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**FACTORS AFFECTING THE
UNDERUTILISATION OF QUALIFIED SAUDI
WOMEN IN THE SAUDI PRIVATE SECTOR**

By

ABDULLAH. S. AL-SHETAIWI

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award of Doctoral of Philosophy**

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**Business School
Loughborough University
UK**

ABSTRACT

This study sets out to analyse the reality of Saudi women's employment in the private sector. There are significant numbers of unemployed qualified Saudi women and the latest Saudi Government Development Plan (2000-2004) expects the private sector to provide the majority of jobs. The starting point is the question; is the high level of unemployed qualified Saudi women due to the educational system, the attitudes of women to employment, the attitudes of managers to employing women or the attitudes of society in general.

Saudi Arabia is an Islamic country by nature and by law and so the research has to develop within the framework of Islamic thinking on the employment of women using Iran as a benchmark.

Empirical evidence has been collected from Saudi business managers, qualified women employees in the private sector, unemployed qualified women and certain authorities. This revealed agreement between the various groups over the importance of most factors. The attitude of society was not seen as a problem in that society had a positive view of women in employment. The attitudes of unemployed women were very similar to those of employed women in the sample. This suggests that unemployed women are not unemployed due to their negative attitudes to employment. In fact they were more concerned about the lack of access to job market information.

Women in the sample were not concerned about remuneration since they were financially secure within the family, but did want more part-time jobs, more childcare and in particular transport arrangements to allow them to go further from home to where the jobs are without infringing Islamic Sharia'a.

Saudi respondents were more critical of the education system than those in Iran this is not surprising given the higher proportions of women in Iran in the educational system. The Saudi respondents all commented on the need for more breadth of studies, more depth of studies and more applicability of women's skills to employment needs.

The study recommends that changes are needed in all these factors and using Iran as a benchmark suggests that improvement is possible without major changes.

The study suggests further research concentrating on the concept of non-traditional jobs for women in more regions in Saudi Arabia.

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my parents whose tireless efforts; to my wife for her sacrifices and patience; to my daughters, Manar, Abeer, Salma and Sarah, for their goodwill and understanding; and to my brothers, sisters, relatives and friends for their encouragement.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
DEDICATION	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
LIST OF FIGURES.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 The Timing of the Research.....	1
1.3 Research Studies about Women in Islamic Countries.....	2
1.4 Research Objectives.....	3
1.5 Structure of the Thesis	4
CHAPTER TWO: WORKING WOMEN IN ISLAM.....	6
2.1 Introduction.....	6
2.2 Women's Status in Islam.....	6
2.3 Women's Rights in Education and Economic	8
2.4 Islam and Working Women.....	11
2.5 Islamic Society and Women Working	16
2.6 Women in the Labour Market: Theoretical Approaches	19
2.7 Summary	25
CHAPTER THREE: WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN THE LABOUR MARKET	27
3.1 Introduction	27
3.2 Education and Work	27
3.3 Women's Education.....	29
3.4 Women's Status in the Labour Market	37
3.5 Women's Employment in Arab Countries.....	45
3.6 Woman's Status in the Arab Gulf States	50
3.8 Summary	58
CHAPTER FOUR: THE ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF IRAN	59
4.1 Introduction.....	59
4.2 Geographical Aspects of Iran.....	59
4.3 Economy	60
4.4 Women in Iran and the Islamic Revolution (1979)	61
4.5 The State and Reform of Women's Employment After 1979	63
4.6 Education in Iran.....	66
4.7 Structure of the Labour Market in Iran	78
4.8 Women and Work in Iran	83
4.9 Factors Affecting Women's Employment in Iran.....	88
4.10 Overall Summary	89

CHAPTER FIVE: THE KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA	90
5.1 Introduction.....	90
5.2 Human Resources in the Development Plans	90
5.3 The Private Sector in Saudi Arabia	92
5.4 Education in Saudi Arabia	93
5.5 Summary	114
CHAPTER SIX: STRUCTURE OF MANPOWER IN SAUDI ARABIA	115
6.1 Introduction.....	115
6.2 Saudi Arabia Population	115
6.3 The Labour Force in Saudi Arabia.....	119
6.4 Unemployment in Saudi Arabia.....	123
6.5 Factors Relying on Non-national Manpower in the Labour Market.....	126
6.6 Development of Women’s Employment in Saudi Arabia	129
6.7 Factors Affecting Women’s Employment in the Saudi Labour Market.....	141
6.8 Summary	145
CHAPTER SEVEN: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION	146
7.1 Research Design.....	146
7.2 Visits to Saudi Arabia	146
7.3 Available Research Methods	147
7.4 Research Method Selection.....	153
7.5 The Sample Process	153
7.6 Questionnaire Design.....	155
7.7 Pilot Study.....	157
7.8 Questionnaire’s Distribution Strategy.....	158
7.9 Data Collection	159
7.10 Structure of the Interview	160
7.11 Iran as a Benchmark.....	160
7.12 Summary	164
CHAPTER EIGHT: QUESTIONNAIRE TO BUSINESS MANAGERS IN SAUDI ARABIA	165
8.1 Introduction.....	165
8.2 A General Survey of the Sample Companies	165
8.3 Women’s Working Environment and Facilities	170
8.4 Market Information.....	171
8.5 Promotion of Women’s Employment in the Private Sector.....	172
8.6 Women’s Field of Work and Job Opportunities.....	172
8.7 Job Opportunities for Women in the Private Sector	173
8.8 Women in Technical and Vocational Fields.....	175
8.9 Factors Affecting Women's Employment in the Private Sector	175
8.10 Summary of Findings from the Questionnaire.....	179
8.11 Overall Summary	181
CHAPTER NINE: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SAUDI WOMEN	182
9.1 Introduction	182
9.2 General Information	183
9.3 Woman Employees and the Private Sector Environment.....	191

9.4	Promotion of Women’s Employment in the Private Sector	191
9.5	Women's Field of Work and Job Opportunities.....	193
9.6	Women in Technical and Vocational Areas	196
9.7	Factors Affecting Women’s Employment in the Private Sector.....	197
9.8	Summary of Findings from the Questionnaire.....	200
9.9	Overall Summary	202
CHAPTER TEN: COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN BUSINESS MANAGERS AND WOMEN IN SAUDI ARABIA		
203		
10.1	Introduction.....	203
10.2	Woman’s Employment and Private Sector Environment and Facilities.....	203
10.3	Promotion of Women’s Employment in the Private.....	207
10.4	Women's Fields of Work and Job Opportunities	209
10.5	Women in Technical and Vocational Areas	213
10.6	Factors Affecting Women’s Employment in the Private Sector.....	215
10.7	Authorities’ Interviews	217
10.8	Summary of Main Findings	221
10.9	Overall Summary	223
CHAPTER ELEVEN: CROSS NATIONAL COMPARISON		
224		
11.1	Introduction.....	224
11.2	Why a Cross-national Comparison is Useful?.....	224
11.3	General Survey of the Sample	225
11.4	Promotion of Women in the Private Sector in Saudi Arabia and Iran.....	245
11.5	Women's Field of Work and Job Opportunities.....	251
11.6	Women in Technical and Vocational Areas	257
11.7	Factors Affecting Women’s Employment in the Private Sector.....	260
11.8	Saudi and Iranian Authorities’ Interviews	266
11.9	Summary of Findings from the Comparison	269
11.10	Overall Summary	274
CHAPTER TWELVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....		
275		
12.1	Conclusions.....	275
12.2	Recommendations.....	283
12.3	Recommendations for Iran.....	286
12.4	Further Study	287
REFERENCE.....		288
APPENDICES		
Appendix 1: General Background Information of Saudi Arabia		
Appendix 2: Questionnaires for Business Managers and Women		
Appendix 3: List of Authorities Interviewed		
Appendix 4: Publications		

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 4.1: Women employed in the public and private sectors.....	86
Figure 5.1: TEVT system within the system of education in Saudi Arabia.....	101
Figure 6.1: Distribution of population by sex and class of age.....	116
Figure 6.2: Distribution of population by sex and geographical regions.....	117
Figure 6.3: Distribution of people employed in the public sector by sex and nationality.....	137
Figure 8.1: Distribution of the labour forces in the companies surveyed	167
Figure 8.2: Distribution of women employees according to the type of company	168
Figure 8.3: Distribution of women employees according to the age of the company	168
Figure 8.4: Distribution of women employees with regard to the company's activities	169
Figure 8.5: Distribution of women employees according to the capital of company	169
Figure 11.1: Distribution of companies surveyed with regard to type.....	225
Figure 11.2: Distribution of companies surveyed with regard to their main activities	226
Figure 11.3: Distribution of companies surveyed with regard to age	227
Figure 11.4: Distribution of companies with regard to capital	227
Figure 11.5: Distribution of the labour forces in the companies surveyed	228
Figure 11.6: Distribution of women employees according to the type of company ..	229
Figure 11.7: Distribution of women employees according to the age of the company	230
Figure 11.8: Distribution of women employees with regard to the company's main activities	230
Figure 11.9: Distribution of women employees with regard to the capital of companies.....	231
Figure 11.10: Number of children.....	235
Figure 11.11: Children under school age	236
Figure 11.12: Family house.....	237
Figure 11.13: Working in the public or private sector	244
Figure 11.14: Labour market information.....	246
Figure 11.15: Women's participation in technical and vocational fields.....	258
Figure 11.16: Technical education and vocational institutions.....	259

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Women enrolled in education in selected countries	30
Table 3.2: Women enrolled in tertiary level in selected developed and developing countries in 1998	32
Table 3.3: Women's enrolment in TEVT in selected countries	36
Table 3.4: Female teachers in TEVT in selected countries	37
Table 3.5: Women in the labour force in selected countries.....	39
Table 3.6: Women in economic activities in selected	41
Table 3.7: Women's employment in private sector according to type of job	43
Table 3.8: Percentage of female teachers in selected countries	44
Table 3.9: Development of female literacy rates in Arab countries	47
Table 3.10: Distribution of labour force in the Arab Gulf States in 1995	51
Table 3.11: Number of national and non-national women teachers in the private schools in Gulf States	55
Table 4.1: Students enrolled in general education in Iran	69
Table 4.2: Students enrolled in Teacher Training and TEVT in Iran	69
Table 4.3: Total number of students enrolled and graduates from higher education between the years of 1970-97.....	70
Table 4.4: Number of students enrolled in higher education by field of study	71
Table 4.5: Students enrolled in TVE in Iran	77
Table 4.6: Students admitted and enrolled in Colleges of Technology	77
Table 4.7: Students enrolled in TEVT in high schools	78
Table 4.8: Population size and growth rate	79
Table 4.9: Distribution of Iranian population according to age	79
Table 4.10: Distribution of the inactive population in Iran.....	80
Table 4.11: Distribution of labour force in Iran according to educational level in 1971 compared to 1986	81
Table 4.12: Distribution of Iranian employees according to economic activities	81
Table 4.13: Distribution of Iranian labour force according to employed and unemployed in urban and rural areas	82
Table 4.14: Women aged 6 and above working in major sectors (in percentages).....	84
Table 4.15: Distribution of women in Iran according to the type of sector in 1976 compare to 1986	84
Table 4.16: The percentage of women employed in the public and private sectors in Iran	85
Table 5.1: Spending (%) on economic activities during the development plans	92
Table 5.2: Enrolments in General and higher education boys and girls	105
Table 5.3: Graduates from General and higher education boys and girls	106
Table 5.4 Comparison of numbers of educational institutions and teachers in Saudi education	106

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GOE	General Organisation for Education
GOTEVT	General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training
GPGE	General Presidency for Girls' Education
HND	Higher National Diploma
HTE	Higher Technical Education
ITI	Instructors' Training Institutes
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
ME	Ministry of Education
MHE	Ministry of Higher Education
MHTME	Ministry of Health and Medical Education
MLSW	Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare
MST	Ministry of Science and Technology
NSJT	National System for Joint Training
SA	Saudi Arabia
SAMA	Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency
SDC	Staff Development Centres
SR	Saudi Riyals
STE	Secondary Technical Education
TEI	Technical Education Institutes
TEVT	Technical Education and Vocational Training
TVE	Technical and Vocational Education
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UAST	University of Applied Science and Technology
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations of Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USA	United States of America
UUT	Union and Universities of Technology
VTC	Vocational Training Centres

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Saudi Arabia's rapid development has highlighted the shortage of national technical manpower and the subsequent need to recruit non-Saudi technical workers, on the one hand, and the difficulty of replacing these workers with qualified Saudis on the other. As a result, the Kingdom has become one of the largest employers of foreign workers in the world. These represent 66% of the total civil workforce, of which 95% work in the private sector (Saudi Labour Force Council, 1997: 2). In 1999 the total number of civil labour employees in Saudi Arabia was 7,176,300 million of which 56% were foreign workers (Seventh Development Plan, 2000-2004: 79). Therefore, successive development plans have tried to raise the quality and quantity of technical and vocational education for both men and women.

There is, in particular, an under-utilisation of qualified Saudi women and this is recognised in the Sixth Development Plan (1995-2000: 177-179) which encourages the education and employment of Saudi women, particularly in the private sector.

Part of this may be due to the educational system, the attitudes of women to employment, the attitudes of managers to employing women or the attitudes of society in general.

Therefore, in this thesis the researcher will concentrate on the cultural, social, educational and economic factors affecting the under-utilisation of qualified women in the Saudi private sector.

1.2 The Timing of the Research

The researcher believes that the problem of employment of Saudi women in the labour market is one of the most important issues in Saudi Arabia today and, on this basis, and on the researcher's views and experience of the Saudi labour force, it is felt that the Saudi authorities are facing difficult problems.

Currently the Saudi government is trying implement the policy of Saudiisation (replacing non-national with national manpower). There are an increasing number of unemployed qualified women. Due to an increase of female graduates from

universities, the government is being forced to make considerable efforts to reduce the numbers of unemployed women. In 2001 there were 54,000 female university graduates unemployed and looking for work. The Ministry of Civil Service has only been able to place 10% of them in employment in the public sector for teaching jobs (Al-Riyadh Newspaper, Monday, year 38, 2001).

The limited literature on women's issues in economic activities in Saudi Arabia suggests that this study will contribute to the existing literature and that it will lead to further research in the area of women's issues in the labour market, particularly in developing countries. At the same time recommendations for policies for increasing and developing women's employment in the Saudi private sector can be considered according to Islamic 'Sharia'.

1.3 Research Studies about Women in Islamic Countries

Women's studies in Arab countries in general and in Saudi Arabia in particular are very few, especially regarding education and employment. The reason behind this seems to be a certain unwillingness on the part of men to research women's studies because of social and cultural factors. Also, they consider that women's studies are a low status area of research and are of little importance. As a result, most women's studies in these countries have been carried out by women.

Parpart (1989: 29) argues that:

“Unfortunately, most of the research being carried out on women, both in the developed and in the developing countries, is carried out by women. This is not a negative thing in and of itself, of course, however it does reflect the fact that most male researchers have not yet fully accepted the need to conduct research in this area. It is important that male researchers begin to participate more regularly in studies on women, not as directors, leaders or mentors, but as partners in the process of uncovering information about the differential impact of development on women.”

In Saudi Arabia it is impossible for women to mix with men in any organisation. So, women's studies carried out by men or men's studies carried out by women are difficult within Saudi society, especially if the study needs direct contact and/or interviews. This is just one of the problems that most researchers encounter. However, as far as the researcher is aware, the carrying out of research by men into women's studies in Saudi Arabia will perhaps explore some alternative and interesting

areas for women's employment which would not have appeared if the research was done by women.

It is important that, before discussing the status and position of Saudi women in the labour market, women's status, their education and work in Islam and the education and work of women in similar and different countries are discussed. This discussion will enable the reader to understand and gain a clearer view of Islamic thought towards women's work outside the home and the world of women in the labour market. Therefore, discussing women in similar and different countries will allow the exploration and the identification of common and different factors that affect and/or influence women's employment in the labour market in comparison with the case of Saudi women.

Iran, in particular, has been chosen as a benchmark. It is similar enough to allow the factors affecting women's employment in Saudi Arabia to be investigated using Iran as a control. The cultural and economic conditions of Iranian women are not far removed from those of Saudi women but at the same time Iran is different enough in its employment of women to lead to questions regarding the differences.

In addition to the above reasons, the researcher was able to collect data and information from the research sample through certain people who are qualified and know the region very well.

Furthermore, in using the example of Iran as a benchmark, this research has been able to compare the experiences of a country, which has already considered the status of women in the workplace, with Saudi Arabia in the hope that the Saudi authorities will be able to learn from the example of another country.

1.4 Research Objectives

1. To analyse and examine why Saudi Arabia relies on non-national manpower in the labour market.

The researcher will use the last governmental census of 1992 and current available statistics to compare national and non-national manpower in the Saudi labour market as well as using government views and previous studies to understand the reasons behind using non-national workers in the Saudi labour market.

2. To increase understanding about the position of women's participation in the private sector in Saudi Arabia.

The researcher will investigate the status of women in education and employment, according to Saudi cultural, social and economic factors. The data will include a study of internal and external resources.

3. To examine the structure of education for women to see if there is a mismatch between types of skills produced and the skills required.

The researcher will look at the range of subject areas available, the areas needed by the economy and the possibilities for change.

4. To identify the main factors affecting the under-utilisation of qualified women in the Saudi private sector.

A semi-structured questionnaire will be used to interview business managers, qualified women employees, and unemployed qualified women in Saudi Arabia. Also, subsequent interviews will be carried out with the appropriate government civil servants and Business Chamber of Commerce representatives to establish the views of authoritative figures.

5. To use Iran as a benchmark.

Using the questionnaire responses from Iranian business managers, employed qualified Iranian women in the private sector, and qualified unemployed Iranian women, the responses from Saudi Arabia can be checked using Iran as a benchmark.

1.5 Structure of the Thesis

Chapter One gives an overview of the thesis, an identification of the research problem, the importance, the aims, the objectives of the research and the structure of the thesis. Chapter Two provides background information about the history and progression of Islamic thought towards the status of women, their roles in society and the conditions of women's work in Islam. In this chapter, labour market theories regarding women are discussed. Chapter Three presents a general survey on women's education and work in developed and developing countries. This will facilitate an understanding and help to gain a clearer view of women's issues in the labour market in different and similar cultures. This chapter presents a general survey on women's issues in the labour market in Arab countries in general and in the Arab Gulf States in

particular which face similar problems towards women's employment.

Chapter Four is concerned with the situation regarding women's education and employment in Iran. Iran was used as the benchmark in this thesis. Chapter Five presents a general background on cultural, political, social, educational and economic development of Saudi Arabia. Chapter Six analyses the status and structure of the manpower in Saudi Arabia to understand the status of women in the Saudi labour market. The differences between the national and non-national labour forces will be discussed and analysed. In this chapter, problems of women's employment in the Saudi labour market will be examined. Chapter Seven presents the research design, methodology and data collection. Chapter Eight presents the empirical results of the Saudi business managers' responses. The main objectives of the analysis are to investigate the current situation regarding women's employment in the private sector and to explore the main factors affecting women's employment in the Saudi private sector. Chapter Nine presents a quantitative analysis of Saudi women's responses about the private sector from women employees and unemployed women. Chapter Ten presents a comparative analysis and discussion between the views of business managers, women and authoritative figures.

In Chapters Eleven the analysis of Iran is used as a benchmark to check the responses from Saudi Arabia. Chapter Twelve offers conclusions, recommendations and the possibilities for further research on women's employment in the private sector.

So, the starting point is a consideration of Islamic thought towards the status of women, their roles in society and the conditions of women's work in Islam.

CHAPTER TWO

WORKING WOMEN IN ISLAM

2.1 Introduction

Societies all around the world are changing. Muslim communities, even within a non-Muslim environment, are coming under pressure to change. Islam, although the most misunderstood religion has allowed space and time to cater for changes in life-styles, as long as these changes do not clash with the Islamic Sharia'a

This chapter will expound on the roles of women in the Islamic society including the family, women's education, employment and the environmental conditions regarding the employment of women. The researcher will also review some theories regarding women's employment in the labour market.

2.2 Women's Status in Islam

Before Islam, women suffered in former societies. They were humiliated, treated without respect, and were treated like slaves. During this period women were looked on as trivial assets and treated as merchandise in markets. Although women at that time contributed to society through the family, on farms, and in the production of handicrafts, they also worked as nurses during military conflicts and in trades. At best, women were regarded as weak human beings and inferior to men in all aspects of life. They had responsibilities but no rights. Women were persuaded that they were weak and that the man was the head of the family.

Chinese women, for example, were given the worst jobs in society. They were given jobs that were rejected by men. In India, women were called by insulting names. They were linked to all behaviour and characteristics that were negative. A woman was the shadow of her husband. It was believed that the woman's role in life was to serve her husband. She could not eat with him and could only eat what was left from his meal. In Greece, women were separated from society. They lived as entertainers for men. It was believed that a woman's role was only to give birth and look after children. During the Roman period men rejected women. They treated them without respect and did not acknowledge women as individuals. After marriage, the man owned a woman; she became his property (Al-Thabet: 26; Mursi, 1997: 21-34).

Ancient societies in the Arab world denied all rights to women and treated them as slaves. They used to buy and sell women in markets. Women were not considered, they were not only treated without respect but suffered all types of humiliation and torture. Baby girls were killed or buried alive after birth (Mahrose, 1997: 225; Mursi, 1997: 35-37; Al-Thabet, 1983: 26; Al- Munajjed, 1998: 12).

Islam came to give justice to the whole of humanity under the law of Allah, through the Holy Quran and instructions of the prophet Muhammad, peace and blessings be upon him (PBUH). One of the issues that Islam dealt with bluntly was the case of the mistreatment of women.

The first thing Islam ordered was justice and explained the rights of women. Under Islamic law, men and women have basic legal rights in terms of marriage, property, divorce, inheritance and education.

In the Holy Book Al-Qur'an¹, there are many verses which give women their right to dignity: Allah said in Qur'an:

*On the contrary live with them
On a footing of kindness and equity
If you take a dislike to them
It may be that you dislike
A thing, and Allah brings about
Through it a great deal of good. (Al-Nisaa 4: 19)*

*And women shall have rights
Similar to the rights
Against them, according
To what is equitable,
But men have a degree
Over them And Allah
Is Exalted in Power, Wise. (Al-Baqarah, 2: 228)*

Islam, on the other hand, gives the mother a particularly high status. The mother's position could be interpreted as being three times greater than that of the father, according to the following *hadith*:

“A man came to the Prophet and asked him: ‘O Messenger of Allah, who among the people is most worthy of my good company?’ The Prophet said, ‘Your mother.’ The man asked, ‘Then who?’ The Prophet again said, ‘Your mother.’ The man asked, ‘Then who?’ The Prophet again said, ‘Your mother.’ The man asked, ‘Then who?’ The

¹ Al-Quran is the saying of Allah that descended on the Prophet Mohammed, peace and blessings be upon him.

Prophet said, 'Then your father.'" (Al-Bukhari, Muslim) (Nazlee, 1996: 50)

This hadith shows that one's relationship to the mother is very important and it can be seen that the Prophet, peace and blessings be upon him (PBUH), emphasised this relationship three times before mentioning anyone else, i.e. the father.

From the above verses from the Al-Quran and the Al-Hadiths, it is clear that Islam gives women their rights and status as human beings. It raises them from being rejected in society to being well recognised. The status of motherhood is held in very high esteem.

Al-Munajjed (1997: 13) argues that Islam raised the status of women from that of the pre-Islamic era. She described how the unkind prejudices against women became illegal. She stated:

"With the emergence of Islam, female infanticide, and sexual permissiveness were completely banned. Female infanticide became a crime against God, and the killing of a woman was considered a crime equal to that of killing a man. Islam sought to defend the rights of women and improve their standing. It decreased the marked differences that existed between men and women and recognised their independent status".

2.3 Women's Rights in Education and Economic

Allah said in Al-Qur'an that "Are those equal, those who know. And those who do not know? It is those who are endowed with understanding that receive admonition." (Qur'an, Az-Zumar: 9)

The Prophet said, "To seek knowledge is the religious duty of all Muslims" narrated by Al-Bukhari (Ben-Mahfodh, 1997: 266)

With regard to a woman's engagement in economic activity, Islam does not put any obstacles in her way, provided that her activity does not interfere with her role as a wife and a mother because, according to Islam, a mother is the person whom the child needs most during the primary years of its upbringing, and the role of mother is one which is accorded the highest status. Education is of great importance in Islam. Allah, in the Qur'an, speaks very highly of those who are knowledgeable and educated in Islamic knowledge and useful knowledge. There is no distinction between men and women when it comes to education (Al-Aik, 1998: 133).

In fact, it is mandatory upon both to seek the knowledge that is needed for the discharge of the obligations of Islam. Islam does not seek to put obstacles in the way of a female thus seeking knowledge. In an Islamic society, Muslim women are positively encouraged to become teachers, doctors, midwives, nurses, etc.

It is very important for a Muslim woman to be educated and to be able to understand the teachings of Islam, because women are the first educators of their children, a view shared by many psychologists. A woman's personality has an impact on her home environment and, consequently, on the upbringing of her children.

Women are needed in certain kinds of occupations, but how can they enter these occupations and play their role if they are not allowed to seek knowledge? Islam stresses single sex education, for example, but how can we meet this need if there are no properly qualified Muslim women who can take up the job of teaching? Muslim women prefer, if possible, to consult Muslim women doctors, therefore it is vital that Muslim women take up the study of medicine.

Islamic history tells of women who were regarded as great scholars and who are still remembered up to this day. A'ishah, the wife of the Prophet, was one of the most eminent scholars. She gave advice to people in all spheres of life, and men travelled great distances to seek knowledge from her. Her intellectual ability is famous in Islamic history. She memorised many *Hadiths* and narrated some 2,210 of them. She also supplied the knowledge to the Companions and Followers for many cases on which the Islamic law is based. Her knowledge was vital for the embodiment of Islam as an entire way of life, embracing the acts of worship as well as all the ordinary transactions of life such as buying and selling, whose proper transaction is the basis of a just society (Ben-Mahfodh, 1997: 276).

As far as intellectual status is concerned, there is no prejudicial distinction at all between males and females in Islam Allah said in Qur'an:

*"Those truly fear Allah, Among his Servants Who have knowledge:
for Allah is Exalted in Might, Oft-Forgiving."*(Qur'an, Fatir 22: 28)

It is clear from this *ayah* that Islam holds learned people in high esteem; and in this case there is no distinction between male and female. Both men and women are assumed to have the same capability to learn and understand.

The history of Islam shows that there were many women of great intellectual standing who are still revered today for their knowledge. 'A'ishah and the other wives

of the Prophet are foremost among them. Asma' bint Abi Bakr is remembered as eminent among female scholars. Men would travel for weeks across the desert to seek knowledge from them (Ben- Mahfodh, 1997: 276).

A Muslim woman is allowed to play her part in any affairs which contribute to the wellbeing of society. During the time of the Prophet (PBUH) there are accounts of women who took part in serious discussions on matters of importance to the Muslim community.

There is a woman who gave the correct answer when Umar (may God be pleased with him), the second *khalifah*, had been wrong and he openly admitted in the mosque that he was wrong and she was right.

Women have the same obligation as men to pledge allegiance to their leader, a right which was given to them over fourteen hundred years ago. At the time of the Prophet (PBUH), women, as well as men, gave *bai'ah* to the Prophet (PBUH), which meant that they accepted his leadership and gave allegiance to him in their own right.

Women were consulted in political matters, especially if they were known to have a special talent in a specific area. Again, this shows that in the early days of Islam, women's talents and opinions were highly respected and they were able to express their views openly.

According to Islam, anything a Muslim woman owns or earns, be it money, property, land or any other possession, is hers and hers alone. Nobody else has any right to it whatsoever. She has the right to buy or sell anything and to negotiate a contract in her own right, something not recognised in other parts of the world until quite recently.

A woman has access to that which belongs to her, and she can use her belongings and wealth in whatever way she wishes, provided, of course, that she does so within the limits of Islam. Spending her money on drugs, for example, is, of course, not permitted just as it is forbidden for a man.

A woman is also entitled to inherit from her parents and other close relatives. Prior to Islam, she herself was subject to being inherited. Allah, in the Qur'an, explicitly states:

"From what is left by parents and those nearest related there's share for men and a share for women whether the property be small or large, - a determinate share." (Qur'an, an-Nisa' 4: 7)

2.4 Islam and Working Women

Islam encourages work, to avoid unemployment.

The Prophet Mohammed (PBUH) said: *“Allah likes everyone of you if he works. If he also learns his job well and does it with skill”*. He also said: *“Anyone who cheats us, he is not one of us”* (Muslim, 1/99) (Al-Mkdasi, 1985, p91). In another part he says: *“One of the best things before the Day of Judgement is the one who has a young date palm in his hand and plants it”* (Ahmed, 3/184) (Al-Khataib, 1995: 139).

The Prophet Muhammad, (PBUH), also in the Al-Hadith, said:

*“To whom his soul On his hand,
Anyone of you who carries his wood on his back is much better than
anyone who lives in somebody else's generosity, who, when asked
him to pay, he may pay him or refuse”*

(Muslim, 2/721) (Al-Khataib, 1995:137)

From this hadith we see, one of the responsibilities is to work. Islam distinguishes between a working Muslim (in this example, one who carries his wood on his back) and a Muslim unemployed without a reason. A working Muslim will have better status on the Day of Judgement. Islam does not distinguish between labour. All types of work are permitted and are encouraged to be carried out with dignity as far as it does not violate the Sharia'a.¹

Islam believes that a woman's work in her own home is a serious and complex responsibility. This responsibility is equal to, or more than, the man's responsibility. Islam looks at a woman's natural job, which Allah has given her, as a contribution to humankind. Islam gives her the highest status in society, i.e. the responsibility of being a wife and mother. Islam believes these two responsibilities are the main roles for women and anything after that is allowed, if it conforms with Islamic law. Islam provides support and facilities to women to help them carry out these responsibilities. Islam considers motherhood to be second only after the worship of Allah, which is the most important aspect of Islam. Modern social trends accept that working women are related to the paid sector only, and therefore, motherhood is considered as unemployment and mothers as a useless sector of society. Such trends consider her job as a mother, wife and housekeeper, which includes carrying the responsibility of the

children and providing the right environment for her husband to carry his responsibilities in society, as not part of her contribution to society's economy, even though this is her main duty according to Islam.

The Prophet Mohammed (PBUH) said:

“Everybody is responsible and everybody's responsibility is for his people, the Imam is responsible and his responsibility is for his people and the man is responsible and his responsibility is for his family and the woman is responsible and her responsibility is for her husband's house and she is responsible for her family.” (Reported by Muslim, 1829) (Al-Salim, 1998: 38)

Women's responsibility in this hadith is explicitly to her role as a wife and mother. This means she is responsible for the environment at home and the upbringing of the children, as well as being a life-partner to her husband. Therefore, it is clear that the main duty of women in Islam is their role within the home. Working outside the home comes second.

Prophet Mohamed (PBUH) also said:

“Do not forbid your women from the mosques, although staying in their own home is better.” (Reported by Abu-Daud and Muslim) (Al-Hussain, 1986: 97)

In fact, Islam does not forbid Muslim women from working in any specific job. It provides guidelines and rules for women to work. These provide protection; they save a woman's dignity and protect her from humiliation. Where it is necessary for women to work, for example, for the benefit of the society, some scholars argue that it is not suitable for women to study or learn any knowledge like men except for the benefit of Islamic culture, because they think this will allow her to leave her particular role in the family.

In the early days of Islam, a woman understood her true role in society. She worked very hard and with dignity. She carried out her role perfectly. Her contribution was clear; her role was to be a housewife, a source for living and a labour force. She contributed in different sectors of society. She worked as a nurse during the early Muslim battles, she was also a fighter in the battle and she worked in the trade of buying and selling (Al-Naffessi, 1986: 40-43).

Islamic history shows that Muslim women worked in different types of jobs within their society, which was allowed by the Islamic Sharia'a. Women worked in different technical and vocational jobs; they worked in medicine through their contributions during battles, and as nurses to treat injured fighters. They worked in handicrafts such as knitting and sewing, agriculture, trade and the rubber industry, as shepherds, and in making spears as weapons and in the tanning sector.

Two of the main examples of women working are Zainab and Al-Zahra, Prophet Mohammed's daughters who also worked in vocational areas, for example, tanning, spinning and grinding (Al-Bigani: 175-176). A'ishah, the wife of the Prophet, and his daughter Fatimah were famous in medical science (Ben-Mahfod, 1997: 278-279).

Al-Aik (1998: 166-171) mentions that today there are some jobs which have been suggested where women can work, such as teachers for the role of women in her religion and society, in childcare, in health and maternity as midwives, in home economics and in food science.

It is clear from the above that there are no specific jobs for women to work outside the home. In Islam they can be scholars, managers, employers, employees, owners of their own businesses, and part of the military services, as long as this is as a nurse or catering officer. Women are allowed to dispose of their own property and can give to charity or rent out their own assets. Women are free to approach a court for arbitration and have the support of their husbands even if they are themselves wealthy.

Islam provides rules for a woman to work, so she can maintain her dignity and femininity which saves her from any act against the Islamic Shariah. Also, she must ensure that her children and husband are not neglected, and her health does not suffer.

The main rules which Islam encourages women to follow before leaving home to go to work, can be summarised in the following:

1. Wearing *Hijab*¹

Islam orders women to wear the *Hijab* whenever they leave their home, or while they are in their own homes in the presence of a non-mahram. *Hijab* means more than just wearing modest clothing. It is a protection for women and a

consciousness of God that should prevent them from mixing with foreign men outside the house and/or inside the house.

Allah says in the Qur'an

"O prophet! Tell your wives and daughters, and the believing women, That they should cast their outer garments over their persons (when outdoors): That is most convenient, That they should be known (as such) and not molested. And Allah is Oft-Forgiving. Most Merciful." (Al-Ahzab, 22: 59)

Wearing Hijab should have the following characteristics:

The whole body (including the face) should be covered. Garments should not be attractive, perfumed, transparent or stretched, showing details of the body. A woman should not wear men's clothes (Aodah, 1991,).

Abu Hurairah narrated that: *"The prophet (PBUH) cursed the man who dresses himself to look like a woman, and the woman who dresses herself to look like a man"* (Abu-Dawood) (Shaker, 1997: 68).

Abu Musa al-Ashari narrated that: *"The Prophet (PBUH) said, any woman who perfumes herself and passes by some people that they smell her scent, then she is Zaniyah (prostitute)"* (Al-Fozan, 1993: 51).

2. Avoid mixing with men and being left alone with a man.

Islam forbids women to mix with men unless with a Mahram.² Prophet Mohammed (PBUH) said:

"Whoever believes in Allah and the hereafter should not allow himself to be in privacy with a woman who does not have a Mohram from her side. Other-wise Satan is their third party." (Jabir Narrated) (Shaker, 1997: 29)

This *hadith* is saying that when a man and woman are alone together, Satan is present and Satan's role is to make mischief. Therefore, for the protection of the woman (and the man) it is decreed that there is a guardian of the woman present as well. This is one aspect of why there should be no free mixing in Islam.

