tutor counsellors and course tutors are available to the students in these centers. Attendance is not compulsory, but most students avail themselves of the service. The Open
University Handbook for Part-time Tutorial and Counselling Staff (OU, 1977) describes counselling as more the giving of educational and administrative advice than personal counselling in the accepted sense.

The tutor counsellor, according to the Guide to the BA degree programme 1990 (OU, 1989, p.8) is available regularly to students when they begin their study and he continues to act as their general advisor throughout their undergraduate studies. A specialist course tutor is available for higher level courses either at the study center or by post or telephone.

The UKOU also provides residential summer schools at more than a dozen university campuses in the period from July to early September. These summer schools, which last for one week, are regarded as an essential. They are required for all foundation courses and for some higher level courses, according to the Guide to the BA degree programme (OU, 1989, p.8).

Pakdirtin (1988, p.7) states that the AIOU has played a leading role in using radio and television to supplement both formal and non-formal education in Pakistan. The use of these media helps the university to reach its widely dis-
persed students, but although radio covers almost 100% of the country, television coverage is limited to sixty-five percent. The Asian Association of Open Universities (AAOU, 1988, p.6) mentions the use of audio cassettes and flip-charts with small groups of fifteen to twenty-five students working with a leader as the main teaching method of the functional course at the AIOU.

The AIOU functions through sixteen regional centres and 350 study centres. The regional centres employ 1,300 part-time tutors. Allana (1986, pp.17-19) mentions the University's student counselling and guidance service which was set up to help those students who may not be familiar with the procedure of academic work or who may have particular study difficulties. Rumble and Harry (1982, p. 138) state that the regional directors of the AIOU have to cover huge areas without supporting full-time academic or counselling staff. In the General Education Program women must sometimes have special tutorial groups either because of sex segregation conventions or because their tutorials must be held early so that they can be home before dark. Although an attempt is being made to serve rural areas better in conjunction with community development, the regional services are at present underdeveloped and the training of tutors is very limited and they are not usually monitored. (Rumble and Harry, 1982, p. 139).
With regard to STOU, Pakdiratin (1988, p. 8) notes that it uses printed materials as the core medium with radio and television as supplementary media. The programmes are produced in many forms, such as interviews, lectures, and plays. He gives an account of the organization of the production of STOU educational radio and television programmes, noting that academics and media experts work together as a team.

Srisa-an (1986, p. 48-50) states that the STOU provides tutorial and counselling sessions at various local and regional study centres throughout the country. The tutorials are organized on Saturdays and Sundays. They are optional. Tutorials are provided for about thirty percent of the courses and about thirty percent of the students attend these. They are usually held in local study centres (secondary schools), or special study centres (libraries, agricultural and cooperative centres, and health centres). Part-time staff of local study centres provide guidance and counselling to students. Group counselling is encouraged and student clubs provide guidance and counselling for their members.

These open universities, then, use a variety of methods of instructions, many of them involving complex educational
technology. The use of these methods can bring a significant saving into the provision of higher education to large numbers who might otherwise not have benefited from it.

Findings

From the foregoing review of the history and definition of distance education together with the account of the three open universities some conclusions can be drawn which are of use for this study.

1. The definitions which are given to distance education do not differ much from one another and they focus on freedom in space and time for the learner.

2. Distance education has had many forms and many stages. The open university is one of the most recent.

3. In those countries in which it has been established, the open university was intended to complete what was missing in the provision of education. However, the methods which were used to increase access to education (e.g. post, radio, television, video, etc.) do not differ much from one country to another.
4. The criteria for entrance depend on local circumstances. In a developed country, such as England, there were no formal entrance requirements, though there was a lower age limit. In a developing country, such as Thailand, there was no age limit but there was a formal entrance requirement.

5. It should be possible to operate an OU system more cheaply than a conventional system. This is especially true with larger numbers of students.

6. The administration of open universities does not differ greatly from that of conventional universities. The same officers are found in both (vice-chancellor, deans, professors), but the regionalization of open universities and the importance of course production and delivery in the university system lead to some differences.

7. The open university has been found to be a suitable way to increase access to education in many countries.

Open Universities: The Arab Experience

There has been considerable discussion of the idea of an open university in the Arab countries. The first study,
conducted by Hafiz (1976), argued that the period of sudden growth and prosperity in Saudi Arabia which resulted from the high income from oil had given the country a financial surplus on one hand but a shortage of human resources on the other. Saudi Arabia lacked qualified specialists and needed them quickly to take part in the development of their country.

The author recommended that Saudi Arabia follow the example of other countries in using communications technology (radio, television) to multiply the effect of scarce local educational resources. He recommended the establishment of a multi-media open university (Halaqhat Open University) in the Western region of Saudi Arabia. He also suggested alternative approaches which would increase the use of existing higher education and training resources, with particular emphasis on King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah. He believed that open learning would contribute to the use of higher education and training resources necessary to meet Saudi Arabia’s development requirements.

The Arab Agency for Literacy and Adult Education organized a symposium to study the feasibility of founding an Arab Open University. It was held in Amman, Jordan, in November, 1979. The following were put forward as suitable aims for an Arab Open University:
1. to equip the Arab region with qualified manpower.

2. to engage in research into the problems of the region.

3. to provide opportunities for higher education together with literacy programmes.

4. to help the established Arab universities achieve their aims.

5. to provide access to education at suitable levels for all Arab citizens irrespective of age, sex, or social status.

6. to organize the exchange of expertise between different Arab countries.

7. to prepare leaders for literacy and adult education projects.

8. to provide continuing education for every citizen who obtains a literate level.

9. to provide training and specialization for Arab women.
10. to provide educational opportunities for physically and socially disadvantaged people.

11. to provide educational training in specialized areas and to provide follow up courses for those engaged in work.

12. to provide for both academic degree studies and other kinds of study.

The symposium recommended that the Arab Open University have an executive council consisting of members from different Arab states. The university president and his three executive assistants would be appointed from this council. The headquarters for the University would be established in an Arab state with branches in different Arab regions. The symposium began with the conviction that the open educational system had proved its efficiency internationally. It made a number of recommendations to enable the Arab Open University project to be realized, including the identification of target groups and the existing human and institutional resources which could be made use of.

In 1980 Akkad studied the possibility of applying the UKOU system in the Arab world by utilizing developments in communication, particularly the Arab satellite, to develop
the Arab educational system. She studied distance teaching universities, especially the UKOU and its presentation of university curricula using radio and television. She also studied distance teaching institutions which use space communication to transmit educational programmes, especially the Indian satellite and Latin American transmission systems. In these two, experimental satellites were used to build up telecommunications over a large area or across national frontiers. The proposed Arab satellite, in her view, could be used as an important part of building up an open university for the Arab world. She researched the views of members of the education and media establishments and she finally recommended a distance teaching university system on the British model (UKOU), proposing a plan for this and offering suggestions for its implementation.

The fourth study, Guidelines for Establishing an Open University in the Arab Gulf States, was conducted by Abdul- lah AlHumaidy as a doctoral thesis at the Michigan State University in 1986. The purposes of this study were to clarify the views of university council members in four of the seven Arab Gulf States (Bahrain, Qatar, Saudi Arabia the United Arab Emirates) regarding a suitable model for the proposed Arab Gulf Open University (AGOU): to try to discover their views on the need for and feasibility of establishing the AGOU: and finally to recommend the findings of
the study to the Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States and the ministers of education of these states.

The findings were that the Gulf needed an open university as much as it needed a new conventional university. He recommended the following:

1. that planning should be begun.

2. that the course structure should include academic degree courses and courses which do not lead to a qualification.

3. the maintenance of a high academic standard especially for degree courses.

4. co-operation between conventional universities and the AGOU.

5. that the AGOU work to uphold and strengthen Islamic culture and values.

6. the AGOU could be an innovator in higher education and strive to bring together technological advancements and religious beliefs.
7. that the AGOU plan should be implemented in three stages: planning (two years), preparation (two years), and an experimental stage (two years).

There was little agreement on the type of system of study (Intisab, that proposed by King Abdulaziz University (outlined in Chapter II), that followed by the UKOU, or an other type).

The conference on Distance Teaching organized by the Arab Gulf region was held in Bahrain in 1986. Research experts and advisors from many countries took part in this conference. There were seven sessions including the first and the final sessions.

The following topics were discussed:

1. the Arab experience in Distance Education.

2. the importance of developing distance teaching institutes of higher education in the Arab world.

3. why have an open University?

4. the system of open learning in the Arab world.
5. the Open University in Thailand.

6. the AIOU in Pakistan.

7. continuing education in the U.S.A.

8. the teacher and distance learning.

9. the Palestinian Open University.

10. the present situation of higher education in the Arab Gulf area.

11. economic and demographic distribution (including that of foreign workers) in the Gulf.

12. satellite communication and the Arab and open universities.

13. proposals and suggestions for higher education through open learning in the Arab Gulf.

Two other topics were discussed: the UKOU, and the importance of distance learning in higher education.
This conference made the following recommendations:

1. the Arab Gulf region should employ distance education but not as an alternative to the conventional universities which should be encouraged and helped where necessary.

2. the conventional universities could help by offering programmes in suitable subjects and by advising on methods to follow and media to use.

3. the Gulf states should establish an open university to serve the Gulf region.

4. the Office of the Arab Gulf should set up a committee which would include members with expertise and experience in education, and a study should be made of the feasibility of the third recommendation (above), with special note of funding and staffing requirements. Some members recommended that an experimental open university be established in a limited area of the Gulf.

A team drawn from three organizations, UNESCO, the Palestine Liberation Organization, and the Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development, undertook a project feasibility study for an open university for Palestinians in
1976. Al Khamhaoui (1986) reports that in 1980 they recommended that this open university should be established in 1985 because of the difficulties which Palestinians experience in pursuing education in their own country and because many of them are scattered in neighboring countries.

Zaid (1988) notes that the new university for Palestinians was inaugurated in late 1985 and was scheduled to begin in October 1988. It was named Al Quds Open University (QOU). The majority of students were to be high school graduates rather than working adults. The conventional Arab universities can only accommodate 15-20% of Palestinian high school graduates.

The QOU intends to use a multi-media mix including printed materials, video-cassettes, audio-cassettes, computers, study packages, and television and radio programmes. Regional and local study centres, where students can meet and interact with each other and their tutors, are to be established and course tutors will provide advice and counsel. Seminars and summer courses will be held in convenient facilities.

The QOU will offer programmes of continuous education and training and aims to contribute to the general develop-
ment of Arab countries. It aims to co-operate with other Arab universities and no problem is foreseen in expanding as the Arab satellite service is at present in operation.

Although Arab countries have not yet had much practical experience of open universities, the above shows that there is a lot of interest in the idea as a way of helping increase access to higher education by making it more available geographically and socially.

Several points arise from the Arab Experience with the Open University:

1. While there has been much discussion about open universities in the Arab world, little has been achieved. At the time of writing the QOU has not opened.

2. The studies of the open university, especially those conducted by Saudis, are useful for this study, because they give some idea of a possible model for an open university.

3. The studies which Saudi Arabians have conducted indicate that some Saudi Arabians encourage the establishment of an open university in Saudi Arabia.
4. The important goal for Hafiz (1976) is to use mass communication in education. He chooses the open university as a good way to make communication more useful in education. The study of Akkad (1980) has the same goal, but she goes beyond a single country to the use of the Arab satellite for many countries. She gives the Open University as an example of how people in the Arab countries could have more access to education. Neither of these studies makes a survey of the feasibility of an open university in Arab countries and of its economic possibility.

5. The goal of the Amman Symposium (Arab Agency for Literacy and Adult Education, 1979) was to increase cooperation among the Arab countries in education, particularly the education of adults for literacy and the training of those who would lead literacy programmes. They gave the open university system as a means of providing continuing education, but did not concentrate on higher education. The Bahrain Conference concentrated on distance education and discussed the experience of other countries with the open university system. The Conference sought ways of increasing access to higher education for citizens of the Gulf States, while the present study is limited to provision for women in Saudi Arabia. However, the Conference did not make a survey of the feasibility of introducing an open university system into the Gulf.
6. The study of AlHumaidy (1986) is closely related to the Bahrain Conference but Al-Humaidi made a survey and tried to make guidelines for the establishment of an open university in the Gulf area. He makes some recommendations which will help this present study to make the model for an open university for women in Saudi Arabia. His work provides a very valuable foundation for the work of this thesis.

7. The planning and development of the Al-Quds Open University provides useful inspiration. However, as its operation has been hampered by the present situation in Palestine, it does not provide a working model of an Arab open university. However, all these studies are useful, and the contribution of each helps in different areas of the present study.

Conclusion

This study gives an account of some open universities for many reasons. It first seeks to express clearly the nature of the open university system. Secondly, it seeks to profit from an analysis of the experience others have had in setting up different kinds of open universities in order to find the best model for the particular needs of Saudi Arabia. Thirdly, it seeks to discover to what extent the
open university system can be used to help in the higher education of women in Saudi Arabia, given their particular circumstances and local conditions. As is clear from the previous chapter on the status of women, there is a strong current of religious opinion against the increasing movement of women outside the home. Sheikh Abdulaziz Bin Baz, President of the Department of Religious Research, Ruling, Call and Guidance, recently (1988) felt it necessary to remind women that Islam has forbidden them to be alone with a stranger or to travel without the company of a close relative. He warned women of the dangers of appearing in public and mixing freely. This ruling will affect many women (and their mahrams) in their attitude to the pursuit of higher education. However, an open university system does not lead to the same difficulties with regard to the situation of women in Saudi Arabia.
CHAPTER V

METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

The Population

In this study a survey was made of a population of academics and students at universities and colleges in Saudi Arabia, together with policy makers from these institutions and from the Ministry of Higher Education and the GPGE. The sample was obtained by a random sampling of each of the three groups.

The population was restricted to those working in Riyadh and Jeddah. Riyadh is the seat of government and the location of the oldest and largest university in Saudi Arabia, King Saud University. It was at this University that girls' education was first introduced in a government institution in the form of intisab. This later developed into the Centre for Girls' Education at King Saud University. The College of Arts, one of the Colleges of the GPGE, is located in Riyadh and provided intisab together with a conventional programme. The Imam Mohammed University, which opened for girls with intisab and now has a conventional programme, is located in Riyadh. The study then focuses on
those institutions in Riyadh and Jeddah which have had experience of intisab, as it was considered more likely that people in these institutions would be able to contribute usefully and knowledgably to this questionnaire. The College of Education for Science and the College of Education for Arts are both colleges of the GPGE in Riyadh which provide conventional education for girls. The Ministry of Higher Education and the General Presidency of Girls' Education are located in Riyadh.

Jeddah is the second city of Saudi Arabia. It has considerable historic importance, and as a major port and the largest city of the Hijaz has been more open to outside influence than Riyadh. When King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah was still a private foundation, a girls' college was established where girls followed programmes on their own campus and had access to the library. King Abdulaziz University has also provided intisab for male and female students up to the present. It is also the second largest university in Saudi Arabia. The College of Education for Science and Arts (GPGE) in Jeddah has offered courses for girls since 1967/1968.

To achieve the goal of this study the researcher chose three categories of respondents. The first one is students.
These students are women because the study relates to women. The opinion of these women students is important for this study because these students are pursuing university studies in Saudi Arabia at conventional universities and are aware of what is involved and of the specific problems which women have. The open university is designed to increase opportunities for this type of student and it is important to investigate their attitude to an open university and to discover which system, subjects, and programmes they prefer. The researcher therefore distributed questionnaires to 900 women students from the different universities and colleges as outlined in Table 5.1.

The second category is academics. Academics will participate in establishing and running an open university so their opinion will help the researcher to choose a suitable model. Questionnaires were distributed to 1,470 academics from the same universities and colleges.

The third category is policy makers. The researcher chose this category because if their attitude is positive this will show the possibility of their being motivated to help to establish an open university. The researcher then selected by accidental sampling 291 policy makers working in the Ministry of Higher Education, the General Presidency of
Girls’ Education and the universities and colleges. as shown in Table 5.1.

The Sample

The population for this research is made up of three categories as noted: students, teachers, and policy makers. To obtain the data required to achieve the goal of the study, 900 questionnaires were sent to students, 1,470 to teachers, and 291 to policy makers. The distribution of the questionnaire between different institutions and between the sexes is shown in the table below.

Table 5.1 Composition of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UNIVERSITY</th>
<th>STUDENT</th>
<th>ACADEMIC</th>
<th>POLICY MAKER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King Saud University</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King Abdulaziz University</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imam University</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College of Education for Science GPGE</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College of Education for Arts GPGE</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College of Arts GPGE</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College of Education for Science</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Arts GPGE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in Jeddah</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Higher Education</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presidency of Girls' Education</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F = Female  M = Male  T = Total
Preparation of the Questionnaire

The first draft of the questionnaire was written in English and submitted to a number of professors to check that it met the standards for questionnaire design and to check for validity. The two local supervisors of the research read the questionnaire and gave useful comments and suggestions. A copy of the questionnaire was sent to the supervisor at Loughborough and it was checked both by him and by the director of this research. The researcher made modifications according to their suggestions and comments.

In the second stage the document was translated into Arabic, and the accuracy of the translation was checked by three academics at King Saud University.

In the third stage copies of the questionnaire (Arabic version) were sent to six specialists in educational research at King Saud University so that its validity might be further checked. They did not recommend any changes.

In the fourth stage the reliability of the questionnaire was tested. Fifty copies of the questionnaire were sent to 22 academics and 28 students. Forty were returned.
Fifteen days later the process was repeated. The researcher used two different functions to evaluate the reliability of different parts of the questionnaire. The Karl Pearson (Guilford, G. and Fruchger, B., 1978, pp.77-91) function was used to determine the coefficient of correlation for the scale questions, and the reliability for these questions was calculated to be between .86 and .6. The Cramer function (Abu Nil, 1984, pp.160-162) was used to determine the coefficient of agreement for the questions where the respondent had to select one from a number of items, and the reliability of these questions was calculated to be between .93 and .68.