3. Avoid using an attractive voice when talking.

Islam orders a Muslim woman not to raise her voice or talk in a way that is

1. Hijab is a woman's veil to cover her hair and her body and some scholars hold the face as well from the view of strangers.

² Mahram is a man to whom she cannot be married (such as father, brother, son, uncle, nephew etc.).

seductive or flirtatious when men are present. Islam wants a woman to be confident, dignified and respected in her contact with men (Al-Aodah, 1991).

4. Husband's permission

Islam forbids a woman to go out without receiving permission from her husband or from her guardian if she is not married. On the authority of Ibn 'Umar, the messenger of Allah, Mohammed, (PBUH), said:

"He saw a woman come to Prophet Muhammad (PBUH) and she asked, What are the rights of a wife on her husband? He (PBUH) said, Not to leave the home without the permission of her husband. If she does go out without his permission the Angels of Mercy and of Punishment will curse her until she repents or returns home. She asked, Even if her husband treats her badly? He (PBUH) replied, Even if the husband behaves badly towards his wife." (Al-Menawi, 1993: 66)

As explained in a previous *hadith*, the woman is responsible for the home and the children. As part of the safety and security provided by Islam she is required to obtain her husband's permission if she needs to leave her area of responsibility, for example, the home. In an emergency, she may leave the home without his permission.

5. Travelling from one city to another

Islam forbids women from travelling without a Mohram. She must be accompanied by at least one Mohram during her journey.

Prophet Mohammed (PBUH) said:

"It is not allowed for a woman, who believes in Allah and the hereafter, to travel without a Mohram." (Basioni, 1996: 146)

This excludes internal travel within her own town as some Muslim scholars have given permission for a woman to move on public transport with a group of women. This can only happen on the condition that the Islamic Shariah is not broken, i.e. a woman must not be left alone during the journey. The reason why women must not be left alone on a journey is that if anything was to happen, like falling ill, there would be no Mohram to look after them. The presence of the Mohram protects the woman from unnecessary contact with strangers.

Some Islamic scholars and researchers, such as Zain Al-Abideen (1984); Ben-Duheash (1959); Hamdi and Al-Hidar (1996); Al-Hazmi (1997); Al-Husain (1999)

and Daghestani (2000), suggested certain fields of employment which are suitable for women, such as childcare, social services, home management, medical services, especially those directly for women; design of jewellery, clothes, textiles, food processing; educational services at all levels for women, IT technology according to Islamic Sharia'a.

2.5 Islamic Society and Women Working

In Islamic society there is a variety of opinions towards women working outside the home. Here are three different groups.

The first group sees women as a *fitnah*, which they think means a source of temptation, and this is a concept to which many refer when describing women as inferior to men; woman is regarded as a threat to society.

Their argument focuses on the reproductive capacity of women and they look upon motherhood as a woman's major goal in life. They accept a sexual division of labour based on the biological differences between the sexes.

Conservative and traditionalist elements argue that Islamic laws, social norms and local traditions have praised and defined the natural role of women as mothers and housewives. The first responsibilities of a woman are, therefore, to stay at home to care for her husband and children.

They think that if a woman is successful in her role as mother and wife, then she has provided society with her best service.

There are many females in Islamic society who oppose women working outside their homes. Zain Al-Abideen (1983: 75) argues that women's employment represents an injustice being added to her natural duties as a wife and mother. Thus, a third job will put a further burden on her. The woman will be responsible for three duties yet is accountable for any defect in front of God. Her family will ask her about any default. She also has obligations towards society through the duties of her employment.

Al-Husaini (1996: 114) observes the negligence of some Saudi men to the problem of women working and their duty of going through any dispute concerning this matter.

Some researchers have avoided certain questions in respect of the women's situation in society, especially with those subjects that are concerned with the

women's new situation in the development of society as a result of their education and contribution in some fields of works or in seeking new fields of employment.

Al-Nimer (1988: 78) argues that many of society's individuals are unaware of the valued contribution of women's work. There is a general idea that women's work must not extend outside her home limits. She has no right to compete with men for work as his duties are concerned with the expense of the whole family. Many people still have the idea that women's employment is valueless according to her biological structure, which may be an obstacle for the achievement of her obligations.

Arafa (1983: 114) said that some Muslim scholars believe that work for women should not be permitted. They believe that opening the market for women to work is against Islamic principles and against a woman's nature. They state that ordering a woman to stay at home is for her own good, and that making it easy for women to work outside the home can lead to behaviour and circumstances opposing Islamic law.

The second group encourages women's employment freely and without conditions. Al-Munajjed (1997:98-100) mentioned that Fatima Mandili, a professor at the University of King Abdul Aziz in Jeddah, insists that work by women is a social necessity as long as it does not interfere with their duties at home. She argues that women constitute half of society, and it is very important that they should contribute to the development of the country by working. Mandili says that the role of the family is to help their daughters seek jobs that could help to improve their financial status. However, she also states that most Saudi families are not yet psychologically ready to accept the concept of a woman working outside the home.

Fakry (1993: 174) mentions certain women who support people who want to open the door for Muslim women to work outside the home in all fields of employment by the following means:

1. Welfare is supplied through manpower. Women represent half of society, so use has to be made of their efforts.
2. Employment leads to increasing women's capabilities and culture. It also causes personality maturation.

There is also an increase in family income and allowances so that the woman can be independent.

The third group (Zain Al-Abdeen, 1984; Al-Salim, 1998; Al-Aumr, 1991; Al-Shaikh, 1994) believe that women should practice her first responsibility, which is to look after her children, and, if she wants to work, this must be under certain conditions.

They argue that working outside the home restricts the woman's main job in her family life, which is as a wife and a mother; otherwise her duties are regarded as secondary and are to be performed according to her capabilities. These must not affect her essential function, and must not be something which leads to corruption.

These duties include:

1. The provision of a suitable social, human and religious environment for a woman to allow her to adjust home duties and her employment successfully.
2. Employment choice must be compatible with her social, physical and psychological character to perform her duties in a safe location, at a suitable time, and in a manner which enables her to keep her respect, honour and dignity.
3. Agreement of her sponsor is an obligation.
4. The woman must be well prepared both mentally and psychologically in the way in which she keeps in accordance to rules, regulations, customs and principles of respect and gratitude.

Also, these groups have suggested that women *must* do women's work. For example, jobs which require women to care for other women, as in midwifery, must be taken up by females but once these jobs are filled, women have the option to work or not to work, as they feel most suitable for them.

2.6 Women in the Labour Market: Theoretical Approaches

According to Islamic Sharia'a there is a supposition that the male is expected to be the main source of the family income, that is, that he is the 'head of the household' while the female is expected to be the mother and the housewife. Therefore, in Islam, women are at the heart of society since they provide the environment into which the young are born and grow up.

In this section, some western theories, which are related to women's participation in the labour market, are outlined in order to investigate whether western theories correspond with Islamic thought on working women and the situation of women in Saudi Arabia.

In this section the following theories will be discussed: human capital theory, dual labour market theory, dual system theory and patriarchal theory.

Human capital theory

In terms of human capital theory, within the family, men focus on roles such as bread-winning which are termed “instrumental” while women’s roles are seen as “expressive”, that is, they are best suited to nurturing and caring. Obviously, these roles have implications in the workplace and on the relative values of men and women’s “marketability”. While men concentrate on work, they gather expertise and experience. Women take time out of the labour force, however, and therefore gain fewer marketable skills. Because women take relatively less skilled jobs, they are generally poorly paid in comparison.

This theory assumes that workers and employers make rational choices and that the labour market functions efficiently. It assumes that workers choose the best paying options after taking into account their own skills and education, their limitations (i.e. children, housing etc.), and their preferences (type of work and environment). Employers, meanwhile, try to increase productivity, minimise costs and, as a result, maximise profits (Anker, 1998: 15).

Human capital theory argues that men invest their “human capital” in amassing qualifications and experience while women are less motivated to do this since they must fit employment around their domestic arrangements (Rees, 1992: 23).

Education and work experience are believed to affect women’s choice of occupation. However, in Saudi Arabia, there are often more educated people of both sexes than there are suitable jobs. It could be assumed, therefore, that in such circumstances, women should be well represented in the available range of occupations but, in practice, this is generally not the case, which implies discrimination.

The important point of the human capital approach is that men and women may not be perfectly substitutable for one another. Women may accumulate less human capital through work experience, if their childbearing and rearing interrupts their labour force participation. Their human capital during a period outside the labour market will be depreciated; therefore productivity differentials between men

and women will arise. When women workers re-enter the labour market, they will earn less than men who had continuous market experience (Kocak, 1999: 10).

Human capital theory does not take into account that, while women may not choose certain occupations because they lack the necessary levels of education, many families may decide to offer their daughters fewer educational opportunities than their sons. The subjects that are made available to them may be less relevant to the labour market and this “choice” may also be affected by women simply not having the same opportunities in the labour market as men (Anker, 1998: 15).

Rees (1992: 23-24) emphasises that girl’s options and career choices in effect cut off a whole range of education and training opportunities which, in turn, restricts their access to certain occupations and industries. They are far more likely to choose arts rather than sciences and therefore are excluded from a range of possible careers for which science is required. They are not prepared for living in a technological world or for employment in the generally more lucrative scientific and technical jobs.

Although the level of academic achievement among boys and girls at school is similar, the subjects taken are divided by gender. Today, women are not educated or trained in subjects or areas which would open up male jobs to them (Bagilhole, 1994: 32 in Cockburn, 1987). This could certainly be said to be the case in Saudi Arabia where some people view the education of daughters as of less importance than sons, since females will marry and raise families. In Saudi Arabia and in Iran, women are not educated or trained in some non-traditional subjects or areas (Moghadam, 1998: 158; Ministry of Higher Education in Saudi Arabia, 1998).

There are a number of problems associated with the application of human capital theory alone to explain occupational segregation. First, women’s commitment to the labour force has increased in many countries over the last twenty years and second, domestic and family responsibilities have decreased for women in many areas because of increasing age at marriage, falling fertility rates and the use of machines to help, in wealthier nations, with household chores. Thirdly, there are more female-headed households in the world than in previous decades which suggests that women need to work more continuously. These changes suggest that women are gaining more work-based experience than ever and yet occupational segregation by sex is still very prevalent worldwide. Furthermore, many male-dominated occupations (for example, auto mechanic, transport driver) require no more experience or continuity of

employment than many female-dominated work areas, such as secretary or clerical worker. Probably the reverse is often true and yet these “women’s” jobs may receive lower rates of pay (Anker, 2001: 132).

According to this theory, many of the same factors which account for the preferences of men and women in the job market, also influence employers’ choices. For example, jobs which require higher levels of education and experience of work and “on-the-job” training are more likely to be offered to men although the instances of this are decreasing in frequency in many countries.

In Saudi Arabia, however, it seems that men are still more likely to be offered such posts since women are generally viewed as “higher cost” when compared to male workers. This is because it is assumed that women have higher rates of absenteeism because of their family commitments; they are also said to have higher labour turnover rates (that is, they leave jobs more often than men do) because they may marry and then have children. They are often viewed as being less flexible, not being able to stay late, work on official holidays, or move to a new geographical location with ease. Finally, it is said that they may also require special facilities such as childcare. In Saudi Arabia, with its Islamic tradition of separating the sexes at work, this is certainly the case although many of the “reasons” given above are perceptions rather than certainties since no empirical evidence exists to support or reject these ideas.

Anker (2001: 133 in Anker and Hein, 1985 and 1986) found in a series of empirical studies in their world countries that men in Cyprus, Ghana, India, Mauritius and Sri Lanka were actually less likely to leave one job for another while women were more likely to leave for family reasons.

According to Walby (1988: 28), human capital theorists were important in conceptualising women’s housework as significant for economic analysis, but the limitation of their focus to pure market force incorrectly excludes the political and organisational structuring of the labour market itself. In Saudi Arabia, for example, according to Islamic Sharia’a, women are not allowed to work in close proximity to the opposite sex. They may need separate facilities to be provided in order for the workforce to be segregated; paid maternity leave will also add to an employer’s costs if this is paid by the employers.

Generally, even if women in Saudi Arabia have the same or higher education, training and experience than a male, or, if the roles are reversed, some job

opportunities in the labour market will not be open for them according to the socio-cultural values.

Labour market theory

This theory was developed by American economists, especially by Doeringer and Piore of Boston University and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (Loveridge et al., 1979: 65). This theory was originally used to explain race segregation in the USA, but has been imported to the UK to try to explain the inequality of women in the labour force (Rees, 1992: 30; Bagilhole, 1994: 40).

The theory divides employment into primary and secondary sectors. The primary sector offers highly paid jobs, good fringe benefits, good working conditions, good opportunities for advancement and high levels of job security; the secondary sector is comprised of relatively low paid jobs, poor working conditions, fewer opportunities for advancement, and low levels of job security. This theory argues that women often work in the secondary sector, and men tend to occupy the primary sector. Workers in the secondary sector are unlikely to be able to enter the primary sector (Loveridge et al., 1979: 65; Rees, 1992: 30; Anker, 2001: 136).

Other theories divide the labour market into the formal and informal sectors, or the static and progressive sectors. Jobs in the primary sector tend to be relatively good in terms of pay, security, promotion prospects and working conditions, while jobs in the secondary sector tend to be poorer paid, with few opportunities for promotion, little protection or security, and with poorer working conditions. Although this distinction may have become, with globalisation and increased use of sub-contracting, rather less distinct of late, it is still largely relevant, especially in developing countries. By developing this idea of dual segregation, it is possible to view female occupations as largely belonging to the secondary sector where security is poorer and wages lower while men are better represented in primary sector work. Indeed, it suggests that women are overcrowded into the relatively small number of "female" occupations while "male" jobs have lower competition and therefore higher wages (Bagilhole, 1994: 40).

The main criticism of the theory is the fact that it fails to distinguish between different kinds of situations experienced by women and also fails to take account of women's roles within the home, therefore not acknowledging that the different

positions of men and women are determined by gender as well as by work (Rees, 1992: 30).

This theory concentrates on primary (full-time working) and secondary (part-time working) segments which are not applicable to Saudi Arabia at its present stage of development, as the secondary segment is not formally available in the private sector.

Feminist theories

Moving to the dual role system theories, many women have family or domestic responsibilities which largely preclude men's employment patterns. Much research has used this link between the contradictory demands of paid work and the demands of the family life cycle to explain women's participation patterns and their lack of success in the labour market (Bagilhole, 1994: 34).

These theories are mainly related to variables outside the labour market itself and are based on the premise that women are at a disadvantage in the world of work because of their subordinate position in society and in the family. In almost all societies, women, because they bear children, are viewed as having primary responsibility for the household and the family, while men are perceived as the primary breadwinners. Although these patterns may differ in reality for many individuals, the norms within society influence and affect behaviour, causing discrimination against women (Anker, 1998: 22).

Anker (1998: 22-23) stated that the patriarchal organisation of society explains why women accumulate less experience or "human capital" than men, why females often receive less education than their male counterparts and why girls are often offered areas of expertise which are considered to be "suitable" for their gender. It also explains why women acquire less experience in the labour market and why they often leave the workforce early or withdraw from it temporarily. In short, gender theories can explain occupational segregation by demonstrating how closely occupations, which are traditionally seen as "female", corresponds to female stereotypes within society.

Many feminists have used the concept of patriarchy to help explain the persistence of women's subordination and gender inequality. The distinction between men and women explains the gender-based division of labour characteristics of all

patriarchal societies. According to patriarchal thinking, the male is superior and the female is inferior (Iglitzin and Ross, 1976: 8).

Anker (2001: 140-142 in Anker and Hein, 1985, 1986) presents a list of typical female stereotypes, which might affect occupational stereotypes. They note five “positive” stereotypes: caring nature; skill and experience at household-related work; greater manual dexterity; greater honesty; and physical appearance. They add that recognition of these stereotypes would help to “qualify” women for roles such as nurses, doctors, social workers, teachers, maids, housekeepers, cooks, waiters, launderers, spinners, weavers, sewers, knitters, typists, salespersons, accountants, receptionists and shop assistants etc.

Negative stereotypes, which include a disinclination to supervise others; less physical strength; less ability in maths and science; less willingness to travel; and less willingness to use physical force or face physical danger, would make women less acceptable for other occupations, ensuring that these areas become typically “male” preserves. If accepted, these stereotypes would suggest women would be less inclined to become managers, supervisors, government executives, legislative officials, construction workers, miners, physical scientists, architects, engineers, mathematicians, statisticians, aircraft officers and workers, ship’s officers and workers, driver/operators, fire-fighters, police officers and security guards.

Gender theories of occupational sex segregation certainly seem applicable to the patriarchal organisation of society in Saudi Arabia and in Iran where, although women are allowed to work, certain areas are viewed as acceptable for women’s status and abilities (traditional jobs being in education and health) and others are not (the non-traditional jobs). Further cultural and social constraints, such as the inability to travel alone, the insistence of sex segregation within the workplace in all Saudi organisations and in some organisations in Iran, and the view that women are first and foremost wives and mothers, limit the kind of work that can be undertaken by women in Saudi Arabia and in Iran as well.

Where as traditionally and culturally there may be no objection to the woman working in general, in certain specific cases she may have to forego a possible employment opportunity as Sharia’a protects her and her environment.

Gender theories only view women as productive when they are in paid labour. This is counter to their role in Saudi Arabia where the women's primary role is that of wife and mother which these theories considered as unproductive.

2.7 Summary

This chapter has offered a brief history of the role and status of women in Islam. It focuses particularly on the central responsibility of the family for women but also on women's freedom to choose to work as long as this does not come into conflict with Sharia'a. It finally considers the differing opinions of Saudi society regarding women working outside the home, which range from outright opposition to unconditional enthusiasm. Finally, some labour market theories which relate to women's participation in the labour market are discussed and investigated for their suitability for application to women's employment in the Saudi labour market.

All of these theories have been found to be driven by either the economic needs of the individual or of the society of the country. The situation of women in Saudi Arabia is not the same as for women under these other systems. The researcher was unable to use these theories to examine factors affecting the under-utilisation of qualified Saudi women in the private sector because these theories concentrated on women as paid employment. They tried to examine why the utilisation of women in the labour market was so low. Some of these theories saw women as having less experience, education and training than men (human capital theory), and some theories segmented the labour market into primary and secondary sectors, with women usually choosing the secondary segment (dual labour market theory). Feminist theories concentrated on factors concerning women outside the labour market. These theories were not in accordance with the Islamic model which considered the primary role for a woman as that of wife and mother. At the same time, the conditions for women's employment were not considered in these theories, such as separation of sexes, permission of the guardian, travelling and classification of jobs as for women only (e.g. hairdressing, and obstetrics and gynaecology). Therefore, these theories were, in general, unsuitable for application in the Saudi labour market although from the analysis some correlation might occur.

So, whatever was considered beneficial or suitable for Saudi Arabia from these models would be difficult to put into practice, as they would have to conform to the

Sharia'a which was not a consideration in these models. Therefore, in this thesis, factors affecting the under-utilisation of qualified women in the Saudi private sector will be investigated using Islamic thought as this is prevalent in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter 3 looks at a general survey of women's education and employment in developed and developing countries including Islamic countries.

CHAPTER THREE

WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN THE LABOUR MARKET

A General Survey

3.1 Introduction

The data generally allow for comparisons between and within countries and regions concerning women's access to work and education, and provide insights into differences in the quality of work carried out by women compared to men. In general, women's working conditions in all countries have improved, as has the legal environment for creating greater equality; job mobility has increased, wage gaps have narrowed, access to education has become easier and work schedules are more flexible. All these factors have contributed to a lessening of the constraints afflicting female job seekers and workers (Elder and Johnson, 1999: 447).

This chapter attempts to present a general survey on women's status in the labour market, their education and their work in developed and developing countries with special reference to the Arab Gulf states which are similar to Saudi Arabia with respect to its culture, social and economic situation as well as its dependence on non-national workers. Understanding the situation of women in education and in employment in similar and different cultures allow understanding the position of Saudi women in the labour market. Through the comparison analysis, women's education and employment in Saudi Arabia can be investigated.

3.2 Link Between Education and Work

Education has close links with the labour market, therefore, the Seventh Development Plan (2000-2004) in Saudi Arabia want 95% of jobs for Saudis to be created by the private sector. The officials responsible for planning education face the challenge that graduates must be qualified in fields required by the private sector, particularly female graduates, who currently study subjects more suitable for the public sector. This requires continuing development of TEVT particularly for women.

Gray (1993: 252) emphasises the importance of links between TEVT and the labour market by arguing that:

"Technical and vocational education needs to have close links with local industries and employers and to make full use of the cost economies possible in working with them. Just as important however are systems for collecting and analysing information about future manpower needs which can be used in good time in order to produce employees with the necessary skills at times and locations where those skills are required."

The concept of necessary skills at times and location where those skills are required is particularly relevant to women in the Saudi context. Thompson (1992: 7) defined TEVT as:

"Preparing future citizens for a useful and productive life through the acquisition of appropriate knowledge, skills, work and attitudes, usually with particular emphasis on preparation for employment to meet the manpower needs of industrialisation and modernisation in their societies."

This definition is very helpful as it starts from the basis of what is appropriate, useful and needed in a particular society and is not limited to any particular culture.

Al-Muslemani (1996: 8-9) stated that any TEVT can be assessed by investigating the relationship between TEVT output and the labour market needs in three areas:

1. The ability to provide skilled human resources for all technical and vocational fields.
2. The ability to provide skilled human resources for all levels in each occupation.
3. The need for all labour forces to have enough knowledge and skill to practice their qualification.

In summary, there is a need for breadth of disciplines, depth of study and applicability of the skills learnt in any TEVT scheme.

Kazis and Roched (1991: 5) argue that in the USA, because of a rapid technological change, companies started to focus on the need to improve the supply and quality of entry level workers. There was a need for a skilled labour force to work in industry as technicians. New programmes have to be developed to provide accelerated learning for new employment prospects. This suggests that Saudi Arabia should concentrate on getting more people into technical and vocational areas and

develop a more skilled workforce from entry level upwards in particular, more women should be encouraged to join TEVT schemes.

Indeed, UNESCO (1994: 22) recommends that:

“Countries should develop national policies with special Technical, Vocational and Educational programs to accommodate the training needs of women wanting to work in non-traditional occupations. Countries will also need to ensure that support mechanisms and appropriate facilities are made available for women undertaking TEVT programs.”

3.3 Women's Education

The gender gap in primary and secondary schooling is closing but still lags behind males in some countries of Africa and southern Asia. In general, enrolment in primary and secondary education has increased in almost all countries of the world, and enrolment ratios have improved for girls significantly. In higher education the gender gap has also disappeared in many parts of the world (UN, 2000: 85-90).

Looking at the ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education in selected developed and developing countries including Islamic countries. Table 3.1 shows that generally there are equal opportunities in education for girls and boys at all levels. It is interesting that while the percentages of girls are similar in all countries at primary level, great variation exists at tertiary level.

Table 3.1: Women enrolled in education in selected countries in 1997/1998

Country	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary	
	MF	F%	MF	F%	MF	F%
Japan	7855387	49	8442844	50	3917709	44
UK	5328219	49	4113465	49	1820849	50
Germany	3859490	49	6061870	50	2131907	46
France	4004704	49	4333313	51	2062495	55
Australia	1855789	49	1315835	50	1041648	51
India	110390406	43	68101705	38	6060418	36
China	139954000	48	60179000	45	4505215	33
Korea Rep	3794447	47	3712742	48	2541659	37
Algeria	4674947	46	2480168	49	347410	44
Egypt	7499303	46	4835938	47	850051	42
Morocco	3160907	42	1345589	42	311743	41
Tunisia	1440479	47	833372	50	121787	45
Bahrain	72876	49	49897	54	7676	58
Kuwait	142308	49	222079	50	29509	62
Qatar	53631	49	37924	50	8475	73
Oman	313516	48	215673	49	16032	45
Saudi Arabia	2256185	48	1500072	46	273992	47
UAE	259509	48	178839	50	16213	72
Jordan	1121866	49	115008	55	112959	47
Syria Arab	2690205	47	885042	46	215734	41
Iran	9238393	47	7284611	45	579070	36
Turkey	6389060	47	3427715	40	1434033	35
Malaysia	2840667	49	1690691	52	210724	-
Indonesia	-	48	11430633	46	2303469	35

Source: UNESCO, Year Book, 1999, Table 11.5, 11.6, 11.7

As can be seen in the table, in some cases, females outnumber males in tertiary education in Arab Gulf States, while in other developing countries the number of girls in tertiary education is below the number of boys. This is shown in Korea, Turkey, Iran, Indonesia, India and China.

In the past, cultural and social attitudes affected the types of subject women studied; their choices are gradually changing, with increasing numbers of young women enrolling in higher education. Today, in many countries, women are allowed to choose from certain subjects which were considered as male areas for example, business, law, science and engineering. However, women do not always have access to fields of study traditionally dominated by men. Gender-based stereotypes survive, and role models that could lead young women to challenging, better paid careers are scarce. In addition, the traditional view that women should engage in activities that are more suitable to their roles as mothers and caregivers discourages women from enrolling in fields traditionally occupied by men. Art is the one field in which women

predominate. In most countries in the world, women represent two thirds or more of the total enrolled in this field (UN, 2000: 92). Table 3.2 below shows the number of women enrolled in tertiary education according to the field of study in selected developed and developing countries.

When examining women enrolled in tertiary education according to the subjects of study in selected countries, it can be seen that although women can choose from certain subjects of studies, they are concentrated more in education, humanities and business subjects rather than in engineering and related subjects. It is interesting to find from the table below that there are equal opportunities between the sexes in all subjects except engineering, agriculture, crafts and architecture. In these subjects, men outnumber women in all countries, while women outnumber men in education, health and home economics subjects. It is surprising to find that although the number of students enrolled in engineering and related subjects in the UAE was very small compared to other subjects, the number of women enrolled in these subjects represents 48% of the total number of students enrolled in these subjects. However, in some developed countries, women are represented in these subjects (16% in the UK and 19% in Japan). Also, in natural science, health, computing and related subjects, women outnumber men in some countries while this is not seen in others.

Table 3.2: Women enrolled in tertiary level in selected developed/developing countries in 1998

Country	Education, Humanities, Religion & Related		Law, Business, Social Services		Communication, Home Economics, Service trades		Natural Science, Maths, Computing & Health-related Programmes		Engineering, Agriculture, Craft, Architect, Others and not specified	
	MF	F	MF	F	MF	F	MF	F	MF	F
France	599,561	71.1	404,083	54.5	202,884	63.7	540,385	48.2	336,319	30.5
Germany	449,504	64.1	627,089	42.6	29124	67.3	469,079	45.3	569,373	29.5
UK	440,746	64.6	559,431	50.2	532,430	58.5	280,946	16.7
Australia	209,111	69.4	320,708	50.5	49,013	56.7	212,839	58.2	209,795	23.1
Korea	569,887	61.9	520,091	34.1	120,868	70.2	376,711	41.2	954,102	18.2
Japan	991,693	73.5	1,236,364	28.5	246,644	91.0	313,638	73.0	999,370	19.1
Egypt	297,857	53.6	339,565	34.9	11,025	64.9	95,358	41.7	106,228	26.2
Morocco	76,346	51.2	91,932	41.6	1,090	51.9	72,555	31.1	8,996	38.3
Tunisia	31,023	59.6	37,687	42.9	1,206	68.2	26,533	45.4	24,816	27.2
Bahrain	1,960	67.9	1,721	70.7	2,180	64.9	1,815	26.6
Iran	130,531	53.1	124,061	30.9	3,584	41.7	160,610	48.5	150,304	14.7
Jordan	33,309	64.1	34,722	62.0	827	50.1	26,352	50.3	17,749	27.7
Kuwait	10,984	73.2	9,588	59.8	204	76.5	3,328	73.9	4,601	28.3
Oman	4,551	53.1	204	37.7	128	42.2	1,182	60.5	914	22.6
Pakistan	27,044	22.2	22,281	5.4	33,924	16.2	138,064	23.2
Qatar	3,476	81.4	1,070	60.9	309	100.0	1,119	63.4	274	10.6
S. Arabia	139,235	53.5	25,714	28.3	31,449	54.2	35,889	61.4	19,658	2.7
Syrian	57,497	56.6	52,958	29.8	2,440	37.0	37,357	38.3	46,501	27.3
Turkey	170,617	43.5	552,897	34.3	66,165	57.1	184,315	54.8	200,305	23.5
Malaysia	41,405	55.7	33,466	51.7	2,488	58.3	16,447	48.6	27,576	16.6
UAE	9,378	89.9	2,202	56.1	2,828	41.0	1,805	48.1

Source: UNESCO, 1999, Yearbook, Table 3-11

... Refers to unavailable data or data included within another group

From the table it can be found that for Saudi Arabia in general there are equal opportunities for boys and girls in all subjects of studies except in the field of engineering and related subjects. Saudi women studying in engineering and related subjects represent only 2% of the total number of students enrolled in these subjects. This figure is very low in comparison with Islamic countries although percentages of women in such subjects in other Islamic countries such as Iran and Qatar are also small. This could be because these subjects are considered not suitable for women in Islamic countries in general and in Saudi Arabia in particular according to cultural and social values. It is significant, however, that the number of women entering engineering and related subjects is lower than for other subjects in nearly all the countries listed in the table.

3.3.1 Planning of TEVT for women

Many of the industrialised and semi-industrialised countries have attempted to bridge the gap between educational output and the needs of the labour market by reducing the availability of those theoretical subjects which are not required by the market and increasing those areas in technical and vocational fields which are in demand.

In the past two decades, the European member states have been placing more and more emphasis on vocational education and training as a response to the problems of unemployment and changing skill requirements in the workplace. In the UK for, example, in 1973 the British government set up the Manpower Services Commission, which had the intention of uniting parties with training - the government, employers, the unions and the training boards – to create a more integrated approach to training in the UK. A major achievement of this initiative was the setting of Youth Opportunities Programme in 1978, which provided the opportunity of vocational training to all school leavers who could not find employment. In the mid-1980 British educational system was reformed, with a view to creating a new structure of vocational courses and certificates. This resulted (1990) in the creation of General National Vocational Qualification (GNVQs) which are obtainable at schools and colleges of further education, and which are intended to have parity of esteem with more traditional academic courses (Tatch et al, 1998: 87-88).

In the UK, also the government is committed to promoting equal opportunities in schools, colleges and universities and to encouraging greater participation by girls and young women in traditionally male-dominated disciplines such as sciences, engineering and technology (HMSO, 1996: 26). Therefore, Britain has one of the highest rates in the European Union for women's participation in employment. Between 1959 and 1996 the percentage of women among employees in employment has risen from 34.1% to 49.6%, one of the underlying reasons for this was educational reform (Walby, 1999: 195).

The system of apprenticeship has been important in the German labour market since well before industrialisation, and so it has a well-established place in the country's social background. As well as contributing to its economic development, the German system of TEV is also known as the Dual System, because apprentices receive

both company-training and general and vocational education (Tatch et al, 1998: 86). The German vocational training certificate as a condition for access is the reason the transition of young people into the workplace takes place in a relatively demarcated first-job market, structured and protected by collective agreement provision. These institutional conditions give young people a major incentive to complete the dual system. As a result, Germany has low rates unemployment within EU Member States. For example, in 1995 the figure for unemployment of persons under 25 varied from 8.8% in Germany to 15.9% in Britain and 27.3% in France (Koch, 1998: 10-12).

Germany is highly advanced in the area of technical and vocational education. The government offers all kinds of education and training for women. As a result, less than 13% of women in Germany are without some form of qualification (Foster and Puhlmann, 1996: 180).

In Australia, the government has concentrated on qualifying women in technical education, placing less emphasis on classical education. Therefore, the percentage of women enrolled in computer programming courses increased from 30% in 1986 to 40% in 1995 while the increase in women studying humanities increased by less than 0.5% between 1986 and 1990. The Australian government has made the encouragement of women in the labour market a central policy. By doing this, women's participation in paid work increased from 48% of the total workforce in 1986 to 52% in 1992 (Daley, 1996: 74-77).

In Japan, the government encourages women to join the labour force by providing support and incentives for women to gain qualifications and then to use these in the labour market. Technical and vocational courses are offered to women after secondary school and women are free to make their own choices (Oki, 1996: 124). This is confirmed by the fact that in 1995 women enrolled in TEVT in Japan represented 45% of the total number of students enrolled in TEVT in Japan (about 650 out of 1,500 million students) (UNESCO, 1999: 167).

It is important to note that industrial countries view women as serious contributors to the national economy as men. According to EU Communities, women in EU countries must be given the same opportunities as men with regard to access to employment, training and career development (European Commission – Directorate of Education and Culture, 2000: 25).

In developing countries, it can be seen that the government of China has attempted to establish incentive schemes to encourage women to train for work. Universities and technical colleges have been opened to provide for the needs of the labour market. 1,679 secondary schools specialising in vocational education and 83 universities catering for courses in the technical and vocational areas existed by 1996. These provided a majority of long-term programmes for women. The government also provides short courses for women for which they have freedom of choice (Guang, 1996: 91).

In Malaysia, the government's concentration on technical education led to a number of industrial advances. The number of women enrolled in technical and vocational education increased from 4.3% in 1970 to 36% in 1990, as a percentage of the total number of enrolments. This resulted in a subsequent increase in the participation of women in the labour market from 16.3% in 1980 to 31% in 1992. In the private sector in Malaysia in 1992, women's participation in accountancy-related jobs reached 55.6% of the total labour force while they accounted for 76.2% in medicine and 30% in engineering (Ismael, 1996: 140-143).

Newly industrialised countries, namely, Korea, Malaysia and Singapore, were effectively changed their policy towards women's education and field of studies, they encouraged science and technology courses. This policy helped these countries to meet sharp increases and larger labour market needs for engineers and technicians. Throughout the last few decades they have succeeded in balancing the number of graduates in science and technology and humanity courses to meet their market needs. During the 1970s, Korea succeeded in raising the number of graduates in science and technology from 40% to 50%. Malaysia raised its number of engineering students from 43% to 54% in 1989 and the same happened in Singapore (Al-Rushed, 1997: 20-24).

Comparing the level of Saudi women in TEVT with other countries will show the level of TEVT for women in Saudi Arabia and other countries. Table 3.3 shows the development of TEVT for women from 1970-1998 in selected developed and developing countries including Islamic nations.

Table 3.3: Women's enrolment in TEVT in selected developed and developing countries from 1970-1998

Country	1970 / 1975		1985 / 1986		1997/1998	
	Total	F%	Total	F%	Total	F%
UK	142,540	46	403,000	57	2,435,321	57
S. Korea	272,743	29	896,733	50	949,750	52
Australia	747,098	48 (1993)	906,429	47 (1995)	1,051,857	49
Japan	1,626,465	44	1,423,017	46	1,435,724	45
China	1,214,900	34	4,046,000	35	9,998,577	44
Germany	2,272,063	44 (1992)	2,260,978	44 (1995)	2,320,465	44
France	793,440	49	1,328,347	46	1,646,377	42
Syria Arab	11,183	6	55,466	25	92,622	52
Egypt	275,281	31	877,399	40	1,912,040	47
Morocco	6,986	16	74,103	36	96,468	46
Tunisia	55974	31	86700	36	54965	46
Turkey	178,999	29	616,283	28	1,333,177	39
Jordan	2,953	23	30,789	39	39,701	36
Kuwait	2,054	32	1,161	8	2,214	36
Pakistan	21573	32	41192	22	92000 (1994)	33
Malaysia	17,548	49	20,720	29	45,723	24
Iran	30,579	20	195,352	24	347,008	24
Iraq	9732	23	125439	26	99405	18
S. Arabia	1,708	42	24,815	17 (1990)	21,551	6

Source: UNESCO, Year Book, 1999, Table 11.6

From the table it is clear that in general and in the last years in particular there are equal opportunities for boys and girls entering TEVT in most selected countries, however the rate of women entering TEVT in Saudi Arabia in 1998 was only 6% of the total number of Saudi students enrolled in TEVT. This compares to an average of 47% of females enrolled in TEVT in developed countries and to an average of 34% in other Islamic countries. This clearly illustrates that the rate of women in TEVT in Saudi Arabia is very low compared to other Islamic countries.

Again when looking at female teaching staff in TEVT in the selected countries, it was found that women in developed countries are highly utilised in this type of education (56% in UK and 49% in Sweden). However, in other developed countries the rate of women is still below that of men (37% in Germany and 28% in Japan) of the total number of teachers in TEVT. In the Gulf States in general, and in Saudi Arabia in particular, female teachers in TEVT form a very much lower percentage in comparison with those in developed and Islamic countries. See Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Female teachers in TEVT in selected developed and developing countries

Developed and Developing countries	1995/ 1998		Arab Countries	1995/ 1998	
	Total	F%		Total	F%
UK	152, 098	56	Algeria	6,788	24
Sweden	29,984	49	Egypt	138, 227	37
Germany	114, 137	37	Morocco	5048	12
Japan	108, 262	28	Bahrain	820	21
Iran	19,880	17	Kuwait	320	28
Turkey	75,507	39	Iraq	8511	53
Malaysia	4,989	35	Saudi Arabia	2536	7
Indonesia	122, 845	43	UAE	249	-
China	690,088	34	Jordan	2308	31
Korea South	42,439	27	Syria Arab	12479	39
Pakistan	6,850	42	Qatar	120	-

Source: UNESCO, Yearbook, 1999, Table 11.6

To summarise, it can be concluded that Islamic countries plan their education of women with regard to Islamic Sharia'a, Hence, the policies that are appropriate may differ from the ones described above. However, if the numbers of girls enrolled in the TEVT and women teaching in TEVT are compared, the results from others of Islamic countries regarding educational policies differ from those in Saudi Arabia. For example, the rate of Saudi girls entering primary, secondary and tertiary level education is comparable with girls in other developed and Islamic countries at 48%, 46% and 47% respectively of all students enrolled in these levels of education. However, only 6% of students enrolled in TEVT and 7% of teaching staff in TEVT in Saudi Arabia are female compared with an average of 34% and 30% respectively in the other Islamic countries. See (Tables 3.1, 3.3 and 3.4). It would seem, therefore, that the number of women in TEVT can be increased significantly without compromising Islamic principles.

3.4 Women's Status in the Labour Market

In every country for which information is available, women are less likely than men to participate in the labour force. This reflects the fact that demographic, social, legal and cultural trends and norms determine whether or not women's activities are regarded as economic, with the result that women experience greater difficulty obtaining entry to the labour market than do men. Furthermore, in addition to overcoming the numerous educational, institutional and cultural barriers which may

prevent them from gaining access to the labour market, most women must also deal with the competing demands of housework and childcare (Elder and Johnson, 1999: 448).

However Plantenga and Hansen, (1999: 452) argue that the number of women's participation in the labour market has increased due to certain factors including increases in the occupations in which women are typically employed, women's gains in education and training and, in some countries, the progress of female employment in areas traditionally considered "men's work" in certain occupations or industries. Furthermore, in some countries government programmes and part-time work options have made it easier for women to enter employment and to integrate labour market and family work.

Regarding (UN, 2000: 110) women comprise of an increasing share of the labour force in almost all regions of the world especially in regions where it has historically been small. In North Africa, women's share of the labour force rose from 21% in 1980 to 29% in 1997 and in Western Asia, from 28% to 33%. Certain factors are behind increasing women's participation in the labour force such as women having achieved more control over their fertility, thus expanding their opportunities for education and employment. In addition, attitudes toward employed women have changed, and public policies on family and childcare, part-time employment, maternity benefit and parental and maternal leave are more favourable to their employment in the services sector, which tends to employ large numbers of women, and are also important factors in many regions and countries

In examining women's participation in the labour market in developed and developing countries in 1998. Table 3.5 shows that women's participation in the labour market in all selected countries are just below men except women in Arab countries which are very low. As seen in the table below, in 1998 the ratio of females working in Arab countries was the highest 34.7% in Morocco and the lowest 13% in Qatar, while in developed countries it was the highest in USA (45.7%) and the lowest was in Japan (41.2%). In other Islamic countries it was between 37.5% in Malaysia and 25.9% in Iran.

Table 3.5: Women in the labour force in selected developed and developing countries in 1998

Developed and developing Countries	Women as % of adult labour force	Arab countries	Women as % of adult labour force
	1998		1998
USA	45.7	Algeria	26.4
UK	43.7	Tunisia	31.2
Germany	42.1	Egypt	29.7
Japan	41.2	Morocco	34.7
France	44.8	Jordan	23.3
Australia	43.3	Syria Arab	26.5
Korea Rep	41.0	Iraq	19.0
China	45.2	Kuwait	31.2
Malaysia	37.5	Bahrain	19.0
Turkey	37.0	Qatar	13.0
Pakistan	27.7	Oman	15.7
India	32.1	UAE	14.1
Iran	25.9	Saudi Arabia	14.8

Source: The World Bank (2000) "World Development Indicators": 46-48

3.4.1 Women's work according to economic activities

Regarding women's participation in the labour market according to economic activities Elder and Johnson (1999: 453-454) argue that in all regions of the world, men account for a higher proportion of total employment in the industrial sector. By contrast, women's share of employment in the service sector is more likely to exceed men's. Generally speaking, industrialised countries and transition economics have higher proportions of men than women in agricultural production. In Asia and the Pacific and in sub-Saharan Africa, women's share of agricultural production is typically greater than men's. In fact, in countries in these regions, where rates of female labour force participation are among the highest in the world, the majority of female workers it can be assumed will be engaged in agricultural pursuits. Women's contribution to the agricultural sector may not be so apparent in other regions of the world, perhaps because the statistics for some of these countries cover only urban areas (particularly in Latin America) or paid employment in the formal sector. Because of this limited coverage, the contribution of women (and men) in agriculture and small enterprises tend to be underestimated. Moreover, the activities of workers engaged in subsistence and other unpaid work, in which women are more numerous than men, may also be under-reported. The contrast between women's and men's participation in

industry, services and agriculture may therefore be less pronounced than it seems.

Since wage rates in the service sector are on average below those in the industrial sector, the greater concentration of women in the service sector and of men in the industrial sector is probably a factor in persisting higher male wages. Women may be drawn into lower-paid service activities because of barriers raised by employers or trade unions, or by cultural attitudes which make it more difficult for them to enter industrial employment. Women may also have more restricted access to the education and training required for industrial jobs. Furthermore, because work in the service sector often reflects the type of work women traditionally do in the home, such as childcare, nursing and cleaning, women are seen as particularly well suited for this type of work. In situations where childcare is not available, women may choose to work in specific types of service that offer greater flexibility allowing them to combine family responsibilities with employment.

Table 3.6 shows women's participation in the labour market according to economic activities in selected developed and developing countries including Islamic nations. We can see from the table below that agriculture varies considerably across the countries with rates being negligible especially in developed countries such as USA and UK and also in Gulf States such as Qatar, UAE, Kuwait and Bahrain while rates in other countries were very high, especially in China, India, Turkey, Iran, Iraq and Syria. However, most female labour in all developed countries and in most developing countries is much more highly concentrated in the service sector than in either agriculture or industry especially within Gulf States.

Table 3.6: Women in economic activities in selected developed and developing countries

Countries	Employment in agriculture 1994- 1997 %		Employment in industry 1994-1997 %		Employment in services 1994- 1997 %	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
USA	4	1	34	13	63	85
UK	3	1	38	13	59	86
Germany	3	3	46	19	51	79
Japan	5	6	39	24	55	69
France	4	3	46	20	49	77
Australia	6	4	31	11	63	85
Korea Rep	10	13	38	21	52	66
China	67	74	19	17	14	10
Malaysia	19	14	36	30	45	56
Turkey	30	65	29	13	40	21
Pakistan	54	15	11	23	35	62
India	64	78	15	10	20	12
Iran	22	69	40	15	38	16
Algeria	16	10	34	21	51	69
Tunisia	22	20	32	40	44	38
Egypt	32	42	25	9	43	48
Jordan	11	1	27	7	62	92
Syria Arab	18	60	39	14	43	26
Iraq	18	68	26	9	56	23
Kuwait	2	0	36	2	62	97
Bahrain	3	0	39	4	58	96
Qatar	3	0	30	0	67	100
Oman	45	12	25	39	30	49
UAE	4	0	40	7	56	93
Saudi Arabia	34	16	20	6	46	79

Source: United Nations (1995, 2000) "The World's Women: Trends and Statistics": (146-149), (144-148)

3.4.2 Women work according to type of jobs.

Anker (1998) argued that the majority of women working in developed and developing countries concentrated in teaching and nurses jobs. For example, in USA in 1991 almost one-half of women in the professional and technical category worked in only two occupations: nurses and teachers; and in Japan in 1990, 46% of women in professional and technical work were in these jobs. In Hong Kong and India, over 80% of women in professional and technical work were either nurses or teachers. A high proportion of women as teachers and nurses is also found in the Middle East and North African countries (Anker, 1998: 163-164). It is interesting to investigate women's employment according to the type of job by comparing developed and developing

countries. Table 3.7 shows that in developed countries there is women's participation in all the classifications, with the highest in clerical and the lowest in administration and managerial jobs. While in Arab countries women's employment in administration and managerial jobs is very low compared to developed and some developing countries. This is due to the social and cultural attitudes; whereas for professional and technical jobs, women's employment is relatively high. For other jobs such as clerical, sales and services women's employment is also very low except for some countries such as Tunisia, Egypt, Jordan and Bahrain. It is interesting to find in Kuwait, women's employment in sales and services jobs is high (46%). This is could be due to the high percentage of non-national females are working in domestic work. (In this table data was not available for Saudi Arabia.)

Table 3.7: Women's employment in private sector according to type of job in 1997

Country	Administration Managerial workers %	Professional and technical workers %	Sales and services workers %	Clerical workers %
Industrial countries	37	50	55	69
Korea Rep	4	32	60	52
China	21	45	52	39
Malaysia	19	44	40	54
Turkey	10	33	11	35
Pakistan	4	20	5	2
Iran	4	33	7	5
Algeria	6	28	19	11
Tunisia	13	36	17	33
Egypt	12	30	10	35
Jordan	5	29	6	26
Syria Arab	3	37	3	16
Iraq	13	44	16	7
Kuwait	5	37	46	19
Bahrain	6	26	8	23
UAE	2	25	25	8

Source: UNDP, 1998 Human Development Report

Melkas and Anker (2001: 206), argued that nursing is an important occupation for women around the world. However women are less likely than are men to be doctors. Only 24% (Norway) to 45% (Finland) of doctors are women in 1990. It is noteworthy that the feminisation gap between high- and low-status medical occupations narrowed fairly rapidly over the two decades under study. This was due to women's entry into the "physicians" occupation, combined with the fact that relatively

few men entered into nursing occupations.

However Anker, (2001) mentioned that in most countries, the large majority of primary teachers are women. Percentages vary widely, ranging from an average of 87% in Eastern Europe to 35% in sub-Saharan Africa (excluding Southern Africa) and 47% in Southern Asia. In some countries, women represent almost the totality of primary school teachers, but in others fewer than 30%. However, at higher educational levels (secondary and tertiary education) women are a lower percentage of teachers in almost all countries (Anker, 2001: 164).

Table 3.8 shows women's employment in teaching jobs in different level of education (primary, secondary and tertiary) from selected developed and developing countries including Islamic countries in 1995/ 1996

Table: 3.8: Percentage of female teachers in selected countries

Country	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
	1995/ 1996	1995/ 1996	1995/ 1996
Japan	62	33	22
UK	81	55	30
Germany	81	49	29
France	79	59	34
Australia	76	...	31 (1992)
China	47	36	30 (1993)
Korea South	61	39	28
USA	86	56	39
Egypt	49	39	30 (1993)
Morocco	38	32	22
Tunisia	49	34	27
Kuwait	63	55	28
UAE	70	54	14 (1992)
Jordan	61	48	18
Syria Arab	65	44	20 (1992)
Iran	55	44	18
Turkey	44	41	33
Malaysia	60	60	...
Indonesia	52	39	...
Qatar	79	59	33
Iraq	53		56
Oman	50	48	...
Saudi Arabia	52	50	30

Source: The World Bank, 2000, Table 2.13, Page 86-88
UNESCO, Yearbook, 1999, Table 11.6, pp. 11-111 – 11-210

It is clear from the table that in the large majority of primary teachers are women. However the percentage of women teachers in secondary schools is just below men in most countries while their percentage in tertiary level are very much lower than

men in almost all countries. It can be seen that in Saudi Arabia there is an equal percentage of primary and secondary school teachers for boys and girls. This is due to separate schools for the sexes. However, in tertiary education male teachers outnumber women due to the unavailability of College(s) of Technology and the development of tertiary education for males.

3.4.3 Women and flexible employment

Bolle (2001: 215-16) argued that over the past 20 years there has been an increase trend in part-time employment relative to full-time employment, especially in many developed countries. In some cases, this is the result of a political decision to promote part-time work, particularly in countries suffering from high unemployment. Many governments have adopted measures to facilitate part-time employment, even encouraging employers to hire part-timers in countries where unemployment is high. Many countries are suffering from very high levels of unemployment. The promotion of part-time work was often seen as a means of reducing unemployment, as a form of “work-sharing” or redistribution of employment.

In UK, for example between 1984 and 1997 part-time employment increased by 25.8 per cent. In 1997 there were 6.7 million part-time workers in the UK, more than one in four of those in work in 1997 worked part-time (27.1%) The gender composition of part-time and home-based work is quite dramatic in illustrating that the flexible workforce is profoundly gendered and racialised. For example, women constitute 94 per cent of home workers (Sperling and Owen, 2000: 18-19).

According to HMSO (1996) in 1995 about 6.3 million women in Britain work full time with another 5 million working part-time. Most part-time female employees do this from choice and not because they are unable to find full-time work. The Government also encourages the adoption of flexible working arrangements for both men and women. Such arrangements include, career-break schemes, home working, job-sharing, part-time employment and flexible working hours. It is felt that such flexibility will reduce overheads, match staffing to cope with the peaks and troughs of business and will help to recruit and retain skilled workers. (p.46). Between 1971 and 1995 women working part time in UK increased from 13% to 23% of employees in employment (Walby, 1999: 198- 199)

Bolle (2001: 227) asserted that the average of women employees in part time

work in 25 developed and developing countries including the UK, the USA, Germany and Japan in 1996 represented 74% of the total employment in part-time work. The highest proportions were in Luxembourg with 88%, Belgium 87% and the UK with 86%; the lowest were Mexico at 52% and Poland with 57%.

3.5 Women's Employment in Arab Countries

This section presents a review of literature on Arab women in the labour market with a concentration on factors affecting their participation in the labour market.

The Arab countries can be divided into two broad sections: those countries whose legal system is based on the Sharia law more or less rigidly; and the second category is where a combination of religious and secular law forms the legal framework. In the second type, the religious law tends to affect personal and family rules while the secular law, which is Western-inspired, governs political, legal and business issues.

One of the key values of Arab society is protecting female modesty. Several measures have been taken to achieve this, such as gender segregation, veiling, strict parental surveillance, early marriage and severe restrictions on women's behaviour. These measures have confined women's activity to the domestic role and restricted their educational opportunities, thus placing the main responsibility for their economic support on the men within their kinship structure. In addition, great importance is placed on the concept of honour in the Arab culture, which influences the division of roles within the family and outside the household. In this culture, men are dominant and have the power and authority, coupled with the defence and protection of female purity. So, the man of the family is responsible for guarding the female's sexual honour, financial support, and social well being. All the above restricts women's choices regarding education and employment (Al-Sheikh, 1998: 82-83).

As in many parts of the world, the Arab world is also changing in its own way. Every country in this region is taking a different path in its changing process due to cultural, political and social differences. However, all agree on developing and improving education, economic and employment.

Since the 1970-1983s, Arab countries have made much progress in advancing

women's education (Al-Najar, 1989: 141). This progress is different from one country to another according to certain factors such as population size and age, economic levels, socio-demographics, education and political systems. All (or some) of these factors play major roles in either facilitating or restricting women's education and employment. Although female literacy in Arab countries has developed recently this is still behind the level of men. Table 3.8 shows female literacy rates in 1970 and 1997 in some selected Arab countries in comparison with those of males.

Table 3.9: Development of female literacy rates between 1970 and 1997 in some selected Arab countries (Ages 15+)

Countries	1970		1997	
	Male %	Female %	Male %	Female %
Tunisia	44	17	78.1	55.8
Egypt	50	20	64.7	40.50
Jordan	64	29	92.2	81.8
Kuwait	65	42	83.1	77.5
UAE	27	7	73.9	76.9
Sudan	28	6	65.4	41.3
Algeria	39	11	72.7	47.7
Saudi Arabia	15	2	81	62.5

Source: Human Development Report (1990) pp136-138 and (1999) pp138-139.

It is clear from the table that in all countries male literacy is higher than females. Al-Rashidi (2000: 26) argued that the low rate among literacy of Saudi females has been inflated by the lack of education in the older age group. Taking the recent history of women's education in Saudi Arabia (1959) into consideration, it can be seen that Saudi Arabia made rapid progress in girls' education compared to other countries. This increase in Saudi women's literacy rate is due to the availability of girls' schools in almost every village in Saudi Arabia.

In examining the statistics, it must be stated that a good deal of work done by women may not be represented in statistics, especially in Arab countries. For example, agricultural work done by women, or work like sewing and crafts which are often carried out at home, may not be recorded since women are often not paid formal wages for this type of work. Work done in remote rural areas may also not be shown, especially where societies may be nomadic. In short, only women who work and earn wages are counted; women who are seeking work are not considered as 'economically

active' in the statistics. Furthermore, in countries where the female family members working undermine a family's social status, there may be a tendency to understate figures (Zuraik, 1999: 98).

Al-Rashidi (2000: 32) argued that the low rate of literacy among Arab women could explain, to a certain degree, their low participation rate in the labour force. In addition, the Arab's views of women's work, the socio-demographic characteristics of the population, the availability of jobs and the country's economic development can be considered as major factors in restricting and limiting women's participation in the labour force in Arab countries.

However, developments in the labour market have produced increased opportunities for Arab women, particularly in the education and health sectors, since these are considered to be "suitable" areas of work for women, and employ more women than other areas (Azam, 1999, Al-Assaf, 1986, Aurabi, 1999, Moghadem, 1998, Anker, 1998).

Women's employment in Arab countries is largely influenced by cultural, social factors, government policies and education. Aurabi also argue that one of the major factors affecting women's work in Arab countries is the widespread nature of sex segregation. This prevents women from taking up employment in environments where they will come into direct contact with men; for example, in work environments such as industry, tourism, trade, scientific research and factory work. While this alone does not prevent women from seeking work, it severely limits them and directs them towards certain areas of labour (Aurabi, 1999:63-72).

Elder and Johnson (1999: 448) argue that in Middle East and North Africa, for example, the education of young women and women's work outside the home are often discouraged, owing to strict sex segregation for reasons of religion and marriageability. Cultural practice and high fertility rates also play a large role in limiting women's economic opportunities.

Family responsibilities, especially for wives and mothers, are a most important factor which affects women's employment in Arab countries. Many women work in the public rather than the private sector because regulations regarding starting and finishing times, together with working hours, are more flexible in the public sector (Zuraik, 1999).

Al-Ataya (1983) asserts that education for women in Arab countries is designed largely to improve women in their role as wife and mother rather than equipping them for work. Having an education enhances a woman's reputation and standing; it also makes her a more attractive prospect as a marriage partner. Therefore, an education does not necessarily lead women into work in Arab countries.

Abu-Shekhah (1990) argues that few women (not more than 20%) are involved in paid work in Arab countries. This was felt to be because of the labour laws in these countries and a lack of job opportunities for women. As a result, most women were concentrated in work within the public sector, which offered security, better working hours and advantageous facilities in comparison with other sectors.

Although Egypt was the first Arab country which recognised the need for women to be economically independent, the level of women in paid work is still small in comparison with that in non-Arab countries. There are a large number of universities graduates and qualified women looking for employment but unable to find it. This is due to the limited opportunities available rather than an unwillingness to participate in the labour market (Ismail, 1994: 259).

However Al-Sheikh, (1998: 153-155) found that the employment of women in the private agriculture sector, in Egypt, increased sharply due to the international emigration and consequent lack of qualified males, and also the increased responsibility of the woman as the breadwinner for her household, motivated women to seek employment in this sector. She also found no significant evidence encouraging women to work in the industrial sector in Egypt. Industry has not been considered a traditional sector for women in the labour market.

UNESCO (1994) discussed the status of women in Arab countries, highlighting obstacles in both education and the labour market. The report asserted that female participation in the labour market in Arab countries was limited because of certain factors such as:

1. There was discrimination between males and females at both an educational and a developmental level.
2. Women were not taken into account during planning.
3. There was a mismatch between educational output and labour market needs.

4. Negative attitudes existed, both to the idea of women working and also to their skills and abilities.
5. There was discrimination between men and women in terms of salaries and promotion prospects.
6. There was a lack of training programmes for women and also a lack of a suitable environment and facilities, such as transport, childcare, etc.
7. Women faced difficulties regarding their dual role at work and at home.
8. There was no equality regarding the technical and vocational programmes for men and for women and, as a result, programmes were made to be better suited to men.

3.6 Woman's Status in the Arab Gulf States

Before discussing the situation of Saudi women in the labour market, it is worth looking briefly at women's status in Arab Gulf states, their education and their employment. As such, this section is divided into two parts. The first part will investigate the reasons behind the reliance on non-national labour in the Gulf States, while the second part will concentrate on women's education and employment in these countries compared with that of the Saudi situation.

Arab Gulf states: (Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Bahrain and Oman), were amongst the poorest in the world before the discovery of oil.

After the discovery of oil especially after 1970s, these countries found themselves amongst the wealthiest in the world and so began a period of development

Although there are differences between Saudi Arabia and these other states, they share similarities particularly with regard to religion, culture, social and economic activities. Therefore, their problems are similar. Saudi Arabia shares the following common background with the rest of the Gulf States:

1. Social structures: Society consists in all the states of Bedouins (nomadic people), of rural communities and urban dwellers.
2. Historical economic activities: Before the discovery of oil, the economies of the Gulf countries largely depended on agriculture, fishing, marine salvage and exploration, animal husbandry and trading.

3. Modern economic activities: These are now largely centred around oil and commerce, (Al-Rumayhy 1995: 36-57)

Also Al-Rumayhy added common factors regarding employment in that there is a widespread shortage of national labour and a heavy dependence on non-national workers. Also, most of the population is in education and there is a lack of women's participation in the labour market.

It is interesting to note, that most studies which examine the economies of the region, centre on the largest Gulf countries and these are the states which encourage the immigration of non-nationals into their labour markets. Such nations are known as "import" countries because of the large number of workers attracted to work there from outside (Al-Saleh, 1994: 14). Table 3.9 shows the number of non-national manpower in the labour market in the Arab Gulf states in comparison with nationals.

Table 3.10: Distribution of labour force in the Arab Gulf States in 1995 in (000s)

Variables	Saudi	Emirate	Bahrain	Oman	Qatar	Kuwait	Total
Population	19,241	2,241	564	2,163	505	1,576	26,290
%Non-national	29.0	70.0	36.0	26.0	72.0	58.0	35.0
Labour force	6,868	829	260	984	303	811	10,055
%of Non-national	65.0	90.0	59.0	46.0	90.0	80.0	67.0

Source: Al-Mukren, 1999: 5

The table shows that the number of non-nationals resident in the Gulf states is 35% of 26.2 million which equates to 9.2 million and of these 6.7 million are employed. The difference in these numbers is due to family members where the non-national is employed on a married contract and mohrams (close family member) where females are employed. Some of these family members also seek employment once they are resident. The 6.7 million non-nationals employed comprise 67% of the total workforce in the Gulf states and the breakdown by state is as follows: Saudi Arabia 65% non-nationals in the total workforce, Kuwait 80%, UAE and Qatar 90%, Oman 46% and Bahrain 59%.

According to several studies, the lack of national manpower in the Gulf States stems from the discovery of oil when most of the national labour force was employed

in the public sector. For example, Al-Saleh (1994: 14-15) mentioned the main reasons being:

1. The national workers lack the necessary technical skills.
2. Technical training and education was very late in getting started because of poor planning regarding the needs of the labour force. As a result, output does not match the needs.
3. There is a lack of co-ordination between the public and the private sector as far as education and training is concerned.
4. Non-nationals have better skills and experience than their national counterparts.
5. Non-nationals accept lower wages than nationals.

Humedan (1999) argues that although there was a high percentage of non-national manpower the unemployment within nationals has increased. The Ministries of Labour and Social Affairs in Gulf States stated that 70%-90% of unemployed nationals were not ready to work because they lacked suitable training.

Humedan added some factors behind the unemployment which are: unnecessary and uncontrolled importation of non-nationals, there is inefficiency in the appropriate departments responsible for controlling non-national labour, and there is abuse of government incentives regarding the importation of non-nationals.

Redha, (1991: 19) strongly argues that higher education in the Gulf states is unable to provide qualified national labour to the labour market because the programmes and courses which are given to the students do not match with the needs of the states and the labour market as well.

Some conclusions from research done in some Gulf states show the main factors affecting the lack of nationals employed in the private sector are: mismatch between educational output and the private sector needs, lack of labour market information, low salaries and no job security in the private sector compared to the public sector and a negative attitude from society towards certain jobs (Al-Jaasim, 1999, Al-Hazmi, 1999, Al-Mukren, 1999).

Regarding women's education, all the Gulf states were initially concerned with traditional education to qualify women as teachers and for the health sector. Comparing the level of women's education in Saudi Arabia with the Arab Gulf states

will help to recognise the level of education for women in Saudi Arabia within these states.

The first girls' school in the Gulf states were founded in Saudi Arabia and in Kuwait in 1912. In Bahrain it was founded in 1928. The first university founded in the Gulf States was in Saudi Arabia (1957) which was (King Saud University) and then Kuwait University in 1966 followed by Qatar University in 1973. UAE, Bahrain and Oman Universities were founded in 1977, 1978 and 1986 respectively.

In higher education, women have made significant gains in enrolment in all Gulf states (Al- Derkzli, 2000: 162). It is interesting to find, that in 1998 the rate of women enrolled in higher education in the Gulf States were between 50.2% in Oman and 75% in Qatar from the total of all students who enrolled in higher education in each state.

In the Gulf states, in general, there are equal opportunities in education for males and females in all levels of education. It can be seen that girls enrolled in higher education, in all the states, were higher than boys. However the majority of females are concentrated in education and humanities subjects rather than technical and scientific subjects see Table 3.2

3.6.1 Planning TEVT for women in Gulf States

In general, all Arab Gulf states have tried and are trying to develop their TEVT facilities for all levels. Their objectives are to be economically viable and to offset the high dependency on foreign labour with national labour. Due to the importance of this type of education some of the Gulf states (Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Oman) have established separate organisations to oversee this development.

In Bahrain, which from amongst the Gulf states has the smallest income, women were the first to enter the labour market in comparison with the other states. Bahrain has attempted to qualify women in new technologies such as design and IT (UNESCO, 1994).

Subsequently, most Gulf states have tried developing their TEVT for women through higher technical education, and women today have opportunities to study technical and vocational subjects within Colleges of Technology and some Technical Institutes. In some Gulf states, women enrolled in these Colleges of Technology

represent more than 50% of the total of enrolled students. In the UAE there are nine colleges for subjects such as: accountancy, communications, and information systems, computing and engineering. The total number of enrolled students in the Colleges of Technology in the UAE (1998) was 6,505 of which 58% were women (Al-Humaidi, 1999: 7). The College of Technology in Qatar which includes engineering, IT, electronics etc. had 460 enrolled students in 1997 with 65% of these being women. In Kuwait, which gives more emphasis to this type of education for women, in 1998 the total number of students graduated from higher TEVT was 3,600 students of which over 55% were females. Also the number of women who graduated from secondary technical education in the same period was 1,167 students representing 46% of the total. Between 1985-1998 the total number of students who graduated from TEVT in Kuwait was 60,655 with 48% being women (Al-Nafisi, 1999: 46).

In Oman for example, there are five technical colleges which include specialised fields such as IT, accountancy, marketing, electronics, electrical and engineering. In 1997 the total number of enrolled students in these colleges was 2,665 with women forming 35% of this total (Al-Humaidi, 1999: 15).

These figures show that for the Gulf states in general, there is a steady increase in the number of women enrolled in TEVT and presently there are more females than males enrolled in higher TEVT. The situation in Saudi Arabia, by contrast, in the year 2000, the total number of students enrolled in TEVT was 50,464 of which women represented about 10%.

3.6.2 Women's employment in Gulf states

By 1975, total female employment in the Gulf still represented less than 8% of the total labour force in the region; a proportion which would be significantly reduced if the non-national female component was excluded (Azam and Mujabbar, 1985: 60). However, in 1997 the rate of women's participation in economic activities in the Gulf states was between 4.7% and 31% of the total labour force (Al-Musned, 1999: 32). The percentage of women in the adult labour force in the Gulf states in 1995-1997 was highest in Kuwait with 31%, Bahrain 19%, Oman 14% and the lowest were Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the UAE with 13% (UN, 2000: 146-47).

Al-Assaf (1986: 145-146) argues that the contribution of the education sector in employing more women than other areas in the Gulf states is because this is the most popular area for women to find work in the Gulf states. This popularity is due to the employment opportunities, the working environment and the hours of employment; but even so, women constitute not more than 6% of the total workforce.

Although professional jobs in Gulf States are preferred sectors of employment by national women this sector still employs non-national women in the private sector. Table 3.10 confirms this and shows the absence of national women employed in the private schools in most States.

Table 3.11: Number of national and non-national women teachers in the private schools in Gulf States in 1998

Country	Primary		Intermediate		Secondary	
	National	Non-national	National	Non-national	National	Non-national
Kuwait	0.0	2021	0.0	1125	0.0	818
Bahrain	160	1024	160	1024	160	1024
Qatar	0.0	859	0.0	224	0.0	136
UAE	22	5485	2	2559	2	2559
Oman	47	706	1	38	0.0	16
*Saudi Arabia	1500	3244	388	891	260	969

Source: The Co-operation Council for The Arab States of the Gulf (GCC);, Statistical Yearbook, 2000, Tables 21, 22 and 23.

* See GPGE, 1999, Girls Education in 39 years, GPGE, Riyadh. p. 93,106, 119

The situation of women in the labour market was discussed at the UNESCO Conference in 1994. Developing countries were divided into three categories, according to their economic and social similarities. These groups were: (a) the Gulf states (b) Africa (c) Latin America.

For the purposes of this study, the Gulf states are obviously of greater interest and are gathered together because of their dependence on oil. The conference concluded that it was particularly important for Gulf countries to develop technical and vocational jobs for women, especially in the fields of computing and IT.

According to UNESCO (1994: 35), Bahrain has started to qualify women in the new technology such as design and IT.

Ba-Eshen (1997: 75-76) argued that although there is a need for national labour in the Gulf states, these countries employ very few national women in paid jobs. This

is due to certain factors such as lack of education and training for women in comparison with men, lack of job opportunities and negative attitudes from society towards women's work.

According to General Secretary of Arab United Technological Education (1988: 193-206) technical education in the Gulf states was unable to qualify the necessary national labour force in the technical field. This was due to: lack of technical qualified staff, a mismatch between the educational output and the labour market needs, negative attitudes from students towards TEVT and limited administration and planning.

Al-Ghanem (1992: 149-152) argued that the main reason behind the reliance on non-national labour in Qatar is the mismatch between the educational output and the labour market needs. As a result, there are high numbers of university graduates with subjects not needed by the private sector and a shortage of qualified students in technical subjects. Therefore, he highlighted the importance of linking educational output with the labour market needs.

Zakaria (1998: 48) and Al-Musned (1999: 30) argued that the majority of women in the Gulf states are concentrated in the public sector because it provides more facilities for women than in the private sector such as high salaries, short working hours, longer holidays, childcare and transportation.

Al-Nuhaian (1996: 202-222) found that the main factors affecting women choosing work in the UAE were: for social status, to be independent, to support the national economy, to support family income and to get experience respectively. While the main factors preventing women's employment were cultural, social factors and lack of facilities. However, the main factors encouraging women to work were provision of separate environments from men and the availability of part-time employment.

Al-Marzooki, (1994: 370, 380) in his study for developing TEVT in Qatar found that there was a negative attitude from the majority of students towards the role of women in the labour market. Also, the majority of staff believed that women must stay at home and look after the children, many female staff agreed with this, while student girls were willing to participate in the labour market. Also, male and female students believed that women are not allowed to work in certain areas because of

religion. Al-Marzooki suggested some alternative policies to develop TEVT in Qatar. The most important being to create a relationship between the educational institutions and the private sector to consider encouraging women's participation in vocational occupations within the framework of Islamic Law and the traditions and values of society (Al-Marzooki, 1994: 397-402).

The majority of women working in Qatar are in the public sector particularly in the education sector which employs more than 90% of the total of women working in the public sector. The main factors affecting women's employment in Qatar were social restriction, lack of job opportunities and the negative attitudes from women to work in the private sector (Al-Musned, 1997: 149-150 in Al-Kuari).