The questionnaire was designed to provide answers to some of the questions which the study has sought to address. These were first raised in the introduction and are repeated here.

1. What is the status of women in Saudi Arabia and what is the effect of education on her status?

2. What are the experiences of other countries in the field of open university that may help in establishing this system in Saudi Arabia?
3. What are the attitudes of Saudi academics, educational policy makers, and students towards the concept of the open university?

4. What are the existing facilities in Saudi Arabia that will help in setting up an open university?

5. What are the problems that face the implementation of the proposed open university in Saudi Arabia?

6. What are the strategies that should be followed in order to implement the proposed model?

The first two questions are answered in Chapters II, III, and IV, and the last four questions are answered in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire is divided into five sections with each section covering certain areas of research as shown below.

Part I of the questionnaire deals with demographic data. This will enable the researcher to relate the attitude of the respondent to his or her age, status and sex.

Part II deals with general attitudes towards an open university for women in Saudi Arabia.

Part III deals with the system of administration, admission, and finance of an open university. The respondent
is asked to judge the kind of open university which would be most suitable for Saudi Arabia in terms of administration, funding, and admission of students.

Part IV surveys opinions on the programme of an open university and the methods of teaching and evaluation.

Part V investigates explicitly the degree of availability of resources which would make possible the setting up of an open university in Saudi Arabia. At present there are many resources in the universities of Saudi Arabia which could be of use to an open university. The postal and the telecommunication services reach almost all of the country. The Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990 (Ministry of Planning, 1985, p.396) notes that about 3,700 towns and villages in Saudi Arabia had postal services at the time of its printing, and that there were 903,000 telephone lines (7.7 per 100 population). Highly qualified professionals staff the education and communication services. This part seeks indications about how available these would be to an open university.

Part VI seeks to identify obstacles to the setting up of the proposed open University. The respondent is asked to estimate the difficulty which will come from the attitude of
people or the distribution of population. It is important to identify those factors which might hinder the setting up of an open university or diminish its effectiveness in order to assess the feasibility of the enterprise.

**Distribution of the Questionnaire**

The researcher distributed 2661 copies of the questionnaire hoping for a 50% response rate. Twice the total of the target response was sent to each location. Cohen and Manion (1980, p.88) note that a response rate of at least forty percent can be expected. It was hoped that 50% of the number of questionnaires sent would be returned as they were distributed internally, with the permission of the responsible authority.

The researcher had to obtain permission from the universities to distribute the questionnaire. A letter was obtained from the Dean of the College of Education of King Saud University for the president of each university in which the questionnaire was to be distributed. The investigator waited about a month for permission to arrive from the universities. The delay may have been prolonged by the fact that it is not easy (or, on occasion, possible) for a woman to have direct access to the offices of universities.
Following this, the questionnaires were distributed. In the Centre for Women at King Saud University the researcher distributed the questionnaires directly, while in the men's colleges the secretary of the Dean of the College of Education made a very valuable contribution by distributing the questionnaires within the College of Education and to the other Colleges involved.

In the GPGE College of Education and GPGE College of Arts in Riyadh the researcher distributed the questionnaire directly. In the Imam Mohammed University the researcher distributed the questionnaire directly in the Centre for Women, while her husband distributed it in the men's colleges. For King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah a friend of the researcher's husband distributed the questionnaire, while the friend's wife did the same for the College of Girls there.

**Characteristics of Respondents**

The number of questionnaires which were returned was 1,336. The characteristics of the group of people who returned the questionnaires are analyzed in the following tables. The first characteristic is the field of study of the respondent.
Table 5.2
The Fields of Study of the Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Field</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Art</td>
<td>678</td>
<td>50.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>566</td>
<td>42.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Mention</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1336</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2 shows that most of the respondents were from the Arts field. Most higher education students and graduates in Saudi Arabia are from the Arts field.

The second characteristic is the sex of the respondents.

Table 5.3
The Respondents according to Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>478</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>765</td>
<td>57.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Mention</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1336</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For that part of the sample which was made up of students, the researcher distributed the questionnaire to female students only. As students were the largest group of respondents, women dominate the sample as shown in Table
5.3. The attitudes of women are particularly interesting for the researcher as she wishes to find out if they would accept an open university and which system would be suitable for them.

The third characteristic is nationality.

Table 5.4
The Respondents according to Nationality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saudi</td>
<td>859</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egyptian</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordanian</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestinian</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraqi</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syrian</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Mention</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 1336 100.0

Apart from exceptional cases, all students in Saudi Arabian universities are Saudi nationals, and almost all policy makers are Saudi. There are quite a few non-Saudis on the teaching staff of universities, but the overall majority of the sample is Saudi.

The fourth characteristic of the respondents is age.
Table 5.5
The Respondents according to Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>less than 24</td>
<td>448</td>
<td>33.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-below 31</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-below 37</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37-below 41</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-below 51</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-below 58</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58 and above</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Mentioned</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1336</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The largest single group is the 'less than 24 age group' as shown in Table 5.5. This is the normal age for students, and the researcher distributed 900 questionnaires to students and got 448 back. Academics and policy makers are distributed through the other age groups. Many academics leave their jobs in their early 50s though others stay on after the official retirement age of 60.

The fifth characteristic of the respondents is marital status.

Table 5.6
The Respondents according to Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>677</td>
<td>50.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>503</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Mentioned</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1336</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Saudi Arabian society marriage is the norm and while most young women marry in their teens, at present many students postpone marriage until they have finished their studies. The small percentage of divorced people reflects the opposition to divorce in an Islamic country such as Saudi Arabia as noted in Chapter II.

The sixth characteristic is academic qualification.

Table 5.7
The Respondents according to Academic Rank

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's Degree</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's Degree</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Mentioned</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1336</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Generally people with a Bachelor's degree at the universities are studying for a Master's degree and some are also teaching assistants. People with a Master's degree are expected to progress to a doctorate in order to become full members of faculty at the universities. (Universities in Saudi Arabia follow the American system in this.) The Master's degree therefore has a lower percentage in this
distribution. Policy makers may have Bachelor's, Master's, or Doctor's degrees.

The seventh characteristic is the place of work of the respondent.

Table 5.8
The Respondents according to Place of Work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The University</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>King Saud University</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>35.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King Abdulaziz University</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imam University</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPGE College of Education (Arts)</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPGE College of Education (Science)</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPGE College of Education (Jeddah)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPGE College of Arts</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Mentioned</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1336</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A response rate of about 55% was achieved in Riyadh's institutions. The response rate from Jeddah seems very low by comparison but the researcher noted that approximately 200 of the 'Not Mentioned' category come from Jeddah. This was evident from postal arrangements and from the answers to the open questions.
The eighth characteristic is the place from which the respondent got his or her last academic qualification.

Table 5.9
Respondents according to Place of most recent Academic Qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Place</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>674</td>
<td>50.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East (outside KSA)</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.K.</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Mentioned</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1336</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from Table 5.9 that most people have been awarded their last qualification by an institution in Saudi Arabia. The greater part of the sample is made up of students or people who have just completed their Bachelors' degrees, though it included academics, policy makers. All of the students took their last qualification from Saudi Arabia and some academics took their last qualification from Saudi Arabia, as well as some policy makers.
The ninth characteristic is the present position of the respondent.

Table 5.10
Respondents according to Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Position</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy Maker</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academics</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>37.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>469</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Mentioned</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1336</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The distribution for policy makers was small, so their number of answers is low. The relatively poor response from academics possibly indicates a lack of motivation. Replies were obtained from 51.7 percent of the student sample, but only from 33.7 percent of the academic sample.
CHAPTER VI

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

When the completed questionnaires were returned the answers to the open questions were analyzed by the researcher. The full data from the questionnaires were then tabulated on computer and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences.

In this Chapter the researcher presents the results of this analysis in quantitative and narrative form following the sequence of the questionnaire. The researcher analysed the computer output and constructed tables to present significant results. The answers to specific questions are cross-tabulated with specific characteristics of respondents where relevant. The chi-square test was used to determine significance and significance was accepted at .05 level or below.

Part I of the questionnaire deals with demographic data. In Part II of the questionnaire the researcher seeks to explore attitudes to the establishment of an open univer-
sity in Saudi Arabia. If attitudes are positive they will strengthen the case for the setting up of an open university.

In Part II, the researcher added the percentages for "Strongly Agree" and "Agree," and this total is referred to as the 'positive response' except for Items 6 and 10. For these two Items this total represents a negative response to the setting up of an open university in Saudi Arabia at present, and (for these two questions) the lower the total for "Strongly Agree" and "Agree", the higher the confidence in the setting up of such an open university. For Items 6 and 10 then, the total of "Strongly Disagree" and "Disagree" constitutes the positive response.

For the analysis of Parts III, IV, and V, this notion of a positive response was also used where appropriate, and extended to include the totals for "Highly Available and Available" and "Most Important and Important".

Attitudes towards Establishing an Open University

Table 6.1 shows that the attitude of respondents towards the open university in general is strongly positive. The responses to all Items are statistically significant.
Table 6.1
Percentage Responses to Items 1-10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>AG</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>CHI-S.</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. OU good solution to women's problems in higher education.</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>702.469</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Happy to have a daughter / female relative at OU university</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>46.9</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>733.425</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Degree from OU as good as degree from conventional univ.</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>358.448</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. OU as useful as conventional univ. in preparing students for workforce.</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>403.646</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. OU for women a worthwhile project.</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>7.30</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1,146.540</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Setting up of OU not advisable in current financial climate. (cuts, etc.).</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>8.70</td>
<td>140.708</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Transfer to an OU from a conventional univ. and vice versa should be possible.</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>449.155</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. OU preferable to present widespread use of closed circuit TV.</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>398.564</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Would prefer daughter at OU to her being taught by men.</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>565.679</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. An OU system suitable only for a developed country.</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>218.240</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SA = Strongly Agree  DA = Disagree
AG = Agree            SD = Strongly Disagree
UN = Undecided

In Item 5, for example, ("I believe that an open university for women would be a worthwhile project") more than 80% of the respondents give a positive response, leav-
ing less than 13% who either hesitate, disagree, or strongly disagree. (The 'No mention' category accounts for 7.3 percent of respondents.) The response to Item 10 shows that the majority of respondents do not believe that the open university system is suitable only for developed countries. Here, 54.1% either strongly disagree or disagree, while 28.3% either strongly agree or agree, while the remainder either hesitate (13.3%) or do not indicate their opinion.

The response to Items 1 and 2 indicate a strongly positive acceptance of the open university system for Saudi Arabian women. For Item 1 the positive response is 71.9%, while those for Strongly Disagree and Disagree total 14.9%. For Item 2 the positive response is 72.4%, while those for Strongly Disagree and Disagree total 14.4%.

Although the response to Items 3 and 4 also indicates a strongly positive acceptance of the open university system, it also indicates a degree of wariness about the validity of an open university degree and the effectiveness of open university training. This is natural in the case of a new institution. The positive response for Item 3 was 64.6%, and the total for Strongly Disagree and Disagree was 17.4%. In Item 4 the positive response was 63.4%, and the total for Strongly Disagree and Disagree was 19.3%.
The total for "Strongly Agree" and "Agree" for Item 6 (43.7%) showed considerable hesitation where the question of expense was concerned, and the total for Strongly Disagree and Disagree (30.4%) shows a lower positive response to an open university. In the post oil-boom era, the people of Saudi Arabia are wary of large expenditure on new projects.

The response to Item 7 shows that the majority of respondents are positive about student transfers, and a minority are negative. The negative responses may arise from administrative concerns, or from concerns about the equivalence of OU and conventional study. The total for Strongly Agree and Agree was 65.4%, and for Strongly Disagree and Disagree 18.2%.

Item 8 shows a total of 66.7% for the Strongly Agree and Agree percentages, and a total of 17.3% for the Strongly Disagree and Disagree percentages. This indicates that present efforts to give women access to higher education (such as closed circuit television) do not give complete satisfaction. In Item 9 there is a further rise in the total of the Strongly Agree and Agree percentages (71.5%), with a further fall in the total of the Strongly Disagree and Disagree (15.8%). This shows how strongly the people of Saudi Arabia adhere to their traditions in the matter of segregation of the sexes.
From the above it is clear that there is a great deal of encouragement among the people of Saudi Arabia for the idea of establishing an open university for women in Saudi Arabia. This fits in with what the Summary of the Fifth Development Plan (Ministry of Planning, 1990, p. 58) states about the growth in the number of girl secondary school graduates and the need for a 'commensurate increase in higher education opportunities for girls'.

In the following tables the attitude to an open university is cross-tabulated with different characteristics of respondents given in the Demographic Section of the questionnaire. The first characteristic is age.

Table 6.2 indicates that the attitude of respondents towards the different items is affected by their age in some cases. The age of the respondents has statistical significance in each case except for Item 10. The responses were analysed according to six different age groups: less than 24, 24-below 31, 31-below 37, 37-below 41, 41-below 51, 51-below 58, and 58 and above. When the percentage response for Strongly Agree and Agree to each item are added together for each of these categories except of age group 31-below 37 and 37-below 41, it comes to between 53.2% and 83% (concentrated in the 70%-80% range) for all items except
Items 5, 6, and 10. For age group 31-below 37 and 37-below 41 the positive response to these items (all except 5, 6, and 10) is between 39.7% and 76.4%.

Age group 31-below 37 gives only a 45.3% response for Strongly Agree and Agree to Item 3 (OU degree as good as conventional degree) and age group 37-below 41 gives only a 39.7% response. This shows a lack of confidence in an OU degree. The positive responses from the other age groups to this item lie between 52.5% and 74%.

For Item 4 (OU as useful as conventional university in preparing students for labour force) all the age groups give between 48.4% and 70.1% total for Strongly Agree and Agree with the percentages being concentrated in the 60% - 70% range.

For Item 5 (OU for women a worthwhile project) all the age groups encourage the open university and all give above between 80% and 95.9% total for Strongly Agree and Agree, with this being concentrated in the 80%-90% range. The age group 58 and above gave the highest total (95.9%). The researcher believes that this is because they maintain strong traditional values, and see an OU as a compromise which will allow girls to pursue higher education without threatening their seclusion, as noted in Chapter III.
Table 6.2
Cross-tabulation of Responses to Items 1-10 with Age of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Age Group 1</th>
<th>Age Group 2</th>
<th>Age Group 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DA</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Continued...
For Item 6 (Setting up of an OU not advisable in present financial climate) all the age groups give between 34.1% and 55% negative response except for the age group 58 and above which gives 71.4%. A possible reason is that this age group is more worried about expenditure in the post-oil boom era, as they remember times of economic difficulty.

For Item 7 (transfer to an OU from a conventional university and vice versa should be possible) the age groups below 24, 24-below 31, 58 and above give between 70% and 80% positive response. The age group 31-below 37 and 37-below 41 and 51-below 58 give between 53.2% and 69.4% positive. Here we note that the younger groups and the older groups are more positive to a transfer. The younger groups are mostly students and are more interested in what will facilitate their study. The older groups are more interested in administration and have more experience in it.

Item 8 (OU preferable to present widespread use of closed circuit TV) the response of people for all age groups was between 54.1% and 73.6% except for the category 58 and above which gave 83%. This group of people give a high positive response in all questions concerning the open university.
Item 10 (OU suitable only for developed country) the Strongly Agree and Agree total response was between 15.6% and 32.4% for all age groups, showing a lack of support for this Item.

For Item 9 (would prefer daughter at OU to her being taught by men) all the categories give a positive response between 54.6% and 81.3% except for category 51—below 58 which gives us 48.7%. This category (mostly academics and policy makers) are in favour of an open university (Item 1), but are not against the teaching of women by men in a conventional setting, unlike the other categories.

The responses to the ten items above show highly significant differences when cross-tabulated with the age of the respondents. The young people in the sample are all female students who are facing the problems of access to higher education. Hence their response to the proposed open university is more positive than that of the older groups.

The next characteristic is marital status.

Table 6.3 shows the responses when cross-tabulated with marital status do not have statistical significance except for Items 3, 4, 6, and 9. The lowest positive response to
Items 3 and 4 was from married people (57.8%), followed by the single group (69.7%), and the highest positive response came from divorced people (78.2%). This means that confidence in the open university is found at its highest level in the divorced group. In Saudi Arabia women usually marry at a very early age and then withdraw from their studies. If they want to return to their studies, in the event of a divorce, for example, the criteria for entrance to the universities which were mentioned in Chapter II prevent them. It is possible that they see the open university as a solution to this problem.

For Item 6, however, the most cautious response (58%) is from divorced people, with a less cautious response (44.6%) from single people, and the least cautious response (36.8%) from married people. This may reflect the respective economic security of these groups in Saudi society. For Item 9, the highest positive response rate comes from single people (71.1%). This possibly indicates that the single people are more conservative than married or divorced, perhaps because they have less experience of life.

The next characteristic is academic rank. There is statistical significance in the relationship between the academic status of respondents and the responses to Items 1-10.
Table 6.4 indicates that those who have only completed secondary school, Bachelor’s or Master’s Degree, give a positive response rate of between 76.7% and 80.3% for Item 1 while those with a doctorate give the lowest positive response rate (58.5%) to this Item. Those with a doctorate also give the lowest positive response to Items 3, 4, 7, 8 and 9. In all of these the highest rate of positive response comes from the people with lowest academic qualifications and the lowest comes from the people with highest academic qualification. For Item 2 those with a doctorate are in the middle. For Items 6 and 10, however, they (Ph.Ds) give the least negative response. This is clear from Table 6.4.

The responses to Items 3, 4, and 7 show that those who have doctorates are concerned about the quality of degrees from the open university while others are more encouraging.