In Kuwait (Al-Rakum and Al-Hamdan, 2000: 2-6), ladies' authorities in the health sector argued that negative attitudes from society and the nature of work in the health sector are the main factors affecting the lack of national women working in nursery jobs. However, education output in the Gulf states is still the main factor affecting women's employment, therefore development of national employment in the private sector needs to give more importance to education and training to match with the needs of the private sector (Al-Mukren, 1999: 24, Al-Sultan, 1999: 28).

Abdulhafedh (1999: 36) emphasis that TEVT in Bahrain still needs development to match with the private sector needs. He suggested some recommendations to develop national manpower in Bahrain in technical areas such as:

- More importance in secondary technical education especially in subjects needed by the private sector.
- Reducing enrolment of students in higher education in subjects not needed (humanities)
- More co-operation between educational institutions and the private sector.
- More important for research or studies in TEVT
- Establishing an information system for employment.
- Encouraging women to participate in the industrial sector in fields which are suitable for women.

Finally Al-Saleh (1994: 26-33) suggested some alternative recommendations which will help to replace non-national with national workers in the Gulf states such as:

1. Developing an educational policy to give greater importance to technical education.
2. Encouraging qualified women to fill vacant posts in technical fields.
3. Giving greater importance to specific subjects and areas needed by the labour market.
4. Changing the attitudes of society towards technical education.
5. Establishing technical and vocational institutions especially for women in order to qualify them for specific fields and to utilise them for economic development.
6. Encouraging the private sector to replace non-nationals with national workers over a period of time.
7. Reviewing labour laws to ensure the gradual replacement of non-nationals with national workers.
8. Co-ordinating efforts among the Gulf states by developing their labour forces and human resources and by making policies which ensure greater co-operation.
9. Increasing the number of childcare centres which will help women to work.

3.7 Summary

The overall picture given by the statistics and information available supports the view that, world-wide, women's participation in the labour market is substantially different from that of men.

In all countries surveyed, women are mostly concentrated in the services sector, in particular in education and the health areas. This is due to sex segregation or cultural and social values.

Women's participation in the labour market in developed countries was generally a matter of economic necessity. In order to increase women's participation facilities were provided such flexible working and further education opportunities.

An interesting result was found that all countries surveyed gave more importance to women's education and training. However, unequal opportunities between men and women in vocational education still exist in developing countries, in general, and in Arab countries in particular.

In the Gulf states in general, there is a steady increase in the number of women enrolled in TEVT and presently there are more females than males enrolled in higher

education in particular in education and social sciences subjects.

The majority of the literature for the Gulf states is concerned with women's employment in the labour market, it emphasises the need for the educational output to match the needs of the labour market.

Chapter Four will investigate women's education and employment in Iran.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF IRAN

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to supply background details of the Islamic Republic of Iran's socio-economic and socio-political history, and women's education and training in order to understand the situation of women's participation in the labour market in Iran.

4.2 Geographical Aspects of Iran

4.2.1 Location and landscape

Iran occupies a special strategic position in the Middle East. It has long been a geopolitical crossroads and has an area of 1,648,000 square kilometres. It is therefore, after Saudi Arabia, the second largest country with 25 provinces in the region (Sanaie, 1998: 1).

Iran is a wide country located in the southwest of Asia neighbouring the Caspian Sea, Turkmenistan, Azarbaijan and Armenia in the north; Afghanistan and Pakistan in the east; Turkey and Iraq in the west. All southern borders of the country reach to the shores of the Persian Gulf (the Arabian Gulf) and the Sea of Oman.

Generally, Iran has a dry and hot climate, particularly in the south, with rain occurring particularly on the Central Plateau; in the north the weather is colder (Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance, 1998: 3).

4.2.2 Religion and the political system

The official religion of Iran is Islam (Shiite), and about 99.56% of people are Muslims. The common official language, representing about 60% of speakers, is Farsi (the Persian language). After Farsi, Turkish is the most common language in Iran; this represents 26% and others, such as Kurdash and Arabic represent 14% (Farr, 1999: 8).

The government of Iran is an "Islamic Republic" which was founded after the Islamic Revolution in 1979. In accordance with the Constitution, the President, members of the Islamic Consultative Assembly (Parliament), and members of different councils who are directly elected by the people, administer the country.

Executive power is under the supervision of the President who is directly elected by the people for a duration of four years. Judiciary power is supportive of individuals. As well as social rights, of the nation. The highest body of judiciary power is the Judicial High Council. The members of this council are heads of the Supreme Court, the Attorney General and three clergymen judges who are elected for five years.

Iran is divided into 28 provinces, 252 townships and 680 districts. A governor-general for each township administers each province and each district is represented by a lieutenant governor (Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance, 1998: 17).

4.3 Economy

Iran is rich in natural resources. Currently oil is the largest single export commodity, with significant exportation of other minerals and agricultural products.

Agriculture is given special importance in national economic development plans. The main agricultural products are wheat, barley, rice, cotton, beets and cereals, with excess production of fruits and vegetables also exported.

The most important industrial units of Iran are steel, oil and petrochemicals, clothing, foodstuffs and the auto, glass and wood industries. In addition to these industries, traditional handicrafts and carpet production have a particular value for the Iranian economy.

The economy of Iran, from an ownership point of view, is composed of three sectors: private, governmental (public) and co-operative. Presently, only 2.5% of the country's economy is owned by co-operatives and the most dominant ownership is concentrated in the governmental and private sectors.

In 1995, the contribution of different economic sector to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was 26.9% from agriculture, 23.7% from industry and mining, 42.9% from services and 18.1% from oil, on the basis of price factors (the fixed prices of 1982) (Ebtakar, 1994: 2-3).

For a long time, the agriculture sector has played a major role in Iran's economy and its positive contribution under specific conditions, such as war with Iraq, has importance. This important sector, which is responsible for the food supply of the country, is responsible for about one third of the total number of employed

people. In 1997, about 28% of the Iranian workforce was in the agricultural sector with agricultural exports making up approximately 30% of non-oil exports (Farr, 1999: 71).

4.4 Women in Iran and the Islamic Revolution (1979)

In Iran, the role and position of women have undergone tremendous changes from the period before the revolution, through the revolutionary years themselves, and since the revolution ended. Therefore, in order to understand the economic, social, cultural, political situation of Iranian women, the period from the revolution of 1979 and at present needs to be considered.

Poya (1999: 9-10) divided this period into three: the revolution period (1979-81); the war with Iraq (1980-89) and the post-war period (after 1989).

Salehi (2001:38; in Esfandiari 1997) describes women's roles during the revolution as follows:

“In the year or so of political turmoil preceding the overthrow of the monarchy, women, too, were caught up in the revolutionary fervour. Huge numbers from across the political and social spectrum took part in the mass demonstrations and protests of 1978 (Religious and secular women, the politically active and the apolitical, women from the political left and political right, poor, middle-class, and wealthy women, housewives and working women, rural women and urbanites.) Those who did not take part in the marches and protests came out in the streets anyway, to watch or to cheer. Women organised protest meetings, strikes and strike committees and joined fellow civil servants in work stoppages.”

In the first years of the revolution the state made it difficult for women to work and forbade it; women were removed from jobs in the legal profession and many lost their government posts. A decree forbade women from becoming judges, for example. The co-educational schools were abolished; women teachers were assigned to girls' schools and men to boys' schools. The nursing profession was also subjected to gender segregation. The wearing of Islamic dress by all females was compulsory. This “uniform” covered the whole body apart from the face and hands. Motherhood and wifedom were considered the most important tasks for women, while bread-winning was taken to be the responsibility of men. Therefore, during this period women played less of a role in the labour market. Nevertheless the public

behaviour of women and the policy of sex segregation remained important politically. In this period the biological and psychological differences between men and women were stressed. Therefore, women and men had to be prepared to live differently (Poya, 1999: 11, 65-67). Also during that time, all education materials were revised to eliminate traces of un-Islamic attitudes (Afsher, 1998: 65).

After the revolution, many secular women chose to leave the state. For example, one girl, "Alma", explained the situation after the Islamic revolution as follows: she argued that "I felt I was nothing but a subhuman in that society". The Islamic state in Iran was founded on sexual apartheid as well as dictatorship and repression. Under this system of apartheid, women were directly segregated and secluded by the laws of the state. There was no way out. This regimen was about absolute control over the female body and mind. Women were limited to the rights, roles and tasks that the state saw fit for them (Poya, 1999: 79).

Of the opposite opinion regarding Islamic women, Zahra Rahnavard, a state spokesperson on women's issues, argued that:

"women under the previous system entered employment for a number of reasons: dissatisfaction with the family's budget if the man's earnings were insufficient, a few because of their specialisation, but generally a sense of insecurity regarding the family. The Shah's objective was, therefore, to disrupt family life, to increase bureaucracy, to invoke sexual chaos, and generally create pro-western family life." (Poya, 1999: 135)

During the war with Iraq (1980-1989), women were mobilised to support the soldiers at the war front and to take over some of the jobs men left behind. In 1984, women could participate in economic, political and social affairs according to Islamic laws and regulations. At the same time, women were viewed as having the home and family as their primary responsibility while men remained responsible for the financial support of their family circle.

Poya (1999: 78) describes this time:

"In this period, the state gradually changed its policy of self-sufficiency and its attempt to operate in isolation from a world economy dominated by the West, while continuing the slogan of 'neither East, nor West'."

In this period, regarding women's participation in the labour market, women were considered as a labour resource by the government; they could contribute to the economic activities of the nation. According to Poya (1999: 77):

“The Iran-Iraq war reduced the supply of male labour...The war and the war economy increased the supply of women seeking work or resisting exclusion... The role of the war was not limited to its effect on the supply of and demand for female labour; it raised ideological issues concerning the very legitimacy of the State's hegemony.”

“However, women's preference for work in the state sector was determined by gender ideology, enforced by the state's policy and practice. State workplaces were physically large, and sexual segregation and social control could be implemented easily in order to avoid *fesad* (moral degeneration).” (Poya, 1999: 87)

Consequently, the state, from 1989 until the present has tried to facilitate and legitimise women to be more active outside the home. Also in this period, family law, education and employment regulations were reformed. As a result, women enjoyed more rights to participate in economic, social, cultural and political activities, and considerable achievements in employment were made. One of the striking features of this period was the increasing participation of females at all levels of the educational system, and particularly in higher education.

Salehi (2001: 113 in Esfandiari 1997) argues that, during this later period,

“women are also evident in large numbers in government offices and in the private sector, as secretaries and clerical staff but also in junior and mid-level management positions. In government ministries, there are a number of women serving as director-generals (one level below deputy ministers). Women are running government-controlled cultural and research centres, hospitals, and sport centres, children's, and youth organisations. The phenomenon is even more striking in the private sector, where women have gone into business on their own, running import-export operations, bookstores and the like.”

4.5 The State and Reform of Women's Employment After 1979

After the Revolution, the government saw the need to encourage women into the workforce and to make moves towards a more equitable society in terms of women's rights, especially with regard to labour. This gave rise to a number of major legislation initiatives. According to Moghadam (1998: 162, 174-176), the government of Iran, in the 1980s and early 1990, created a number of major initiatives regarding

women's employment, some of which were submitted to the World Conference in Nairobi in Kenya in 1995 (Farr, 1999: 97-98). The developments were as follows:

1. Providing technical and on-the-job training for women.
2. Increasing leave entitlement of women workers from 12 days to one month.
3. Establishing centres for the employment of women.
4. Offering a variety of training courses for rural women.
5. Guaranteeing equal payment for men and women.
6. Encouraging women to enter scientific and technical fields which were consistent with women's physical and mental characteristics.
7. Establishing female quotas of 25% in the fields of neurology, brain surgery, cardiology and similar specialisations.

Regarding women in labour legislation, certain conditions were made in 1992 by the Higher Council of the Cultural Revolution to develop women's employment. These included:

1. Women were given the holiness of motherhood and the role of rearing future generations. They were also expected to manage the household, as well as play their part in the process of economic and cultural development. Their moral and material value in the family and their work at home had to be given due consideration.
2. The atmosphere of the workplace and the working conditions for women had to be such that would permit their moral, scientific and vocational development, without harming their religious beliefs, personality, prestige and mental and physical health.
3. Considering women's role in social progress and economic development, and given the fact that they made up half of the population of the country, facilities had to be devised by the relevant institutions for their employment, and planning had to be carried out according to priorities. In addition, laws were to be passed for the employment of women in jobs; women had to be treated just like men, without being discriminated against. The following decisions were made regarding work for women:

- a) Certain areas of work were agreed as acceptable by religious judges (share') as appropriate for women, such as gynaecology, certain medical and para-medical fields and teaching.
 - b) Other jobs which were seen as suitable to women's physical and mental characteristics included laboratory sciences, electronics, pharmacology, social work and translation.
 - c) Some jobs, such as simple technical or service tasks, were seen as being specifically for neither men or women; in others, selection was made naturally. The criteria for selection were to include such things as experience and expertise, not gender.
 - d) Some jobs were deemed unsuitable for women due to religious prohibition, harsh working conditions or cultural values. These were jobs such as jurisprudence (becoming a judge) and fire fighting.
4. Suitable choices had to be made and suitable fields of employment were to be found for women. Facilities also had to be made available to educate and expert women so that their role in the family did not interfere with their social activities.
 5. In determining the value of their work in equal circumstances, equal wages had to be paid to men and women.
 6. Given the importance attached to the solid foundation of the family by the Islamic Republic of Iran, and given the educational and constructive role played by women at home, the necessary regulations and facilities had to be adopted, such as paid leave, shorter hours of work, retirement and pension benefits after a shorter period of service, job security, and unemployment, illness, disability and old age benefits for women.
 7. Opportunities had to be provided for women to receive technical and vocational training and to engage in suitable jobs.
 8. Opportunities also had to be provided for homemakers to work at home while taking care of their children, without time limitations, while receiving wages and co-operative facilities. (Moghadem, 1998: 175-176)

In April 1985, the government passed legislation to allow women's part-time work (Poya, 1999: 80).

4.6 Education in Iran

In 1980, in Iran, all institutions of higher education closed, only opening again four years later with the slogan “Religion before Science”. Changes were introduced, such as the proviso that all applicants must believe in Islam or another religion recognised by the Islamic institution; applicants were not allow affiliation to political parties not recognised by the government and male applicants had to have completed military service. For women applicants, the ideology of Islam regarding gender had to be demonstrated. Women were not admitted to many courses in scientific and technical fields while other courses submitted only women. Unmarried women were not allowed to study abroad.

In the latter part of the 1980s, the education system was reformed to allow women greater freedom to participate in areas which had previously been prohibited. In spite of the previous prohibitions, women closed the gap between themselves and men regarding literacy rates and enrolment in higher education for women increased.

According to Article 3 of the Constitution, the government is responsible for providing free educational opportunities up to secondary level for Iranian citizens. The latter article obliges the government to provide free education and access to higher education until the country achieves self-sufficiency (Djawaheri, 1990: 12, 13).

The first modern high school, Darl-al-Funun (Technical School) was established in 1851. This school is considered an important scientific and cultural step in the history of modern education in Iran. In 1855, the Ministry of Education was established and most of the top graduates of Darl-al-Funun were among them (Ebtikari, 1994: 2-3).

Elementary schooling in the modern educational sense did not begin in Iran until the late nineteenth century. It began later than higher education. In 1921, the Ministry of Education drew up the first full programme for elementary and secondary education to exist in Iran. In 1928, the high school teacher training programme became a separate school known as the Teacher Training College and in 1934 for the first time accepted women (Shahnazari, 1992: 90-97).

The University of Tehran was founded in 1934. Currently, the government of the Islamic Republic of Iran provides education to 16 million students (including pre-school children). Children under six years of age account for 11.5 million, and

annually 1.5 million is added to those eligible for elementary schools. In order to accommodate this growth in the student population, the government has allowed private schools to be established (Ebtikari, 1994: 2).

4.6.1 Educational stages in Iran

In addition to the pre-elementary stage for those under six years of age, the educational system of Iran consists of the following stages:

- **Primary Education**

The primary stage is the first stage of formal education. In this stage, children between 6 and 10 years of age are admitted for 5 years of study.

- **Guidance Cycle stage**

This is an intermediate stage and takes three years for children from 11 to 13 years of age. In this cycle, students become familiar with sciences; it also enables them to find their area of interest and choose their field of speciality in secondary school.

- **Secondary stage**

This four-year stage is for students from 14 to 18 years of age. After having successfully passed the courses for the guidance cycle, pupils will continue their studies in one of two primary areas: theoretical (academic), or technical and vocational. In the case of the academic route, secondary education is divided into two major fields of study, experimental sciences and humanities, which both lead to high school diplomas.

- **Higher Education**

A variety of major fields of study are available with most majors having Bachelors, Masters and PhD degree programmes.

4.6.2 Government body for education in Iran

The government body for education includes the following committees or ministries:

- **Higher Council for Education Planning**

The Higher Council of Education is an autonomous and legislative body, which approves all policies and regulations, related to education at pre-university level (Djawaheri, 1990: 26).

- **Supreme Council for Technical Education**

The Supreme Council for Technical Education is the sole government body responsible for policy-making decisions related to both formal and non-formal technical and vocational education in Iran.

- **Ministry of Science and Technology (MST)**

This ministry is responsible for planning and monitoring the establishment and expansion of higher education and research units in sciences and technology in both public and private sector in line with the requirements of the nation's socio-economic development plans.

- **Ministry of Health, Treatment and Medical Education (MHTME)**

This ministry is responsible for higher education in the medical sciences. It is also responsible for planning and monitoring the establishment and expansion of this type of education and research in the field of medicine.

- **Ministry of Education (ME)**

This ministry is responsible for supervising all general education phases: primary, intermediate, secondary and TEVT. It is also responsible for intermediate colleges. These colleges specialise in initial teacher training and provide schools with teachers.

4.6.3 Development of education in Iran

In the years following the Islamic revolution, the system of education in Iran changed from a western system (co-education) to an Islamic system (separation of the sexes). As a result, the literacy rate for women increased from 35.5% in 1976 to 75% in 1999 (Iranians Residing Abroad, 1999: 76-78).

Table 4.1 shows the number of students enrolled in general education by gender for three periods: 1985, 1990 and 1995. It can be seen that there were equal opportunities in general education between males and females, especially after 1990.

Table 4.1: Students enrolled in general education (boys and girls) in Iran from 1985 to 1995

Level	1985		1990		1995	
	Total	Female %	Total	Female %	Total	Female %
Pre-primary school	106,986	47.0	227,492	48.0	141,728	48.0
Primary school	6,788,323	44.0	9,369,646	46.0	9,745,600	47.0
Secondary school	3,204,445	40.0	4,822,087	42.0	7,284,611	45.0

Source: UNESCO, 1999, Statistical Yearbook: Tables 11-4, 11-5, 11-6

It is interesting to find, however, that the number of girls enrolled in teacher training institutions and in TEVT was low compared to boys during the period between 1990 and 1995. See Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Students enrolled in Teacher Training and TEVT (boys and girls) in Iran from 1985 to 1995

Level	1985		1990		1995	
	Total	Female %	Total	Female %	Total	Female %
Teacher Training	32,684	33.0	48,256	41.0	21,210	36.0
TEVT	230,061	20.0	260,576	20.0	341,008	24.0

Source: UNESCO, 1999, Statistical Yearbook: Table 11-6

4.6.4 Women in higher education in Iran

Higher education in Iran is divided into two main groups: 'public' and 'private' institutions. Depending on the particular field of study, higher education is organised and supervised by the two ministries, MST and MHTME.

At present there are 49 universities affiliated with the MST, 33 affiliated with the MHTME, and 61 universities and other higher centres affiliated with other ministries. In addition to public universities there are private universities in Iran which include: the Open University (Daneshgah Islamic Azad) which was established after the revolution in 1985. This university has branches throughout Iran and offers all levels of higher education (Bachelor, Master and PhD degrees in social sciences, humanities, pure science maths, engineering and medicine). Adult learners who wish to upgrade their professional skills can take non-degree courses offered by this university. Providing pre- and in-service training opportunities for teachers is a

main concern of this higher education network (Djawaheri, 1990: 16). The Open University has many centres throughout the country and admits 600,000 students in 421 fields of study.

The Distance Education University (Daneshgahe Payame Noor University) was established in 1988. This university is able to provide educational facilities in all social and technical subjects for anyone who needs to learn in this way, for example, individuals living in deprived and distant regions, housewives and employees. At present, the University of Daneshgahe Payame Noor has 130 branches across the country, providing services to more than 200,000 students (Salehi, 2001: 10).

Recently the number of women in higher education in Iran has grown. Table 4.3 shows that 24.7% out of the total number of students who enrolled in higher education in 1970 were females. This percentage increased to 36.1% in 1997. In 1997, about 33.8% of the total number of students who graduated from higher education were females, compared to 25.9% in 1980.

Table 4.3: Total number of students enrolled and graduates from higher education between the years of 1970-97

Year	Enrolled			Graduates		
	Total	Female	%	Total	Female	%
1970	67,268	16,949	24.7	11,769	3,051	25.9
1978	160,308	49,510	30.9	39,608	12,367	31.2
1979	175,675	54,248	30.5	3,559	10,233	28.8
1980	174,217	53,571	30.7	43,221	12,507	28.9
1990	281,392	78,573	28.0	37,384	10,734	28.7
1996-97	579,070	209,163	36.1	83,882	28,361	33.8

Source: Salehi, 2001: 23 in MCHE, 1998

The following table (Table 4.4) shows the number and percentage of women enrolled in higher education by subjects in comparison with men. It is interesting to see that the number of women in Art and Medicine were greater than that of men. They represent 54.8% and 53.6% respectively of the total number of students enrolled in the two fields, while the numbers of women in other subjects of studies was low compared to men. In engineering and agriculture, for example, women represented only 10.8% and 31.4% respectively from the total number of students enrolled in these fields of study.

Table 4.4: Number of students enrolled in higher education by field of study in 1997

Level of study	Total of students	Females	
		No.	%
Humanities	264,793	111,096	42.0
Sciences	89,631	40,963	45.7
Agriculture	35,632	11,173	31.4
Engineering	118,813	12,820	10.8
Medicine	98,273	52,645	53.6
Art	18,238	9,990	54.8
Total	625,380	238,687	38.2

Source: Salehi, 2001: 11 in MCHE, 1998

Regarding women staff in higher education, the number of women is still low compared to men. In 1998, there were about 25,391 full-time teaching staff in public universities and higher institutions, of which only 4,927 were women, representing 19.4% of the total (Salehi, 2001: 11).

4.6.5 Modern Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) in Iran

The establishment of a technical school in 1907 in Tehran officially started technical and vocational education. This school was divided into two branches: wood and metal work. In 1928 the number of schools increased to nine. In 1928 a woman's vocational school was developed (UNESCO, 1995: 18).

In 1930, the first modern technical college was established in Iran. This college was designed to educate skilled manpower after high school training. As such, it was seen as higher education in the technological field. The college intended to be complementary to the Faculty of Engineering of the University of Tehran, which is an academically oriented institution (Ebtikari, 1994: 2-3).

Because of the rapid growth of Iran's industry during the 1960s, demand for educated and specialised manpower rose significantly. As a result, the government concentrated on establishing universities, colleges of technology and TVE high schools. Institutes of technology were founded in a number of cities to educate skilled workers and technicians.

In Iran, TVE was divided into two organisations: formal TVE under the supervision of the Ministry of Education (ME) or the Ministry of Science and

Technology (MST), and non-formal TVE under the supervision of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare (MLSW).

- **Formal TVE**

Modern formal TVE in Iran is divided into two fields: Higher Technological Education (HTE) and Secondary Technical Education (STE)

1. HTE falls under the supervision of the Ministry of Science and Technology. Such colleges offer three-year courses which run after completion of degree programmes in TVE schools or technical colleges. These courses lead to bachelor degrees in a variety of TVE fields.
2. STE falls under the supervision of the Ministry of Education and such an education can be substituted for formal education after completion of the Guidance Cycle. TVE programmes are designed to improve the nature of human resources in the country in order to increase productivity.

- **Non-Formal TVE**

Non-formal Technical and Vocational programmes is under the supervision of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. This programme primarily trains individuals with minimal formal education (usually primary education) for vocational work such as barber training and welding. These training programmes vary in duration and are usually short (just a few months).

4.6.6 Development of THE in Iran

The lack of proper Technical and Vocational teachers is one of the most important obstacles that TVE face in Iran. Under these circumstances the enrolment ratio of general education students compared to TVE schools was 90:10. Consequently, the country is facing a shortage of skilled manpower in areas of technology (Ebtikari, 1994: 2-4).

The Supreme Council for Technological Education, under the supervision of the President of Iran has taken several positive steps in strengthening and promoting TVE during its two years of existence. Some of these measures are:

- The establishment of the Union of Universities of Technology (UUT). The UUT is an educational and research organisation under the supervision of MST. UUT aims to provide common facilities, as well as to provide the linkage between the industry and educational institutions to train and educate the required human resources in the TVE fields for the country.
- The incorporation of TVE in the second Five- Year National Economic Development Plan (March 1994 to March 1999), insuring budgetary and planning commitments.
- International Seminar on Technological Education to be held in Tehran in 1994, for the purpose of information exchange and utilisation of other countries' experience in the TVE field.
- Establishment of Teachers Training School, the most important shortcoming of the TVE programme in Iran is in the area of teachers and instructors. The Supreme Council has approved the establishment of this school under the supervision of UUT.

The University of Applied Science and Technology (UAST) was founded in 1992 as a research and educational institution to cover the objectives of technology transfer process between academic and productive sectors in Iran. The UAST directs the academic activities toward real technological needs of Iranian industrial and service sectors. It also intends to organise the total educational investments of public and private organisations to achieve an optimal situation of related cost-effectiveness analysis. In order to cover these goals, new attitudes and management practices were introduced by this university to increase the involvement of private sector and individual educational institutions which are affiliated to public organisations in designing and developing job-specific courses for upgrading their existing and prospective employees.

At the beginning, the university was named the Union of Universities of Technology (UUT) as a federation of Technical Education institutions. The mission of UUT was to perform planning, directing and control over higher TE institutions across the country. Then, UUT was re-named to the University of Applied Science and Technology (UAST) in 1993 and since then, with the new academic cadre and directorship, the UAST has tried to direct the educational and research activities of its institutions to meet the real needs of the economic sectors. In this regard, its strategic

missions are to improve the structure of active human resource in the country and to increase productivity. In this respect, the main objectives of the UAST are:

- To upgrade and update the knowledge and skills of employees.
- To transfer technological knowledge and job experience.
- To exploit potential resources.
- To train applicants and prepare them for employment.
- To improve relationships between universities and industries by creating an appropriate climate where technological infrastructure and human resources together can be utilised effectively.
- To direct educational investment in industrial and service sectors in order to maximise financial and non-financial potential and support for the training and education of qualified manpower.

All of these must be accomplished under the regulations and standards of the MST.

The UAST attracted the support of both public and private organisations to allocate facilities for training and educating workers and personnel needed by the economic and social sectors.

UAST administers all aspects of accreditation and approval in technological education institutions. It approves their faculties, curriculum, acceptance and examination procedures and their enrolment and rewarding of degrees.

UAST has representatives in 16 provinces of Iran which act as branches for UAST and collect information regarding the courses which meet the needs of each region of the country.

- **Main role of UAST**

Within five years of its establishment, UAST now directs and controls 87 technological institutions in 16 provinces all over the nation. 8,657 students already study applied sciences and technology courses in 145 higher education courses. There are a number of specific courses which other traditional universities do not offer. Flexibility is the most important feature of this university and modern and specific courses are designed which meet the needs of the economy. Most of the current

students receive education courses which lead to an Associate Degree or to Bachelor or postgraduate levels.

A number of other organisations have permission from UAST to offer A.A., B.A., and M.S. degrees in the following courses: electronic and power supply studies, recycled paper technology, aviation repair and maintenance, fishery and dairy farm technology, environmental management, glass technology, mining and mineral resources, horse breeding, chicken and egg hatchery, silkworm breeding, motor technology etc.

4.6.7 Structure of TEVT in Iran

At present the structure of technical and vocational education in Iran according to ME and MST (1999), can be outlined as follows:

- **Higher Technical Education (HTE)**

HTE trains the specialist manpower needed by the agriculture, industry and services sectors at levels above high school; these are generally organised by the MST and partly by other departments and sectors which need such personnel and already have specific sources for such demand.

Until 1992, there was no coherence or centralised and systematic planning for HTE in Iran. The existence of different dispersed decision-making organisations in HTE created difficulties that necessitated a forum to organise the HTE system. As a result, the University of Applied Science of Technology (UAST) was established in 1992 as an organ for planning and overseeing the HTE system in Iran.

Modular courses

Technological education is a separate branch of education where practical skills are taught under separate modules. Each module provides separate and special skills which, together with other modules, lead to new skills and finally to a Higher National Diploma (HND).

Higher National Diploma (HND)

HNDs define a level of education between a Diploma and a Bachelor's degree. It implies a specified level of understanding, information, knowledge and special

skills. It includes on the job training and evaluation. HND programmes consist of three distinct dimensions:

- a) General courses which affect student perspectives (e.g. Islamic knowledge, foreign languages, ethics, sports etc.).
- b) Basic course which provide knowledge of science and its applications, technical language etc.
- c) Special courses which provide specific skills for the chosen vocations such as casting, designing, supervising skills, maintenance etc.

Bachelor courses

Bachelor degrees allow HND graduates to continue in their chosen vocational area at Bachelor level.

A Bachelor of Technology is one who has acquired the knowledge and skills needed to perform projects in industrial, managerial and military fields.

Master courses

The Master's degree of Technology is a formal course at higher education level which follows the Bachelor's course. It provides:

- An appropriate infrastructure for the creation and transfer of technology.
- An opportunity for graduates to apply theoretical background in practical situations.
- The human resources needed in a number of practical courses rather than theoretical. The higher the level, the smaller the practical component.

• Secondary TEVT level

TEVT at this level offers theoretical and Kar-Danesh studies. Significant changes have taken place in this branch and that of Kar-Danesh. 3-year and 5-year programmes are offered. After finishing the 3-year programme students may continue their studies onto the 5-year programme of which approximately 70% of students continue onto the full 5-year programme. Qualified graduates can also enter universities for technical degrees or a pre-university course. Others can work for skill certificates to obtain jobs in their field of study. Table 4.5 shows the number of students who enrolled in secondary TEVT between 1995 and 1997. In 1995 the total

number of students enrolled in TEVT amounted to 49,890. 27% of these were females. This number increased to over 270,000 students by 1999 of which 29% were female.

At present there are 825 educational centres that exclusively offer technical and vocational education with 45 TVE fields of study.

Table 4.5: Students enrolled in TVE in Iran

Year	Total	Boys %	Girls %
1995	49,890	73.0	27.0
1996	96,901	72.4	27.5
1997	151,285	72.8	27.2
1998	233,110	70.5	29.5
1999	276,647	71.0	29.0

Source: ME, MST 1999: 22

Students enrolled in Colleges of Technology

At present, there are 105 colleges with a total of 95,000 students in 35 fields of Technical and Vocational Education. Table 4.6 shows the number of student admissions and enrolments in Integrated Associate Degrees at TVE colleges. It also shows a significant increase in student admissions and enrolments in Colleges of Technology between 1995 and 1999.

Table 4.6: Students admitted and enrolled in Colleges of Technology from 1995-1999

Year	Admitted students	Enrolled students
1995	8,120	30,000
1996	14,000	38,000
1997	22,000	56,000
1998	28,000	70,000
1999	30,000	81,000

Source: MS, MST 1999: 23

Kar-Danesh branches (Higher Vocational Training)

This branch is seen as a solution to youth unemployment and the economic problem. It gives out-of-school training and offers teaching in other organisations.

Graduates of junior high school can take such courses by opting for skills courses, common courses, or both at once. In 1995, more than 600 such programmes of study were offered, some of which were multi-skills and some uni-skill courses

Many courses are based on the cultural heritage and domestic arts such as carpet weaving or ceramics; they are highly flexible in nature, using modular teaching techniques and students choose their field of study according to their talents and interests. There is also on-the-job training in some fields of study.

The Ministry of Education (ME) and other organisations are involved in such training programmes and these are offered by general, technical and vocational high schools, mostly to girls. Table 4.7 shows that number of students enrolled in TEVT in the Ministry of Education and in other organisations.

Table 4.7: Students enrolled in TEVT in high schools from 1994-1999

Year	Ministry of Education		Other Organisations	
	Total enrolled	Girls %	Total enrolled	Girls %
1994	8,604	39.8	6,359	7.7
1995	24,490	40.4	9,281	8.4
1996	86,299	35.2	10,360	40.0
1997	173,522	37.9	73,058	39.4
1998	229,086	40.0	27,400	30.0
1999	308,787	41.4	33,966	40.0

Source: MS, MST 1999: 26

In 1994, the number of students who enrolled in TEVT was 8,604 of which 39.8% were female. In 1999, however, the number increased sharply to 308,787 of which 41.4% were female. The number of students who enrolled in TEVT in other organisations increased from 6,359 in 1994 to 33,966 in 1999; 40% of these were women.

At present, many organisations co-operate with the ME according to a contract signed by the ME and other organisations.

4.7 Structure of the Labour Market in Iran

4.7.1 Population

According to the national census of population and housing in 1976, Iran's population was 33.7 million (Table 4.8). By 1986, the annual population growth rate had soared to 3.9% and the population had reached 49.4 million.

Table 4.8: Population size and growth rate

Year	Population (thousands)	Growth rate (%)
1976	33,708	-
1986	49,445	3.91
1991	55,837	2.46
1996	60,055	1.47

Source: PBO, UN, 1999: 25 in Statistical Centre in Iran (National Census, 1976, 86, 96)

Iran's population had risen to 60.05 million in 1996. However, the annual population growth rate had slowed to 1.47%. The repatriation of a large number of Afghan refugees between 1991 and 1996 had contributed to the lower rate of population growth, but the most important factor in the dramatic decline in those years was a considerable reduction in fertility (PBO et al., 1999: 25).

4.7.2 Population according to age

In Iran, the average population became younger from 1976 to 1986 because of the increase in the fertility rate, but this trend has undergone a steady reversal in the last decade, resulting in an improved population structure. As shown in Table 4.9, the decline in both fertility and mortality rates and the increase in life expectancy have caused a corresponding reduction in the under 15 age group and growth in the population share held by the potentially active and the elderly in 1996 in comparison with 1991.

Table 4.9: Distribution of Iranian population according to age from 1976 to 1996

Age group	1976 Population		1986 Population		1991 Population		1996 Population	
	'000s	%	'000s	%	'000s	%	'000s	%
Under 15 years	15.009	44.53	22.474	45.45	24.724	44.28	23.726	39.51
Active people (15-64)	17.514	51.96	25.446	51.46	29.164	52.23	33.702	45.12
Age 65 and over	1.186	3.52	1.525	3.08	1.949	3.49	2.627	4.37
Total	33.709	100.00	4.445	100.00	55.837	100.00	60.055	100.00

Source: PBO, UN, 1999: 25 in Statistical Centre in Iran (National Census, 1976, 86, 96)

The demographic shifts mean that the country's potentially active population has jumped from 25.4 million in 1986 to 33.7 million in 1996.