The above shows that professors (those with Ph.D) are least positive. Their attitudes may be influenced by the lack of progress in establishing a Gulf Open University which was discussed in Bahrain in 1986 (Chapter IV). The researcher believes that the proposal to establish an open university for women in Saudi Arabia has a better chance of success, because it is more specific and limited to one country, and because Saudi Arabia is at present seeking ways to expand women’s access to higher education.
| ITEM | PRIMARY POSITION | QQ | AQ | UQ | MD | MA | MBF/A | BAC/H | DCA | MCA | SEC | LEA |
|------|------------------|----|----|----|----|----|-------|-------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |
| 00000| 12               | 95 | 65 | 7  | 2  | 1  | 0     | 0     | 0    | 2   | 1   | 0   | 0   |

**Table 6.4**

Cross-tabulation of responses to items 1-10 with academic status of respondents.
The next characteristic is the place where the most recent qualification was obtained.

Table 6.5 indicates that there is statistical significance in the relationship between the place where the last qualification was obtained and responses to the ten Items, except for Item 5. People who finished in Saudi Arabia, the Middle East, the U.K., and others give a positive response, except for Items 3 and 7 which deal with the value of the OU degree. In these cases those who obtained their last qualification in the U.K. give a low positive response. This may be because they became aware of the UKOU during their stay there, and are not confident that something similar could be realized in Saudi Arabia.

Those who completed their last degree in the U.S.A gave a positive response to most items (except for Items 3, 4, and 7) but not as positive as the other three groups. The idea of pursuing education largely alone rather than in a lively social group may have less appeal for those who have got used to American culture. For Items 6 and 10 they (U.S.A.) are the most optimistic, perhaps because they feel that money can be obtained if necessary and that projects can be completed even in developing countries.
In general, the highest positive response rate comes from those who completed their studies in Saudi Arabia or the U.K. The U.K. is recognised as a pioneer in setting up the Open University and their materials are excellent, as noted in Chapter IV, so those who studied there show a very positive attitude. In general, the lowest positive response rate is from those who completed their studies in the U.S.A., perhaps for the reason that the U.S.A. has not had considerable success in this field.

The next characteristic is the present place of work. The relation of the present place of work to the responses is statistically significant except for Items 6 and 10.

Table 6.6 shows that the place of work affects the responses except for those to Items 6 and 10. In Item 1 the answers indicate that the people who work at King Saud University and the four GPGE Colleges of Education encourage the establishment of an open university as a way to solving the problems of women who want to pursue their higher education. This may be because they all face the same problem in finding places for all the women who want to enrol. All of these institutions want to allow women to complete their higher education. Their responses are from 82.3% to 86.9% positive. The category which has the lowest
percentage positive response (62.9%) is the Imam University. This may be because of the conservative attitude towards women's education mentioned in Chapter III which is found in the responses to open questions from this institution, and because of worries about innovation. The conservatives are not always aware of the problem of women's limited access to higher education because they see women's place as being in the home.

The Imam University provides the lowest percentage positive response to all items except for Item 9. King Abdulaziz University gives the lowest positive response rate to Item 7. The Colleges of Education and King Saud University give more positive responses than the others, for all Items except 7 and 9. For Item 7 King Abdulaziz University gives a 48.9 positive response rate. This low rate may be because they confuse an open university with intisab as defined in Chapter II, and feel that quality may be affected by permitting transfer between intisab and full-time study. For Item 9 Imam University gives the highest (71.7%) positive response rate, possibly because of a desire to protect women by segregation. King Abdulaziz University gives the lowest positive response (54.0%) to Item 9.
The next characteristic is the nationality of the respondent. The relation between nationality and responses is statistically significant for Items 1, 2, 5, 6, and 9.

Table 6.7 indicates that both Saudi and Egyptian respondents both give positive responses but Egyptians give a more positive response than Saudis for all items except 1 and 9. (The responses to Items 6 and 10 are very close.) It is against the traditions of Saudi Arabia for girls to be taught by men (Item 9). The positive response from Saudis to Item 1 possibly indicates an interest in finding suitable educational systems for the women of Saudi Arabia.

The next characteristic is the sex (gender) of the respondent. The relationship between the sex of the respondent and the responses is statistically significant except for Items 2, 5, and 9.

Table 6.8 indicates the sex of the respondent does not greatly affect his or her attitude to the ten items. Men and women give positive responses but the responses of women are more positive for items dealing with qualifications such as 3 (women 67.2% ; men 58.6%), 4 (women 66.3% ; men 58.4%), and 7 (women 68.6% ; men 59.9%). This may be because women take a more positive view of an open university, because
they are more deeply committed to increasing their access to higher education than men, who are less involved. Item 9 is an indicator of traditional attitudes to the segregation of women, and here there is strong support from both sexes for segregation (men 70.6: women 72.0%). There is no statistically significant difference between the responses of the sexes for Item 5; both are strongly positive. Item 6 shows hesitation about the expense of the undertaking, as noted in the analysis of responses at the beginning of this Chapter. The hesitation is slightly stronger on the part of women.

For Item 8, women give a more strongly positive response than men, perhaps because an OU could give the same benefits as closed circuit television without making attendance necessary.

The next characteristic is the present position of the respondent. The relation between the present position of the respondent and the responses is statistically significant for all Items except 6, as indicated in Table 6.9.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code Abbreviation</th>
<th>SA = Strongly Agree, AC = Agree, UN = Undecided, DA = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6600 0</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
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Table 6.7: Cross-tabulation of Responses to Items 1-10 with Nationality of Respondents.
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</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>0000</td>
<td>No, without 2</td>
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<td>0000</td>
<td>Yes, with 2</td>
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<td>0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The table above represents the distribution of responses to items 1-10 with respect to sex of respondents.

**Table 6.8**
<table>
<thead>
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<th>Code</th>
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<th>POLICY MAKER</th>
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<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1110</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Code Abbreviation: SA = Strongly Agree, AG = Agree, UN = Undecided, DA = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree

Cross-tabulation of Responses to Items 1-10 with Present Position of Respondents.

Table 6.9
In Item 2 the highest positive response rate (77%) comes from students, then policy makers (68.8%), and the lowest (61.6%) comes from academics. In Item 10 only 21.2% of academics agree that an OU is suitable only for a developed country, compared with 24.6% of policy makers and 28% of students, possibly indicating a higher degree of familiarity with the idea of an open university among academics. For Item 6 the academics are least opposed to the setting up of an OU in the current financial climate. In all the other items the highest positive response rate is from students, while the lowest is from academics, with policy makers in the middle. This may be because the students simply want to get through the university and 'how' is not important. The academics take a more serious view of new systems because of preoccupations with anything which could adversely affect the quality of courses, while the policy makers are exposed to pressures from the students and from the academic staff. Another cause of low positive responses from academics may be conservatism and the awareness that the burden of change will fall on them.

In general there is support from all categories for the establishment of an open university in Saudi Arabia.
System of Administration, Admission, and Finance

Administration

The percentages of responses to the question (Question 11) of which system the open university should follow are presented in Table 6.10. The goal of Question 11 is to show which system respondents prefer to help the researcher choose a suitable model for the open university. Table 6.10 indicates which systems were preferred.

The system which the universities in Saudi Arabia follow under the Ministry of Higher Education attracted more respondents than the other three systems together. The umbrella organization system does not attract much support because respondents are aware that there is no tradition of cooperation between the universities of the Kingdom, something which the Summary of the Fifth Development Plan (1990: p.59) laments. The private foundation system attracted only 4% of respondents. The majority of respondents either did not indicate their preferred system or adhered to one of the three less popular choices. The size of the percentage of respondents (25.5%) who did not indicate a choice may indicate that some feared to make a choice which would af-
fect their work or were indifferent to all of the systems. The chi-square tests show a high level of significance in the responses from the group as a whole and rather less from the individual categories.

Table 6.10
Responses to Question 11 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Item</th>
<th>PT</th>
<th>PM</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The open university should</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) follow the Ministry of Higher Education like the other universities in Saudi Arabia.</td>
<td>53.2</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) be an umbrella organization provided with programmes by each university in Saudi Arabia.</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) be a private foundation.</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(d) follow the General Presidency for Girls' Education.</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PT = Percentage of Total
A = Academics
S = Students

Total Categories
Chi-square 486.322
DF 3
Significance 0.000

PM = Policy Makers

Chi square 39.59156
DF 6
Significance 0.0000

Table 6.10 also shows how respondents chose according to their present position. Of the three categories, the policy makers give the lowest support to the Ministry of Higher Education system. The policy makers may be worried
that the Ministry of Higher Education would run an open university like any other university. They want another system. The policy makers give the highest support of the three categories to the private foundation system. Support from the policy makers and the academics is approximately the same for the umbrella organization system, while that from students is lower. The academics give the lowest level of support for the GPGE system, while policy makers support it at the same higher level as students. Academics give the lowest level of support to the GPGE system, possibly because of its conservative reputation and its relatively poor funding. Within each category, the Ministry of Higher Education system attracts most support, probably because respondents believe that an OU would do better financially under this system.

The researcher used open questions to allow people to develop their responses. In a country like Saudi Arabia, which is a developing country, there hasn’t been widespread research on an open university and there isn’t a body of formed public opinion.

In the open questions when the researcher asked the people to give any suggestions about the administrative system of the open university only a few people (41) answered.
Eighteen of these (1.3% of the whole) suggested that the universities cooperate to find a suitable system for an open university. Twenty-three (1.7% of the whole) suggested that the open university select what is suitable for this country from the open universities operating in developed countries.

Admission

The goal of question 13 is to find out what respondents believe to be a suitable age for entrants to an open university.

The high percentage who chose "Unspecified" possibly indicates support for a truly open university where people of any age can study (Table 6.11). Some people (21.8%) say that the age must be at least eighteen, and this probably stems from a normal concern, especially in developing countries, that some students younger than 18 might try to begin university studies before they are ready. The lowest percentage of respondents chose that the students should not be older than 45. In a developing country like Saudi Arabia where people expect students to be young one would expect to see a higher percentage setting an upper age limit. The 'other' category put a tick in the other box but did not write specifically to define what they meant as requested.
Table 6.11
Responses to Question 13 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Policy Maker</th>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Student</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>59.7</td>
<td>60.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At least 18</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 45</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Chi Square 630.108
DF 3
Significance 0.000

Categories
Chi Square 9.67970
DF 6
Significant 0.1388

Table 6.11 indicates that the present position of respondents is not statistically significant in affecting their choice of an age limit for entrants to an open university. More than half of them are positive for unspecified age limits and less than half choose among the other three items. This is a general question where people can answer freely without reference to their position as teacher or administrator or student, so we get approximately the same level of response from each of the three categories.

The goal of question 14 is to discover respondents' opinions about the qualifications necessary for entrance to the open university. This is important because the quality of an institution depends on the quality of the entrants. Table 6.12 indicates the distribution of choices for different criteria for entrance to the open university.
Table 6.12
Responses to Question 14 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Policy</th>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Student</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary + Admission Test</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate School</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>65.8</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>83.9</td>
<td>74.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The criterion for entrance which attracted most support is completion of secondary school level. This is normal for a developing country where new institutions must be protected against those who would seek to begin study at a level for which they are inadequately prepared. In Britain, where the UKOU is at least theoretically open to all, students have access to a nationally well established primary and secondary school system and education is compulsory up to the age of sixteen. In Saudi Arabia there is also a nation-wide primary and secondary school system, though of more recent origin, and education is not compulsory. The majority of the respondents demand comparatively high qualifications for entrance to an OU, and in this they follow Thailand, where entrance qualifications are high as noted in Chapter IV.
When the responses are analyzed according to the present position of the respondent, they are found to be statistically significant. Table 6.12 indicates that the completion of secondary school is the most attractive criterion for all categories but the academics give the highest percentage while the lowest percentage is from the policy makers. The researcher believes that the academics experience of some students who are not able to cope with their studies makes them insist on the highest level of preparedness, while policy makers are more interested in spreading higher education and do not have to face the same problems which academics face. Unspecified, which means unrestricted entrance from the point of view of academic qualification, attracts highest support from the policy makers, possibly for the same reasons. For all categories the 'unspecified' criterion attracts higher support than 'elementary plus admission test,' showing that the principle of open higher education is not rejected out of hand.

The goals of Question 15 is to discover if the nationality or place of residence of students is an important criterion for admission to an open university. Respondents were asked to assign a rank order (1-6) to different categories of nationality or residence requirements for admission to an open university, with 1 the most important and 6 the least important.
The Table 6.13 shows the percentage of respondents to each question who chose a particular rank order. It is clear from the table that most respondents are attracted to the 'Unrestricted' option. Of the 992 respondents to this question 42.3% made it their first option. If we look at the percentage of respondents who gave either their first or their second preference, we find that the sum of these percentages is greater for Items b) or c) than for Item a). The sum of first and second preferences for Item b) is 59.4, and the sum of first and second preferences for Item c) is 59.2, while for Item a) the corresponding total is 52.6. When we look at fifth preferences the number of fifth preferences for Item a) is greater than for Items b) and c). In general the respondents insist on people who are resident in Saudi Arabia, whether Saudi nationals or not. However, the unrestricted group received considerable support. The 300 people who chose the last item (other) gave priority to Saudi Nationals though they said that other nationalities could be admitted if there was room for them.
Table 6.13

Rate of Response as Percentage of the Whole Group to Question 15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rank1</th>
<th>Rank2</th>
<th>Rank3</th>
<th>Rank4</th>
<th>Rank5</th>
<th>Rank6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Unrestricted Group</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Residents of Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Citizens of Saudi Arabia currently Resident in Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Residents in the Gulf Area</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Citizens of GCC Resident in Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Other</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The respondents gave priority to residents in Saudi Arabia, and in this they chose the same path as the UKOU which has a residence requirement and differ from intisab which does not have a residence requirement.

The goal of Question 16 is to allow respondents to state their opinions about systems of admission or administration if these opinions are outside the framework of the structured question. Two hundred availed themselves of this opportunity. No-one added anything about administration, and with regard to admission, respondents simply repeated what they had already noted in responses. They mentioned the priority of Saudi nationals (32.2%), un-
restricted (53.85), while others said the students must be Saudi though not necessarily resident in Saudi Arabia (14.0%).

Finance

The goal of question 17 is to survey attitudes towards different ways of funding an open university. Funding here implies at least initial responsibility for setting up and managing an open university.

Table 6.14 shows that respondents are more in favour of government funding. The other possibilities together attracted only 48.2% of the choices, and the choice 'partly government, partly others' attracted 23.2%. The tradition of privately funded education in Saudi Arabia is marginal, especially at university level. Government backing is also important for recognition of degrees.

The option for funding by the GPGE did not receive much support. The GPGE has been working to transform its colleges of education for girls into a university but has not succeeded yet. Respondents may not be confident that it has the resources necessary to take on a project as complex as the open university. Perhaps people feel that a project of this
nature could only be adequately funded by the government, especially as large costs might be involved at the beginning.

When responses to this question are cross-tabulated with the categories Policy-Maker/Academic/Student, they are found to be statistically significant. The first item (Cost met by Government) is seen to be the most attractive to each group and the last item is the second most attractive to each group, as shown in Table 6.14. The students give the greatest degree of support to Item one, followed by academics and policy makers. The policy makers give less support to government-only funding, perhaps because they want to experiment with private funding in education, following the government's interest in encouraging private sector participation in the delivery of educational services as noted in the Summary of the Fifth Development Plan (Ministry of Planning, 1990, p. 60). The government encourages and provides financial help for private schools. The students' level of support for private or partly-private university education is lowest, possibly because students in Saudi Arabia have been offered free education up to and including university level with a grant at university level, and because they fear having to pay for their education. The academics may be concerned about the level of funding,
the quality of education and the resources which are available to an open University and therefore they support government funding.

Table 6.14
Response to Question 17 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Policy-maker</th>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Student</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost met by Government</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>50.1</td>
<td>69.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borne by the GPGE</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borne by Private Foundation</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partly by Government, Partly by others.</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Categories
Chi Square 493.888
DF 3
Significance 0.00

Categories
Chi Square 64.27569
DF 6
Significance 0.00

In Question 17 d the respondents can choose a method of funding the open university partly by government and partly by other sources. The goal of Question 18 is to discover the breakdown of allocation of responsibility for funding in this case. Approximately 370 respondents answered this question.
Table 6.15

Responses (%) to Question 18 on Allocation of Funding of an OU by Percent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>10%</th>
<th>20%</th>
<th>30%</th>
<th>40%</th>
<th>50%</th>
<th>60%</th>
<th>70%</th>
<th>80%</th>
<th>90%</th>
<th>CHI-S.</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>213.224</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endowment</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>975.273</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>575.573</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>936.856</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fees

The respondents favour government and investment as the sources of funding for the open university. Endowment and student fees are less popular. In Saudi Arabia investment is more common than endowment as a way of funding education at school level, while government funding is the most widespread method of funding education. The people of Saudi Arabia are not used to student contributions to their education.
The researcher believes that it is better to rely on government funding in a new educational experiment. Private investment might lead to doubts about quality.

Table 6.16 shows that when the responses to Question 18 are cross-tabulated with the present position of the respondent, they are statistically significant. It is clear that the academics give the lowest level of support to government funding. Only 28.5% of academics choose government funding to equal 50% of the costs. Of the policy makers, 42.9% choose 50%. Of the students, 30.4% choose 50% government funding. For endowment the choices of all categories were focused on 10% and 20% of funding and varied between 35.7% of students and 41.9% of academics. Between 35% and 36.7% of each category choose 20% of funding to come from investment. For student fees, the answer from each category is concentrated on having student fees provide between 10% and 20% of the cost.

The goal of Question 19 is to discover the attitude to student paying towards the cost of studying at the open university.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Public Work</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1500</td>
<td>142117</td>
<td>1110012</td>
<td>278.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1600</td>
<td>142117</td>
<td>1110012</td>
<td>278.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1700</td>
<td>142117</td>
<td>1110012</td>
<td>278.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1800</td>
<td>142117</td>
<td>1110012</td>
<td>278.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source of Funding by Percent Cross - Tabulated with Percent Position of Respondents

Table 6.16

200
We see that the most attractive is Item (b) (25% of the cost of studying). This may be because if students pay some of the costs the funding from the government or elsewhere will be reduced and the students will probably take their studies more seriously than if they didn’t have to contribute anything. The lowest percentage is in favour of students paying 75% of the costs, with a slightly higher percentage for all of the costs. In Saudi Arabia at present students do not pay the full price for university books, and undergraduates get course books free. In an open university students will require more books and materials than in a conventional university.

Table 6.17

Responses to Question 19 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Policy-makers</th>
<th>Academics</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) None of the costs</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) 25% of the costs</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>41.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) 50% of the costs</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) 75% of the costs</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) All of the costs</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total
Chi square 369.849
DF 4
Significance 0.000

Categories
Chi-square 163.38073
DF 8
Significance 0.000
The responses are statistically significant when cross-tabulated with the present position of the respondent. It is the student group where no student contributions are most popular, and the academic group where it is least popular. The policy makers want to help the students and the students are used to the present system. The academics perhaps feel that if students have to pay they will be more serious about their studies. The policy makers want to encourage the people in their pursuit of higher education.

The result of the cross-tabulation for this question confirms the result of the cross-tabulation for the previous question. The academics seek the largest student contribution, followed by the policy-makers, and then the students.

The Programme of an Open University and the Method of Teaching

In Questions 20 the researcher seeks to discover which programmes are favoured by respondents as being desirable for an open university. Respondents are invited to assign a rank order (1-4) to possible programmes where 1 is Most Important and 4 is Least Important.
Table 6.18
Responses to Question 20 as Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Rank 1</th>
<th>Rank 2</th>
<th>Rank 3</th>
<th>Rank 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inservice</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The greatest response (50.5% of Rank 1 and 36.8% of Rank 2) is to undergraduate education. Graduate education and inservice training have approximately the same percentage for Rank 1 but in Rank 2 the inservice training surpasses the graduate training. This is as expected in Saudi Arabia where undergraduate education is still a priority and a smaller number is interested in inservice training. The GPGE gives some women money so that they can give up work and further their education. This is normal for a developing country. Women who go to work after secondary school soon feel the need for a qualification. Of the 272 people who chose 'others' most chose diploma. Some mentioned secondary and elementary education as well as university but their number was small compared with those who wanted a diploma.

The goal of question 21 is to find out which degree (academic qualification) respondents believe to be necessary
for the academic counsellor at an OU. This is necessary for the construction of a model of an open university.

Table 6.19

Response to Question 21 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Items</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Policy Maker</th>
<th>Academic</th>
<th>Student</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ph.d</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>78.8</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>60.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s Degree</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total
Chi Square 1075.295
DF 3
Significance 0.000

Categories
Chi Square 28.49543
DF 6
Significance 0.0001

Table 6.19 shows that the majority of respondents believe that a Ph.D is necessary, with a smaller group choosing a Master’s and the smallest group opting for the Bachelor’s. The present requirement for faculty members in Saudi Arabia is a Ph.D. or equivalent. Twenty-nine of those respondents who chose ‘other’ note that experience in this kind of education is necessary for an academic counsellor.

Crosstabulation according to present position is statistically significant. Students are less insistent on a Ph.D and more ready to accept an academic counsellor with a Master’s, Bachelor’s or other qualification.
Table 6.20
Responses to Question 21 as Percentages of Respondents Grouped according to Academic Degree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Items</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>B.S</th>
<th>Master's</th>
<th>Ph.D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ph.d</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>64.2</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>84.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's Degree</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's Degree</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square 72.20312  DF 9  Significance 0.000

Table 6.20 shows that the responses to Question 21 have a statistically significant relation to the academic degree of the respondents. The category with secondary education (the lowest qualification) give the lowest rate of support to the necessity of the highest degree and so on until the category with Ph.D. who give the highest rate of support. For Master's and Bachelor's the respondents with the lowest academic degree give the highest level of support.

It is most likely that the people who will make decisions about a future open university are those with a Ph.D who make up the academic establishment. It is therefore likely that a higher degree will be required of academic counsellors. (Tables 6.19 and 6.20 show a consistent at-
titude to the qualification desired for the academic counsellor).

The goal of Question 22 is to survey attitudes to what should be taught in an open university. All responses were statistically significant.

Table 6.21
Percentage Responses to Question 22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>MI</th>
<th>VI</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>MI</th>
<th>NI</th>
<th>CHI Square</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Islamic Studies</td>
<td>75.3</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>2000.010</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Arabic studies</td>
<td>57.0</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1143.119</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Arts and Human Studies</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>504.763</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Social Science</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>440.253</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Education</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>701.549</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Economic</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>225.682</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Admin. Sciences</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>192.262</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Science and Maths</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>191.100</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Medical Science</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>534.207</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Engineering</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>42.323</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Agriculture</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>11.760</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Home Economics</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>746.114</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Librarianship</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>212.915</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MI = Most Important
VI = Very Important
I = Important
MI = Of Medium Importance
NI = Not Important
Sign. = Significance

The majority of the respondents gave highest importance to Islamic and Arabic studies. The traditions of the Saudi people makes them enthusiastic for their language and their religion. Most respondents focus on Home Economics, Medicine, and Education, subject areas which fit in with the
role of women as noted in Chapter II. Table 6.21 shows a serious response which seems to be in harmony with the realities of life in Saudi Arabia today. The significance level in response to all subjects is high. Their attitude to suitable subjects for an open university is clear from the suggestions for other subject areas added by the respondents, which are shown in the list below.

Table 6.22

The Subject which people Suggested in the open question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject Area</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14. Kindergarten</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Special Education</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Computer Studies</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Languages</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Secretarial Skills</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Physical Education</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Interior Design</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Political Science</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. College of Medicine</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Mass Communication</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Adult Education</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.22 gives the responses to the open question where respondents were invited to list subjects which they thought suitable for an open university and indicate their importance. In the event, those who listed did not indicate the importance. Some want subjects which are not cur-
rently available for women, such as physical education, political science, and mass communication. Perhaps this is because people have a tendency to challenge existing barriers. Others seek those subject areas which are available, and some even list College of Medicine, although Medical Science was given in the previous question. The choices show that respondents are interested in what is useful for their country.

Some respondents are not sure that sciences and medicine can be taught effectively through an open university. This is clear from the researcher's reading of the questionnaire: some respondents said explicitly in open questions that an open university cannot teach medicine.

In Table 6.23, responses to Question 22 are cross-tabulated with the position of respondents. The relation of present position to responses is statistically significant in all cases except for Islamic Studies, Arabic Studies, Education, and Science and Math.
Table 6.23

Cross-tabulation of Responses to Question 22 with Present Position of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Policy Makers</th>
<th>Academics</th>
<th>Student</th>
<th>CHI-Square</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MI</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>MI</td>
<td>VI</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Islamic Study</td>
<td>90.6</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>91.6</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Arabic studies</td>
<td>86.3</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>91.4</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Arts and Human Studies</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>73.5</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Social Science</td>
<td>67.9</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>76.1</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Education</td>
<td>82.8</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Economic</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>58.1</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Admin. Sciences</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Science &amp; Math</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>62.1</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Medical Science</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>67.2</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Engineering</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>59.1</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Agriculture</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>59.1</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Home Economics</td>
<td>84.3</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>83.7</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Librarianship</td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MI = Most Important
VI = Very Important
I = Important
Sign = Significance

The students (all of whom are women) do not see Arts and Human Sciences and Social Science as being as important
as the academics and policy makers do. This may be because there are a lot of opportunities to study these subject areas in different institutions. The academics and policy makers may see their importance in their possible contribution to the developing society of Saudi Arabia. For Economics and Administrative Science the same pattern is found. After Islamic Studies, the academics attach the greatest degree of importance to these, and the students the least. This may be due to the lack of opportunity for graduates in these disciplines and to the fact that administrative posts are dominated by men as noted in Chapter III.

The comparatively higher support for Engineering and Agriculture from the students perhaps indicates an interest on their part in areas which are at present either not open to them (Engineering) or have only recently been opened to them (Agriculture). Librarianship finds least support among students, and this may indicate that women are seeking wider horizons.

Table 6.24 shows that the relation between the responses and the sex of the respondent is statistically significant except in the cases of Islamic Studies, Arabic, Home Economics. Subjects like Science, Engineering, and Agriculture, where women enter into new roles, attract higher support from the women than from men.
Subject area choices correlated with the sex of the respondent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>MALE MI</th>
<th>VI</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>MedI</th>
<th>NI</th>
<th>FEMALE MI</th>
<th>VI</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>MedI</th>
<th>NI</th>
<th>CHI S</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Islamic Studies</td>
<td>72.7</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>7.70</td>
<td>00.3</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>76.6</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>00.3</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>5.743930</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Arabic studies</td>
<td>59.1</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>55.9</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>9.20</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>3.626000</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.4900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Arts and Human Studies</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>11.10632</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.0254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Social Science</td>
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<td>44.1</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>29.9</td>
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<td>2.60</td>
<td>12.39209</td>
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<td>0.0147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Education</td>
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<td>33.9</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>25.97530</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Economic</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>10.48124</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.0331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Administrative Science</td>
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<td>32.8</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>8.90</td>
<td>10.15346</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.0379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Science &amp; Math</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>7.70</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>7.90</td>
<td>22.46602</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Medical Science</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>9.60</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>7.40</td>
<td>18.50876</td>
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</tr>
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<td>14.3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>33.03415</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Agriculture</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>53.85300</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Home Economics</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>5.070710</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Librarianship</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>8.20</td>
<td>8.20</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>25.65598</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MI = Most Important  MedI = Of Medium Importance
VI = Very Important  NI = Not Important
I = Important
The goal of Question 23 is to investigate the attitudes of respondents, especially academics and policy makers, to the question of who should be responsible for the preparation of materials.

Table 6.25 shows that respondents favour the academics who set up and those who work in an OU, with more support going to the academics who set up an OU. The academic in Saudi Arabia has the rank of professor and must hold a Ph.D. Respondents favour the people who set up the OU more than those who work in it possibly because they are seen as experts.

When the responses are cross-tabulated with the present position of the respondent, they are found to be statistically significant. The policy makers give the first Item the highest support and the academics the lowest, while for the third Item the academics give the highest level of support and the students the lowest. This may indicate that the working academics are interested in helping with the setting up of the OU. For the fourth Item the students once again (as above with the Qualifications for an academic counsellor) lend their support to the participation of non-Ph.D teachers. This is confirmed by students giving more support to Item 5 (OU teachers alone) than the other categories.
Table 6.25

Responses to Question 23 as Percentage of the Whole Group as Percentage of Respondent Group by Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Policy Makers</th>
<th>Academics</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Academics who set up OU an K.S.A.</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Academics who set up an OU in KSA and those academics who work in it</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>33.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Academics who work in an OU.</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Academics from an OU with OU teachers.</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>28.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) OU teachers</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Other</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Totals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>760.555</th>
<th>Categories Columns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi Square</td>
<td>45.60565</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 47 answered under other and most suggested bringing experts on open university systems from outside Saudi Arabia.
The goal of Question 24 is to gather data about the extent to which respondents believe different media should be used in an open university. It is clear from Table 6.26 that respondents do not concentrate on one medium, and that the responses are statistically significant.

The table shows that the first column (10%) has attracted more than other columns: this shows that respondents were more inclined to distribute their choice of media over many alternatives rather than to choose (e.g.) a 50% column, leaving themselves with a small choice. They are open to a mix of media. The respondents do not give an overwhelming support to any one media. Perhaps they want a change from a conventional university.

Lectures at local centres attracted the highest percentage of support (25.3%) in the 90% column. In the 10% column Correspondence and Marked Assignments attracted the highest percentage of support (53.1%) followed by Telephone Courses.
### Table 6.26

**Percentage Responses to Question 24**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media</th>
<th>10%</th>
<th>20%</th>
<th>30%</th>
<th>40%</th>
<th>50%</th>
<th>60%</th>
<th>70%</th>
<th>80%</th>
<th>90%</th>
<th>CHI-S.</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Radio Prog</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>265.412</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. T.V Prog</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>518.225</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Lecture at local Centre</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>614.079</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Special Printed Material</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>920.373</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Telephone Contact</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>1288.836</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Books bought or borrowed</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>335.305</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Correspondence and marked assignments</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>1820.283</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Summer Schls</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>430.937</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were invited to mention other media and indicate the extent to which they thought they should be used. Table 6.26 (a) gives the responses to the open part of Question 24, with the numbers of respondents who suggested a particular medium given underneath it in parentheses.
Table 6.26 (a)
Suggestions of Respondents about the Mixture of Media to be used in an OU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media</th>
<th>10%</th>
<th>20%</th>
<th>30%</th>
<th>40%</th>
<th>50%</th>
<th>60%</th>
<th>70%</th>
<th>80%</th>
<th>90%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audiotape</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(292)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Videotape</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>58.1</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(284)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting to</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>77.0</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss (27)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the responses to Question 24 are cross-tabulated with the present position of the respondent (Table 6.27) we find the same general position. The relation between present position and responses is statistically significant except for Radio Programmes, T.V. Programmes and Correspondence and Marked Assignments. Lectures at Local Centres are more popular with students. Forty percent place this category in the 90% column. Policy makers are more attracted to specially printed material than teachers or students. For Telephone Contact, half of the Policy Makers, half of the Academics, and about a quarter of the students chose a 10% allocation.

For Summer School more than 40% of academics and policy makers give 10% while 29% of the students give 10%.
The goal of Question 25 is to discover which items in Question 24 might be difficult to organize in Saudi Arabia to help the researcher choose appropriate media for an open university. The question will also make respondents think more deeply about their choice of media when they are asked to reflect on whether their choice can be realized.

Table 6.28 indicates that respondents find that there will be difficulty in implementing TV Programmes (2), Radio (1), and Correspondence and Marked Assignments (7). In the opinion of respondents, there will be less difficulty in implementing other media.

Table 6.28

Responses to Question 25 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Number of Media</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Maker</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total

Chi Square 649.886
DF 8
Significance 0.000

Categories

Chi Square 65.60044
DF 16
Significance 0.0000
When the responses are cross-tabulated with the present position of the respondents, they are found to be statistically significant. The policy makers see most difficulty in Television (2), followed by Radio (1), and Telephone (5). In Saudi Arabia. Television and radio are administered by the Ministry of Information, while the telephone service is administered by a government body, Saudi Telecom. The policy makers may be wary of the problems of liaising with other bodies.

The Academics agree with the policy makers about Media 1 and 2 and 5 but see a difficulty in No. 3 (lecture at local center) possibly because they see a difficulty providing staff.

The students agree with the other categories on Media 1 and 2 but they are different from the policy maker in No. 7, (teaching by correspondence), where one third of them think that it would be difficult to organize in Saudi Arabia. The students are women and they may feel that at home they will suffer from a lack of back-up. We will assume that the high rate of response which sees correspondence as difficult is not a reflection on the actual difficulty of correspondence but on the perceived difficulty of the female student who wants contact with the outside and who feels that she will not get back-up at home.
The three categories saw very little difficulty in use of specially prepared teaching material (4) and books recommended by the teacher (6).

The goal of Question 26 is to let the researcher see whether respondents agree on the importance of the Centre of Learning or not. If they agree with it there is a possibility that they will encourage it. The table below indicates their opinion.

Table 6.29 shows that the total for Strongly Agree and Agree comes to 80%, indicating a high level of support for local centres in all parts of Saudi Arabia. There is no statistically significant difference in the attitudes of the categories to the setting up of centres of learning for an open university. They are all strongly positive. This is good because it will encourage the establishment of centres of learning at the open university and this will help women get support for learning outside the home.

The researcher next focusses (Question 27) on the media which will be used in the centres of learning of the open university. This connects with the idea in Question 24 but is explicitly related to the centres of learning. Table 6.30 shows that the responses are highly significant.
Table 6.29

Responses to Question 26 as Percentages of the Whole Group
and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy Maker</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>58.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total
Chi Square 921.788
DF 4
Significance 0.000

Categories
Chi square 14.52369
DF 8
Significance 0.0691

Table 6.30
Percentage Responses to Question 27

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>MI (%)</th>
<th>VI (%)</th>
<th>I (%)</th>
<th>OMI (%)</th>
<th>NI (%)</th>
<th>Chi-S</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Video Cassette Recorder and Cassettes</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>687.277</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio Cassette Recorder and Cassettes</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>368.942</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference Books and Materials</td>
<td>64.4</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1630.197</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching staff to guide the students</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>717.595</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>408.078</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Assisted Learning</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>530.020</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone link between centres of learning and open university center.</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>917.152</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television*(264)</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MI = Most Important
VI = Very Important
OMI = Of Medium Importance
NI = Not Important
Sign. = Significant

* This was the choice of 264 respondents in response to the open question at the end of Question 27 inviting them to add other media.
The most positive response was to Reference Books and Materials. The researcher believes that this is because the respondents are used to the availability of these media. The next most positive was to the Telephone Link. One reason for this may be that transportation is difficult for women in Saudi Arabia. Others may be that mixing of the sexes is not encouraged in Islam, and that Saudi Arabia has a very good telephone system with 1,153,400 given as the total working lines in 1989 (Ministry of PTT. 1989. p.4). A slightly more positive response was given to Video Cassette than to Teaching Staff, possibly because the former was seen as less restricted to a certain schedule and would give the student more flexibility.

The responses according to the categories of policy maker, academic, and student as shown in Table 6.31, are all statistically significant except for the responses to the Telephone Link. But for some media the responses from policy makers and academics are at approximately the same rate, especially for Video Cassette Recorder, Audio Cassette Recorder, Teaching Staff to guide the students, Computer, and Computer Assisted Learning. The students' responses for Computer may be different because the students are not as
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>M = Most Important</th>
<th>V = Very Important</th>
<th>I = Important</th>
<th>Med I = Medium Important</th>
<th>NI = Not Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6.31**

Cross-tabulation of Responses to Question 27 with Present Position of Respondents.
familiar with computers as the other categories, and give this medium a lower rate of importance. For Teaching Staff to guide the students, on the other hand, the students assign a higher rate of importance than the other two categories. This is perhaps because the students are used to guidance and would see it as very important for distance learning.