In 1996, the labour participation rate in Iran among the population aged 15 and over was 43.1%. This is very low when compared with labour participation rates in

the industrialised countries which range from a low of 58.5% in Spain to a high of 77.1% in the USA. One of the factors affecting Iran's labour participation rate has been the proportion of the active population pursuing secondary and higher education. From 1976 to 1996, the proportion of 6 to 24 year-olds enrolled in the education system rose from 50.23% to 66.15% (PBO, 1999: 31).

Another factor contributing to the low participation rate is the high percentage of women who are housewives. The need to care for children has always been one of the reasons keeping women from entering the labour market.

According to an Iranian census in 1976, out of 13 million inactive people, 34% were students. This percentage has increased very much; out of 28,821,000 inactive people in 1996, 44% were students.

Measured against this increase in the share of students in the proportion of inactive people, the share of housewives has decreased from 58% in 1976 to 46% in 1996. The development of education, employment and the Ira-Iraq war could be behind this increase in students and the corresponding decrease of housewives in Iran. See Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Distribution of the inactive population in Iran between 1976 and 1996

	1976			1996		
	Total	Students %	Housewives %	Total	Students %	Housewives %
Inactive people	13,206,000	34.0	58.0	28,821,000	44.0	46.0

Source: Nazari, 1998: 158-171

4.7.3 Labour force in Iran

Distribution of active women according to educational level

Between 1971 and 1986, education rates rose dramatically. While the proportion of women who were illiterate fell by approximately two thirds, the number of people receiving education rose at all levels. However, while this rise was not significant for women at primary and secondary levels (in fact the percentage of females in primary education actually fell from 6.0% to 2.9% between 1971 and 1986), there was a significant increase in the percentage of women continuing their education into the tertiary level. See Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Distribution of active women in Iran according to educational level in 1971 compared to 1986

Level of education	1971		1986	
	Total	%	Total	%
Illiterate	4,661,536	10.0	1,526,139	3.9
Primary	1,745,283	6.0	1,486,233	2.9
Secondary	472,382	15.0	1,572,787	17.0
Tertiary level	110,391	14.0	443,761	24.2
Unknown	20,611	8.0	5,912	39.0

Source: Afsher, 1998: 86 in Iranian Statistical Yearbook, 1971 and National Census, 1986

Distribution of labour force according to economic activities

Table 4.12 shows the distribution of the labour force among the population aged 10 years and over from 1986 to 1996. It reveals that the agricultural and service sectors have move in opposite directions. The decline in the agricultural sector's employment share could be seen as a natural consequence of increased mechanisation. This is a normal feature of the transition from traditional and subsistence agriculture to modern agriculture, and has occurred all over the world. The rise in the service sector's employment share, with a parallel increase in the use of advanced technology, is also far from unnatural and has been experienced in other countries.

Table 4.12: Distribution of Iranian employees according to economic activities from 1986 to 1996

Sector	Number of employed persons ('000)			Average annual growth rate (%)	
	1986	1991	1996	1986-1991	1991-1996
Agriculture	3,190.7	3,250.4	3,357.3	1.0	0.9
Manufacturing	2,781.0	3,615.7	4,473.0	5.4	4.3
Services*	5,029.8	6,275.5	6,741.0	4.5	1.4
Total	11,001.5	13,096.6	14,571.6	3.5	4.2

Source: Salehi, 2001: in Iranian Plan and Budget Organisation, 1997

Employment and unemployment in urban and rural areas

Set against the movement of employment from agriculture to service industries as explained and demonstrated in Table 4.12 above, there is a decline in participation rates for employment in urban areas.

Table 4.13 shows the participation rates in urban areas from 1976 to 1996 was invariable less than the rate for the whole country, while the rate for rural areas was

generally higher than the national rate. This can be at least partially explained by the desire of urban youth to achieve higher levels of school attendance in towns and cities. These educational preferences could well result in the delayed entry of urban people into the job market.

Table 4.13: Distribution of Iranian labour force according to employed and unemployed in urban and rural areas, 1976-1996

Year	Participation rate (age 10+) (%)				Unemployed rate (%)			
	1976	1986	1991	1996	1976	1986	1991	1996
Total	42.6	39.0	38.1	35.3	10.2	14.2	11.1	9.1
Urban	37.9	38.4	37.8	33.9	5.1	15.3	10.4	8.9
Rural	47.2	39.7	38.6	35.3	14.2	12.9	12.1	9.4

Source: PBO, 1999: 36 in *Statistical Centre in Iran (National Census, 1976, 1986, 1996)*

From 1976 to 1996, the unemployment rate was invariably higher in rural areas than in towns and cities, except when the country was at war.

Non-national manpower

According to PBO (1999: 34-36) at present in Iran there are 1,963,780 refugees from neighbouring countries, particularly Afghanistan and Iraq. Of these 1,400,730 are Afghans who were forced to leave their country in the wake of the Soviet invasion in 1980 and who now make up by far the largest group of refugees in Iran. The Afghan refugee population is young, with 79.6% under 40 years of age, of whom 65% are single and 35% are married. On their arrival in Iran, 89% were illiterate, which explains why more than 75% of them are unskilled and mostly engaged in simple manual labour.

The second group of refugees is composed of 530,605 Iraqis who came to Iran in successive waves, the first being in 1970 during clashes between Iraqi government and the Kurds. The second wave followed the chemical attack on Halabjah in Iraqi Kurdistan by the government of Iraq, and the third wave coincided with the escalation of clashes in 1990 between the Kurds of northern Iraq and the central government in Baghdad. The fourth wave was triggered by the displacement of Iraqi Shiites from their homes in Iraq's southern marshlands following deadly raids against them in 1993. Finally, in the wake of clashes between rival Kurdish factions, tens of

thousands of Kurds living in the northern parts of Iraq, including Suleimanieh, sought refuge in Iran.

Over 95% of the refugees residing in Iran are leading normal lives as typical Iranian citizens in the country's urban and rural areas, and a number of them have bought or constructed houses for themselves and their families.

Refugees are subject to the relevant employment regulations, which depend on the kind of residence permits they hold. Those with refugee residence permits are allowed to work in 15 fields as unskilled workers. Access to official jobs requires work permits. At present, according to the Ministry of the Interior, some one million employment opportunities are open to Afghan and Iraqi refugees in different sectors, ranging from construction to manufacturing and agriculture.

About 30% of the refugees live in Tehran. The provinces of Isfahan, Khorasan and Sistan and Baluchestan are the next most important hosts. While the majority of Afghan refugees reside in the eastern provinces, the Iraqi refugees are mostly settled in the country's western and southern provinces.

Because they have a relatively high level of economic and industrial development and can offer better job opportunities, Tehran and Isfahan have absorbed the bulk of the refugee population.

4.8 Women and Work in Iran

Women's participation in the labour market in Iran has been going through a large structural movement from agriculture to industry and to services since 1956, in particular for urban women. This section attempts to highlight women's participation in the Iranian labour market before and after the Islamic Revolution to investigate women's role in the economic sectors and the main factors affecting their employment after 1979.

- **Urban and rural women in Iran**

In Iran in general women work in the family business or on the farm or in the household; most of these work activities are unpaid employment. Therefore these shortcomings need to be taken into consideration when the patterns of women's participation in the labour market in Iran are presented.

Table 4.14 shows women's employment in urban and rural areas in 1976 and 1986.

Table 4.14: Women aged 6 and above working in major sectors (in percentages)

Year	Urban				Rural			
	Agriculture	Industry	Services	Other	Agriculture	Industry	Services	Other
1956	4.1	39.4	52.5	4	35	52.7	11.7	1.2
1966	3.1	45.7	45.6	5.6	32.2	61.2	5	1.7
1968	4.2	42.8	46.9	6.1	51.3	42	5.4	1.3
1971	1.7	39.6	53	5.7	41.1	55.8	2.5	0.6
1986	2.5	12	73.5	12	54.3	33.6	8.1	4

Source: Salehi 2000: 35 in Statistic Centre of Iran, 1986, 1995

It is evident from the table above that the activities of urban women increased sharply in the service sector, especially in 1986 when it reached 73.5%. Their activities in the industrial sector, however, decreased from 39.6% in 1971 to 12% in 1986. On the other hand, rural women in the industrial sector decreased from 52.7% in 1956 to 33.6% in 1986 while their activities in agricultural areas increased from 35% to 54.3%. This could be due to the fact that the industrial sector in Iran uses modern technology more than in the agricultural sector and this has caused unskilled workers to be replaced by skilled workers in this sector. This reason may be behind the decrease of rural women in the industrial sector and their increase in the agricultural sector which needs less technology than industry in Iran.

Table 4.15 show women's participation in economic activities according to the type of sector in 1986 compared to 1976.

Table 4.15: Distribution of women in Iran according to the type of sector in 1976 compare to 1986

Economic sector	1976		1986	
	Total	Females (%)	Total	Females (%)
Agriculture, fishing forestry and hunting	3,615,314	22.8	3,190,761	8.1
Mining and quarrying	90,230	3.8	32,370	1.7
Manufacturing	1,683,188	38.4	1,451,330	14.5
Electricity, gas and water	61,761	3.2	91,044	2.5
Construction and building	1,202,061	1.5	1,206,264	0.8
Hotel and restaurant trade	671,735	2.0	875,458	1.4
Transport, storage and communications	433,364	2.2	630,546	1.4
Business services and banking services	100,653	9.4	114,288	9.2
Social Services	1,523,689	18.4	3,049,753	13.6
Not adequately employed	415,061	8.4	359,721	12.7
Percentage	9,796,056	20.2	11,001,535	8.9

Source: Moghadam, 1998: 156-157

From the table above it can be seen that the rate of women's participation in all the economic activities in 1986, except in business and banking services, decreased compared to their participation in 1976. This could be explained by the fact that, during and after the revolution in Iran, privately owned firms were either taken over by workers' councils, nationalised or closed, coupled with the fact that new recruitment policies were favourable to women (Moghadam, 1998: 159).

Poya (1999: 75-76) explains the significance of the decline of women's employment between 1979 and 1981. She argues that women were excluded from the labour market and employment during this period due to the effect of the ideology that a woman's place is in the home. Therefore, custom, policies and practice reduced the demand for female labour. The Islamic state further strengthened patriarchal relations by creating spheres for women in the public domain, which ensured that women's reproductive role within the family was more important than their role in the public sphere, especially in employment. However, the impact of the economic circumstances of the war years changed the position of the theocratic state on women's employment.

Women's work in the public and private sector

In Iran today, the public sector is the largest single employer of women in general and in education and health sectors in particular.

As Table 4.16 shows, in the year 1986, 47% of all the employed women were working for the public sector and 53% for the private sector. Also, the table shows that women's employment in the private sector has increased over time, and their employment share in the private sector has decreased. For example, in 1966, only 6.3% of women were working in the public sector, while in 1986 this number increased to 47%.

Table 4.16: The percentage of women employed in the public and private sectors in Iran

Sector	1966	1976	1986
Private	93.7	76	53
Public	6.3	24	47
Total	100	100	100

Source: Salehi 2000: 31

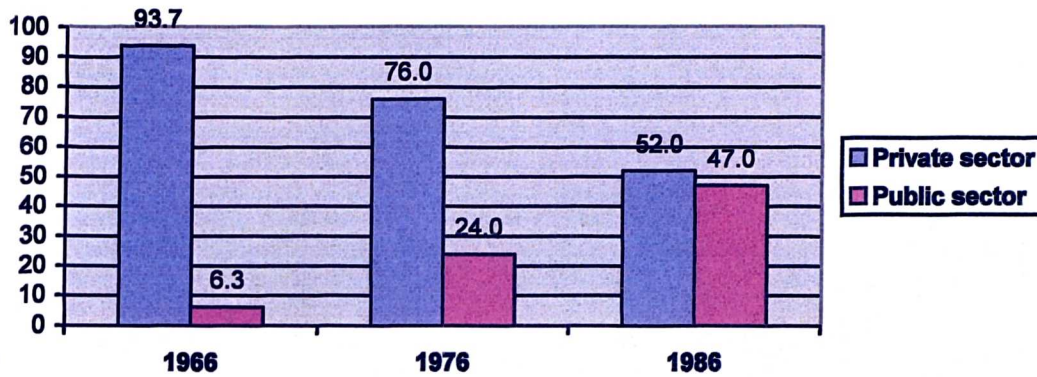


Figure 4.1: The percentage of women employed in the public and private sectors

Maghadam (2001: 200-202) argues that the increase of women's employment in the public sector is largely in the teaching and health sectors. About 16.8% of the women employed by the public sector were teachers and 8.9% were in the health sectors. The following factors contributed to an increased demand for women teachers: the ideology of segregation, the young composition of the population and the state commitment to expand elementary and secondary education. Supply factors were also important. In 1986, there was an increase in the number of active women in the service category, largely in teaching and health related services. It is difficult to attribute this gain to the positive impact of the revolution and its ideology of segregation. While the number of students of ten years and older increased after the revolution, the trend in the earlier years was also that of an increase in the number of students. Furthermore, the Iranian population is young, and the demand for schooling is strong. As teaching and health services have historically been female occupations, it is likely that, in the absence of ideological changes, there would have still been a substantial increase in the number of women teachers and healthcare providers. The ideological factors were the primary contributors to the increase in the intensity of occupational segregation. This was specially pronounced in the female quota in higher education, attempts to remove women from the textile factories, and the public sector employment policies.

The most important reason behind the increase in women in the public sector rather than the private sector is because the public sector has taken over many private

enterprises in recent years and particularly in the post-revolution period. It is related also to the perceived benefits of being employed by the state sector. Also, reduced supply of male labour as a consequence of the Iran-Iraq war (1980-89) was a significant factor in the increase in female public sector workers (Poya, 1999: 77-82).

By the mid-1980s, the faction of the post-revolutionary government which favoured state intervention grew weaker. As a result, private property was re-valued and the state encouraged entrepreneurs and investors. Under the Islamic State, the private sector remained much as it had done under the Shah. For example, in 1986/87 around 7,119,000 people were employed in small private enterprises (6,610,000 men and 509,000 women). In 1972, before the revolution, these figures had been 6,922,000, 6,118,000 and 648,000 respectively. Despite an increase in the total number of workers, however, the number of women fell while the number of women in unpaid family employment rose significantly although these statistics must be viewed with some discrimination since many women, especially those in rural areas, may not appear in such statistics as they might work from home or contribute to family businesses where they are not formally paid. Others might not be registered by small firms in order for the business to avoid tax.

Moghadam (1998: 158) argues that many women working in the private sector received no wage at all; only 19% of women in this area received a wage or salary. Women's participation in the manufacturing labour force was also very limited, apart from in the traditional crafts and in carpet-making. In manufacturing, women represented only 14% of the total workforce and were mostly unpaid. Women's roles in agriculture were also extremely limited with the majority of women from rural areas designated as "housewives".

In the private sector the textiles industry was the largest employer of both paid and unpaid women workers. The number of women employed in this sector declined by 419,000 in 1986, accounting for 97.4% of the total decline in manufacturing. For the same period, male employment in industry declined by only 16,000. Between 1976 and 1986, no significant changes in technology and the use of machinery were introduced in the textiles industry, so the decline was not due to job obsolescence resulting from technological change. It seems that the government, through a

combination of institutional reorganisation, harassment of women workers, early retirement, and other monetary incentives, contributed to the decline. The reorganisation of factories into co-operatives also resulted in job losses for women. During the early post-revolutionary period many large textile factors came under public control (Moghadam, 2001: 198).

4.9 Factors Affecting Women's Employment in Iran

Although the Iranian authorities consider that women have equal opportunities to participate in all economic activities and to work in certain fields, they still face difficulties in the labour market as they are mostly concentrated in the public sector, in particular in teaching and health fields. Women in Iran are concentrated in public sector employment because this sector became more likely than the private sector to provide social insurance for its employees and to implement the provisions of Labour Code for maternity leave, job-back guarantees, childcare facilities and nursing breaks.

However, some obstacles face women in Iran's labour market; it is difficult for women to balance their work and domestic responsibilities and women are not yet viewed as breadwinners in Iran and therefore their work is regarded as less important. This is one reason why Iranian employers prefer male rather than female employees. Also, economic stagnation may indirectly affect female participation though cultural factors (Moghadam, 2001: 194).

Various reasons for the low rate of employment among Iranian women, such as a lack of sufficient education and skills, lack of legislative support for women workers and the fact that a large number of Iranian women are housewives (Salehi, 2001: 31 in Moayedi, 1995).

Moghadam (2001: 202) concludes that state ideology is an important factor affecting the employment of women. She argues that, in general, the impact of Islamic ideology on employment has been negative. The decline in both waged and non-waged labour in agriculture in 1986 was prompted by economic, demographic, educational and cultural factors. The decline in unpaid family labour in manufacturing was primarily due to economic factors.

4.10 Summary

The 1979 Revolution changed the role of women in society, these changes included women's dress codes and what kinds of work women might choose to enter. For this reason, women's employment in Iran has been affected by a number of cultural, economic and educational factors which, in turn, have led to certain areas of work being seen as unsuitable for women. High fertility rates in Iran, a lack of job opportunities and women's lower levels of higher and technical education when compared with men are also significant factors. The public sector is still a more popular and attractive source of employment for women than the private sector.

However, the system of technical and vocational education was reformed in 1993 and the government allowed women to study in fields such as agricultural and law studies from which they were previously excluded (Poya, 1999: 106). This has been partly responsible for the increase in women's participation in the labour market in Iran today.

Although Iranian women now participate in the labour market more than before, they are still concentrated largely in the public rather than the private sector. This leads to key questions such as why this should be the case and to enquire into the main factors affecting and inhibiting their employment in the private sector.

These two areas of enquiry will be investigated in Chapter Eleven (the empirical study) using four key sources of data: business managers, women employees in the private sector, unemployed qualified women and certain authorities from the public and the private sector in Iran. The results will be compared with the responses from Saudi Arabia, since one of the main aims of this thesis is to discover if Saudi Arabia faces the same problems regarding women's employment as Iran.

Chapters Five and Six will offer a detailed picture of the status of women in Saudi Arabia, their education and their employment.

CHAPTER FIVE

THE KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA

5.1 Introduction

This chapter attempts to look at the government's role in the development of human resources in Saudi Arabia during the development plans from 1970-2004 and the role of the private sector in the Saudi economy. This chapter also investigates the development of women's education in Saudi Arabia in general and in technical and vocational education in particular.

5.2 Human Resources in the Development Plans (1970-2004)

The specific focus, targets and priorities of each of the five development plans have been established in the context of the Kingdom's long-term goals and strategic objectives, which have been maintained consistently over the past 25 years, although their emphasis on economic, social and institutional aspects have varied with each plan.

The First Development Plan (1970-1975): This laid the foundation for the Kingdom's rapid transformation into a modern industrialised nation by focusing on the provision of an essential basic infrastructure, government services and the establishment and expansion of supporting institutions. From today's perspective, it was modest in scale, with government expenditure amounting to SR 78 billion.

The Second Development Plan (1975-1980): The focus of the government's expenditure was on the provision of the physical infrastructure to support the Kingdom's rapid development and to overcome barriers to economic growth: for example, the "bottlenecks" that occurred in the transportation system and shortages in housing, the water supply, electricity, postal services and ports. The plan also aimed to expand social services, especially in education, health, and social security.

The Third Development Plan (1980-1985): The government concentrated on the completion of major infrastructure projects, which provided the foundation for a more diversified economy and on meeting the rapidly increasing demand for improved educational, health and social services. The volatility of oil revenues re-

affirmed the need for the private sector to expand and for the economy to become less dependent on government activity and the oil sector.

The government encouraged economic diversification through large public sector investments in capital-intensive industries linked to the Kingdom's petroleum resources. In the private sector, manufacturing industries became more prominent and agriculture emerged as a high-growth sector in response to government incentives and funding. The rapid pace of the economic development required a large number of foreign workers, thus highlighting the need to develop Saudi human resources and gradually to reduce the reliance on expatriate labour.

The Fourth Development Plan (1985-1990): The government continued the diversification of the economy by encouraging the growth of the private non-oil sector and expanding government services to meet social needs. The virtual completion of most of the country's physical infrastructure enabled the government to shift its expenditure priorities towards other important areas and needs such as human resources.

The Fifth to Seventh Development Plans (1990-2004): The priority of these plans was "Saudisation", the replacement of national manpower with non-nationals and the improvement of health, education and a wide variety of other social services. The plans emphasised the importance of private sector expansion and the need to improve its competitive position in world markets. They also stressed the need for a greater private sector role in economic activities where the government had traditionally been the main provider of services. Other important development initiatives included measures to improve the technological base in many economic sectors that are introductory to the development of innovative technologies that are uniquely suited to Saudi needs. Table 5.1 shows the percentage of spending on economic activities in Saudi Arabia from 1970-2004.

Table 5.1: Spending (%) on economic activities during the development plans (1970-2004)

Activities	First Plan	Second Plan	Third Plan	Fourth Plan	Fifth Plan	Sixth Plan	Seventh Plan
Economic Resources	27.7	28.0	30.7	20.4	10.0	11.5	8.5
Human Resources	20.6	14.7	18.4	33.0	48.0	51.5	56.7
Social & Sanitary Resources	10.3	8.0	9.8	17.7	20.0	20.8	19.6
Essential Preparation	41.4	49.3	41.1	28.9	22.0	16.2	15.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Ministry of Planning, Seventh Development Plan, 2000: 40, 66, 158

5.3 The Private Sector in the Saudi Economy

From the outset of development planning in the Kingdom, the adoption of free market principles ensured that private enterprise would always be the main focus of economic activity. Although the expansion of oil revenues in the first three plan periods was necessary according to the government, the leading role in guiding and stimulating economic development and the rapid transformation of financial resources into productive physical assets during this period, also required the active participation of the private sector in undertaking the necessary construction, operation and maintenance of these facilities.

By the beginning of the Fourth Plan (1980-1985), a suitable climate had emerged for greater integration between the government and the private sector. Most of the infrastructure projects had been completed and the priorities for development had shifted towards structural change and economic diversification. Through a wide range of financial and regulatory measures, the government encouraged the private sector to engage in joint ventures with foreign firms and to invest in new output-generating capacities using the latest available capital-intensive technology, mainly in agriculture and manufacturing industries. As a result, the private sector became less dependent than in earlier plans on government expenditure.

The Kingdom took to heart the philosophy of the free economy at the start of developmental planning. The private sector has to fulfil economic activity. Although a high increase in petroleum output was achieved during the first three development plans, it offered the governmental sector a leading role to direct and manage the economic activity. The need for the investment of huge financial resources available

in high rates to production bases make it necessary for the private sector to contribute heavily in the execution, operation, and maintenance of works for production bases for investment.

5.4 Education in Saudi Arabia

Education in Saudi Arabia is not compulsory; however, it is open to anyone who wishes to join the official governmental schools. The government provides free general and higher education, with financial rewards for male and female students in some areas of general education. All technical, vocational and higher education students are supplied with free books and materials and transportation for all females is free.

In Saudi Arabia the education system is centralised and controlled by the government. Education before unification was basically in the mosques; teachers were the mosques' Imams and Sheikhs. The main subjects taught in mosques were reading the Holy Quran and Islamic Sharia'a, although this education was limited to males only. The country's economy before unification and before the discovery of oil was weak. The main resources for sponsoring education were from overseas pilgrims visiting Makkah and Madina (Alsunbol, 1992: 71).

The first official governmental school in the Kingdom before its unification was Al-Soltiah Primary School, established in 1870. The schools that followed were Al-Fakhria in 1878, Al-Falah in Makkah in 1881, and Othmani's School in Jeddah, in 1894 (Alassem, 1993: 2).

The main subjects that were taught in these schools were Sharia'a sciences and social sciences, as well as mathematics, handwriting and drawing.

In 1926, after unification, the Kingdom established the first organisation "GOE" (General Organisation for Education) to supervise education. The first educational council for education was established in 1927. The GOE was responsible for education until becoming the Ministry of Education in 1952 (Al-Sunbol, 1992: 71-72). Education for women before the unification of Saudi Arabia was basically at home with the help of a female teacher known as a "Karaih" (a lady who is well-versed in religious and general knowledge). The educational subjects were restricted to religion, and this was mainly reading the Holy Quran and understanding the Islamic Sharia'a.

However, modern education for women in Saudi Arabia began formally in 1960, thirty years after the education system for men.

In the late 1950s, the authorities in the Kingdom realised the importance of demands to open official governmental schools for girls and the need to find proper administrators responsible for female education in the country, according to the Islamic Sharia'a. The public sector decided to establish the "General Presidency for Girls' Education" (GPGE) in 1959 to take the responsibility of administrating female education. The first step of GPGE was the opening of fifteen girls' schools in the following year, 1960 (GPGE, 1992: 32). According to Presley (1984: 119) the object of educating a woman in Saudi Arabia is to bring her up in a sound Islamic way so that she can fulfil her role in life as a successful housewife, an ideal wife and good mother, and to prepare her for other activities that suit her nature such as teaching, nursing and medicine. The careers which women are encouraged to pursue are clearly defined.

However, according to economic and social changes in Saudi Arabia other subjects are open to women in business, scientific and technical fields through higher and technical institutions.

The number of women enrolled in the Saudi education has sharply increased from 135,000 in 1970 to more than 2,369, 000 girl students in 2000 (*Achievements of the Development Plans, 2000: 311*).

The government has already taken the initiative in encouraging private investment in the educational sector with opening of private schools, institutions and colleges such as, Princess Iffat College for Girls in Jeddah and Prince Sultan College in Riyadh and Abha. Both of these colleges are run as charities and concentrate on the subjects needed by the private sector. The government has more recently approved more than 100 applications for private Colleges of Higher Education in all regions. Some of these colleges are under construction.

5.4.1 General principles of the education system

The education system in Saudi Arabia stands on several general principles, which can be summarised briefly as follows:

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1. Believing in Allah as a God, Islam as a religion; and Mohammed as the prophet and messenger of Allah.
 2. Believing in the Islamic vision of the universe, humanity and life. Existence in this universe belongs to Allah.
 3. Believing that life on earth is productive and to work towards life after death.
 4. Believing in humanity in accordance with Islam.
 5. Development opportunities are available to students to be shared, and to develop the society.
 6. The female right for education, which is suitable for her femininity, must be carried out according to Islamic Sharia'a.
 7. Religious education, Islamic Sharia'a, must be taught throughout all educational stages.
 8. The Arabic language is the official and main language used in teaching throughout the educational stages unless there is a need and importance to teach or learn in another language.
 9. Living by Islam and displaying good behaviour, politeness and pleasant habits are the country's and the individual's responsibility.
 10. Achieving social co-operation and co-ordination in society: the individual works towards the general society's interest rather than the individual's interest.
 11. A purposeful exchange between the governors and the people, which can lead to responsibilities and rights according to Islamic Sharia'a.

5.4.2 Educational stages

This section presents briefly the five main educational stages in Saudi Arabia:

- **Nursery, kindergarten and pre-school stage**

This stage is designed for children aged between 3 and 6 years old. This is the first step on the educational ladder. This stage aims to build confidence in the child. He/she should be treated kindly and gently and be provided with the basic knowledge to face the next stage.

- **Primary stage**

This stage is designed for pupils aged between 6 and 12 years old. At this stage the basics of Mathematics, Science, and Sharia law is taught.

- **Intermediate stage**

This stage is designed for pupil's aged between 12 and 15 years old. It aims to provide basic knowledge and prepares pupils for academic education or for a practical future.

- **Secondary stage**

This stage is designed for student's aged between 15 and 18 years old. At this stage, students are divided according to their abilities and interests. The student has a choice of joining different technical, vocational, or academic schools.

- **Higher education Stage**

This stage provides academically qualified specialised manpower to meet the required needs of the country and to work towards developing the country accordingly. At this stage, students mainly earn awards. Students can also complete M.Sc./MA or PhD programmes in some subjects.

5.4.3 Government Body for Education in Saudi Arabia

According to Al-Sunbol (1992: 72- 87) the government's body for education includes the following committees or ministries:

- **Higher Committee for Education Policy**

The sharp increase in the number of non-Saudis led the government to establish a 'Higher Committee for Education Policy'. This is the highest committee in the Kingdom and was established in 1970. This committee represents the main connection between all educational institutions in the Kingdom. The chairman of this committee is the highest ruling body of the Kingdom, King Fahad.

- **Ministry of Higher Education**

The Ministry of Higher Education (MHE) was established in 1975. Before this time its responsibilities belonged to the Ministry of Education. The MHE was

established to take care of supervising and co-ordinating higher education institutions (universities and colleges), and the current and future market needs for qualified manpower. The MHE was also responsible for higher educational scholarships, awards, research funding, academic translation, and university external relationships.

- **Ministry of Education**

The Ministry of Education (ME) in Saudi Arabia was established in 1953. The ME was known previously as the General Organisation of Education. This decision may be considered to be the main turning point in Saudi Arabia's education.

The Ministry of Education is responsible for supervising all general education phases: primary, secondary, high schools, and pre-university phases. It is also responsible for intermediate colleges. These colleges specialise in initial teacher training and providing schools with teachers.

The ME also has forty regional educational administrations distributed throughout the Kingdom. The first regional educational administration was established in 1937. It was known as Moatamdia Ma'arf and was then developed to become the Education Administration in 1953.

- **General Presidency for Girls' Education, GPGE**

In the late fifties, the authorities in the Kingdom realised the importance and the demand to open official governmental schools for girls and to find proper administrators responsible for female education in the country, according to the Islamic Sharia. Accordingly, His Majesty's Government decided to establish the "General Presidency for Girls' Education" (GPGE) in 1959 to take the responsibility of administering females' general and technical education and vocational training. The first step of GPGE was the opening of fifteen girls' school in the following year, 1960 (Girls' Education During Thirty-two Years, 1992). Early in 2002 the government decided to merge the GPGE with the Ministry of Education.

- **General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT) for boys**

After a series of research projects, seminars and discussions on market need in technical and vocational qualified manpower to help meet the sharp increase in the

Saudi economy, the authorities believed that the best way was by establishing an organisation responsible for executing planning for developing manpower. According to this belief, His Majesty Government's decision in 1980 agreed to establish the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT) to take on the responsibility of supervising all technical education and vocational training in Saudi Arabia (GOTEVT, 1985: 30).

5.4.4 Technical Education and Vocational Training (TEVT) in Saudi Arabia

Technical education and vocational training began at an early stage in Saudi Arabia's modern history. It is the fruition of continued work started by King Abdulaziz. Technical education has been under the Ministry of Education and vocational training has been under Ministry of Labour since they were established.

The first industrial school in Saudi Arabia was established in Jeddah in 1949, with 30 students (Alkhateeb, 1995). Technical commercial education was established after the establishment of technical industrial education. It started with only four intermediate commercial schools in 1960. In 1965, secondary commercial schools, which provided evening and daytime courses to meet the students' circumstances, replaced these. The Al-Kharj agricultural school was the first agricultural school and was established in 1955. The first vocational training centre was established in Riyadh in 1383 H (1962).

During the last two decades, the National Development Plan has concentrated on building Saudi citizenship and in developing national human resources. This is the actual meaning of the development plan and the basis of its main objectives.

It was necessary to qualify people in order to fill the country's requirements for trained national cadres in the technical and vocational fields. It was evident that technical education and vocational training was important in the preparation of the qualified manpower needed for industry, agriculture and commerce in the country. The leadership in Saudi Arabia was interested in this educational sector due to its vital role in the qualification of national cadres for building a highly advanced and civilised society. In order to achieve such objectives, the government established Colleges of Technology, Technical Institutes and Vocational Training Centres. Great efforts were made in the preparation of national manpower. The Kingdom's interest in the

development of national resources was reflected in the five development plans, which were in accordance to the general strategies and plans.

5.4.5 Labour market needs for technical manpower in Saudi Arabia

After a detailed study of manpower requirements and the need for development in the Kingdom, Saudi Arabia developed technical education and vocational training programmes to establish the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT), which was to be responsible for implementing manpower development plans. The King of Saudi Arabia approved the establishment of GOTEVT when it was submitted to the Council of Ministry by the Manpower Committee after a comprehensive study of the plans and programmes which were aimed at developing technical and vocational manpower within the policies of the Manpower Council.

The committee found it was important to amalgamate all technical education and vocational training which was under the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs into one establishment named the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training. This was given financial and administrative independence in order to perform its duties more easily, under a board of directors headed by the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs. This new organisation appointed a governor who was excellently qualified.

In 1980, GOTEVT became independent. The objective of this establishment was to implement programmes and plans aimed at the development of technical and vocational manpower. It also included the technical education system in its different fields of industry, agriculture and commerce, and all other forms and levels of vocational training, in addition to vocational research for the development of performance and productivity.

5.4.6 Organisation of TEVT in Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia's rapid development has highlighted the shortage of national technical manpower and the subsequent need to recruit non-Saudi technical workers on the one hand, and the difficulty of replacing these workers with qualified Saudis on the other. Therefore, efforts were made during the development plans to raise the

quantity and quality of technical education and vocational training system.

Several governmental institutions and the private sector in Saudi Arabia provide long and short-term courses in TEVT for both males and females. These include:

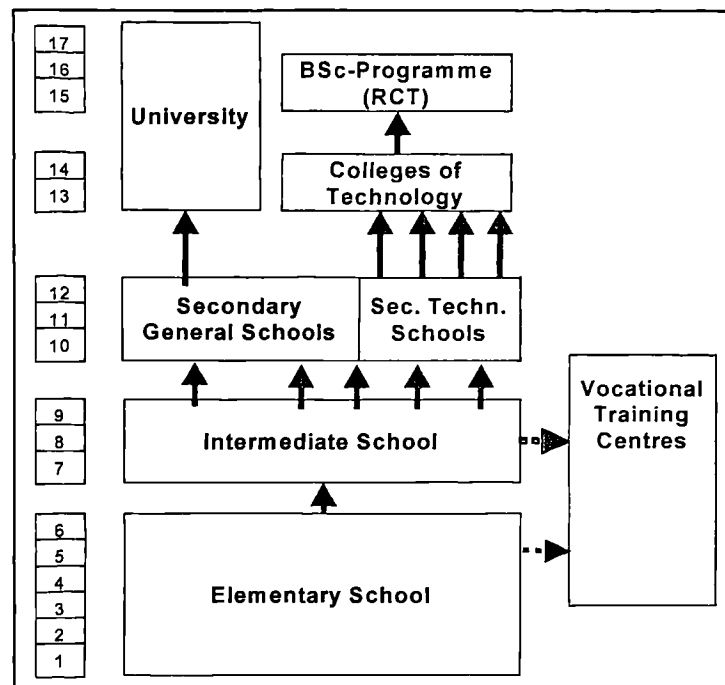
- 1) The General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training for males (GOTEVT) is the largest such institution in Saudi Arabia. It provides skilled and semi-skilled students with education through three levels: Colleges of Technology, Technical Institutes and Vocational Centres.
- 2) The General Presidency for Girls' Education (GPGE) is responsible for technical education and vocational training for females at two levels: Technical Institutes and Vocational Centres.
- 3) The Ministry of Health is responsible for health education for both males and females through health institutes and health colleges.
- 4) Public administration institutes provide several courses to the public and private sectors in the field of business and management for males and females.

In addition, a number of government ministries and agencies operate in-house training institutes or centres to meet their own specialised training needs. The universities provide specialised training courses for professionals on request from government agencies or the private sector by social service centres. All other ministries have specialised training institutions, such as the Ministry of Communication. Also industrial and commercial chambers run several short courses in TEVT for the private sector. Informal training centres give vocational training for men and women under the supervision of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.

In Saudi Arabia, the government helps and encourages national people (male and female) to study in TEVT. At the same time, the government provides incentives and loans without interest to all graduates if they form their own business after graduation.

5.4.7 Technical education and vocational training for men

Figure 5.1 shows the TEVT system within the education system in Saudi Arabia.



Source: Al-Dhalaan, 2001: 4

Figure 5.1: TEVT system within the system of education in Saudi Arabia

Technical education and vocational training in Saudi Arabia can be classified into three levels. These are:

Colleges of Technology

Colleges of Technology were established in 1983 due to the need for highly skilled technical manpower to take part in the country's progress, and to create new areas in the GOTEVT which would be responsible for the expansion of such education. Studying at these colleges is based on a credits system. There are now about 20 Colleges of Technology providing several courses and programmes including electronics, electrical skills, production engineering, agriculture, computing technology, business administration, accounting, banking etc. The graduates have the chance to continue their higher education. Riyadh College of Technology is allowed to give a Bachelor's degree in technological subjects.

Technical Institutes

Technical secondary institutes have been established to provide qualified manpower to meet the market needs. There are four types of secondary technical

education in Saudi Arabia, namely Secondary Industrial Institutes, Secondary Commercial Institutes, Agricultural Education, and Technical Supervisors Institutes.

Vocational Training

Vocational training is the second most important responsibility of GOTEVT. It gives the same attention and importance to vocational training as it gives to technical education. The main activities are vocational training, staff development and instructor training.

Vocational Training Centres

The main aims of the training centres are to provide the opportunity for individuals to improve their skills and help them to find a suitable job. Another aim is to help reduce the large quantity of foreign manpower in the Kingdom.

Vocational training courses are provided during the day time as well as the evening. This is to meet students' circumstances and situations. Periods of study for these courses are between 12 and 18 months for the daytime courses and 6 months for the evening courses. There are now 30 vocational training centres in the country. The trainees' benefits include: monthly salary, food allowance, free transport, awards for completing the course and an award after six months working in his/her speciality.

Staff Development Centres (SDCs)

Staff Development Centres (SDCs) aim to train national manpower through employment in their institutes. Staff development for both the private and public sectors provide relevant technical skills, thus hoping to increase productivity.

In 1970, the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs established a special department as part of the training department. The main aim of this department was to carry out short courses for private sector employees to increase their skills and provide them with the latest technology in their area.

In 1976, the Ministers' Council issued a directive giving awards for private technical and vocational training centres. It was hoped that the decision would develop technical skills for individuals. The department was developed further, and now it has become an administration on its own and belongs to GOTEVT. It has six sections and each section has a specialisation, i.e. Training Department, Registration,

Industrial Awareness, Technical Inspection, Research and Development and SDCs. There are three SDC centres located in Riyadh, Jeddah and Dammam, and there are twenty-one Saudi instructors.

Instructors' Training Institutes (ITI)

GOTEVT established Instructors' Training Institutes (ITI) to help provide the market with qualified instructors. GOTEVT established ITI in Riyadh for training the instructors during their employment to improve and become familiar with rapid changes in technology. The institutes are provided with the latest technology for teaching and learning. This has been done according to the annual plan from GOTEVT. The main aims of this institute are staff development of GOTEVT, as well as for public sector employees, to develop and prepare technical and vocational training courses. The institute also carries out research and provides reports on technical education and vocational training in the country.

5.4.8 Women in technical education and vocational training

There is very little evidence or information concerning the vocational and technical education of women before 1966 when Technical Education and Vocational Training (TEVT) for women began in a formal sense through designing and sewing centres. However, women did receive vocational training through the home and private schools in order to make them useful wives and mothers. The family would be largely responsible for teaching the girls within it to become adept at those skills which would be useful in a domestic environment: cooking, sewing, animal husbandry and harvesting in rural areas. All these duties were seen as compatible with the Islamic culture and are still encouraged, as women are expected to have skills in the modern domestic environment such as managing the domestic economy, decorating the house and using new technology within the home.

In 1991, the General Presidency for Girls' Education (GPGE) formally became the controller of women's TEVT in the public and private sectors. Its aim, from the establishment of TEVT for women, is to qualify women to meet the needs of the labour market. At the same time, it intends to recognise and value the role of women in society by developing and enhancing their skills continuously and

providing them with special skills to enable them to contribute to the female labour market by creating new opportunities. Thus, women will be able to support their families by increasing their income, and, at the same time, reduce Saudi Arabia's reliance on non-national labour.

Also from 1991, the GPGE has taken certain steps to develop women's TEVT such as changing its name from the Department of Vocational Education to the General Department of Technical and Vocational Training. A high-level committee was established as part of this endeavour to design a new strategy for TEVT for women and to indicate how important this initiative was felt to be. A new committee of professional women was also set up to study TEVT, especially in the fields of economic and household management; and a third committee was established to revise legislation regarding the structure of this kind of education.

Later, the GPGE became responsible for a private institute and was allowed to offer its own accreditation. The GPGE was also able to nominate representatives to begin a programme of co-operation between those responsible for male and female technical and vocational training.

Institutions of TEVT for women

- **Vocational Training Centres (VTCs)**

Two Vocational Training Centres (VTCs) were established in 1973. This number increased to forty in 1999 (GPGE, 2000). VTCs provide basic practical courses to help qualify national women in the sewing field to help their families to work and/or to build their own businesses. The study period in these centres is two years. The main assessment method used in these courses is practical assessment.

The main conditions for acceptance onto these courses are that candidates have to be Saudi women between the ages of 16 and 35, they must hold a primary school certificate or literature leavers and they have to be full-time students.

Technical Education Institutes (TEI)

Three technical institutes for women in Saudi Arabia were established in 1995 to provide qualified women for the labour market in the home economic fields, namely textiles and home management. This is one of six fields that were expected to

be instituted later by the GPGE. The others include: (a) computing services such as programming and maintenance; (b) management sciences such as statistics, accountancy and secretarial affairs; (c) light industries such as clothes manufacturing and food preparation; (d) information systems such as bibliography, printing and binding; and (e) educational materials and technical tools for teaching.

Women accepted onto these courses had to be Saudi nationals aged between 18 and 20 and were expected to hold a general secondary school certificate. They had to be full-time enrolments and have no qualifications higher than those awarded by the institution to which they were applying. Finally, they could not apply if they had previously been dismissed by any other institution.

There are now seventeen technical institutes for women in different cities. The studies in these institutes are based on the regulations of the semester system. The study period is three years (6 semesters). Students have to take at least 30 hours every week; this must include workshops and they also have to pass an examination. The examination is divided between theory and practice.

5.4.9 Development of education in Saudi Arabia

Although modern education for women in Saudi Arabia began formally thirty years after the education system for men, recently the number of women who have enrolled and graduated from secondary school and higher education in the last year has increased more sharply than for men (Tables 5.2 and 5.3).

Table 5.2: Enrolments in General and higher education boys and girls from 1970 to 2000 (000)

Level	1970		1980		1990		2000	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Primary School	277	120	537	325	961	801	1177	1091
Intermediate School	56	5	165	80	304	210	564	494
Secondary school	18	2	64	29	142	110	366	368
Higher education	7	0	35	13	69	53	162	181

Source: Ministry of Planning, 2000 "Achievements of Development Plans from 1970 to 2000"
 GPGE, Development of women's education during 39 years, 1999
 GPGE, Statistical abstract for girls' education in 2000

Table 5.3: Graduates from General and higher education boys and girls from 1970 to 2000

Level	1970		1980		1990		2000	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Intermediate School	11406	1132	22567	17527	64151	52568	129508	141369
Secondary school	2437	369	9057	6511	28604	28158	68643	98145
Higher education	795	13	3447	1174	8955	6434	20229	21221

Source: Ministry of Planning, 2000 "Achievements of Development Plans from 1970 to 2000"

GPGE, GPGE, Development of women's education during 39 years, 2000

GPGE, Statistical abstract for girls' education in 2000

5.4.10 Higher education in Saudi Arabia

Table 5.4 shows the development of teaching staff and schools according to gender from 1970 to 1997.

Table 5.4 Comparison of numbers of educational institutions and teachers in Saudi education from 1970 to 1997

Year	Teachers		Schools	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
1970	18,172	4,946	2,772	551
1975	31,602	12,175	4,111	1,523
1980	50,189	28,120	7,689	3,381
1985	82,556	54,669	8,460	6,619
1990	108,123	91,364	92,46	7,363
1995	143,004	128,507	10,712	10,572
1997	145,389	194,209	11,513	10,788

Source: Ministry of Planning, Achievements of the Development Plans, 1998: 308-311.

It can be seen that, in 1970, there were more male teachers than female (18,172 and 4,946, respectively). The gap during this period was almost four times as many males than females. However, over the following 27 years, the gap between female and male teachers gradually declined until, in 1997, female teachers outnumbered males (194,207 and 145,389, respectively). There was a similar gap between the number of boys' and girls' schools (2,775 and 551, respectively). In this instance though, girls' schools have not surpassed those of boys, but the gap has closed so that there is a similar number for both boys' and girls' schools (11,513 and 10,788, respectively).

Saudi women graduating from higher education

In Saudi Arabia, most females are graduates of social science, education, humanities and religious studies. As a consequence, most female graduates are only employed in occupations that correspond to the type of schooling available to them in the educational institutions. This, indeed, reflects the vital role which education, under its present objectives and philosophy, plays in determining the accessibility to, and distribution of females among jobs available to them in the labour market. Table 5.5 shows the number of women in higher education according to subject. The figures clearly show that most females study education, Islamic and humanities subjects, representing 80% of all female graduate students in universities in 1998. Their percentage is almost negligible in other subjects, which are the subjects strongly needed by the private sector today.

Table 5.5: Saudi women graduating from higher education according to subject in comparison with men in 1998

Subject	Total graduated	Female	% Female	% Female graduated by subject*
Economics & Admin.	2042	764	37.4	4.0
Education	16,197	10,894	67.2	57.5
Islamic Studies	4,693	1,247	26.6	6.6
Social Science	586	176	30.0	1.0
Humanities	5,230	3,029	58.0	16.0
Agriculture	287	110	38.3	0.6
Medicine	836	339	40.5	1.8
Natural Science	2,529	1,439	57.0	7.5
Engineering	1,269	0	0	0
Others	933	933	100	5.0
Total	34,602	18,931	54.7	100

Source: Ministry of Higher Education, Statistical Report, 1998.

* This column is the ratio of female graduates in a subject to the total female graduates expressed as a percentage.

It is clear from the above table that most female graduates in Saudi higher education are from the education and humanities disciplines, while there are few graduates in the other disciplines required by the labour market. This problem has been recognised by the Seventh Development Plan (2000-2004: 293-294) as one of the challenges to be addressed is channelling students into disciplines required by the labour market rather than keep accepting more students into education and humanities.

5.4.11 Development of TEVT for women in Saudi Arabia

The number of women in technical education and vocational training increased sharply between 1973 and 1999 (Table 5.6). This was due to the government encouraging women to take up this kind of education and by changing, to a small degree, society's attitude towards TEVT. As a result, the number of TEVT institutions increased from two institutions in 1973 to 57 in 1999.

Table 5.6: Women enrolled graduates and teaching staff in TEVT provided by GPGE between 1973 and 1999

Year	Institutions	Enrolled Students		Graduated Students		Teaching Staff	
		VT	TE	VT	TE	Saudi	Non-Saudi
1973	2	137	-	-	-	-	10
1975	4	505	-	233	-	-	43
1980	9	860	-	282	-	32	65
1985	19	1199	-	482	-	97	84
1990	22	1532	-	547	-	146	70
1995	28	1541	472	552	-	202	123
1996	30	1528	937	553	-	215	138
1997	34	1514	1269	663	276	223	56
1998	44	1614	2101	659	504	275	113
1999	57	1736	2541	-	-	474	156

Source: GPGE, 1999: 191-193, Women's education over thirty six years, statistical report
GPGE, 2000 Women's education: statistical abstract

The table shows that the number of women enrolled in vocational training is greater than in technical education. This is due to the fact that there were no opportunities for women in technical education before 1995.

Therefore, it is clear that TEVT for women began in 1973 with 137 girl students and ten non-national women teachers. This number increased to 4,277 girl students in 1999, while women teachers in the same year reached 630 (75% of these are national women). It is interesting to note that dependence on non-Saudi teaching staff is decreasing as a proportion of the total teaching staff. The limited programme in vocational training and society's negative attitude inhibits the enrolment of students for this programme. This is not true for technical education as the figures in the table from 1995 show. The increasing number of female students going through this educational system reflects the changing attitude of society with respect to the technical and vocational field. Graduates of the technical education stream can

continue their education in higher studies in home economics and technical subjects. This is an added incentive for students of technical education, which is not available to students of vocational training.

Comparison between males and females enrolled and graduates from TEVT during the development plans 1970-1998

Table 5.7 shows the number of students enrolled and graduating from TEVT (male and female). The table clearly shows that the number of females enrolled or graduating from TEVT was very limited compared with males in the same field (TEVT).

Table 5.7: Women enrolled and graduating from TEVT in comparison with men between 1970 and 1998

Year	Students enrolled		Graduates		Institutions	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1970	1,418	-	417	-	7	-
1975	5,340	505	2,035	233	19	4
1980	15,098	860	7,140	282	50	9
1985	22,912	2,008	11,089	482	61	19
1990	28,849	1,532	10,990	547	62	22
1995	38,625	*2,031	13,079	552	68	28
1996	36,241	2,465	12,731	553	73	30
1997	36,950	2,783	13,258	*939	75	34
1998	37,150	3715	11,891	1163	74	44

* The rate increased from 1990 to 1995 because GPGE established new technical institutes in 1995 and the first graduates passed through in 1997

Source: Ministry of Planning, 2000 "Achievements of Development Plans", 323-325.
GPGE, 1999, statistical report: 191-193

5.4.12 Links between education and the private sector in Saudi Arabia

A good relationship between the public and private sectors in education, training and employment is important for developing manpower. Therefore, GOTEVT and GPGE carry out a series of seminars, exhibitions, conferences and lectures, nationally and internationally, to highlight their role and the importance of TEVT for the labour market. As GOTEVT is responsible for developing TEVT for males and GPGE is responsible for the education and training of females, both organisations have a relationship with the private sector, through formal and/or informal co-operation and meetings.

Al-Dhalaan, (2001: 6-10) argues that GOTEVT must take serious steps towards co-operation with the private sector to develop plans and strategies that are compatible with private sector needs. These steps are as follows:

- GOTEVT has asked the private sector to be involved in the decision-making process as related to the labour market. This step has been fulfilled and satisfied through the participation of the private sector in various councils of GOTEVT, such as GOTEVT Board of Directors, the Higher Committee on Programmes and Curriculum Development, and the Council of Technical Colleges.
- GOTEVT has undertaken substantial initiatives for globalisation in order to realise its objectives, and it now possesses a global outlook in its world-wide co-operation. A global network, and co-operation, at all levels, is now underway with the USA, Canada, Malaysia, Germany and it has recently become a member of World Skills, (formerly International Vocational Training Organisation). As a member of World Skills, GOTEVT welcomes, and explores international innovations and corporations in order to achieve its local, regional and global objectives. The new frontiers are constantly being explored, and evaluated in order to be ready and face future challenges.
- In the colleges of technology, each student undergoes 12 weeks of training in a company or industry related to his field of speciality, following a week of preparatory orientation. He then spends two weeks of school-based work for the completion of the semester before final evaluation. In secondary institutions, the last semester of the third training year includes an obligatory co-operative training period in the private sector. This has been a result of a study involving 1,000 Saudi companies in which the importance of training on actual work sites has been emphasised.
- Co-operation with the private sector is further extended with two different types of services. One of them is the provision of short courses at any of the GOTEVT's educational sites in a specific vocation or job demanded by the private sector in question. These are customised courses ranging from one to six weeks in duration and are independent of the regular programmes offered by GOTEVT.

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- An annual bulletin is published listing hundreds of short courses and training programmes that are open for all interested parties, including public agencies and private sector companies that wish to send their employees to attend these programs.
 - GOTEVT provides tailored training programmes based on the actual need of the beneficiary organisation in the private sector. Such programmes are designed in mutual co-operation with the employer in order to make sure that the specific skills and needs are covered.
 - GOTEVT is now exploring, with the collaboration of the Chambers of Commerce and Industry, the establishment of a new, flexible training system, which will enhance the employability of graduates from the system. The system, known as the “National System for Joint Training (NSJT)” requires longer duration of study and training, both in theory and practice in the real-life workplace. The private sector provides the practical training under the supervision and monitoring of both the Chambers of Commerce and Industry and GOTEVT. The main objective of this system is to accommodate a large number of trainees in certain trades selected according to the needs of the labour market, and to design and develop a programme curriculum, which is in demand by the private sector.
 - Another avenue for a closer link with the private sector is the Research Centre and Industrial Studies, which has been established to monitor developmental activities related to industry.

Al-Dhalaan (2001: 10-11) also mentioned that GOTEVT attempts to put in place their plans and strategies, according to the labour market needs in general and in the private sector specifically. Therefore, formal meetings and common committees between GOTEVT and the private sector will take place. These include:

- Annual meetings between GOTEVT officials and the business sector in the industrial and commercial chambers.
- GOTEVT regularly provides curricula experts and specialists from the private sector in order to update, regulate and modify the curricular content in order to meet private sector needs.

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- Promoting annual events and activities related to scientific conferences, workshops, seminars and exhibitions as well as organising an annual Career Day which attracts the labour sectors. In November 2000, GOTEVT organised the First Saudi Technical Conference and Exhibition in Riyadh which was an international gathering of experts in different training systems in the world, aimed at sharing experiences and new initiatives.
 - Organising visits for private sector officials to educational and training centres in order to get acquainted with the ongoing programmes and training courses.
 - Involving officials of the private sector in curriculum development and evaluation committees as well as in the committees designated for developing new programmes.
 - Establishing offices of co-ordination for employment at technical colleges and institutes to link with the private sector in each region.

As far as the researcher is aware, the co-operation between GPGE and the public and private sectors towards women's education and training are provided through formal committees between GPGE and GOTEVT in order to develop TEVT for women. There is also a formal meeting with the Industrial and Commercial Chamber in Riyadh to develop women's education and training in the private sector. However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, co-operation between GPGE and the private sector in TEVT is still limited. This could be due to the limitations of technical education and vocational training for women. More details about the link between GPGE and the private sector will be examined in the empirical study.

Challenges Facing Technical Education and Vocational Training

According to Al-Amor (2001: 6-8), there are three major challenges that face TEVT in Saudi Arabia:

Technological advancement

Among the reasons that have led to the adoption of the development concept by GOTEVT are the tremendous advances in the field of technology that are occurring at a very rapid rate and which make it difficult for GOTEVT where its conventional programmes are concerned. Ironically, universities, colleges and

training institutions in the Kingdom depend mainly on the technologies existing in their scientific laboratories and training workshops that, although advanced, are not equal to the level of technological advancement found in the workplace. Although efforts are being exerted by educational and training institutions to update their facilities, they could not catch up with the rapid advances due to the nature of the different types of technologies and the high acquisition cost. Again, there is a need to qualify trainers continuously in order to handle these various types of new technologies.

These technological advances require trainers and trainees to qualify on the current new technologies or those that will be used in the near future. However, this can only be achieved through co-ordination and follow up. In another approach, a system must be established by offering opportunities for those who studied at the technical education and training institutions to join training programmes in the companies. This will enhance their capabilities and allow them to keep abreast of the new and continuously modified technologies in the workplace. At the same time, GOTEVT should enhance its capabilities to provide training in the new technology by providing the necessary state-of-the-art equipment.

The growing population

The population of the Kingdom is growing at a rate considered as one of the highest in the world. The effect of this on training is reflected in the increasing number of graduates from general education who must be absorbed into the higher education institutes. It is estimated that by the year 2020, the population of the Kingdom will reach 39 million. The need for more technical education and occupational training at the level of general secondary education and technical colleges becomes more urgent in order to produce highly skilled workers as soon as possible.

Saudisation of the labour market

The Kingdom has adopted a policy of qualifying the national manpower for the purpose of replacing expatriates, particularly in the private sector. Official statistics show that the number of expatriate workers is increasing and that most of the

sectors are still dependent on their expertise in the production processes and in the areas of operation and maintenance. In 1996, it was estimated that foreigners comprised one third of the total 7,200,000 civilian workforce, mostly employed by the private sector, 80% of whose positions are suitable for Saudis.

5.4.13 Government strategy for developing TEVT

The Seventh Development Plan (2000-2004: 92, 121-124, 182-183) addresses the continuation of the development of Saudi technical manpower such as:

- Increase the number of students in higher, technical and vocational education in public and private sector institutions in subjects needed by the labour market.
- Improve the efficiency and effectiveness of training and develop various pertinent agencies in all fields and all levels.
- Encourage the private sector to invest in higher, technical and vocational education, to participate in improving curriculum, training and subjects of studies.
- Establish more community colleges in all regions according to the labour market needs. Also open universities and distance learning are needed.
- Encourage students to study in technical and vocational subjects according to their abilities and attitudes.
- Ensure horizontal and vertical expansion of higher and technical education and training to cover all regions of the Kingdom.
- Expand on-the-job training programmes in the public and private sectors.
- Qualify and retrain unqualified national manpower before entering labour market.
- Encourage academic research of development manpower through universities and scientific research institutions.

5.5 Summary

In summary, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia had to change and expand its economy in advance of its educational system. The government has laid down aims for the system which it is hoped will increase the Saudisation of its workforce.

Chapter Six attempts to investigate and analyse why Saudi Arabia still relies on non-national workers with concentration on women's participation in the labour market.

CHAPTER SIX

STRUCTURE OF MANPOWER IN SAUDI ARABIA

6.1 Introduction

Manpower resources are most important factors, due to the fact that natural resources are useless without the manpower to make them effective. Therefore, manpower is an asset no less than the natural resources it overlaps. It is regarded as something that cannot be dispensed with in order to use all possible resources and the available wealth to achieve development in all areas.

Attention to the labour market given by the Saudi authorities has greatly increased recently. Saudisation of posts and the creation of employment opportunities for the national labour force has become the most prominent challenge that faces planners and policy makers (SAMA, 2000: 261).

This chapter attempts to analyse and investigate the shortages in the Saudi labour force in general, and in the women's sector in particular. In this chapter, a comparative analysis between national and non-national manpower is offered and the current situation of women's employment in Saudi Arabia is investigated.

6.2 Saudi Arabia Population

The study of the population structure, with regard to demographic, social and economic characteristics, is a useful introduction and is necessary in order to understand any society. The population in Saudi Arabia, according to the census of 1992, was 16,948,388 million (72.6% nationals and 27.4% non-nationals) (Saudi Census, 1992).

In 1999, it was estimated that the total population of Saudi Arabia increased to 19.9 million, with an average annual growth rate of 2.5 percent over the period 1992-1999 (SAMA, 1999). The national population grew at an average of 2.9% per year between 1992 and 1999 with a total of 14.9 million in 1999, compared to 12.3 million in 1992. The growth rate of Saudi females (3.1%) was higher than that for Saudi males (2.8%). The non-national population grew at a lower rate than that of Saudis, especially for males. This was due to a decline in job opportunities and the improved success of Saudisation which provided more jobs for Saudi nationals. The growth

rate of non-national females (3.1%) was, however, the same as for Saudi females, owing to higher demand for service workers.

6.2.1 Population in Saudi Arabia by sex and age

In 1992, three-quarters of the Saudi population were under 29 years of age (75%). This percentage decreased slightly in 1999 to 73% and those between 30-49 years represented 17.7% of the total of national population. The rapid rise in the population was due to the high fertility among Saudi families and better living conditions. National people under the age of 15 years accounted for 49.5% in 1992 and this also decreased to 46.9% in 1999. (SAMA, 2000: 254)

In the case of non-nationals, in 1992 the majority of the population was aged between 20-60 years; these represented 70.2% of the total of non-nationals. Whereas, in 1999 non-nationals between 30-49 years represented 43.6%. Those under 14 years of age represented 18.2% of the total of non-national population in 1992. This percentage increased to 24.6% in 1999. Figure 6.1 gives the distribution of the population by sex and age.

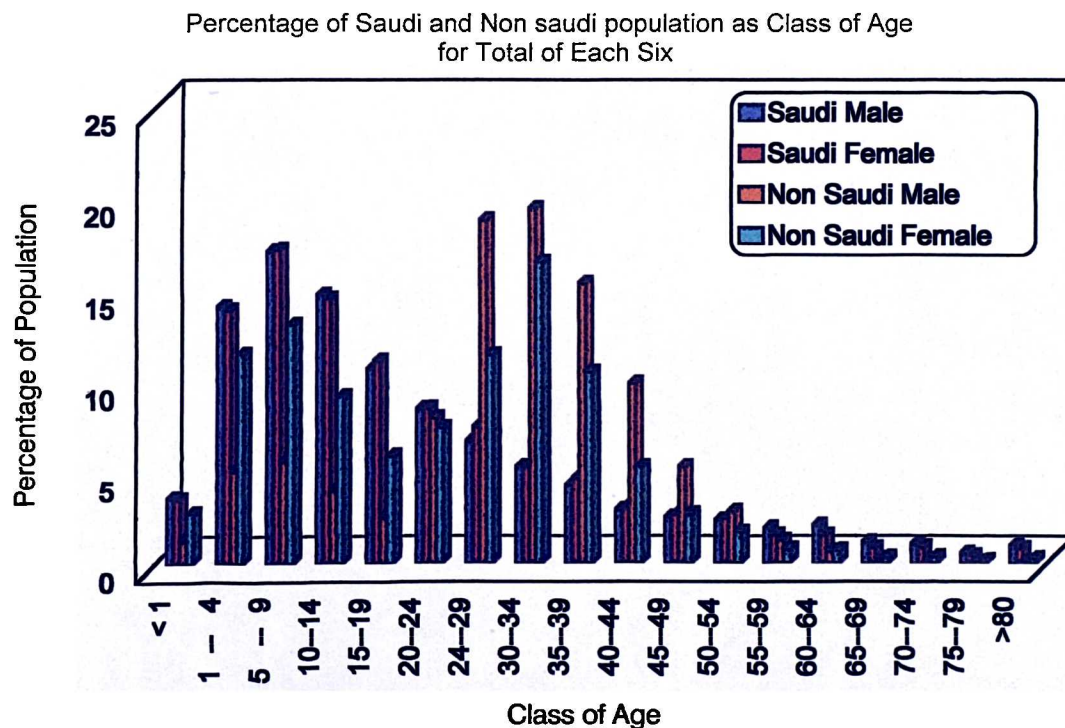


Figure 6.1: Distribution of population by sex and class of age

6.2.2 Population in Saudi Arabia by geographical regions

According to an estimation in 1999, the major regions in which the population (national and non-national) is centred in Saudi Arabia are Makkah (26.1%), Riyadh

(22.5%) and the Eastern Regions (14.5%), while the population in Assir and the Northern regions (national and non-national) represent only 7.9% and 1.2%, respectively. The major regions of population that accounted for the highest percentages of non-nationals were Makkah (36.1%), Riyadh (28.0%) and Eastern Regions (14.1%). The lowest ratio of nationals in a region's overall national population was in Makkah (65.1%) and Riyadh (68.7%) while the highest was in the Al-Baha (91.2%) and Jizan regions (90.4%) (SAMA, 2000: 253). The results show that work exposition is related to population in each region, and work requirement is related to the capacity of economic activity; this is not distributed evenly all over Saudi Arabia. This has led to internal migration, differences in idleness and in working rates throughout the region of Saudi Arabia. Figure 6.2 shows where non-national people are concentrated throughout the main regions.

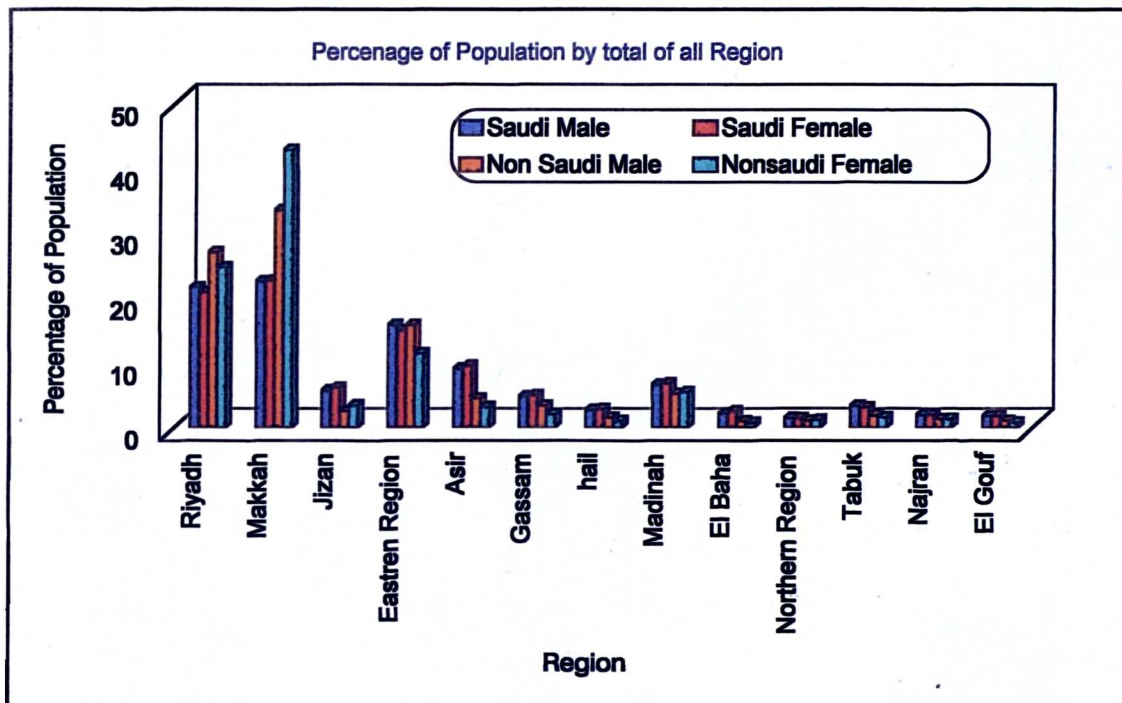


Figure 6.2: Distribution of population by sex and geographical regions

6.2.3 Distribution of population by educational level

In 1999, 18.1% of the total population in Saudi Arabia were illiterate (nationals 20.3% and non-nationals 12.9%) compared to 25.3% in 1992 (nationals 28.44% and non-nationals 18.78%). Those who held secondary level certificates represented 12.7% of the total of population (nationals 12.1% and non-nationals 13.8%).

The population who held a diploma after secondary school in 1992 represented 1.60% for nationals and 6.15% for non-nationals. While this percentage increased to 2.8% for nationals, it decreased to 5.7% for non-nationals in 1999.

In 1992, the population which held higher education qualifications represented 5.77% (3.42% for nationals and 10.67% for non-nationals). However, this percentage increased sharply for Saudis (6.0%) and for non-nationals it rose to 13.1% in 1999. Also in 1999, women in Saudi Arabia who were illiterate represented 25.8% (Saudi women 28.9% and non-national women 13.0%) of the population.

The highest educational level held by Saudi women in 1999 was that of primary school level with a rate of 19.9%. This is compared to that of non-national women of 14.4%, followed by Saudi women who hold intermediate school qualifications; this represented 14.5% compared to 11.9% for non-national women. Finally, was secondary school attainment with a rate of 11.3% for Saudis and 13.5% for non-national women.

Saudi women who held a diploma below university level represented 2.8% from the total of national women in comparison to 5.1% of non-national women. Meanwhile, national women who had a university degree and above represented 4.4% of the total of national women while for non-nationals this was 12.3%. It is clear that there is a significant difference between national women and non-national women in education, especially in higher education (SAMA, 2000: 253, 258).

Table 6.1: Distribution of population (greater than 10 years) by educational level in 1999 (in thousands)

Status Of Education	Saudi			Non Saudi			Total
	Male	Female	Total Saudi	Male	Female	Total Non-Saudi	
Illiterate	11.7	28.9	20.3	12.9	13.0	12.9	18.1
Literate	18.4	18.3	18.3	23.0	29.9	25.0	20.3
Primary	36.5	19.9	23.2	15.2	14.4	14.9	20.8
Intermediate	19.8	14.5	17.1	15.7	11.9	14.6	16.4
Secondary	13.2	11.3	12.1	13.9	13.5	13.8	12.7
Diploma below university	2.9	2.8	2.8	5.9	5.1	5.7	3.7
University Degree	7.6	4.4	6.0	13.4	12.3	13.1	8.1
Total	4,951,5	4,995,4	9,946,8	2,891,6	1,208,0	4,099,5	14,046,3

Source: Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency, Annual Report 2000: 258

6.3 The Labour Force in Saudi Arabia

To investigate women in the Saudi labour market, it is necessary to display the essential features that affect the labour market with regard to economic activities for both national and non-national labour according to the last census (1992) and the estimated statistics for the Saudi labour force in 1999.

6.3.1 Inactive population

Table 6.2 shows that 41.0% of the national population was outside the labour force (51% males and 49% females) while in the case of non-nationals the percentage was 16% (males 51% and females 49%). In 1992, the majority of the population outside the labour force in Saudi Arabia (national and/or non-national) consisted of students and housewives. They represented 38% and 51% respectively (national: 45% students and 43% housewives; non-national: 32% students and 59% housewives).