The goal of Question 28 is to complete the survey of attitudes to the local study centre by investigating opinions about the time when the centre should be open. This will help the researcher decide on the most suitable times when she is constructing a model of an open university. The Table 6.32 shows answers to this question for the whole group and for different categories of respondents. The responses are statistically significant.

Table 6.32 shows that the respondents favour the first choice for opening hours, followed by the second choice.
Table 6.32
Responses to Question 28 as Percentages of the Whole Group
and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Centre Opening Hours</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Policy Makers</th>
<th>Academics</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 hrs. a.m.</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 hrs. p.m. daily.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twice weekly, once morning, once afternoon.</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two days of the weekend.</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 hrs p.m. every day</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three times a week p.m. and once a.m.</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square 441.168</td>
<td>Chi-square 19.95036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF 5</td>
<td>DF 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance 0.000</td>
<td>Significance 0.0297</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first choice is more attractive than the other choices, especially for the academics and policy makers. Because they want it to be possible for women to pursue their studies in a way that will not clash with their roles as wives and mothers, they want the centres open as much as
possible for the students. It will be suitable for women with children at school, as they will be able to leave their children at school and go to the open university. However, it will be expensive. In other countries the local study centre is not open daily morning and afternoon. Other choices are more realistic in terms of expense and usefulness for people.

The goal of Question 29 is to find out respondents' (especially policy makers and academics) opinions on how an open university should evaluate its students. This is important for the value of credentials awarded. The responses to this Question as shown in Table 6.33 are statistically significant.

Table 6.33 indicates that respondents are most attracted to the system which the GPGE follows for external students, and then to the system used by King Abdulaziz University (KAU). The researcher assumes that respondents found that the GPGE system is more practical because here the external student is asked to join the regular students only once a semester for the final examination although she may have been given research or may be given extra questions as noted in Chapter II.
Table 6.33
Responses to Question 29 as Percentages of the Whole Group and as Percentages of Respondents Grouped by Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System of Evaluation (used by ...)</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Makers</th>
<th>Academics</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GPGE (External Students)</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>49.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSU</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KAU</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Categories
Chi-Square 53.372
DF 3
Significance 0.000

When responses are tabulated according to the present position of the respondent the students are seen to give highest support to the GPGE system (assignments and final examination). This may be because the students favour the simplest and least demanding system of evaluation which the GPGE system for external students represents. The academics favour the system in use at KAU more than the students, and the GPGE system less than the students, possibly because the KAU system for evaluating external students is more demanding and resembles the evaluation system of a conventional university more closely.

The others (260 respondents) focus on two answers, one suggesting that the evaluation system should follow the open university in Britain, and the other proposing the use of the comprehensive examinations used in America.
The Possibilities which Exist in Saudi Arabia of Establishing an Open University

The goal of Question 30 is to investigate which resources would be available to an open university, and how available they would be.

Table 6.34

The Percentage of Total Responses on the resource available to the Proposed Open University for Women in Saudi Arabia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>HA</th>
<th>AV</th>
<th>LA</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>SIGNSQUARE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Staff</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>314.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experts and</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>359.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist Administrators</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>401.852</td>
</tr>
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<td>Libraries</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>384.231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laboratories</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>367.402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postal Services</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>39.7</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>383.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television services</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>177.696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio service</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>369.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buildings</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>321.261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printing</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>491.476</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

HA = Highly Available   SC = Scarce
A = Available           NA = Not Available
LA = Less Available
Table 6.34 shows that respondents believe that most resources are available. For all of these resources except Experts and Specialist Administrators, and Laboratories more than 60% of the respondents answer highly available or available. For experts Saudi Arabia is still dependent on other countries. Saudi Arabia is dependent on other countries for technology and this means that the availability of laboratory equipment and its maintenance can be problematic. The answers are encouraging for the realization of the proposed open university.

When these answers are cross-tabulated with the present position of the respondents (Table 6.35), the responses for Libraries, Postal Services, Radio Services, Buildings, and Telephone Services are statistically significant. With regard to the availability of buildings 47.5% of the policy makers give a positive response (HA and A), together with 64.4% of academics and 60.7% of students. This may be because the policy makers face the real problems in providing offices and lecture halls while the academics and students tend to take these things for granted.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code Abbreviation</th>
<th>HA = Highly Available, AV = Available, LA = Less Available, SC = Score, NA = Not Available</th>
<th>Telephone Service</th>
<th>Printing</th>
<th>Building</th>
<th>Radio Services</th>
<th>Television Services</th>
<th>Postal Services</th>
<th>Laboratory</th>
<th>Library</th>
<th>Administrative</th>
<th>Exam and Special</th>
<th>Teaching Staff</th>
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</table>

Cross-Tabulation of Responses to Question 30 With Present Position of Respondents

Table 6.35

230
When these answers are cross-tabulated with the university where the respondents work (Table 6.36), those for Postal Service, Television Service, Printing and Telephone Service are found to be statistically significant.

The researcher finds that institutions are optimistic about finding resources. For example, The Imam University and the College of Education for Arts and the College of Arts gave respectively 34.6%, 40.2%, and 48.2% (HA and A) even though they haven’t got laboratories. Perhaps this is because they believe that facilities at other universities will be available to an OU. The GPGE College of Arts is generally more positive than the GPGE College of Education for Science, possibly because in the latter students and staff are more aware of a lack of resources in their work.

The goal of question 31 is to investigate which resources would be available at each university for an open university. This question is aimed at policy makers and teachers, and not at students. The responses were statistically significant.
### Table 6.36
Cross-tabulation of Responses to Question 30 with Place of Work of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESOURCES</th>
<th>King Saud University</th>
<th>King Abdulaziz University</th>
<th>Imam University</th>
<th>College of Education for Science (G.P.E)</th>
<th>College of Education for Arts (G.P.E)</th>
<th>College of Education in Jeddah (G.P.E)</th>
<th>College of Arts</th>
<th>CHI - SQUARE</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>SIGNIFICANCE</th>
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<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td>AY</td>
<td>LA</td>
<td>SC</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
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<td>14.7 34.7 33.7 14.7 21</td>
<td>13.3 31.3 43.4 12.0 00</td>
<td>12.3 34.8 40.8 10.8 1.5</td>
<td>00 66.7 33.3 00 00</td>
<td>19.8 28.9 36.4 12.4 25</td>
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<td>5.5 38.3 34.1 20.9 33</td>
<td>11.3 32.5 42.5 10.0 3.8</td>
<td>13.4 22.0 44.9 18.1 1.8</td>
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<td>23.2 42.1 31.6 21 11</td>
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<td>21.8 38.8 21.8 13.8 5 7</td>
<td>31.8 41.8 15.2 8.9 2.5</td>
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<td>18.4 33.8 32.8 8.8 8.4</td>
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<td>30.6 42.3 17.9 7.7 7 1</td>
<td>31.9 41.8 17.6 8 8 00</td>
<td>27.8 39.2 16.5 7.6 8.9</td>
<td>21.3 35.2 27.9 12.3 3.3</td>
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<td>44.9 33.7 9.0 8 7 5 8</td>
<td>32.1 34.6 12.8 12.7 7.7</td>
<td>28.3 30.0 18.2 18.7 5.8</td>
<td>50.0 00 00 00 00</td>
<td>38.6 24.1 9.3 15.7 11.1</td>
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</table>

### Table 6.37
Responses to Question 31 as Percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>HA</th>
<th>AV</th>
<th>LA</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>Chi Square</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experts</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>9.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Professors</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>308.930</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researchers and Specialists</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>254.511</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laboratories and Libraries</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>266.139</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Printed Material</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>310.637</td>
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<tr>
<td>Financial Aid</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>30.910</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use of Buildings</td>
<td>10.8</td>
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<td>20.3</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>33.783</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

HA = Highly Available  SC = Scarce  
AV = Available  NA = Not Available  
LA = Less Available

The respondents agree that professors and printed material are highly available. These two resources are agreed by more than 60% of respondents to be available (adding the percentages for available and highly available). Other resources except for use of buildings make more than 40%. Teachers and policy makers are not in control of financial aid and they know it is scarce at present when they see that their own university is strict with money.
Others noted that university research centres might be available for students.

When the responses to the question 31 about the availability of resources in the respondents' university is cross-tabulated with the university of the respondent (Table 6.38), responses to all resources are statistically significant. We find that each university individually reflects the general view that they can help the open university. There are some differences in individual items. All the universities give the availability of experts as more than 50% while the GPGE colleges with the exception of the College in Education in Jeddah do not. For Professors the universities and the colleges give a high percentage availability. The researcher assumes that this indicates a willingness to help. For Researchers and Specialists the Colleges and the Imam University indicate less availability less than the two other universities. For Laboratories and Libraries the GPGE give the lowest percentage for availability. King Abdulaziz University and King Saud give a higher availability for buildings than the Colleges of the GPGE.
In the view of the GPGE Colleges as regards all resources an open university is less feasible than in the view of the Universities. This is as expected because the GPGE Colleges are less well endowed than the men's universities as noted in Chapter II.

In Saudi Arabia at present, academic buildings, laboratories, and libraries are mostly used in the mornings and would be available for other purposes after three o'clock. The libraries of the universities for men are now open for some time during the weekends for women students of the universities and GPGE colleges.

Obstacles

The goal of the section on obstacles is to investigate perceptions of possible obstacles to the setting up of an open university. Respondents are invited to reply on a graded scale to statements of possible barriers to an open university.

Table 6.39 indicates that 50.4% of the respondents agree (SA and AG) that an open university will not be accepted by the majority of people in Saudi Arabia. This is not unusual as in Britain there wasn't widespread acceptance
Table 6.39

Respondents Views of Obstacles to an Open University

<table>
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<th>ITEM</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>AG</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>CHS</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sign.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. OU not accepted by majority</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>33.9</td>
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<td>6. Distribution of population in S.A. will make provision of study centres difficult</td>
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of the open university when it was begun. Only later, when the graduates emerged did people's attitudes change. The
responses to Item 2 show a slightly higher percentage (53%) of agreement that an open university will not find acceptance. The response to the third Item may reflect a current concern about increasing numbers of unemployed graduates, both male and female, and a particular concern about areas where women may work outside the traditionally accepted area of teaching in girls' schools. The government has been opening opportunities for women but the people have not taken advantage of them. Only 36% of respondents see an obstacle in negative attitudes to higher education of women (Item 4) which are still seen to exist in Saudi Arabia as outlined in Chapter II. The responses to Item 5 show a lack of confidence in embarking on such a project: 56% of respondents see lack of experience as an obstacle. If the policy makers who make the decisions on education in Saudi Arabia back this project this obstacle will be overcome because they will bring people from other countries and they will try until they succeed. The response of 41.1% (SA and AG) to Item 6 shows that there is awareness of the problems of catering for a widely-scattered population.

In the open part of the question the lack of teachers was quoted as an obstacle by 222 respondents and the lack of money was quoted as an obstacle by 195. Other obstacles included administration difficulties, difficulties with
telephone and television (getting a channel accepted), and women's inability to drive.

The above shows that respondents are clearly aware of problems facing the eventual setting up of an open university, and this is encouraging for the researcher, because it implies that they are looking at the proposal seriously.

When the responses are cross-tabulated with the present position of the respondents (Table 6.40), they are found to be statistically significant. The students are seen to give the highest rate of agreement to the statements outlining obstacles in each case. The policy makers and academics may be aware of the difficulties but can see the obstacles as surmountable, while the students may be more impressed by obstacles.

When the responses are cross-tabulated with the place of work of the respondents (Table 6.41), only those to Items 3 and 5 are found to be statistically significant. For Item 3 the GPGE Colleges (except the College of Education in Jeddah) give a response of over 50% Strongly Agree and Agree, but the Imam University and King Abdulaziz give a response (SA and A) of less than 50%. This may be because the students and most of the staff of the GPGE Colleges are women and may be more aware of the lack of opportunity for
women in the labour market. All of the institutions (except the College of Education in Jeddah) give more than 50% or more response agreeing or strongly agreeing with Item 5.

The Colleges of Education are more negative than the universities for Item 2. Most of their teachers and all of their students are women. For Items 4 all the institutions (except the College of Education in Jeddah) give a negative response.

Table 6.42 shows the cross-tabulation of responses to the statements about obstacles with the sex of the respondents. The responses to Items 3 and 5 were statistically significant. A higher percentage of women than men agree (total of agree and strongly agree) that all Items (except Item 4) are obstacles. For Item 4 the opinions of the sexes are not significantly different.

For Items 3 and 5 the gap between the responses is large. For Item 3, women show a greater appreciation of the difficulties, as mentioned above in comments on the general response to this Item. The responses to Item 5 may be due to a more deeply felt lack of confidence on the part of women, especially where new projects are concerned. This may be due to their not having been involved in the creation of new projects and consequently not having had access to expert help.
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**Table 6.42**

Cross-tabulation of responses to questions with sex of respondent.
Conclusion

The data collected by survey may be summarized as follows. The attitude of policy makers, academics, and students in Saudi Arabia is positive to the establishment of an open university for women. Support is lower from conservative quarters but there is a majority in favour.

An OU is seen as a good solution to women's problems in higher education and as a worthwhile project. Respondents would be happy to have their daughter or other female relative enrol in an open university and moreover would prefer her to be at an OU to being taught by men. The older respondents (58 and above) particularly, seem to want a solution for women which will allow them to pursue higher education without compromising traditions of seclusion. Seventy two percent of women, however, prefer their daughter to be at an open university to her being taught by men, as against 70.6% of men. A majority of all respondents believe that an OU is preferable to the present use of closed circuit television in the teaching of women at university level.

When asked to compare an OU with a conventional university, respondents see degrees from both kinds of university as being of equal value and see both kinds of university as
being of equal use in preparing students for the workforce. Academics, however, have less confidence than policy makers or students in the comparative value of an OU degree. Support for the equivalence of an OU degree and for its usefulness in preparing students for the workforce varies inversely with the academic rank of the respondent, with those with a doctorate giving less than 50% support for these views and secondary school graduates giving more than 74%. Women give approximately 66% support, while men give approximately 58% support to the equivalence of OU degree.

A majority of respondents agree that transfer between an OU and conventional universities should be allowed, but this majority is greater on the part of the students than on that of the policy makers and academics. Responses above show a welcome for an OU and an acceptance of its equivalence to a conventional university.

Respondents reject the idea that an OU is suitable only for developed countries. The present economic circumstances in Saudi Arabia make some respondents (mostly men) hesitant about setting up an OU, but this hesitation does not have majority support.

With regard to the system of administration of an OU,
the system followed by the Ministry of Higher Education and in use in the universities of Saudi Arabia attracted a slender majority of support. Just over 50% of academics indicated support for this system, but policy makers and students gave less definite support (approximately 36%).

Most respondents do not favour definite age limits for entry to an OU. Approximately a quarter of their number chose the limit 'at least 18.' In response to the minimum academic requirement for entrance to an OU, a sizeable majority (65.8%) favour the completion of secondary school certificate, which in Saudi Arabia is achieved at approximately 18.

The unrestricted group, the residents of Saudi Arabia, and the resident citizens of Saudi Arabia, acquire the most substantial support as criteria for admission to an OU. The openness to non-Saudis is significant in view of the very large expatriate population in Saudi Arabia.

Most respondents indicate support for funding of an OU (setting-up costs and running costs) by the Government just as other universities in Saudi Arabia are funded. There is a small degree of support from policy makers for funding from a private foundation, and from academics for a con-
tribution to funding from student fees. There is higher support for a student contribution to the costs of books, tapes, and other instructional materials. A contribution of 25% of the cost was the favoured option.

The responses to the question of which programme an open university should offer showed that just over 50% were in favour of an undergraduate programme, with a graduate programme and in-service training sharing most of the remaining support equally.

Most respondents believe that the academic counsellor at a OU should hold a Ph.D degree. (This is the normal requirement for faculty at the universities in Saudi Arabia.) Policy makers and academics are most insistent on a Ph.D., and when the responses are analyzed the level of insistence diminishes as the qualification of the respondent becomes lower.

Respondents choose Islamic studies and Arabic as important areas of study at an open university, indicating the strength of devotion to religion and language in Saudi Arabia. Other areas which were strongly supported were home economics and medicine, which fit in with the accepted role of women, and engineering and agriculture, which
do not. Those areas which fitted in with the accepted role of women and her seclusion attracted more support from men, while those areas in which women would be breaking new ground, such as engineering, attracted more support from women.

For preparing material for these areas of study, academics who set up an open university and academics who work in it were chosen by 40% of respondents. Teachers at an open university, as opposed to academics, were rejected for this role by a large majority, though the group 'academics and teachers' got some support, especially from the student respondents.

Respondents distribute their choices for media to be used at an open university among all those mentioned in the questionnaire. Students give a high level of support to lectures. Radio and television programmes received some support, but a quarter of respondents felt that these would be difficult to organize, perhaps because of difficulties anticipated in liaising with an independent ministry.

There was strong support (more than 80%) for the establishment of local study centres. When respondents were asked to indicate what should be available in the local
study centres, most chose reference books and materials, followed by telephone links between the centre and the open university centre, and then teaching staff and video facilities. Computer assisted learning attracted more support than computers. For the opening hours of the local study centre most support was given to the most generous allocation of opening hours (four hours daily, two morning and two afternoon).

The GPGE system for evaluating students attracted most respondents, particularly students.

When respondents were asked to note which resources in Saudi Arabia would be available to an open university, they gave very positive answers. Experts and laboratories attracted the lowest level of support, possibly because Saudi Arabia has little experience in the field of open university management and, in the case of laboratories, because outside help is still needed to maintain modern laboratories.