Table 6.2 Distribution of inactive population (Saudi and non- Saudi) in 1992

	Saudi	Non-Saudi	Total
Population	12,310,053	4,638,335	16,948,388
Outside manpower	5,006,168	872,919	5,879,087
Inactive people of population	41%	19%	35%
Students	2,243,645 45%	234,666 32%	2478311 38.5%
Housewives	2,185,426 43%	432,204 59%	2618630 51%
Others	592,981 12%	68,829 9%	661,810 10.5%
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Ministry of Planning: Census of population and housing, 1992 Table 2-12

In 1992, the majority of Saudi women who were housewives and who were illiterate represented 61% of the total number of Saudi housewives while those who had a degree higher than secondary school represented less than 1.2%. The majority of non-national women who were housewives and held qualifications less than diploma below university level were 77.3% while those who had a diploma and above represented 18.7% of the total number of non-national housewives. It is clear that there is a high percentage of unemployed qualified non-national women who hold a higher education certificate (18.7%). Consequently, these women with a higher education were not allowed to work because they were accompanying their husbands.

As a result, non-national women who hold higher degrees of studies, have to try hard to find employment for financial profit either inside or outside the home, thus making use of their qualifications in a regular and/or irregular manner. Therefore, they compete with Saudi women who are searching for long-term employment (Saudi Census of Population and Housing, 1992: 68-72).

6.3.2 Population inside labour forces

All jobs occupied by non-national workers in Saudi Arabia are available for national people. Saudis may be able to occupy these occupations according to the nature of each job, the necessary conditions, the required qualifications, the extent and conformity of any job, the characteristics and the peculiarities of the Saudi community.

Table 6.3 shows the labour force in Saudi Arabia (national and non-national) according to educational level.

Table 6.3: Distribution of manpower (Saudi/Non-Saudi) according to educational level in 1992

Level of education	Saudi			Non-Saudi			Total
	Male	Female	Total Saudi	Male	Female	Total Non-Saudi	
Illiterate	19.56	9.10	18.65	18.80	14.11	18.20	18.38
Literate	12.75	1.24	11.75	23.97	37.18	25.67	20.08
Primary	26.32	1.97	24.21	12.61	8.80	12.12	16.98
Intermediate	15.15	3.06	14.10	11.76	6.43	11.08	12.29
Secondary	12.17	31.34	13.84	14.80	10.09	14.19	14.05
Diploma below university level	4.32	21.11	5.78	6.65	9.22	6.98	6.50
University Degree	8.35	30.34	10.26	9.80	12.68	10.17	10.21
MSc Diploma	1.00	1.40	1.03	1.08	1.01	1.07	1.06
PhD.	0.38	0.45	0.38	0.40	0.47	0.41	0.40
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Ministry of Planning: Census of population and housing, 1992, Tables 18-1 to 18-9

It can be seen that the majority of Saudi workers have achieved primary school level education (24.21%) (males 26.32% and females 1.97%) while those who have attained secondary level represent 13.84% (males 12.17% and females 31.34%). Saudi males who hold a university degree represent 8.35% while Saudi women represent 30.34% of the total number of women workers. The reverse is found when considering employed females with 83% holding secondary certificates and above,

while the remaining percentage is divided between those educated at intermediate level or below (15%).

Non-nationals who are unqualified represent 42.77% (male) and 51.29% (female) of the total population of non-national workers in each sector. Workers who hold qualifications at a lower level than secondary certificate education represent 24.37% for males while females represent 15.23% of the total for each sector. Those who hold a secondary certificate education represent 14.19% (males 14.80% and females 10.09%) and non-nationals holding a university degree represent 10.17% (males 9.80% and females 12.68%).

The non-national educational level of female Saudi workers differs greatly from that of non-national female workers. It is noted that female Saudi workers are concentrated in jobs that require qualifications between the secondary stage and university graduate levels; these represent 82.79% of the total Saudi female workers. Non-national female workers are concentrated in unqualified jobs at a lower level than the elementary certificate. This represents 51.29% of the total female non-Saudi workers. Female Saudi workers who hold certificates lower than secondary stage but above the stage of illiteracy represent a rate not exceeding 5.03% of the total female Saudi workers, while non-national females represent 52.41% of the total non-national female workers in all educational levels. The extent of post-university graduate levels of both sectors are nearly the same, being not more than 2.5% of the total count of each sector of female workers.

6.3.3 Distribution of manpower according to geographical regions

Distribution of manpower according to geographical regions (Saudi and Non-national) can be distributed as follows:

Male and female Saudi workers are concentrated according to their occupations in the geographical regions of Riyadh, Makkah and the Eastern Regions. They represent 60% of all Saudi manpower. The remaining rate of 40% is distributed throughout the other ten regions (Saudi Census, 1992).

In Saudi Arabia, 117,557 of Saudi national women working in the three regions in Saudi (Makkah, Riyadh and Eastern regions) represent 68.5% of the total number of Saudi women working (171,605). The remaining rate, which does not exceed 31.5%, is distributed throughout the remaining regions (10 regions).

6.3.4 Distribution of manpower according to economic activities

Table 6.4 displays the distribution of the labour force in Saudi Arabia according to economic activities (Saudi and non-national).

Table 6.4: Distribution of the labour force in Saudi Arabia according to economic activities in 1992

Economic sector	Saudi			Non Saudi			Total
	Male	Female	Total Saudi	Male	Female	Total Non-Saudi	
Mining	74.46	0.49	74.95	21.46	3.59	25.05	100.00
Electricity, gas & water	57.95	0.04	57.99	41.94	0.08	42.01	100.00
Banking services	61.22	0.73	61.95	37.84	0.21	38.05	100.00
Admin and defence	92.16	0.62	92.78	7.02	0.20	7.22	100.00
Education	44.15	34.88	79.03	13.15	7.82	20.97	100.00
Transport, storage & communications	51.54	0.16	51.70	47.75	0.55	48.30	100.00
Agriculture	36.09	0.65	36.74	63.24	0.02	63.26	100.00
Fishing	43.10	0.07	43.17	56.74	0.09	56.83	100.00
Manufacturing	13.31	0.22	13.52	84.66	1.81	86.48	100.00
Construction and building.	4.16	0.01	4.17	95.65	0.18	95.83	100.00
Trade	19.28	0.11	19.40	79.86	0.74	80.60	100.00
Hotels and restaurants	3.80	0.02	3.82	95.44	0.74	96.18	100.00
Business services	14.13	0.08	14.21	83.33	2.46	85.79	100.00
Healthy	30.60	6.71	37.31	32.62	30.07	62.69	100.00
Social Services	23.37	0.53	23.89	74.72	1.39	76.11	100.00
Servants	1.11	0.19	1.30	28.99	69.71	98.70	100.00
Organisational Foreign	12.29	0.26	12.56	79.71	7.73	87.44	100.00

Source: Ministry of Planning: Census of population and housing, 1992, Tables 22-1 to 22-9

It is clear that Saudi nationals were concentrated in specific sectors in the Saudi economy, such as administration and defence (92.78% Saudis and 7.22% non-national), the mining sector (74.46% Saudis and 25.05% non-nationals), education (79.03% Saudis and 20.97% non-nationals), banking services (61.95% Saudis and 38.05% non-nationals), electricity, water and gas (57.99% Saudis and 42.1% non-nationals), transport, storage and communications (51.70% Saudis and 48.30% non-nationals). However, the majority of non-national people were concentrated in the industrial sector, instruction and building, servants, hotels and restaurants, business services, health sectors and agriculture.

Of the Saudi women, 85.09% work in the education sector, the rest being divided among sanitary/health (7.36%), general management (3.71%) and agriculture (1.39%). Thus, 98% work in only four major areas, with education being by far the greatest area of employment. This is a very narrow frame of distribution may be attributed partly to the fact that society regards many areas of work as unacceptable

for women. The additional problems of women being in contact with men may also make many families reluctant to encourage their female members to seek employment outside the home. There are also jobs that might be considered suitable for which few women are qualified. In fields such as sewing, printing, designing and the medical and technical areas, the work is compatible with women's roles but few women are trained to fill them.

In the case of non-national females, 69.32% of their total in the workforce are employed as domestic help while other areas in which they find work are health and social services (14.95%), education (8.56%) and manufacturing (1.9%) (Table 6.5).

Table 6.5: Distribution of Women (National/Non-National) according to economic activities in 1992

Sector	National women	Non-National women
Agriculture	1.39	0.02
Manufacturing	0.50	1.90
Trade	0.40	1.18
Business services	0.09	1.26
Administration	3.71	0.55
Education.	85.09	8.65
Health	7.36	14.95
Social Services	0.34	0.41
Servants	0.42	69.32
Others	.69	1.8
Not Clear	0.01	0.01
Total	100.00	100.00
Total number of women	171,605	378,595

Source: Ministry of Planning: Census of population and housing, 1992, Tables 20-2, 20-3, 20-5, 20-6

6.4 Unemployment in Saudi Arabia

6.4.1 Unemployment according to sex and nationality

Tables 6.6 and 6.7 show the unemployment in Saudi Arabia in 1992 for both national and non-national labour (males and females).

Table 6.6: Distribution of labour force in Saudi Arabia (national and non-national) in 1992

Labour force	Employees	Unemployed	Total
National labour	1,975,222	306,611	2,281,833
%	86.56%	13.44%	100%
Non- National labour	2,939,186	89,531	3,028,717
%	97.04	2.96%	100%
Total	4,914,408	396,142	5,307,550

Source: Ministry of Planning: Census of population and housing, 1992, Tables 12-1 to 12-3, 13-1 to 13-3 and 14-1 to 14-3

Table 6.7: Distribution of unemployment within national manpower in Saudi Arabia in 1992

Unemployment	Males %	Females %	Total
Unemployed (were working)	19.96	5.13	57,787
Unemployed (never working)	80.04	94.87	248,824
Total	283,605	23,005	306,611
%	100%	100%	

Source: Ministry of Planning: Census of population and housing, 1992, Tables 12-1 to 12-3, 13-1 to 13-3 and 14-1 to 14-3

It can be seen that unemployment in the Saudi labour market in 1992 was 369,142 (Saudi 13.44% and non-national 2.96%); the number of unemployed national women was 23,005 out of 306,611. This represents 7.5% of the total number, while unemployed Saudi males represented 92.5% of the total number of unemployed within Saudi Arabia.

The rate of unemployment among non-national labour is 2.96%. The reason behind the large differences between nationals and non-nationals was that foreigners' recruitment is only for employment according to Saudi law, which states that non-national labour recruitment is only for the necessary requirements. These requirements, which Saudi citizens cannot fill, must be performed by foreign labour.

According to Table 6.7, unemployed Saudis are classified into two categories. The first category are those who have previously been employed (19.96% males and 5.13% females) and the second are those who have never worked before (80.04% males and 94.87% females). In this section, identification is made of the unemployed population categories with respect to age, educational qualification, and geographical regions. This is to allow, through this analysis, the complete exploration of factors affecting the imbalance in both the supply and demand of the Saudi labour market. It will identify various reasons which lead to the appearance of unemployment. Although there are more than three million non-national workers within the Saudi labour market, the count of unemployment within national people has increased.

According to Saudi rules and regulations, which are concerned with the recruitment of foreign manpower, it is well known that permission must only be allowed on the condition that suitable Saudi personnel, male or female, who can fill the occupations which the recruitment has been made for are unavailable. This must be naturally applied according to the peculiarities and the nature of the occupations

concerned. This means that there must not be any foreign manpower in regular unemployment or searching for work, because these workers have originally been recruited for certain occupations in the Saudi labour market where there is no available Saudi manpower. The state of unemployment, which the foreign manpower may suffer from, usually occurs in cases of irregular situations or unofficial incidents. Some Saudi natives may recruit foreign manpower for requirements which represent an overload for his/her activities.

The statistics reveal that the largest proportion of unemployed males in Saudi Arabia is that of illiterates (30%), followed by those who hold elementary certificates (27%). As levels of qualification increase, the likelihood of unemployment falls until a level of 0.09% is reached, representing the proportion of Saudi males who are unemployed although holding higher diplomas, Masters or PhD degrees. It is clear from these figures that education is a key factor concerning unemployment for males in Saudi Arabia since the higher the level of education, the less likely it is that men will be unemployed.

The highest percentage of women who are unemployed is seen, however, in female university graduates (33%), suggesting that many women in Saudi are achieving qualifications but cannot find work. This compares to a figure of only 3% for Saudi men at a similar educational level. Indeed, at all levels of education at secondary level and above, the rates of unemployment are higher for women than for men, while at lower levels of education the rate differences reverse and unemployment is higher for men than for women. This suggests that women who do not achieve higher levels of education may find work more easily in more mundane employment or may not even seek work while, once educated, women may find it very difficult to find suitable jobs. Unemployment within national people, according to educational level and regions, can be summarised as follows:

6.4.2 Unemployment according to educational level

When looking at unemployment according to education levels in the Saudi census in 1992 it was found that:

- Unemployed Saudi males who are illiterate represent 30%, while females represent 10%.
- Unemployed Saudi male citizens who read and write represent 17%, while females represent 5%.

- Unemployed Saudi male citizens who hold elementary certificates represent 27%, while females represent 8%.
- Unemployed male citizens who hold intermediate certificates represent 12%, while females represent 6%.
- Unemployed Saudi male citizens who hold secondary certificates represent 9%, while females represent 24%.
- Unemployed Saudi male citizens who hold diplomas lower than a university degree represent 1%, while females represent 15%.
- Unemployed Saudi citizens who are university graduates do not exceed 3%, while females represent 33%.
- Unemployed Saudi male workers who hold a higher diploma (MS or PhD) do not exceed 0.09%, while females represent 0.5%.

6.4.3 Unemployment according to regions

The highest rate of unemployment within national males and females, according to the Saudi regions, are in the main three regions, and this represents 55% of unemployment in Saudi males and 70% of unemployment in Saudi females. This can be distributed as follows:

- Unemployment in the Makkah region represents 21% for males and 22% for females.
- Unemployment in the Riyadh region represents 17.5% for males and 27% for females.
- Unemployment in the Eastern Regions represents 17% for males and 21% for females.

6.5 Factors Relying on Non-national Manpower in the Labour Market

The previous analysis of the actual facts of the Saudi labour market reveals that the Saudi economy complains of an essential problem represented in the imbalance between foreign and national manpower. This imbalance is biased to the benefit of foreign manpower, especially in technical occupations and professions. Some of these occupations require high experience and advanced efficiency. This has led to the continuity of increasing demand for foreign manpower to a large degree, where the rate of foreign manpower was 66% of the total manpower in 1996. There

were 95% working in the private sector, while the rate of employed in the public sector did not exceed 5% of the total count (Saudi Arabia Labour Force Council, 1997: 2).

In 1985, the number of non-national employees was 2,660 million (Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber, 1997: 16), this figure increased to 4,003 million in the year 2000 (Seventh Development Plan, 2000-2004: 60).

The previous analysis concludes that several factors have had great effect on the structure of manpower in the Saudi labour market and the demand for non-national labour. This has led to the state of unemployment among Saudi male and female citizens at the present time. Therefore, the following points can be concluded:

- **The high rate of population outside of working age**

The high rate of population who are below the occupational age in Saudi Arabia is regarded as a natural result of the high rate of fertility which accompanied the improvements to standards of living and the health situation. These are due to society, according to its culture and religion preferring to increase family size. Therefore, the high rate of fertility in Saudi society has led to an increase of the population outside the working age. The 12-19 years sector population is very high; it represented 50% of the total population in 1999 (SAMA, 2000).

- **The lack of technical skills in the national labour force**

Although education in Saudi Arabia has developed sharply, there is still a mismatch between educational output and private sector needs in general and in technical and scientific fields in particular. This problem is mentioned in all Saudi development plans between 1970 and 2004. It is also discussed in some research studies, such as Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (1992); Al-Ghaith and Al-Mashoog (1997); Daghestani (2000); Al-Khtani (1997) and Al-Humaid (2001). The private sector also requires, experience and skills in other requirements such as the English language and skills in computing services. These are often not provided by the national manpower, this is confirmed by Al-Ghaith and Al-Mashoog, (1997); Daghistani, (2000); Al- Khtani, (1997); Al-Humaid, (2001). These factors usually represent obstacles for the employment of national labour in the private sector.

- **Concentration of national manpower in the main regions**

There is a defect within the geographical distribution of the population of Saudi Arabia. It was noted that a concentration of a large population sector in some large cities was at the expense of small towns and villages. This applied to both Saudi and foreign residents, where more than 60% of the total population of Saudi Arabia was concentrated in three main regions. These are Riyadh, Makkah and the Western Region. This is due to the concentration of economic activities in these regions. This reason has led non-national manpower to occupy most available jobs in the small towns or villages this confirmed by Al-Ghaith and Al-Mashoog (1997); Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber (1993) and Daghestani (2000).

- **Concentration of national manpower in the public sector**

Saudi manpower is concentrated in the public sector rather than private sector. This is due to the public sector providing more facilities than the private sector especially in terms of salaries, rewards, jobs security, shorter hours and long holidays. In addition to the above reasons the private sector prefers to employ non-nationals rather than nationals because they have the skills and experience in specific jobs, they accept lower salaries, move easily from one place to another according to the company's needs and it is easy to get rid of them at any time. Most of these factors are mentioned by research studies such as Al-Nufaiai (1993); Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber (1993); Al-Ghaith and Al-Mashoog (1997); Daghistani (2000) and Al-Sultan, (1999). This has made a big gap between supply and demand for Saudi manpower in the private sector.

- **Low rate of participation of national women in paid work**

The total rate of Saudi women's participation in economic activity represents 5% of the total of women in working age (The Sixth Development Plan, 1995-2000: 250).

According to the census in 1992, the highest rate of unemployment among Saudi females appeared to be within university graduates representing 33% of the total unemployed females, follow by females who had secondary certificates and finally, those holding post secondary certificates. This may be due to the presence of a number of institutes qualifying female instructors and the training they received to be employed at the elementary level. Although there is general satisfaction at the

present time with female elementary instructors, some female graduates refuse to work in regions away from their residential locations. Consequently they have a limited choice of employment opportunities, therefore, they choose not to work at all and remain in the home. Colleges of health and social care and high technical diplomas are not included in this category.

The presence of some occupations which are filled with foreign females include medical and paramedical jobs, sewing and family domestic services. Technical and vocational jobs are also included. The demand for these jobs by Saudi females is very limited, this could be because Saudi society does not accept these occupations due to the negative attitudes of society or the low status of other jobs such as family servants jobs. Also from the analysis, it was found that there is a large number of non-national males practising occupations that are considered to be feminine in nature, such as nursing, sewing, embroidery and the textile industries. However, recruitment for such occupations still exists. It is obvious from the analysis that the female labour market in the Kingdom requires highly qualified females i.e. holders of secondary level and higher degrees. Therefore, Saudi females who drop out of education at various levels, especially lower levels such as the elementary and intermediate stages, will face very limited opportunities for employment. The employment chart of Saudi female citizens differs from that of Saudi male citizens. The Saudi labour market requires Saudi males of lower education levels. In the case of Saudi female citizens, the contrary is true. Saudi female manpower is concentrated in service occupations, especially education which represents 85% of the total Saudi female workers in the Saudi labour market. The remaining rate of 15% is distributed throughout the other occupations in the Kingdom. This indicates the presence of an imbalance in the distribution of female workers in the Saudi labour market which is concerned with the different activities which suit women's employment.

6.6 Development of Women's Employment in Saudi Arabia

6.6.1 The beginning of women's employment

Women working outside the home is a fairly new concept in Saudi Arabia, there were only a few women working before the introduction of girls' education in 1960. However, once Saudis were exposed to the concept of women in the role of teachers, attitudes changed to a limited extent. Nonetheless, cultural values in Saudi society still emphasise that the role of women is that of wife, mother and homemaker.

After the introduction of female education and the huge increase in the number of girls graduating from elementary and secondary schools, more women were encouraged to join the workforce, usually as teachers, a role which received much support from the government and from society. This was due to the fact that it enabled women to work in an environment where they had no contact with men. The education sector still provides the majority of government jobs for women although the availability of teaching positions is now more limited because the need for female teachers has now largely been fulfilled.

Other women are employed in universities in such roles as administrators and professors and, while these women do teach, they deal only with females on segregated campuses.

Since the late 1970s and 1980s, the Ministry of Health has employed Saudi women as nurses. The first medical school for girls opened in Riyadh in 1962 with only four female students (Al-Baker, 1997: 134). This small number was probably due to the fact that nursing was (and is still) not a popular occupation amongst Saudi women possibly because society's perception of nursing is as a menial job; many families would find it difficult to accept this kind of work for their daughter. For example, in a hospital environment it is difficult to keep the sexes segregated.

With such traditional, social and cultural pressures, where there is the fear of women impugning the family honour, this often leads to women's freedom being restricted in terms of choice, thus limiting their employment options. While working in such areas as teaching and social work etc., is viewed as "suitable" employment, working in the healthcare sector is less popular. This is because in this sector women will need to mix with the opposite sex, and most women are still hesitant in violating tradition, thus risking disapproval from certain segments of society.

Al-Bakar (1990) stated that women's employment in Saudi has been shaped by the philosophy and practices of a segregated society that observes a total separation between the two sexes in its educational, employment and social institutions. Therefore, female employment has been made possible in places where this segregation is practised, such as girls' schools, social affairs, women's branches in banks, and other institutions that serve the women's sector.

The education sector is the main absorbing sector for women's employment. In recent years, most qualified Saudi women joining the professional labour market are finding employment in the General Presidency for Girls' Education, universities,

the women's division of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, the Ministry of Health, and the private sector. The field of education presents a large number of job opportunities for Saudi women. It is estimated that more than 85 percent of working women in Saudi Arabia are in the teaching profession. In the early stages of education in Saudi Arabia, teachers were recruited from various Arab countries.

In Saudi Arabia there is a relationship between education and employment in the women's sector. The more educated women are, the more they are willing to work or to seek work. In Saudi Arabia, women who have a university degree are more likely to be employed while unqualified Saudi women do not want to work outside the home unless (a) they are wealthy and can open their own businesses with the help of their families or husbands, or (b) they are in need of money and therefore have to work in menial jobs. In the government census of 1992, unqualified Saudi women who were working in the labour market represented less than 10% of the total count of national women working, while non-national women at the same level represented about 20% of the total of non-national working women in Saudi Arabia (Saudi Census of Population and Housing, 1992).

6.6.2 Saudi women in the development plans (1970-2000)

The Saudi government compiled a series of 'five-year' development plans. (The Kingdom so far has six 'five-year' development plans.) The first plan was for 1970-1975 while the sixth plan was for 1995-2000.

In recent years the number of unemployed female graduates has increased. This may be due to a lack of co-ordination between the education authority and market need planners, although the increase has led the authority to increase job opportunities for Saudi females. This subject was highlighted and included in the Third (1980-1985) and Fourth (1985-1990) Development Plans.

The Fifth (1990-1995) and Sixth (1995-2000) Development Plans' aims were to consider increasing female job opportunities and create new job areas suitable for females (Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber, 1997: 163.).

By studying the above development plans for the expectations and contribution of Saudi females in the labour market, it can be concluded that the plans concentrated on the following roles:

The first plan (1970-1975) failed to produce a statistical analysis for the role of Saudi females in the labour market. The plan only mentioned briefly that there was a

gradual increase in the number of females in the labour market. It seems that the priority of the plan was not to concentrate on the human resources, but to concentrate on the infrastructure of the country.

The second plan (1975-1980) mentioned that Saudi female's contribution in the labour market increased during the first plan from 0.5% to 1%. The plan concentrated on public, higher, vocational and technical education. It also mentioned the importance of training development to cover all levels.

The third plan (1980-1985) concentrated on the significance of educating and increasing the awareness of Saudi females, as well as society's, to the importance of the working female to achieve the aims of the development plan. They mentioned that well-planned programmes available in the information media channels could do this.

The plan also mentioned the importance of creating a unit for female working affairs. This unit should be connected to job centres administratively in order to coordinate and supervise all the services related to female employment. The plan also expected that an increase in the annual rate of Saudi females in the labour market would be 3.1% during the plan period.

The fourth plan (1985-1990) believed that one of the main challenges to their plan would be finding suitable ways to use the ability and skills of the female section of society according to Islamic law. The plan mentioned the importance of establishing units for female affairs in any field that appeared in need of female employment. The plan estimated that the annual increase rate of females in the labour market would be about 5.2%. It also mentioned that there are many areas in which females can work, namely computing, laboratory activities and as machine operators beside that of education, which needed Saudisation.

The fifth plan (1990-1995) mentioned the importance of increasing the contribution of Saudi females in the labour market according to Islamic law, which coincides with society's culture and attitudes. The plan also considered the importance of using new developments in technology to create job opportunities. The plan was concerned with large increases in female unemployment, especially among humanity course graduates. Finding ways to employ the unemployed was one of the important challenges of the plan period. It shows the importance of improving job opportunities in the private sector. This section represented an important element resource for improving the country's economy.

The plan stated its intention to pursue labour market policies and measures aimed at enhancing the participation of women in the development of the Kingdom. These measures were as follows:

1. To provide financial incentives to encourage women to start new businesses that are operated and managed by women.
2. To study the feasibility of opening a 'women's section' of the Chambers of Commerce, so as to enable women to keep abreast of new business opportunities.
3. To study the feasibility of establishing a venture capital company, operated and managed by women, through which women can channel their investment capital and obtain commercial loans.
4. To prepare annual 'Saudisation plans' for the graduate increase of Saudi women in public sector employment.
5. To review periodically the occupations in which the employment of women is deemed to be in accordance with the Shari'a in both the public and the private sector. This information will be disseminated widely through the media.
6. To study the feasibility of allowing women to teach boys up to grade four at the elementary school level (Ministry of Planning 1995: 37).

The plan mentioned the importance of carrying out visible studies to establish share companies administrated by females. The plan estimated that the annual increase rate of females in labour market would be about 5.5%.

The sixth plan (1995-2000) mentioned that there is a definite lack of Saudi graduates to meet market needs during the current and future development plans. The plan highlighted the imbalance in graduate specialisation to meet the labour market needs. On the one hand, in humanities courses, there is a saturation of graduates, and the number of students interested in joining these courses is still increasing. On the other hand, there is a lack of graduates from science and technology courses. This imbalance does not coincide with market need. This will cause an obstacle while trying to achieve the employment development plan policy, as well as replacing non-national manpower.

The plan mentioned that one of the obstacles in the way of replacing non-Saudi females in the labour market is transport. Most Saudi females could not take job opportunities outside their residential area or their family's place of living. This has led the labour market to continue depending on non-Saudi females. The plan

expected that the male manpower in the market would be 54.7% while female manpower would be 5.8%.

Tables 6.8 and 6.9 show the development of Saudi women in the labour market during the development plans between 1985 and 2000. It can be seen that there was a slight increase in the number of women joining the labour force in this period.

Table 6.8: Saudi women's population of working age in the labour market (1985 to 2000)

Year	Saudi population of working age	Saudi women of working age		Saudi women employees		
		Women	%	Employed Women	% of working women of working age	% of women employees according to women of working age
1985	5,345,000	2,659,000	49.7	136,800	2.6	5.1
1990	6,424,200	3,200,500	49.8	168,900	2.6	5.3
1995	7,905,300	3,919,100	49.6	215,600	2.7	5.5
*2000	9,511,800	4,715,500	49.6	272,700	2.9	5.8

* Number of employees expected by Sixth Development Plan 1995-2000.

Source: Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber, 1997:15

Table 6.9: Saudi women employees in the labour market from (1985 to 2000)

Year	Total of civil employees	Saudi employees		Saudi women employees		
		No of Saudi	% from total of civil employment	No of woman employees	% women from Saudi employees	% Saudi women from total of civil employees
1985	4,446,000	1,786,000	40.2	136,800	7.7	3.1
1990	5,771,800	1,923,200	33.3	168,900	8.8	2.9
1995	6,867,700	2,384,200	34.7	215,600	9.0	3.1
*2000	7,059,400	2,895,400	41.0	272,700	9.4	3.9

* Number of employees expected by Sixth Development Plan.

Source: Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber, 1997:16

6.6.3 Women and the employment system in Saudi Arabia

In Saudi Arabia, employment conditions for women are generally found to be similar for men, if they work in similar conditions and locations. Wages are also paid on the same basis. Both males and females in paid work are subject to the same kind of treatment under the civil service system or labour legislation. This includes compensation and overtime. However, women, by virtue of their sex, were placed under special protection in some working conditions so as not to be subject to

hazardous conditions or to heavy types of work. Furthermore, women are allowed special treatment for childbirth. They are allowed to take leave for 90 days or on a husband's death they are allowed 130 days.

The Ministry of Civil Service is responsible for employment in the public sector (male and female employees); while the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is responsible for employment (male and female) in the private sector.

- **Women in the Civil Service System**

Saudi women in the public sector receive equal pay for equal work as Saudi men and are entitled to the same benefits and pensions. Female government employees are also entitled to two months paid maternity leave and four months and ten days paid leave in the case of the husband's death (Ministry of Education, 1996: 84). The separation of both sexes in the workplace (separate institutions) safeguards women against job discrimination or competing for the same jobs as men. On the other hand, the limited fields of work allowed for women may limit their chances of finding jobs and force them to compete with their own sex for the available jobs.

- **Women in the Labour Legislation**

Labour legislation in Saudi Arabia, which was issued in 1969, introduced some protective rules and benefits for women workers in the private sector. These include:

- Women may not be employed in hazardous operations or harmful industries, such as in areas which have power-operated machinery, in mines and in quarries.
- Men and women must be separated in the place of work and in the attached facilities.
- Women may not be employed during night shifts, except in cases approved by the Minister of Labour for non-industrial occupations.
- The working woman has the right for paid maternity leave of two and half months (one month prior to delivery and one and half months after delivery).
- The working woman has the right, on returning to work after delivery, for a total rest period of one hour per day to breastfeed her infant (taken once or divided during the working day). This is in addition to the general rest periods provided to all female workers.

- The employer has full responsibility for paying medical expenses of treatment in the case of illness, and for the delivery of the working woman.
- The employer may not terminate the work contract of a woman during her maternity leave or during an illness resulting from work or delivery.
- At all places where women work, the employer must provide special resting-places for them (Ministry of Financial and National Economy, 1969: 52-54).

In addition to the general advantages provided for Saudi women in the employment regulations, which encourages them to join the national workforce, the government also increased the incentive for Saudi women to work by granting them and their families visa permission to employ non-national female servants to help with the housework. This exception for servants is also extended to families with special needs and circumstances, such as having more than three children below adolescent age and/or the presence of an ill, disabled, or elderly member of the family.

Although work regulations give Saudi women equal rights with men in pay and promotions, these same regulations impose on women similar conditions to men with regard to working hours and vacations that contradict with Saudi women's traditional roles, which they must fulfil together with their new work roles. The government imposes these restriction roles (Katan, 1991).

6.6.4 Women's employment in the public sector

Women have worked in certain government organisations since the early 1960s although their numbers were, and still are, comparatively low. Women have, since that time, held posts in the General Presidency for Girls' Education, the Ministry of Health, and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, as well as in other government organisations.

In Saudi Arabia, as far as the public sector is concerned, it is the principal sector employing women. According to a Ministry of Civil Service report in 1999, the total number employed in the public sector is 668,423. Saudis represent 579,415 (86.7%) of the total (66.3% males and 43.7% females) while non-nationals represent 89,008 employees, 13.3% of the total (56.9% males and 44.1% females). Non-nationals who are employed in the public sector are concentrated in the health sector, (55.2% of the total of non-national employees) while 30% are working in the educational sector. Of the other employees, 14.8 are in the remaining jobs such as academic staff, servants and administration (Table 6.10).

Table 6.10: Distribution of employment in the public sector by sex and nationality in 1998

Type of jobs	Saudi			Non-Saudi			Total
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
Administration	150,963	11,012	161,975	7,713	1164	7,877	169,852
Health	17,297	8,835	26,132	19,205	29,882	49,087	75,219
Education	135,621	164,535	300,156	19,415	7,244	26,659	326,815
Academic staff	7,275	2,889	10,164	3,663	849	4,512	14,676
Judges and others	1,640	-	1,640	-	-	-	1,640
Unqualified	71,200	8,148	79,348	740	133	873	80,221
Total	383,996	195,419	579,415	49,736	39,272	98,008	668,423

Source: Ministry of Civil Service, Annual Report 1998: 20

Education is the most popular type of job appreciated and accepted by the national women as well as by society. In 1998 there were 171,779 woman employees in educational jobs. National women represent 95.79% while non-national women represent 4.21% of the total number of female employees in educational jobs. Another sector in which women are concentrated is the health sector with 38,717 in total. National women represent 22.8% while non-national women represent 77.2% of the total number of woman employees in the health sector (Figure 6.3).

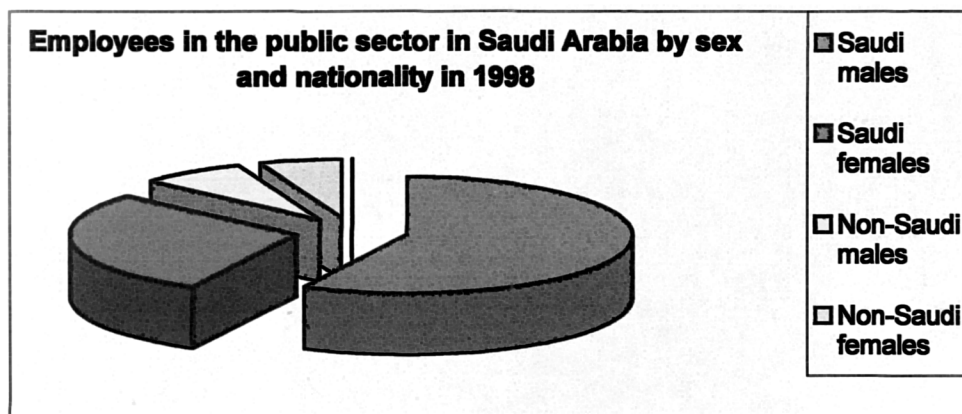


Figure 6.3: Distribution of people employed in the public sector by sex and nationality

The majority of national women employees in the public sector between the ages of 21-30 represent 43.6% of the total number of national woman employees while the lowest is under 20 years (.008%) of the total number of national women employees. In the case of non-national women the majority are between 31-40 years and they represent 38.8% of the total of non-national women employees, while the lowest, who are under 20 years, represent .025% of the total.

In Saudi Arabia, most national women employees in the educational sector are university graduates; they represent 56.6% of the total national women employees (164,535). The rate of national women employees who are unqualified is only 1.2%, while women employees who have a high degree, MSc or PhD represent only 1.1% of Saudi employees in the public sector. Most non-national women employees in the public sector holding university degrees represent 42.4%, followed by those holding a diploma below secondary school level (26.7%) and those who hold a diploma below university degree level who represent 21.3%.

In 1998, the majority of women employees in the public sector (59%) have experience of fewer than 15 years (national 48.7% and non-national 51.3%) of the total of woman employees in the public sector (Ministry of Civil Service, 1998: 13).

In the year 1998 the highest rate of working women were in the General Presidency of Girls' Education (GPGE) where the count of the Saudis reached 120,671. Those working in the Ministry of Health followed with 12,027 employees. Next, were those working in universities, which reached 2,592. The following were those working in the medical and educational occupations in the Ministry of Defence and Aircraft which numbered 2,249 (Information Department, Ministry of Civil Service, 1999).