However, respondents from the men's universities indicated more confidence in the availability of resources, including experts, at their institutions, than respondents from the women's colleges.

When respondents were asked to state their opinion about possible obstacles to an open university, they clearly indicated that the setting up of an open university would be
hindered by certain attitudes and circumstances in Saudi Arabia. This might seem to contrast with the very positive attitudes expressed in favour of an open university, but it shows a realistic awareness of the difficulties involved in such a radical step.

Women fear more than men that an open university for women will not be accepted by the people of Saudi Arabia. Half of all respondents shared this fear. This may be because of a fear (shared by 53%) of attitudes of people in Saudi Arabia to new methods of education, or because of a fear (shared by 57%) that the setting up of an open university for women would be pointless because of lack of opportunity for women in the labour market. These fears are present in the student group to a greater degree.

A majority (64%) do not agree that traditional negative attitudes to higher education for women will hinder the setting up of an open university, indicating that there is wide acceptance for this (higher education for women). A slightly smaller majority (59%) did not see the distribution of population in Saudi Arabia as an obstacle to providing fully equipped study centres. The lack of experience of this kind of education in Saudi Arabia was seen as a possible obstacle by 56% of respondents.
CHAPTER VII

Outline of a Proposed Open University for Women in Saudi Arabia

Introduction

Saudi Arabia has developed an infrastructure in the areas of education and communications which could be used to provide wider access for women who wish to pursue higher education. This pursuit should be encouraged, as it will aid women in their roles as wives and mothers in contributing to the modern society which Saudi Arabia has become, and will enable those who wish to train for a role outside the home to do so. An open university for women would help women to pursue higher education in a way which does not conflict with the religion and traditions of Saudi Arabia. The researcher proposes below a suggested model for an open university for women.

The following proposal for an open university for women in Saudi Arabia is based on the survey and on Chapters II, III, and IV. A first draft of the proposal was discussed with Mrs. Joan Bellamy, Dean of Arts, UKOU; Mr. David Kennedy, Director of Regional Centres (Scotland), UKOU; Lee Taylor, Planning Director, Equal Opportunities, UKOU; Miss
Rosie Atkinson, Summer School Tutor, UKOU. Other people gave advice during a visit by the author to the UKOU Headquarters in Milton Keynes during the summer of 1990. The first draft was re-written in the light of these discussions and this advice.

Goals

An open university for women (OUW) would increase the opportunities for women to pursue higher education. The necessity of increasing the number of places for women in higher education to cater for growing numbers of secondary school graduates has been recognized by the Government as noted above in the Statement of the Problem, Chapter I.

An open university would provide more opportunity for women in Saudi Arabia to pursue undergraduate and graduate programmes in every part of Saudi Arabia. It would also provide higher education for women without restriction through a system suitable for their situation in Saudi Arabia.

The goal of an OUW would be to provide undergraduate programmes (as a priority) to women in Saudi Arabia. It would aim especially to cater for those women who have
missed opportunities to pursue higher education, possibly because of their special status in Saudi Arabia, and would attempt to provide for women without detriment to their roles as wives and mothers.

**Characteristics of Students**

In the early years of operation the entrance requirements for the OUW would normally be the same as for the other universities in Saudi Arabia (i.e. graduation from secondary school at the required level). Some applicants might be fresh from secondary school while others would be adult workers. Those who had completed intermediate school and had at least five years work experience would also be admitted if they passed an admission test. Students of any age would be accepted provided they were resident in Saudi Arabia. The ultimate goal would be for the OUW to become a genuine 'open' university as in the United Kingdom and elsewhere where men and women are admitted without entry qualifications.

**Programme of Study**

The programme of study for the OUW would probably be limited at the beginning to eight faculties: Islamic
studies, Arabic, mathematics, science, computer studies, secretarial and business studies, home economics, and adult education. For the first five years the OUW would provide undergraduate courses in these areas leading to a Bachelor’s degree. After this period postgraduate courses or training courses might be provided.

**Organization of Study**

The academic year would be divided into two semesters. These semesters would begin and end at the same times as those of conventional universities, and would last for fourteen to sixteen weeks.

At least six months before the beginning of the semester in which the student hoped to begin studying, she should apply for admission to the OUW and submit the names of courses for which she was prepared to accept a place and to study. The OUW would offer foundation courses to enable those students who needed them to adjust to university level study.

The student would choose her combination of courses of study in consultation with her tutor-counsellor. The student might choose either one subject as a major, or have a
general degree. The choice of courses would be left as flexible as possible, but the OUW, like the other universities in Saudi Arabia, would operate a quota system for subjects, to avoid over-production of graduates in popular areas. This quota system would be operated by the regional centres. In the OUW applicants would be accepted for courses on a first come, first served basis.

The credit hour system would be used. The students would decide on the number of hours they would take. The students would finish the bachelor’s degree within four to twelve years. A total of 120 to 136 credit hours would be needed for a B.A. degree. To gain one credit hour in the conventional university, a student must attend lectures for one hour per week during a semester, and is expected to spend more time in private study. An equivalent workload would be expected from the OUW student.

Costs

There is an urgent need to expand provision of higher education for women in Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Planning, p 262). Meeting the current demand is already very costly because of the dependence on foreign staff, both academic and administrative, and because of the rapid expansion in
the numbers of students and the improvements made in buildings and equipment. In 1965 the total budget for Higher Education was 55 million Saudi riyals and in 1985 it was 11,079 million, 200 times as much. The cost per student in 1976 was 39,100 Saudi riyals while in 1983 it had grown to 56,200 (Abdul Jawad, 1987, p 313).

The researcher estimates that an OUW would possibly have the same unit cost per student as a conventional university in the initial years, as was the case for the Al-lama Iqbal Open University in Pakistan (Collister et al., 1980). However, Rumble (1987) notes that the unit cost per student of the UKOU is about one-third that of conventional universities and that open universities can be more cost-efficient than conventional universities. The researcher, however, does not propose setting up an open university for women primarily to save money, but to give more women more opportunity for higher education in a way which suits their situation in Saudi Arabia.

In Saudi Arabia the Government is, and will continue to be, the major provider of education to citizens (Ministry of Planning, 1990a, p.265). Ideally, then, start-up costs (of buildings, equipment, etc.) would be paid by the Government and the Government would provide almost all of the recur-
rent cost (salaries and maintenance). Student fees, which at present are unknown in Saudi Arabia for students at Government institutions, would be introduced. Unlike students at conventional universities and GPGE Colleges, students at the OUW would not get a grant. Fees would be reduced or cancelled in case of need. The researcher believes that fees would encourage students to take their education more seriously. Ideally the other universities and colleges in Saudi Arabia would make libraries and laboratories available at certain times without charge, though the OUW would pay for staff time. In Saudi Arabia all universities and colleges are Government institutions, and the OUW would also be a Government institution.

Teaching Method

OUW teaching would be achieved principally through the use of special material prepared by course teams. These course teams would be made up of faculty, educational technologists, and media specialists. Faculty from the universities and GPGE colleges in Saudi Arabia would be invited to advise on their work. The course material must always be prepared approximately one year in advance. Figure 7.1 shows the different steps involved in preparation of course material.
In order to follow the course, course material which would be distributed by an open university together with certain set books which the student can purchase are essential. The student would be encouraged to broaden her reading by referring to certain books which might be available in local libraries. While print would be the most important medium, sound cassettes and video cassettes would supplement printed material.

Lectures would be given in the local centres but they would be voluntary for the student. Seminars and discussions would be arranged in which students would be able to participate on a voluntary basis.

Normally the local centres could be set up in the following way. The OUW would enter into an agreement with the GPGE on the renting of rooms in local secondary schools. A secretary would be in attendance during the opening hours. Local centres would permit students to attend tutorials and seminars and to meet socially. The number of local study centres would depend on the availability of personnel and resources. Tutors and tutor-counsellors would be available in the local study centre at certain hours. The local centres would be open four days weekly, Saturday and Monday for three hours in the morning, and Sunday and Tuesday for
two hours in the afternoon. They would contain video cas-
settes and recorders and audio cassettes and recorders and
computers. Special materials and books could be obtained
from the regional centre on request. A telephone link with
the OUW headquarters would be available in the local centre.

Students would be notified of the hours of
availability of tutors and tutor counsellors. Students
would not be obliged to attend local centres. They can
have contact with their tutor by telephone.

Tutor-marked assignments would take the form of short
essays of between 1,000 and 2,000 words. There would also
be computer-marked assignments. The computer-marked assign-
ments would be graded at the headquarters of the OUW and the
marks would be stored there. A centrally-produced framework
would assist individual tutors in their marking of assign-
ments, and would help ensure that a common standard is ap-
plied. This method is currently used in Saudi secondary
schools for final examinations.

Experimental work would be an important part of the
science course and a kit would be provided to enable the
students to carry this out in their homes. Experimental
work which could not be carried out at home could be done
either in secondary schools or universities at a time suitable to the student and to the institution concerned.

Summer schools would be held in selected colleges of the GPGE and in some centres for women in the universities of Saudi Arabia. During these summer schools the students would have access to the laboratories and libraries of the major universities. Attendance at the summer schools would be compulsory, though students would be excused for a serious reason. However, the situation of women in Saudi Arabia makes absence from the home difficult. If summer schools could not be realized then an attempt would be made to carry out as much as possible of the same work at the local study centres.
Fig. 7.1
The System of Administration

The system of administration of an OUW would not need to differ much from other universities for the following reasons. First of all, if it were different, people would not have confidence in the new institution. People in Saudi Arabia have no experience in the field of an open university. Therefore an open university must follow the system of administration of higher education which other universities in Saudi Arabia follow.

Figure 7.2 shows the division of responsibility at the OUW. The Rector would be the head of the university. He would have two Deputies, one Deputy for Administration, and one Deputy for Academic Affairs. The Deputy Rector for Administration would co-ordinate the work of the Financial Controller, the Registrar, the Director of Personnel, and the Co-ordinator of Regional Directors. The Deputy for Academic Affairs would coordinate the work of the Deans of Faculties and the Director for Academic Materials.

The Deans of Faculties would be responsible for academic affairs in their Faculties and would control the quality of courses and make recommendations about the hiring of experts. The Deans would continue to work as members of course production teams in their own subject areas.
Each Region
Supervision of Local Center in

Directors

Five Regional

Personnel

Controller

Registrar

Director Coordinator

Financial

for Administration

Deputy Rector

for Academic Affairs

Deputy Rector

Director of Academic Materials

Director of Correspondence of Media Course Team

Director of Manager of Production

Development Services

Course Team

Faculties

FIG. 7.2

OWN: Administrative Responsibility

263
The Co-ordinator of Regional Directors would be based in the OUW Headquarters in Riyadh but would visit Regional Centres regularly. There would be Regional Centres in Riyadh (Central Region), Jeddah (West Region), Tabuk (North-west Region), Dammam (East Region), and Asir (South Region) as shown in Figure 7.3. The Regional Centre would provide information for students within its region and would deal with applications from them. They would act as distribution centres for material and would organize the local study centres. Each of these regional centres would be managed by a Regional Director, who would also be responsible for the work of the local study centres.

The Director of Academic Materials would supervise publishing, correspondence services and media development, and would have overall responsibility for the production and distribution of course materials to the Regional Centres. He would be also responsible for the Library of the OUW Headquarters and for the Regional Centre Libraries. The Director of Publishing would be directly responsible for the production of OUW guides and printed course materials. The Manager of Correspondence Services would be responsible for the distribution of information and course materials to the students. The Director of Media Development would be responsible for the production of non-print materials.
Fig. 7.3
OUW Regions and Regional Center
The OUW would employ full-time academics and other staff. These would be concentrated in the Headquarters and Regional Centres. Each faculty would have at least two full-time academics. The academics would hold a Master's degree or a Ph.D degree. They must be able to write material.

The tutor-counsellors would be part-time. They must have a bachelor's degree at least and be well acquainted with the system of higher education in Saudi Arabia. They would advise students and discuss their progress regularly with them, helping them to overcome any problems. The tutors must hold a Master's Degree or Ph.D in the subject areas of their courses and would help the students with academic problems. and will be part-time. Most would be recruited from the conventional universities and GPGE colleges. Both the tutor-counsellors and the tutors must have a sympathetic understanding for the problems of mature women students in Saudi Arabia. They should be willing and able to build their self-confidence and to support them in their efforts to pursue higher education.

Help would be needed from other countries with successful experience in this field to help train staff and to provide guidance during the first stages of the OUW. This
help might be especially useful in the areas of materials preparation, the setting up of the organization, and the keeping of records.

**Recommendation**

The researcher hopes to translate the thesis into Arabic and forward copies to the Ministry of Higher Education and the GPGE. The researcher recommends that the government body which adopts the OUW project set up a planning committee institute a training programme and deal with objections.

The planning committee would consider the following questions, and adapt the model where necessary:

- the time-frame for the establishment and early development of the OUW.

- any limits on the number of students in the initial stages.

- the acquisition of a suitable building for the headquarters of the OUW, in a suitable location.
- the equipping of the Headquarters with all necessary machines such as computers, etc.

- the number and location of the Regional Centres.

- which equipment the Regional Centres would need.

- the equipment needed by the local study centres and suitable locations for these centres.

- estimates for the start up costs and the recurrent costs.

The researcher recommends that a comprehensive training programme be set up for faculty, administrators, and media specialists who enrol to work in the OUW. This training would be one of the most important foundations for an ouw. This training could be carried out in either of two ways. In the first way, experts from the UKOU would be invited to come to Saudi Arabia and assist and advise in the setting up of the OUW. In the second way, some members of OUW staff would be sent to the UKOU Headquarters for study and training.
The researcher recommends the use of the mass media to explain the idea of an open university and the goals of the OUW and also to show that education for women is good in itself apart from any contribution it may make to the building up of the workforce.

However, the OUW would do well to consider ways in which it might prepare women for entry into the world of work by investigating and drawing up courses in suitable areas which are needed in the country because this will give more power to the OUW.

To sum up, the researcher strongly recommends that the people responsible for the provision of higher education for women take good note of the open university for women because it would help them to spread higher education for women in every place and it would help women in Saudi Arabia.

The researcher also recommends that the open university draw on the previous experience of Saudi Arabia in distance education through intisab, especially the experience of King Abdulaziz university.
Conclusion

The above model is based on the data obtained from the survey and attempts to reflect the desires of people connected with universities in Saudi Arabia to make higher education available to women through an open university.

The problems which a planning committee would encounter could be overcome with the help of the Government and its determination to spread the benefits of development among all the people of Saudi Arabia and higher education among women. Eventually, the open university method could also be used in certain areas of the higher education of men, such as training and refresher courses. The setting up of an OUW, however, would be a very valuable first step in itself.
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APPENDIX A

Cover letters for the Questionnaire
حفظه الله

معالي الأعلى الكريم رئيس العام لتعليم البنات

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته، وبعد:

نحني أن الأخ حريص على أن يحصل على درجة الدكتوراه، وهي تلبي الحاجة إلى توزيع الاستيابان المرفق على الأحداث العضو هيئة التدرسين في كليات التربية والاداب التابعة للرئاسة العامة لتعليم البنات وذلك في مدينى جدة والرياض ... فانتي أرجو معايلكم التكرم بالموافقة على ذلك حتى تتمكن من الانتهاء من دراستها في الوقت المحدد.

والله يحفظكم ويرعىكم ...

عميد كلية التربية

د. أحمد بن عثمان التويجري

نواف
колледж образования
Деканат

الكلية التربية
المكتب العام

تاريخ: لا/ 7/ 1980
رقم: 282/ 80

الموافق

 السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته، وبعد:

فإشارة إلى موافقة مباشرة على قيام الأخت / هيا سعد الروف، المحاضرة
في قسم التربية بتوزيع استئناسها المرفق على الآخوة والأخوات أعضاء هيئة
التدريس في كلية التربية، وحيث أن الاخت هيا ترغب في أن يشمل التطبيق
جميع كليات الجامعة، فأنني أرجو موافقةكم التكرم بالموافقة على ذلك حتى
تتمكن من الانتهاء من دراستها لدرجة الدكتوراه في الوقت المحدد.

والله يحفظكم ويرعائكم

أحمد بن عثمان التويجري
عميد كلية التربية

247

P.O. Box 2458 Riyadh 11451
معالي الأساتذة الدكتور مدير جامعة الإمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته، وبعد:

فحيث أن الأخ / هيا سعد الروف، الحاضرة بقسم التربية لدينا تقوم بالتحضير لنيل درجة الدكتوراه، وهي تحتاج إلى توزيع الاستبيان المرفق على الأخطوات عضوات هيئة التدريس في كلية التربية ... فانني أرجو معايكم التكرم بالموافقة على ذلك حتى تتمكن من الانتهاء من دراستها في الوقت المحدد...

والله يحفظكم ويرعاكم...
سعادة عمد كلية التربية،
جامعة الملك سعود

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته.

اتبعت خطابكم الموجه لمدير الجامعة رقم 20/449 وتاريخ 4/05/1410 وماضي الاستبيان الحاد من الباحثة هيا سعد الرواف التي تتعامل بكلية التربية بجامعة الملك سعود وطلبتم توزيع الاستبيان على أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعة.

أخيراً بناءً على عدد أعضاء هيئة التدريس بالجامعة يبلغ ما يقارب الـ 168 عضو بقسم البنيت والبحث، وعلى يد فريق التدريس يتوزعون توزيعهم عليهم من الاستبان المشار إليه.

وتقبلوا خالص المزاج.

وكيل الجامعة
للدراسات العليا والبحث العلمي

---

جامعة الملك سعود
إعدادية التربية تخصصات
إعداد يوم 19/01/1432

---

دمحمد بن علي الحبشي

انبي. 20/08/1410

---

انتهاءً للرسالة

---

Cable: Jameatabdulaziz Telex: 601141 Kauni SJ P. O. Box 1540 Jeddah Tel. 6679033 - 6952015
الرئاسة العامة لتعليم البنات
وكلية الرئاسة للكليات البنات
ابة: كاتب الوكيل

لموضوع: الموافقة على توزيع الاستبيان الخاص بالطالبة هيا سعده الرواف

المستفي من الدكتور عبيد كلية التربية جامعة الملك سعود

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

إذاعة إلى ختام سعاداتكم رقم 226 في تاريخ 10/1/1410 هـ بشأن توزيع
الاستبيان الذي أعدته الأخن / هيا سعد الرواف المعاينة بقسم التربية لدى
والتي تقوم بفحصه لتم تدريب الدكتوراء ، على أعين، وضوئة هيئة التدريس
والطالبات والإداريين والإداريات في كليات التربية والأكاديمية التابعة للرئاسة العامة
لتعليم البنات في مدينتي جدة والرياض.

نперв سعاداتكم بأن معاي الدستور العام لتعليم البنات قد وافق بنصر-تاريخ
12/6/1410 هـ على توزيع الاستبيان المذكور.

مع تعافيمي للطالبة بالتوفيق.

ولكم وافرة التحيات.

كيل الرئيس العام للكليات البنات

أ. عبد الله بن محمد العجلان

1/1/1410 هـ
بالسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ۰۰ وبعد:

للتقت الجامعة خطابًا من فضيلة عميد كلية التربية بجامعة الملك سعود ممتعشًا أن المحاضرة بقسم التربية بالكلية / هيا بنت عبد الروؤف تقطسوم بالتحضر لنيل درجة الدكتوراه، وأنها تحتاج إلى توزيع استماعين على منسوبي الجامعة، وتعمل تعيينه بالمعلومات المطلوبة من قبل أعضاء وعوامات هيئته التدريسية، وكذلك الطلبة، والإداريين، والإداريين في الجامعة.

ويعرض موضوعها على معايي مدير الجامعة آذن مماليه بتوزيع الاستماعين المشار إليه، وتعايشه من قبل منهم الأمر.

آمل الإحترام ۰۰ والتعاون مع الأخ الكريمة في ذلك.

ولكم خالص التحيات.

الأمين العام للجامعة

[ลาย]

د. محمد بن عثمان
APPENDIX B

The Questionnaire (English original)
Questionnaire:

Dear Participants in this study.
Peace be with you.

This questionnaire is part of my research for a Ph.D. degree. The topic of my research is the possibility of establishing an open university for women in Saudi Arabia.

The open university is a new method of education which first appeared in Britain and then spread throughout the world. This method of education gives the learner the opportunity to complete his or her studies in circumstances where he or she would not otherwise be able to pursue them at conventional universities. Students following the open university pattern do not have to be present on campus every day.

The open university uses a mixture of media, including printed material, audio and video tapes, and radio broadcasting, to teach standard courses. Academic tutors and counsellors help students and evaluate their work.

Because it is not obligatory for students to be present on campus, they are occasionally required to do scientific research and must sometimes attend residential school for certain periods in the year. At the end of the academic
year the student must take a final written examination in each of his or her courses. For courses involving experimental procedures, students may conduct the experiments at home if this is possible, or in local universities or institutes.

Women are always bound to fulfil their roles as mothers and are responsible for the upbringing of their children. This hinders their pursuit of higher education. The purpose of this study is to investigate the possibility of establishing an open university for women in Saudi Arabia. This pattern of higher education will help women to pursue higher education while doing their duty as mothers. This study further considers the possibilities which exist in Saudi Arabia and what would help to establish an open university here.

I should be very grateful if you would be kind enough to complete this questionnaire by recording your opinion.

Many Thanks.
Note:

The system which is followed in some universities in Saudi Arabia to evaluate the students.

1. The Evaluation of External Students at King Abdulaziz University.

The external student at King Abdulaziz University are exempt from attendance at the courses for which they are registered, but they must attend the final exam at the end of the semester. They must do any work assigned by the course teachers and follow their instructions.

2. The Evaluation of Students At King Saud University.

The students must attend at least 75% of the lectures and must attend the final examination at the end of the semester. They must do the work assigned by the course teachers and follow their instructions.


The external students are exempt from attendance but they must attend the final examination each semester. They will also be given extra assignments or research or an extra
examination paper each semester subject to the approval of the deputy head of the college.
PART I

DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND:

Please put a check ( ) in the appropriate box or write your own answer in the space provided.

1. Sex:
   ___ Male    ___ Female

2. Nationality:
   ___ Saudi    ___ Egyptian
   ___ Jordanian ___ Iraqi
   ___ Palestinian ___ Syrian
   Other (please note) ____________________________

3. Age:
   ___ Below 24
   ___ From 24 to below 31
   ___ From 31 to below 37
   ___ From 37 to below 44
   ___ From 44 to below 51
   ___ From 51 to below 58
   ___ 58 and over
4. Marital status:
   _____ Single  _____ Divorced
   _____ Married

5. Highest Qualification:
   _____ Secondary School  _____ Bachelor's Degree
   _____ Master's Degree   _____ Ph.D.
   _____ in Science        _____ in Arts

6. The country in which you obtained your highest qualification:
   _____ Saudi Arabia      _____ United States
   _____ Other Middle Eastern country  _____ United Kingdom
   _____ Other (please note)

7. University where you work:
   _____ King Saud University
   _____ King Abdulaziz University
   _____ Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud University
   _____ College of Education for Science
   _____ College of Education for Arts
   _____ College of Education in Jeddah
   _____ College of Arts (General Presidency of Girls' Education)

8. Your present position:
   _____ Policy maker only
   _____ Academic
   _____ Student
## PART II

**ATTITUDES TOWARDS ESTABLISHING AN OPEN UNIVERSITY**

Some opinions about an open university for women in Saudi Arabia are given below. Please put a check ( ) in the column on the right to indicate your response to these opinions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OPINION</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>AG</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. An open university would be a good solution to the problems which women have in pursuing their higher education.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I would be happy to have my daughter (or any female relative) pursue her higher education at an open university.</td>
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<td>3. I believe that a degree from an open university would be as good as a degree from a conventional campus-based university.</td>
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<td>4. I believe that in preparing students for the labor force, an open university would be as useful as a conventional university.</td>
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</table>
5. I believe that an open university for women would be a worthwhile project.

6. Due to the need to cut expenses at present and Saudi Arabia’s present commitments it would not be advisable to set up an open university at this time.

7. It should be possible for students to transfer from a conventional university to an open university and vice versa.

8. I believe that the establishment of an open university is preferable to the present widespread use of closed circuit television.

9. I would prefer my daughter to be enrolled in an open university rather than to be taught by men.

10. I believe that the open university system is suitable only for developed countries.
Some opinions about the system of an open university are given below. Please put a check ( ) in the box beside the opinion that you agree with.

The System of Administration

11. In my opinion an open university in its administrative system should

a. ( ) follow the Ministry of Higher Education like the other universities in Saudi Arabia.

b. ( ) be an umbrella organization provided with programmes by each university in Saudi Arabia.

c. ( ) be a private foundation.

d. ( ) follow the General Presidency for Girls' Education.
12. If you do not agree with any of these opinions, please state what you would suggest for the administrative system of an open university.

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

Admission

13. The criteria for age of entrance to an open university should be, in my opinion,
   a. ___ unspecified.
   b. ___ that students be at least eighteen.
   c. ___ that students be not more than forty-five.
   d. ___ Other. (Please write).

14. The criteria for entrance to the open university should be
   a. ___ unspecified.
   b. ___ completion of elementary school and success in an admission test.
   c. ___ completion of intermediate school level.
   d. ___ completion of secondary school level.
15. An open university should admit students from the following groups. (Please select the groups in order to importance, numbering them from 1 to 6, with 1 the most important and 6 the least important.)

a. ___ An unrestricted group.
b. ___ Those resident in Saudi Arabia.
c. ___ Citizens of Saudi Arabia who currently resides Saudi Arabia
d. ___ Those resident in the Gulf Area.
e. ___ Citizens of a member state of the Gulf Cooperation Council resident in Saudi Arabia.
f. ___ Other. (Please note.)

16. If you have any suggestions or comments about the system of administration and admission, or wish to note alternatives, please state them in the following space.
Funding

17. In my opinion the cost of an open university should be

a. ___ met by the government in the same way as for the other universities in Saudi Arabia.

b. ___ borne by the General Presidency of Girls' Education.

c. ___ borne by a private foundation.

d. ___ borne in part by the Government and in part by others (e.g. student fees, endowment, investment).
18. If you agree with the last statement please indicate your choice in the table below using a check mark ( ). Note that this will involve using more than one check mark. One check mark only should be placed in the row beside each source, and the total should not exceed 100%.

Proportion of costs of proposed OUW to come from different sources:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>10%</th>
<th>20%</th>
<th>30%</th>
<th>40%</th>
<th>50%</th>
<th>60%</th>
<th>70%</th>
<th>80%</th>
<th>90%</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
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<td>Endowment</td>
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<td>Investment</td>
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<td>Student fees</td>
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</table>

19. In an open university, for books, tapes, and other instructional materials, students should pay:
   a. _____ none of the costs
   b. _____ 25% of the costs
   c. _____ 50% of the costs
   d. _____ 75% of the costs
   e. _____ all of the costs
PART IV

THE PROGRAMME OF AN OPEN UNIVERSITY AND THE METHOD OF TEACHING

The Programme which an Open University will Offer and the Qualifications of Counsellors

20. In my opinion an open university should offer the following programmes: (please select in order of importance from 1 to 4, with 1 being the most important and 4 being the least important).

a. ____ graduate
b. ____ undergraduate
c. ____ in-service training
d. ____ Other (please note) ---------------

21. The academic counsellor should hold

a. ____ Ph.D.
b. ____ Master's Degree
c. ____ Bachelor's Degree
d. ____ Other (please mention) ---------------
22. An open university should include the following faculties and sections. Please indicate your choice using a check mark (✓) and note that you may choose more than one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACULTY</th>
<th>MI.</th>
<th>VI.</th>
<th>I.</th>
<th>Med.I.</th>
<th>NI.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Islamic studies</td>
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<td>2 Arabic studies</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 Arts and Human Studies</td>
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<td>4 Social science</td>
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<td>5 Education</td>
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<td>6 Economic</td>
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<td>7 Administrative Science</td>
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<td>8 Science and Mathematics</td>
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<td>9 Medical Science</td>
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<td>10 Engineering</td>
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<td>11 Agriculture</td>
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<td>12 Home Economics</td>
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<td>13 Librarianship</td>
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</table>

If you have any suggestions for other faculties or departments please note here and please indicate their importance in the columns.
23. In my opinion the teaching material should be prepared by one of the following groups. (Please indicate using a check mark ( ).

   a. ___ Academics who set up an open university in Saudi Arabia.
   b. ___ Academics who set up an open university in Saudi Arabia and who worked in it.
   c. ___ Academic who work in an open university.
   d. ___ Academic from an open university in conjunction with open university teachers.
   e. ___ Open university teachers.
   f. ___ Other (Please note.)
24. An open university should use a mixture of media as indicated below. Please note that you can choose a number of media and indicate your choice using a check mark (  ). Please note that the total should not exceed 100%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media</th>
<th>10%</th>
<th>20%</th>
<th>30%</th>
<th>40%</th>
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<th>60%</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Radio programmes</td>
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<td>2. TV programmes</td>
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<td>3. Lectures given by specialists in each subject at local center.</td>
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<td>4. Specially prepared printed material.</td>
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<td>5. Telephone contact between teacher and student if the student needs assistance.</td>
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<td>6. Book recommended by the teacher and either bought by the student or borrowed from a library.</td>
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<td>7. Teaching by correspondence study and assignment marks by tutor or computer.</td>
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<td>8. Summer schools for a limited time.</td>
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<td>9. Please mention other media and indicate how much they should be used in the percentage column.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
25. Which of the above, in your opinion, might be difficult to organize in Saudi Arabia? Please indicate by placing a check mark (✓) in the numbered box corresponding to the particular medium.

1 4 7
2 5 8
3 6 9

26. An open university must have local study centres in all parts of Saudi Arabia.

Strongly agree
Agree
Undecided
Disagree
Strongly disagree
27. If you agree or strongly agree with the preceding statement, please indicate what should be available in the local centre. Please note that you can choose more than one item from the following list.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESOURCES</th>
<th>MI</th>
<th>VI</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>Med.I.</th>
<th>NI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Video cassette recorder and cassettes</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Audio cassette recorder and cassettes</td>
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<td>3. Reference books and materials</td>
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<td>4. Teaching staff to guide the students when necessary.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Computers</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Computer Assisted Learning</td>
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<td>7. Telephone link available to students between centers of learning and open university center.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Please add anything which you would recommend and which is not mentioned above, and indicate its importance using a check mark.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
28. The local centre will be open at the following times:

a. ____ Two hours in the morning and two hours in the afternoon every day.

b. ____ Twice weekly, once in the morning and once in the afternoon.

c. ____ The two days of the weekend.

d. ____ Two hours in the afternoon every day.

e. ____ Three times a week in the afternoon and once in the morning.

f. ____ If you have another suggestion, please mention it.

29. To evaluate the students an open university should follow

a. ____ that system which the General Presidency for Girls' Education uses in the College of Arts for external students.

b. ____ that system which King Saud University uses for evaluating students.

c. ____ that system which King Abdulaziz University uses for evaluating external students.

d. ____ Other (Please mention)  -------------------------
PART V

THE POSSIBILITIES WHICH EXIST IN SAUDI ARABIA OF ESTABLISHING AN OPEN UNIVERSITY

30. In your opinion which of the following resources would be available to the proposed open university for women in Saudi Arabia today. Please note that you can choose more than one.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESOURCES</th>
<th>HA</th>
<th>AV</th>
<th>LA</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>NA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Teaching staff</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Experts and specialist administrators</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Libraries</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Laboratories</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Postal Services</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Television Service</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Radio service</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Buildings</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Printing</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Telephone Services</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
31. (Please answer this if you are a university teacher or administrator).

In my opinion, the following resources at my university would be available to an open university at my university. (Please note that you may choose more than one.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESOURCES</th>
<th>HA</th>
<th>AV</th>
<th>LA</th>
<th>SC</th>
<th>NA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professors</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researchers and Specialists</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laboratories and Libraries</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Printed Material</td>
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<tr>
<td>Financial Aid</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Buildings</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Please mention any other resources</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>which might be available to an open</td>
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<tr>
<td>university at your university.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please indicate in the columns using a check mark (✓) how available.
Obstacles

There will inevitably be obstacles to be overcome in the setting up of an open university for women. In your opinion, which of the following obstacles will hinder the establishment of an open university for women?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OBSTACLES</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>AG</th>
<th>UN</th>
<th>DA</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. An open university will not be accepted by the majority of people in Saudi Arabia.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Women will not join an open university because of the attitude of people in Saudi Arabia towards new methods of education.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. The lack of opportunity for women in the labor market in Saudi Arabia will make the setting up of an open university for women pointless in the eyes of the people.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Traditional negative attitudes in Saudi Arabia to higher education for women will hinder the setting up of an open university for women.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Saudi Arabia does not have experience of this kind of education. This will hinder the setting up of an open university.

6. Because of the distribution of population in Saudi Arabia it will be difficult for an open university for women to provide sufficient fully equipped study centers, especially in remote areas.

7. If you are aware of any other obstacles to the establishment of an open university or have any comments, please note them here, and indicate the importance of these obstacles in the columns on the right.
### Code Abbreviation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>Strongly Agreed</td>
<td>AG</td>
<td>Agreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>DA</td>
<td>Disagreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Strongly Disagreed</td>
<td>HA</td>
<td>Highly Available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AV</td>
<td>Available</td>
<td>LA</td>
<td>Less Available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>Scared</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Not Available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MI</td>
<td>Most Important</td>
<td>Med.I.</td>
<td>Medium Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
<td>NI</td>
<td>Not Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

The Questionnaire (Arabic Version)
بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

حفظه الله

عزيزي المشارك في هذه الدراسة

تحية تقدير واحترام ... وبعد ...

فقد هذا الاستبيان جزء من موضوعي لرسالة الدكتوراه وهي عن إمكانية إقامة جامعة مفتوحة للنساء في المملكة العربية السعودية والتي تعتبر نموذجاً جديداً من أنماط التعليم الحديث. وقد اتبعت هذه الفكرة الأساسية في بريطانيا ثم انتشرت في أنحاء العالم. إن هذا النموذج يركز في إعطاء التعليم الفرصة لإكمال دراسته رغم الظروف التي لا تمكنه من الإخراط في الدراسة العادية ... حيث لا يشترط الحضور في أوقات محددة كالشغب في الجامعات الحالية.

وتعمد فكرة التدريس في هذا النظام على عدة وسائل منها الدروس المقننة والطموحة في كتب ومذكرات وأشرطة مسموعة ومرئية ومشردون أكاديميون يتم الاتصال بينهم وبين الطلاب يوجهونهم ويعقومون أعمالهم.

ومع ذلك، لا يشترط حضور الطالب في وقت محدد فإنه يكلف بواصط وبوحث دراسية متعددة خلال الفصل الدراسي وقد يطالب الدارس أحياناً بحضور حلقات دراسية منتظمة وفترة محددة. وفي نهاية العام الدراسي يحقق امتتان شامل لكل مقرر دراسي، أما بالنسبة للتجارب العلمية فإن الطالب يقوم ببعض التجارب في المنزل ما أمكن ذلك ويمكنه الاستعانة بإحدى الجامعات والمعاهد العلمية المحلية إجراء التجارب الأخرى.

وحيث إن المرأة كثيرة ما يحاول بينها وبين إكمال دراستها متطلبات دورها الرئيسي كأم ومربية أجيال ... فإن هذه الدراسة تهدف إلى بحث إمكانية إقامة جامعة مفتوحة للنساء في المملكة العربية السعودية لأن هذا النموذج من الدراسة يساعد المرأة على القيام بواجبها كام مع مواصلة الدراسة.

لذا فقد ركزت الدراسة على بحث الإمكانيات الموجودة في المملكة والتي يمكن أن تساعد في القيام بذلك النوع من التعليم في المملكة.

وحيث إنها أحتاج إلى خبرتك ... لذا أرجو أن تفضل مشكوراً بابداً الرأي من خلال فقرات الاستبيان ... جزيئ خيراً ووفق الله الجميع لما فيه الصلاح.

الباحثة

هيا سعيد الرواف
ملاحظة: الأنظمة المتبعة في تقييم الطلاب في بعض جامعات المملكة:

1- تقييم جامعة الملك عبدالعزيز للطلاب المنتسبين:

يفعّل الطالب المنتسب من الحضور المنتظم للمواض المسجلة له وعلى حضور الامتحان النهائي لゅنهاية الفصل اجباريا والتزام بما يشترطه أستاذ المادة من شروط أخرى لدراسة المادة وتوزيع الدرجات.

2- تقييم جامعة الملك سعود للطلاب:

يجب على الطالب على حضور ٪٧٥ من الحاضرات وأيضاً يجبر على الامتحان النهائي لذى الفصل الدراسي والالتزام بما يشترطه أستاذ المادة من شروط أخرى لدراسة المادة وتوزيع الدرجات.

3- تقييم الرئاسة العامة لتعليم البنات للطالبات المنتسبات في كليات البنات:

لا يجب الطالبة المنتسبة على الحضور وإنما تجهز على حضور الامتحان النهائي وتعتبر واجباً إضافياً، إذا وردت إمتحان اضافي أو بحث إضافي أو غير ذلك وفق ما يتضمن صالح العمل وتتم الموافقة على ذلك من وكيل الرئيس العام لكليات البنات ويقدر لهذا الواجب مائة درجة باعتبارها مقداراً لقرر دراسي مدة ساعتين أسبوعياً.

الجزء الأول: بيانات شخصية:

رجاء ضع علامة (✓) في المربع المناسب:

- الجنس:

  - أنثى
  - ذكر

- الجنس:

  - مصري
  - سعودي
  - فلسطيني
  - أردني
  - عراقي
  - أخر (رجاء ذكرها) . . . . . .
العمر:
- أقل من 24 سنة
- 24 إلى أقل من 31 سنة
- 31 إلى أقل من 37 سنة
- 37 إلى أقل من 41 سنة
- 41 إلى أقل من 51 سنة
- 51 إلى أقل من 58 سنة
- 58 سنة فأكثر

الحالة الاجتماعية:
- متزوج
- مطلق
- أعزب

المؤهل العلمي:
- بكالوريوس
- ماجستير

المملكة العربية السعودية
- إحدى دول الشرق الأوسط (الدول العربية)
- الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية
- بريطانيا
- دول أخرى

المكان الذي تم الحصول منه على
- آخر مؤهل علمي؟

الجامعة التي تنتمي إليها:
- جامعة الملك سعود
- جامعة الملك عبد العزيز

المملكة العربية السعودية
- كلية التربية للبنات (أدبي)
- كلية التربية للبنات (علمي)
- كلية التربية للبنات بـجدة
- كلية الآداب (الرئاسة العامة)

مخطط التعليم
- أكاديمي (تدريس)
- طالب أو طالبة

طبيعة العمل:
الجزء الثاني: الأتجاهات نحو إنشاء الجامعة المفتوحة:

فيما يلي بعض الآراء حول الجامعة المفتوحة بروجب ضع علامة (√) تحت درجة الموافقة التي تدل على رأيك.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>درجة الموافقة</th>
<th>الآراء</th>
<th>مسلس</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>أرخص</td>
<td>أرخص</td>
<td>متوسط</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>الأراء</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<td>8</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
الجزء الثالث: النظام الإداري والقبول والتمويل:

نما يلي بعض الآراء حول النظام الإداري للجامعة المفتوحة برجاء وضع علامة (√) أمام الرأى الذي يتفق مع وجهة نظرك وذلك داخل المربع.

النظام الإداري:

- 11 الرأى أن الجامعة المفتوحة يجب أن تتبج في نظامها الإداري.
   a) التعليم العالي مثل أي جامعة من جامعات المملكة.
   b) تتبج جامعات المملكة وذلك عن طريق برامج تصفها كل جامعة.
   c) تتبج نظام المؤسسات الخاصة.
   d) تتبع الرئاسة العامة لتعليم البنات.

- 12 إذا كنت غير موافق على أحد الأنظمة الإدارية السابقة فلمرجو كتابة النظام الذي تقترحه:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>درجة الموافقة</th>
<th>الأراء</th>
<th>مسلسل</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>أرخص بشدة</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>أرخص</td>
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<tr>
<td>مترد مد</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>أوفر</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أوفر بشدة</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

 أفضل أن تلتحق ابنتي بجامعة نسائية مفتوحة من أن يدرس لها رجال.

اعتقد أن نظام الجامعة المفتوحة يناسب الدول المتقدمة فقط.
القبول:

12- بخصوص السن اللازم للإلتحاق بالمدرسة المفتوحة المقترحة أعتقد أن يجب
   (أ) عدم التقيد بشرط السن.
   (ب) اشتراط السن 18 سنة كحد أدنى.
   (ج) ألا يزيد السن عن 45 سنة.
   (د) أُخرى رجاء ذكرها.

14- بخصوص المؤهلات اللازمة للإلتحاق بالمدرسة المفتوحة المقترحة أرى:
   (أ) عدم اشتراط أي مؤهل.
   (ب) إتمام المرحلة الابتدائية على الأقل مع اجتياز اختبار قبول.
   (ج) إتمام المرحلة المتوسطة على الأقل مع اجتياز اختبار قبول.
   (د) إتمام المرحلة الثانوية.

15- بخصوص مكان إقامة الطالبة كشرط للقبول يجب (أرجو إعطاء الجهات الأئتمات
   أرقام هوية من وجهة نظرك مطابقة الرقم (1) الأكثر أهمية ثم
   تتدرج بعد ذلك):
   (أ) عدم اشتراط الإقامة.
   (ب) الإقامة في المملكة العربية السعودية فقط.
   (ج) الإقامة في المملكة العربية السعودية وجملة الجنسية السعودية.
   (د) الإقامة في إحدى دول الخليج.
   (ه) يحمل الجنسية إحدى دول الخليج ويقيم في المملكة.
   (و) أُخرى رجاء ذكرها.

16- إذا كانت لديك أي اقتراحات أو تعليقات حول شروط الالتحاق رجاء تدوين
    ذلك في السطور التالية:

____________________________________
____________________________________
____________________________________
التمويم:

١٧- في رأيي أن تمويل الجامعة المفتوحة يجب أن يكون:

أ) حكومياً أسوة بالجامعات الأخرى بالمملكة.
ب) من قبل الرئاسة العامة لتعليم البنات.
ج) من قبل مؤسسة خاصة.
د) من جملة إسهامات الحكومة والعائد من مشرويعات تجارية تقترب بالإضافة لجزء من التبرعات الفردية أو فرض رسوم على الطلاب.

١٨- إذا كنت قد وافقت على الأساليب الأخيرة في السؤال السابق فالمطلوب وضع علامة (✓) داخل خلايا الجدول التالي الخاص بنسب إسهامات كل جهة. (لا تضع أكثر من علامة (✓) على كل جهة ويجب أن لا يزيد المجموع عن ١٠۰٪).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>النسبة الإسهام</th>
<th>٠٪</th>
<th>١٠٪</th>
<th>٢٠٪</th>
<th>٣٠٪</th>
<th>٤٠٪</th>
<th>٥٠٪</th>
<th>٦٠٪</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>الجهة المسهمة</td>
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<td>الحكومة</td>
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<tr>
<td>التبرعات الفردية</td>
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<td>المشاريع الاستثمارية</td>
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<td>الرسوم على الطلاب</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

١٩- مقابل حصول الطلاب على الكتب والبطهوعات وأي مواد تعليمية مسموعة أو مرئية أقترح أن تدفع الطالبة نسبة من التكليف تقدرها:

أ) مجاناً
ب) ٢۰٪ من شملها
ج) ٠٪ من شملها
د) ٧۰٪ من شملها
ه) جميع الثمن
البرنامج المقدم ومؤهلات المرشدين:

20 - أرى أن الجامعة المفتوحة المقررة يجب أن تقدم برامج (6) أمام أكثر من برنامج مرتبط حسب أهميتها باعطاء رقم واحد أهم ثم يستمر الترتيب:

أ) دراسات عليا
ب) بكالوريوس
ج) تدريب أثناء الخدمة
د) آخر رجاء أذكرها

21 - المرشد الأكاديمي يشترط أن يكون من بين الحاصلين على:

أ) الدكتوراه
ب) الماجستير
ج) البكالوريوس
د) آخر رجاء أذكرها

22 - تقسم الجامعة المفتوحة أقسام وكلويات تختلف مستويات الأهمية لكل منها (ضع علامة (✓) أمام واحد أو أكثر مما في الجدول):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>المستوى الأهمية</th>
<th>المستوى الكلية</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - الدراسات الإسلامية</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 - الدراسات العربية</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 - الأدب والعلوم الإنسانية</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - الدراسات الاجتماعية</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - التربية</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - الاقتصاد</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 - العلوم الإدارية</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 - العلوم والرياضيات</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

غير هام
قليل
متوسط
هام
هام جداً
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>المستوى الأولمبي</th>
<th>القسم أو الكلية</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9 - العلوم الطبية</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 - الهندسة</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - الزراعة</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 - الاقتصاد الجيد</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 - الكتب</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

إذا كان هناك إقتراحات لقسام أو كليات أخرى رجاء ذكرها مع تحديد مستوى أهميتها:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

إعداد المواد التعليمية وتقديرها:

- أربعة أن إعداد المواد الدراسية ومحتواها يكون عن طريق:
  
  (أ) الأكاديميين الذين أسسوا الجامعة المفتوحة في المملكة العربية السعودية.
  (ب) الأكاديميين الذين أسسوا الجامعة المفتوحة والأكاديميين العاملين بها.
  (ج) الأكاديميين الذين يعملون في الجامعة المفتوحة.
  (د) الأكاديميين الذين يعملون في الجامعة المفتوحة مع المدرسين.
  (ه) المدرسون الذين يعملون في الجامعة المفتوحة.
  (و) أخرى رجاء ذكرها.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>النسبة المئوية للإستخدام</th>
<th>الوسيلة</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- التلفزيون</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- الراديو</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- الحاضرة تعتمد على طريقة مدرس متخصص للمادة</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- المطبوعات</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- الاتصال التليفوني بين المدرس والطالب عندما يحتاج الطالب</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- كتب يخبر منها المدرس الطالب ليشتريها أو يطبع عليها في المكتبة</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- عن طريق الرسالة بحيث يرسل الدرس الواجبات للطالب ليؤديها ثم يعيدها التجميع من قبل المدرس أو الكمبيوتر</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8- مدارس الصيف لمدة محددة</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9- أخرى رجاء ذكرها حسب النسبة المئوية للاستخدام</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

وجهة نظر:
25- أي من الوسائل السابقة يصعب تطبيقاتها في المملكة العربية السعودية.
(ضع علامة (✓) أمام رقم أي وسيلة أو أكثر).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>النسبة المئوية للاستخدام الوسيلة</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>( )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

26- أرى أن تؤسس الجامعة المفتوحة مراكز تعليمية لها في أنحاء المملكة:

( ) متردد
( ) أوافق بشدة
( ) أوافق
( ) أرفض
( ) أرفض بشدة.
إذا كانت إجابتك على السؤال السابق موافق بشدة أو موافق، فالرجاء وضع علامة (✓) على الوسائط التي من وجهة نظرك أن تواجدها مهم في المراكز التعليمية (يمكن وضع علامة (✓) أمام وسيلة أو أكثر).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>الوسيلة</th>
<th>غير هام</th>
<th>قليل الحمل الأهمية</th>
<th>متوسط الأهمية</th>
<th>هام جداً</th>
<th>مستوى الأهمية</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - جهاز وأشرطة فيديو</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 - أجهزة سمعية (كاسيت)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 - مراجع وكتب</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - مدرسون لارشاد الطلاب عند الضرورة</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - حاسب آلي</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - برامج كمبيوتر تعليمية</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 - تليفون على اتصال مباشر بالمركز الرئيسي للاستفادة منه عند الحاجة.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

إذا كان هناك اقتراحات بوسائل أخرى يجب توافرها في المراكز التعليمية بانها الملكة، رجاء ذكرهما مع تحديد مستوى أهميتها:

- 8
- 9
- 10
28- من وجهة نظري أرى أن تكون أوقات فتح المراكز التعليمية بالاتجاه المملكة:

- كل يوم ساعتين في الصباح وساعتين في الظهيرة.
- مرتان أسبوعياً، مرة في الصباح ومرية في الظهيرة.
- يومان في عطلة الأسبوع.
- ساعتان يومياً في الظهيرة.
- أسبوعاً ثلاث مرات في الأسبوع ومرية في الظهيرة.
- أو (أخرى رجاء ذكرها)

29- لتقييم الطلاب أقترح أن تتبع الجامعة المفتوحة (يوجد في الصفحة الثانية تعريف لهذه الظاهرة):

- النظام المتبع في كليات الرئاسة العامة لتعليم البنات بخصوص الطالبات المستفيضات.
- النظام المتبع في جامعة الملك سعود.
- النظام المتبع جامعة الملك عبد العزيز بخصوص الطالبات المستفيضات.
- أو (أخرى رجاء ذكرها)

الجزء الرابع: الإمكانيات المتاحة بالملكة العربية السعودية لأقامة جامعة مفتوحة:

- هناك إمكانيات تحتاج الجامعة المفتوحة توفرها، وهذه الإمكانيات لها درجة من التوافر داخل المملكة، فالمرجو وضع علامة (✓) أمام كل إمكانية وحسب توافرها (يمكن وضع علامة (✓) أو أكثر).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>غير متوفرة نهاية</th>
<th>نادرة متوفرة</th>
<th>متوسطة متوفرة</th>
<th>عالية متوفرة</th>
<th>درجة التوافر</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1- أعضاء هيئة التدريس
2- الفنيون والإداريون المتخصصون
3- المكتبات
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>غير متوفرة</th>
<th>متوفرة بدرجة نهائية</th>
<th>متوفرة بدرجة متوسطة</th>
<th>متوفرة بدرجة عالية</th>
<th>درجة التوافر</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>إمكانية</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>المباني</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4- الخدمات</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>الخدمات البريدية</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5- الخدمات التليفزيون</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>الخدمات التليفزيون</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6- خدمات الراديو</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>خدمات الطباعة</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7- خدمات الراديو</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>خدمات التليفون</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8- المباني</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21- يجب عن هذا الإداريين وأعضاء هيئة التدريس في إحدى الجامعات بالمملكة ، أي من المساعدات التالية من وجهة نظرك يمكن أن تساهم بها جامعتك لقيام الجامعة المفتوحة ، ( يمكن وضع علامة (✓) أمام مساعدة أو أكثر ) .

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>غير متوفرة</th>
<th>متوفرة بدرجة نهائية</th>
<th>متوفرة بدرجة متوسطة</th>
<th>متوفرة بدرجة عالية</th>
<th>درجة التوافر في جامعتك</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>المساندات</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1- الخبراء</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2- أعضاء هيئة التدريس</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3- الباحثون والمختصون</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4- مكتبات ومختبرات</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>المساعدات</td>
<td>متوفرة بدرجة عالية</td>
<td>متوفرة بدرجة متوسطة</td>
<td>متوفرة بدرجة نادرة</td>
<td>غير متوفرة نهاية</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>المواد المطبوعة</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مساعدات ملبيه</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>السماح للجامعة المفتوحة باستعمال بعض مباني الجامعة التي أنتسب اليها</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

إذا كانت هناك مساعدات أخرى تستطيع الجامعة التي تنتسب إليها المساعدة بها معاونتك الجامعة المفتوحة رجاء ذكرها مع تحديد درجة توافرها في جامعتك:

- 8
- 9
- 10
الصعوبات والملاحظات:

هناك بعض الصعوبات والملاحظات التي تتفق كمكلاً في سبيل إقامة الجامعة المفتوحة، وفيما يلي عدد من هذه الصعوبات برجاء وضع علامة (√) أمام كل صعوبة وتحت درجة موافقتك عليها:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>درجة الموافقة عليها</th>
<th>الصعوبة أو الموقعة</th>
<th>مسلسل</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أربعة</td>
<td></td>
<td>فكرة الجامعة المفتوحة لن تكون مقبولة لدى معظم الفتيات في المملكة العربية السعودية.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أربعة</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أربعة</td>
<td></td>
<td>الفكرة السالبة للنساء عن الجامعة المفتوحة سوف تؤثر على مدى اقبال النساء عليها.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مثلاً</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مثلاً</td>
<td></td>
<td>فرص عمل المرأة المحدودة تستحق حجر عشة في سبيل إقامة جامعة مفتوحة.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مثلاً</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مثلاً</td>
<td></td>
<td>الاتجاه السالب لتعليم المرأة تعليمًا جامعيًا قد يعرقل إقامة جامعة مفتوحة.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مثلاً</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مثلاً</td>
<td></td>
<td>عدم وجود خبرة لتأهل هذا النوع من التعليم في المملكة سيكون عائقًا لإقامة جامعة مفتوحة للنساء.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مثلاً</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مثلاً</td>
<td></td>
<td>من الصعب وضع مراكز تعليمية للجامعة المفتوحة نظرًا لطبيعة التوزيع السكاني بالمملكة.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

إذا كانت هناك صعوبات أخرى أو ملاحظات أخرى، يجب تزويدها نظرًا لصعوبة النسج على التواقيع عليها:

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8
9