6.6.5 Women in the private sector

In the past few decades, Saudi women have not had any apparent formal participation in the activities of the private sector with the exception of small, family-run businesses. The private sector establishments and companies do not have any enthusiasm for employing women. This is due to the costly expenditure of providing suitable situations for women in employment. However, women's participation in the private sector in recent years has become directed and operated by women, some of whom have already started up in some cities, for example, a shopping centre, craft shops, textile and sewing factories, property, hairdressing, computing and medical centres. All these fields are suggested as a way of ensuring the seclusion of women, where all the salespersons, employees and managers are women and no men are allowed to enter.

In the past, agriculture was considered one of the most important activities of the indigenous population. Before the discovery of oil in 1973, agriculture constituted one of the primary work activities of Saudi Arabian society for women. Women in

herding communities were responsible for dairy products, care of the animals and assisting husbands in farm management.

After the discovery of oil, most people shifted their activities from producing their own food and farming their own land to importing food products and hiring foreign workers to farm their lands. In 1973-74, the number of paid women agricultural workers was 9,176 representing 4.4% of the total Saudi workforce in agriculture. Of the total paid women farmers only 2,254 were full time workers (54.5%), while the rest were part time or seasonal workers (Kattan, 1991: 119).

ARAMCO Oil Company and the LAZORDY factory for jewellery design are the two major companies in Saudi Arabia employing women in the industrial sector. ARAMCO was the first company in the private sector to begin recruiting women and offering scholarships for girls to study, while LAZORDY was the first private Saudi factory to design gold and jewellery. The majority of these women performed clerical and technical jobs; few held professional jobs.

In 1980, the number of women employees in ARAMCO numbered 2,973 of which 6% were Saudi women (Kattan, 1991: 116). The number increased to 3,000 women employees in 1989 (Al-Munajjed, 1997: 92). The number of women employees in the LAZORDY factory in 1999 was 146 women employees of which 60% were Saudis (Information from researcher's questionnaire, May 1999).

The Al Rajhi Company opened the first bank for women in Riyadh in January 1990 for Currency, Exchange and Commerce, it offers limited banking services, all current accounts are held by Saudi women (Al-Munajjed, 1997: 91).

In the past, Saudi Arabia provided banking services indirectly for women. This was due to the strict enforcement of the separation of the sexes, but to remedy this situation and to provide banking services directly to women, several banks opened women's branches to help and encourage women to invest and manage their own money by themselves. The step, which the banks in the country have taken recently in operating departments for women, provided employment opportunities for many female Saudi citizens. The total count of the female employees in all the banks is 637 Saudis, a rate of 95% (Al-Sayary, 1998). In the Saudi British bank there are 185 women employees, all of whom are Saudis (Information from the author's questionnaire, March 1999). At present, all big banks in Saudi Arabia have branches only for women.

Saudi women began to accept work in private schools and hospitals but are still relatively small in number and dependency on expatriates remains high because these schools and hospitals require higher qualifications and their salaries are less than those of the government sector. The number of Saudi female teachers working in general private schools was 67 in 1982. This may be explained by the demand for women in public sector. However, with a shortage of jobs for women in the public sector now, Saudi university graduates accept working in private schools even for a lower salaries. The number of national women employees in private schools increased from 67 employees in 1982 to 6000 employees in 1997, while the number of non-national women in 1997 was 8000 women employees (Al-Hazmi, 1997: 8).

In the fields of business and commerce, industry, and services, some women in Saudi Arabia own and manage their own businesses. For example, there are small tailoring establishments, boutiques, hairdressing shops and private nursery schools. The total number of Saudi business women who are engaged in the field of investment through their private projects and who have sought permission and registration for their activities in various economic fields in the Kingdom reached 20,376 in 1996 (Ministry of Trade, 1997).

Statistics show (Table 6.11) that the number of women employees in the private sector has increased from 27,968 in 1989 (29.9% national women and 71.1% non-nationals) to 36,726 women employees in 1993 (30.7% Saudis and 69.3% non-nationals).

Table 6.11: Distribution of women employees in the private sector by field of work (1989-1993)

Sector	1989			1993		
	National	Non-national	Total	National	Non-national	Total
Professional and Doctors	117	5,296	5,413	182	8,161	8,343
Clerical	468	881	1,349	986	1,721	2,707
Social services	480	2,662	3,142	776	3,662	4,438
Scientific and technical	575	959	1,534	1,047	1,512	2,559
Industrial, chemical and food	65	125	190	111	120	231
Management and business managers	40	18	58	54	29	83
Mechanical	4	51	55	10	70	80
Agricultural and fishing	-	-		1	2	3
Sales	6	9	15	14	18	32
Production	6,619	9,593	16,212	8,076	10,174	18,250
Total	8,374	19,594	27,968	11,257	25,469	36,726

Source: Ben-Duhaish, 1995: 83. In Ministry of Civil Services

In 1996 the number of women employees in the private sector decreased to 31,052 in comparison with 1993. The reason behind this could be the low salaries, shortage of facilities and long working hours in comparison with the public sector. In 1996, with regard to women employees in the agricultural sector, there were no more than five employees and only one was a Saudi woman (Riyadh Industrial Chamber, 1997: 19). However, there are some Saudi women still in unpaid work in the agricultural field in some regions such as the Southern and Qassem regions.

According to Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs in 2001 the number of women employees in most of the private sector companies were 44,841 women employees of which 20% of them are nationals and 80% are non-nationals. More than 50% of non-national women are employed in technical and vocational jobs (Department of Computing Service, 2001).

Al-Rumaih, who owns private schools for girls in the Qassim region, said that in 2001 more than 30 university graduates applied for teaching jobs to the schools without asking about the salary or rewards. They just wanted experience, to practise their subject and to participate in the schools (Interview, December 2001).

There are job opportunities for women in the private sector both unoccupied and/or occupied by non-national women. In 2001 there were 54,000 female university graduates unemployed and looking for work in the public sector. The Ministry of Civil Service has only been able to place 10% in employment. This is in teaching jobs in the public sector (Al-Riyadh Newspaper, Monday, year 38, 2001).

6.7 Factors Affecting Women's Employment in the Saudi Labour Market

In Saudi Arabia, "men and women must be separated in the place of work or in the accessory facilities". The reason for this is that it is thought that frank, open relations between men and women lead to corruption and create many wrong doers. Also, "women may not be employed during night shifts, except in cases approved by the appropriate authorities". This denotes the extent of upholding religious principles by Saudi society (Ministry of Financial and National Economy, 1969).

In addition to this, free mixing between the sexes is not allowed. This restriction is continued into the workplace and hence, women cannot occupy positions which would bring them into direct contact with males. Therefore, in Saudi Arabia women cannot occupy any job in a mixed environment.

Al-Bakar (1990) argues that Saudi education reveals that its religious foundation is conditioned through the role of al-Ul'ama (Saudi scholars) in general and women specifically, who have been in charge of it since its establishment in 1960. The objectives and practices of education for women have been directed to serve, maintain and reproduce the social status of women within society's tradition. Schooling is not seen as a process which provides female students with their educational and intellectual needs, but as a process which corresponds to the role expectations and limitations placed on women within their religious and traditional social structures. Women are portrayed and orientated to serve the traditional roles of wives and mothers, demanded by norms, the desires of women and by the existing social forces. Female educational opportunities are limited compared to the private sector needs. The limitation and disparity within female education affect the employment opportunities available to them in the labour market. These factors have been mentioned in research studies such as Al-Nimer (1988); Ben-Duheash (1995); Al-Ghaith and Al-Mashoq (1996); Saudi Civil Office (1996); Al-Nuaim (1997); Al-Saban (1998), Al-Hussain, (1999) and Daghestani (2000).

Although the Saudi government has concentrated on developing women's participation in the labour market through education and employment, society still considers that women have been created to play the role of mothers and wives. There are job opportunities for females, and there are a large number of well-educated university graduates who can take up these opportunities. Most of the female unemployed are interested in joining the labour market but there is still a small section of society that believes that working women are contrary to their culture and tradition. They believe that this will affect their commitment towards their husbands and children, along with other family relationships. This problem has been mentioned in many researches such as Al-Husseni and Hasoon (1991); Al-Huseni (1993); Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber (1997) and Al-Dabagh (1997).

According to Saudi law, females cannot drive a car. This is due to the religious and cultural traditions of the society. On the other hand, public transport provided by either the public or private sector is still not effective enough to help and support the transportation of women to and from home. Therefore, female employees rely on parents, close relatives or taxi drivers who can accompany them.

Many job opportunities for women in the Saudi private sector are inside the major cities or rely on workers travelling from outside. While travelling to jobs

outside their own towns can cause problems for women, there are many women who do not want to consider employment outside of their own locality. For those who do attempt to arrange their travel within the terms of Islamic law, this can often be inconvenient and/or expensive. For Saudi Arabia, this problem of travelling should be considered from the cultural perspective rather than from economics. The problem of transportation for women has been mentioned in the studies of Al-Katan (1997); Al-Hazmi (1997) and Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber (1997).

Saudi society encourages females to marry early; this is due to their religion and culture. Therefore, there are a large number of women with families and commitments. Saudi Arabia is generally lacking in kindergarten facilities throughout the country. The labour market also has a lack of facilities to meet the needs of mothers to care for their children. This problem has been mentioned in the studies of Al-Hazmi (1997) and Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber (1997).

Some studies examine the work environment for women in the health sector. While many opportunities for employment exists in this area, the jobs available, such as doctors, nurses and medical assistants, are often not acceptable to Saudi women for social and cultural reasons. As a result, such posts are often occupied by non-nationals or remain unoccupied because Saudi society views them in a negative light. This kind of work may be unacceptable because it requires the sexes to mix and this is not permitted under Sharia law. This is confirmed from the results of Al-Nimar (1988); Al-Haider and Hamdi (1996) and Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber (1997).

A lack of financial motivation is one of the most important factors affecting Saudi women's participation in the labour market. It is apparent that Islam divides the male and female roles in society. The man is responsible, after Allah, for providing for the family. The woman is responsible for preparing the next generation, by bringing up the children. In this way, a woman is always supported within the structure of Islam. It follows that a woman's primary role in life is not to earn the livelihood of the family. This does not, however, exclude specific circumstances and situations where she may choose to work. When she does work, the income is hers, and she may choose to use it how she likes, according to Islamic Sharia'a. It is not automatically part of the household income but is her private income. She can give part or indeed all of it to the husband, for example. He, in turn, may choose to refuse it, preferring to earn the household income himself. As for social and religious

responsibilities, it is a must and a duty to participate in the process of national development. In Saudi Arabia, most women do not need to work to cover personal or family financial needs and, because of this, many married women leave employment to have children (Al-Nimer, 1988).

According to (Alzalabani, 2002: 134-135) several steps have been taken from the government to reduce unemployment within nationals among these are:

- The Council of Ministers Decision No. 50, dated 1995, urged private sector companies which employ more than 20 workers to increase the proportion of Saudis in their manpower by 5 percentage annually. Any company that does not meet this condition will face disciplinary action such as the non-renewal of licences and the rejection of applications for important foreign labour or their transference to other employers.
- In 1998 (Majlis Al-Shura) Consultative Council recommended establishing a National Centre for information to specialise in manpower information and to collect data and make it available for employers and applicants.
- Different government agencies (Labour Offices, Chamber of Commerce and Industry) have followed up the Saudisation progress and tried to limit the import of foreign labour through several procedure, including increasing the administrative expense of recruiting expatriates: prices for visas, work permits and residence permits have been increased from SR 351 to 1,600 per person (Alzalabani, 2002: 134 in EIU, 1996).
- The government announced in 1999 the introduction of the co-operative training programme which aims to ease the transition of young people from school to employment. This programme works through close co-operation between the General Organisation for Technical and Vocational Education (GOTEVOT) and the Camber of Commerce and Industry and Human Resource Development Fund (HRDF), which has been established for this purpose. According to this programme the HRDF pays 75% of training cost and 50% of the salary of new employees in the private sector for two years. This policy encouraged the employment of national manpower in the private sector and, at the same time, will help in reducing unemployment among young people.

6.8 Summary

This chapter offers general background information about the labour market in Saudi Arabia in general and in the women's sectors in particular. The lack in the number of women's participation in the private sector in comparison with the public sector was investigated and women's problems and obstacles in employment in Saudi Arabia are discussed. The reasons behind employing non-national manpower in the Saudi private sector are examined. Among these were population size of which the majority are in education; the shortage of national manpower in technical and vocational areas; most of the national labour are concentrated in the main cities, the concentration of nationals in the public sector which provides high conditions of work such as (higher salaries, shorter working hours job security and long holiday) than in the private sector. Finally women's participation in paid work is low. In addition to the above reasons, the private sector is willing to employ non-nationals rather than nationals because they have the skill and experience in specific jobs, they accept lower salaries, they move easily from one place to another according to the company's needs and are easy to get rid at any time.

As far as the researcher is aware, all previous studies of women's issues in the labour market were national and single studies, however, no comprehensive study investigated factors affecting women's employment in the private sector in Saudi Arabia. Therefore the main factors affecting women's employment in the private sector are investigated in the next chapters by consulting people who are involved in women's employment (business managers, qualified woman employees in the private sector, unemployed qualified women, and certain authorities from public and private sector). These groups will offer a clear picture regarding the lack of women's employment in the private sector.

Chapter Seven introduces the research methodology and methods of research data collection.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

7.1 Research Design

There is a lack of comprehensive information and data regarding women's employment in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the aim of this survey is to investigate the current situation of women's employment in the Saudi private sector and explore factors affecting the under-utilisation of qualified women in this sector.

The focus of this chapter is the research design and data collection. It presents a review of the major quantitative and qualitative research methods used in the field of social science research. The review highlights each method and is followed by a discussion on the reasoning behind the methods chosen for this research.

7.2 Visits to Saudi Arabia

Before the researcher designed the empirical study, he travelled to Saudi Arabia during the periods January to March 1998 and April to June 1999. The reasons for the researcher's visits were to investigate if there were any further previous studies in the area of women's employment in Saudi Arabia or in the Gulf countries in order to give comprehensiveness and exhaustiveness to the study. Some conferences and seminars were attended (such as the conference entitled "Saudi Arabia in One Hundred Years", Riyadh City, April, 1999). Also several public and private organisations, such as ministries and research centres, had been visited and some industrial chambers were contacted. There were several useful meetings with important officials; especially those concerned with education and employment in both the public and private sectors. The researcher made other visits specifically to the General Presidency for Girls' Education, the Ministry of Higher Education, the Ministry of Planning, the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, the Labour Forces' Council and to industrial and commercial chambers to look into women's employment via labour market reports, documents, and statistical records, which were available in the above organisations, to see if there were any previous studies on women's employment in the private sector and to discuss issues related to women's

employment in the private sector and to discuss issues related to women's employment. Some interesting areas were discussed and have been taken into consideration in formulating the questions used in the questionnaire.

7.3 Available Research Methods

There are various types of research approaches that can be used to collect data. Some of these overlap but it was necessary to ask which was the most suitable for the present study. This depends on the research aims and objectives and the type of data which needs to be collected. In this section, a number of research approaches have been discussed in terms of their fitness to the present work. Most of these approaches are used extensively and discussed in business studies such as in the research of Sekaran (1992); Jankowicz (1993); Remenyi et al. (2000); and Moor (2000). According to Moor (2000), the research approaches in such business and management studies can be classified as follows:

Experimental research

At heart, experimental research, like scientific research, involves conducting a test and observing the results. However, in the pure sciences, research is generally carried out in a laboratory where the environment is controlled whereas experimental research in the social sciences is conducted in the real world where variables are difficult to control and where the environment is unpredictable and constantly changing.

To overcome some of these difficulties, experimental social science uses control groups to compare what happens to one group that is subjected to the test with the behaviour, attitudes or opinions of another group that is not. Clearly, much depends on the initial similarity of the groups and the extent to which it is possible to ensure that, during the course of the experiment, they remain broadly similar (Moor, 2000).

Greenfield (1996) argues that every experiment should be well designed, planned and managed to ensure that the results can be analysed, interpreted and presented. If this is not done, the process and results will not be properly understood.

Since the present research is concerned with obtaining data in natural settings where the variables are difficult to control, laboratory experiments are clearly inappropriate.

Action research

According to McKernan (1991: 4) one of the most cited definitions for action research was mentioned by Rapoport, who argued that,

“Action research aims to contribute both to the practical concern of people in an immediate problematic situation and to the acceptable ethical framework. Rapoport sees action research as experiencing problems directly in the search for a solution; this also feeds social science with some theoretical pay-off which has developed from a complex web of scientific and social enterprise.”

In action research, the research is integrated into social processes and the subsequent developments are monitored to observe what takes place and a final evaluation is carried out to assess the outcomes. In certain cases, a complete activity is perceived as an outcome but in others, research is “added” in an attempt to ascertain how this affects an entire process (Moor, 2000).

There is the problem with action research that cause and affect can be difficult to separate; indeed, the fact that the research is happening at all may create an unreal situation. The researcher in such a situation must both participate and remain neutral enough to be able to be objective.

The researcher, in action research, should observe impartially what is taking place, should collect data and then analyse them, identifying their effects. Finally, a report is produced which evaluates what has been observed and outlining the lessons learned. In practice, however, the researcher is often forced to offer judgements and is more often tempted to contribute his/her own ideas to the study (Moor, 2000).

Case studies

“A case study is a formal collection of evidence presented as an interpretative position of an unique case, and includes discussion of the data collected during fieldwork and written up at the culmination of the a cycle of action, or involvement in the research.” (McKernan, 1991).

McKernan (1991: 75) also argues that:

“The case study has become a research technique that is much celebrated in scientific research, as witnessed by its increase in such diverse fields such as psychology, education, law, social work, medicine, psychology and psychiatry, to name but a few.”

According to (Moor, 2000), case studies are useful when it is necessary to achieve a detailed understanding of complex subjects, especially when large-scale

units) are selected from an identified population and the aim is to construct a data set from which estimates can be made and conclusions reached about this population” (Greenfield, 1996: 115).

Surveys can be conducted in three different ways: by mail, telephone, or face-to-face interviews (Dillman 1978; Greenfield 1996; Churchill 1996). Survey research can be divided into series of types, as follows:

Mail survey

The use of the mail survey is a popular and common technique in business and management research. It provides a large amount of collected data from a sizeable population in a very economical way. Based very often on a questionnaire, the survey approach gives the researcher more control over the research process (Saunders et al., 1997). To test hypotheses or to answer questions and to collect large amounts of data, questionnaires are usually used.

Sekaran (1992) argues that a mail questionnaire is very often a useful technique for the quantitative method. It can be described as a reformulated, predetermined written set of questions to which respondents record their answers, usually within defined alternatives.

Questionnaires are considered to be an efficient mechanism for gathering data when the researcher knows specifically what is required and how to measure the variables of importance. It is the most popular method of collecting data which are not available in open literature.

"Questionnaires are used to collect data that are unavailable in written records or cannot be readily observed." (Lewis-Beck, 1994: 2)

Although there are advantages from using mail questionnaire surveys there are difficulties analogous with the mail questionnaire such as: (a) The return rate of mail questionnaires is not typically as high as might be desired (Sekaran, 1992). (b) After mail questionnaires have been posted, the researcher has no control over who answers them or how people interpret the questions, nor can the researcher explore the answers that have been given. (c) There is no actual contact between researcher and respondent and this also means that the researcher cannot check for bias in the final sample (Saunders et al., 1997). (d) The response rate of the ‘target population’ will be affected by the interest that is felt in a survey. (e) The respondents can bias the data when they do not give their true opinions. In addition, return rates are generally lower

on a random sample of the general population than on a specific target of people with similar interests.

Self-administered survey

In the researcher's opinion, personal questionnaires are useful in special cases such as a limited sample, in a location which is not far from the researcher's place of residence, where results are needed quickly and where there are few services as in this study. Also, this sort of method is suitable for studies in some developing countries where the mail system is often not efficient. However, the main disadvantage with self-administered questionnaires is that a wide geographical area and a large sample can be very difficult to cover. It needs time and money if the study covers a large area (Sekaran, 1992).

Interview survey

Interviewing is an alternative method of collecting survey data to obtain information on the issues of interest to the research. Busha and Harter (1980) define the interview as a method in which "information is gathered from persons who are able to provide research data on the basis of their background. The information may be concerned with their experiences, opinions, attitudes, reactions to services, etc.". This can be face-to-face or by telephone. The format may be one-to-one, many-to-one or one-to-many.

Interviewing is often claimed to be the best method of gathering information, because a richer set of data can be obtained. The interview can be defined as a direct verbal contact between the researcher and the sampling population. Saunders (1997) classified interviews according to the structural nature of questions as: structured interviews; semi-structured interviews; or unstructured interviews. Each one of these styles can answer a specific research problem. The choice between an unstructured and structured way of conducting an interview depends on the researcher's understanding of the research problem variables. The advantages of the interview over other methods can be summarised as follows:

According to Sekaran (1992), the advantages of the interview over the other methods are: the rate of response is expected to be high and the presence of the interviewer can eliminate "don't know" questions and confusion. Also in interviews, the researcher has the opportunity to observe non-verbal language from the

respondent, especially if the interviews are face-to-face. On the other hand, there are some disadvantages to interviewing as a research method because it is time-consuming and costly, especially when geographical limitations are involved. Also the interviewer may influence the respondent's answers.

Focus groups

This approach is designed to collect evidence from a group of specialised individuals. The group size is usually more than four so that an issue of interest to the researcher can be widely debated and discussed. It has the same similarities as to the one-to-many interviews.

The positivistic and phenomenological implications are similar to those of in-depth surveys in the way in which information is processed. It has the added advantage to the researcher of being a relatively easy way of amassing evidence from experts.

Sometimes focus groups are used at the outset of the research to support the literature review in the formulation of a research question. At other times the focus group is an approach adopted to prove the research conclusions at the end of the project. The evidence collected during a focus group is usually analysed using qualitative techniques. Focus groups are a useful way of obtaining evidence from experts in an intense or concentrated way (Remenyi et al., 1998).

Observation

Observation is a technique often used to study the activities of a participant via two main techniques: participant and non-participant observations. In the first kind the researcher takes part in the process, whereas, in the second, the observer is detached, merely watching and recording what happens.

The disadvantages of this technique include the fact that it is extremely time-consuming as the observer may spend time observing activities which turn out to be irrelevant. Also, without discussing motives, observation may offer a superficial or selective impression of a problem. Furthermore, the people being observed may behave differently simply because they are under observation (Moore, 1983).

7.4 Research Method Selection

Before any decision is made concerning methodology, the types of research methods need to be surveyed and compared with the nature of the present study as well as with previous studies in same subject. The researcher found that survey methods (questionnaire survey and interview survey) were regarded as the best methods for data collection in business and management research, especially if the study aimed to gather, on the one hand, amounts of large quantitative information for the study sample via the questionnaire and small amounts of data via the interviews.

In Saudi Arabia it is difficult to use a mail survey in a study like this because most people are unwilling to use the mail to return questionnaires after responding. Previous Saudi formal studies using mail surveys to investigate some aspects of women's issues in Saudi have typically had a very low rate of response. For example, Riyadh Industrial and Commercial Chamber (1997) achieved a usable response rate of 4% from 2,000 questionnaires distributed to Saudi companies. This also happened to the researcher in the first stage of his survey to Saudi companies where a usable response rate of 11% from 800 questionnaires distributed to Saudi business managers was achieved, while the other returned questionnaires were received personally. Therefore, the researcher decided to use the self-administrated questionnaire to complete the second survey, which is for women employees and for unemployed women in Saudi Arabia.

7.5 The Sample Process

After selecting the research methods and data collection tools, the next step is to select the research elements from which the information will be gathered. In research across countries, involving large populations and wide geographical areas, it is impossible and/or difficult to collect data that cover the whole population and all the places. This is due to restrictions of time, money, human resources and often access. Using sampling gives more time for designing and piloting the means of collecting the data. Sekaran (1992); Churchill (1995); and Saunders et al. (1997) state that studying a sample rather than the whole population leads to more reliable results, because there will be less exhaustion and hence, fewer errors in collecting data (Churchill, 1995).

Gay (1973) stated that if the sample is 10% of the total population, this size of sample is considered satisfactory for representativeness. In order to achieve more information on the current situation of women's employment in the private sector,

three important categories that were involved with women's employment were invited from Saudi Arabia to participate in this study. These categories were business managers, women employees in the private sector and unemployed women. This will help to understand and investigate problems and obstacles facing women's employment in the private sector through quantitative and qualitative methods.

7.5.1 Selection of business managers

The sample of managers was chosen at random from the Industrial and Commercial Chamber's list of the four selected cities (Riyadh, Jeddah, Dammam and Buraydh). The chosen sample was from four economic sectors: agricultural, industrial, commercial and the services sector. This was done in order to discover the opinions of business managers according to the different backgrounds of each.

The strategy was achieved by visiting the industrial and commercial chambers in four selected cities to identify the selected business managers from national companies and establishments. The researcher gained access to the commercial directory in which the companies or establishments officially recorded the names and addresses of the sample, and 800 business managers were randomly selected from different national companies.

7.5.2 Selection of women employees and unemployed women

The strategy for choosing the Saudi women's sample can be summarised as follows:

The sample of women employees in the private sector in Saudi Arabia was chosen randomly from the companies recorded in the industrial and commercial chambers of the selected cities. The method was completed by contacting officially recorded companies and establishments that employ women and accessing the commercial catalogue in which the private sector officially included names and addresses.

400 qualified women employees in the Saudi private sector were selected from different national companies. 300 unemployed qualified Saudi women, currently seeking jobs, were also selected.

7.5.3 Selection of cities

In order to cover a large area of the private sector, four cities were chosen from Saudi Arabia. The cities selected in Saudi are Riyadh, Jeddah, Dammam and

Buraydh. The reasons for choosing these cities in Saudi Arabia can be summarised as follows:

- 1) **Riyadh City** represents the heart and capital of Saudi Arabia. The city is the most populated area with about three million people living there. The city is the centre of all the official governmental offices, ministries and political office and is therefore, the main political and commercial centre.
- 2) **Jeddah City** is the second largest city in Saudi Arabia in terms of land surface area. It is a very important commercial centre and is considered the pathway of the Kingdom to the Red Sea coast. This city is the location of the largest Islamic assembly after Makkah City, which is the city of pilgrimages.
- 3) **Dammam City** is considered to be the pathway of Saudi Arabia to the Arabic Gulf coast. Located in the eastern region of the country, it is the oil producing and largest industrial region. It is the centre of many industrial and manufacturing companies and it is the most popular area of the petroleum industry.
- 4) **Buraydh City** is the capital of Qassem region, which is the largest agricultural area in Saudi Arabia.

After identifying the research methods and selecting the samples, the next section presents the questionnaire design.

7.6 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaires were originally written in English. These were then translated into Arabic for use in Saudi Arabia with non-English speakers. A qualified person checked the researcher's Arabic translation.

In developing the questionnaire, preliminary research had to be conducted by the researcher to review previous questionnaires about women's issues in the labour market. Apart from this, many articles, PhD theses and an exploratory survey about women's employment in Saudi were reviewed in order to develop a valid questionnaire.

Although the questionnaire has been designed in a multiple-choice format, it allows respondents to make additions in certain areas regarding each question not covered in the structure.

Open questions are useful because they are a source of rich information. They give respondents the freedom to say what they really think in their own words, rather than being forced into preconceived answers (Coolican, 1990).

The questionnaire is designed in six sections covering the main aims of this study (Appendices). The questionnaire sections are:

Section 1: General Information

This section consists of a series of questions designed to provide background information about the companies surveyed, women employees and unemployed women.

The information about the companies includes the type of company, the age, capital and main activities of the company and the number of employees, while the women's information include: marital status, age, children, education, and family status. Also, this section includes the main reasons for the women's choice of field of their study, the main reasons for choosing or looking for work and women's working environment and facilities in the private sector.

Section 2: Attitudes Towards Women's Employment in the Private Sector

The information requested in this section could be placed into two categories. The first part relates to the role of employment systems in women's employment and the second part is concerned with factors contributing to employing women in the private sector.

Section 3: Field of Work and Job Opportunities

This section looks at women's field of work and job opportunities provided by the private sector. These are compared to women's attitudes and subject of studies.

Section 4: Women in Technical and Vocational Fields

The aim of this section is to understand and investigate the current situation of women in technical and vocational fields to explore if technical education and vocational training institutions are able to qualify women for work in the private sector.

Section 5: Factors Affecting Women's Employment in the Private Sector

The aim of this section is to explore the main factors affecting and/or encouraging women's employment in the private sector and to identify the common and/or different factors which affect and/or encourage women's employment in the

private sector from the three categories (business managers, women employees and unemployed women).

Section 6: Open Questions

Lastly, the researcher posed open questions in the questionnaire to elicit the respondents' insights into the most important reasons behind the continuation of the private sector in the employment of foreign workers in women's jobs in Saudi Arabia. It also attempts to gain recommendations for further studies on women's employment in the private sector.

Finally, free space was left on the questionnaire for the respondents' comments and/or additions to any answers given in the previous sections.

7.7 Pilot Study

7.7.1 Business managers' questionnaires

In order to clarify and simplify the questionnaire for the targeted samples, two pilot studies were carried out before the official distribution. The main objectives of the pilot study were the following:

- To check whether the questionnaire items were suitable in terms of being appropriate, clear, understandable and to see whether the instructions for the questionnaire were clear enough.
- To check the time taken to complete the questionnaire.
- To assess difficulties or ambiguities.
- To see whether, by looking at the answers, these questions covered what they were supposed to cover.
- To make any comments about the questionnaires.

The first pilot was carried out using a group of Saudi students in the UK. The group was chosen simply because of its experience and background of Saudi society in order to discuss the questionnaire items. The students were asked to comment on the clarity and positioning of the questions in relation to each other, and the purposes for which these statements and questions had been prepared. They were also asked to check the time it took to complete the questions. The same questionnaire was given to academic staff in Saudi.

The questionnaire was shown to some academic members of the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training, King Saudi University

in Riyadh, the General Presidency for Girls' Education, and staff at Buraydh College of Technology. The main outcome of this pilot was the replacement of some words with other words with the same meaning to make the questions clearer and also, jobs which had been missed were added. After modifying the questionnaire based on the views of the students and academic staff regarding clarification, a second pilot study was carried out with business managers. The questionnaire was shown to some Saudi business managers to be sure that the questionnaire was easy to read and was unambiguous. No questionnaire forms were received which contained queries. Therefore, the questionnaires were then officially distributed without modification.

7.7.2 Women's questionnaires

In order to clarify and simplify the questionnaire for the targeted samples, a pilot study was carried out before the official distribution. The questionnaire was shown to a number of qualified women. The questionnaires were also distributed to six qualified women employees and to four unemployed qualified women to be sure that the questionnaire was easy to read and unambiguous. The main outcome of this pilot was that some words were not clear and replaced with others to make the questions clearer.

7.8 Questionnaire's Distribution Strategy

7.8.1 Business managers

800 questionnaires were distributed to the Saudi business managers equally. 200 questionnaires were sent to each selected city; these were Riyadh, Jeddah, Dammam and Buraydh using the following strategies:

- By post to the companies and establishments which were far from the researcher's home, namely to Dammam and Jeddah.
- Personal distribution was used for the places close to the researcher's home, namely Riyadh and Buraydh. These were distributed with the help of qualified people.

7.8.2 Women employees and unemployed women

700 questionnaires were distributed to Saudi women employees and unemployed women in four selected cities. 400 questionnaires were sent to women

employees and 300 questionnaires to unemployed women in order to cover a large area of the private sector in Saudi Arabia.

The questionnaires themselves were distributed by hand. A further benefit of this was that a personal approach was thus adopted. Four cities were covered, and qualified women assistants were used by the researcher to help with the distribution and collection of the questionnaires. The researcher conducted a short course for these assistants and explanations of various aspects of the questionnaires were offered to enable assistants to answer any questions that might arise during their administration.

There was some difficulty in distributing the questionnaires to unemployed women since there is no institution or organisation that exists through which such women could be easily contacted. These questionnaires were given to women known personally to the researcher and further copies were given to some institutions such as banks, hospitals, schools, factories, market centres and other such organisations in order for them to be given to women who had come looking for employment.

The questionnaires were distributed on August 10th 2000 but it was not possible to collect the completed copies until 20th September 2000. Collection proved particularly difficult with questionnaires completed by unemployed women as these were widely distributed.

A further difficulty was travelling between cities to check on the progress of the work. Travel was by air and by car and often involved staying over in the city. This was costly in terms of both time and financial expense.

7.9 Data Collection

7.9.1 Business managers' responses

The response level to the business managers' questionnaire was that 220 questionnaires out of the 800 submitted to Saudi business managers (i.e. 27.5%) were returned.

Only 11% of the distributed questionnaires were returned by post because some business managers did not recognise the importance and value of the questionnaire.

It was felt that in order to achieve a higher proportion of responses, especially when the chosen samples are of high social status and because of the lack of response

by post, it is best to use personal contacts, such as friends, relatives and officials to collect the questionnaires.

7.9.2 Women's response

The response level of the questionnaire was that 352 (207 women employees and 145 unemployed women) questionnaires out of 700, which were submitted to Saudi women, were returned. This represents a response rate of 50.29%.

Unfortunately, no distributed questionnaires were received by post, therefore, all questionnaires were received by hand by the researcher and/or his assistants.

7.10 Structure of the Interview

Some authorities in the Saudi public and private sector were chosen from the General Presidency for Girls' Education (GPGE), Ministry of Civil Service, General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT), Council of Labour Force and Commercial and Industrial Chambers.

The interviews were designed for the authorities as open and closed questions after the results of the questionnaires investigating the authorities' opinions towards women's employment in the private sector had been received. Two methods were used in the interviews: face-to-face and by phone. The following points were covered:

- The current situation of women's employment in the private sector.
- Suitable jobs and market needs for women in the private sector.
- Women in technical and vocational areas.
- Factors affecting women's employment in the private sector.

The closed questions were aimed to investigate the authorities' opinions towards the questionnaire's results and to discover the similarity and differences between the three selected samples and the authorities of the research aims and objectives.

7.11 Iran as a Benchmark

The example of Iran was used as a benchmark in this research in order to compare the experiences of another country which had already considered the status of women in the workplace. This was compared with Saudi Arabia in the hope that the Saudi authorities would be able to learn from the example of another country.

The researcher was able to collect data and information from the research sample through certain people who were qualified and knew the region very well.

It is true that the cultural and economic conditions of Iranian women are not far removed from those of Saudi women. However, through discussion, the different factors that affect women's employment in the private sector in both countries will be observed. This will enable the proposal of alternative recommendations for increasing and developing women's employment in the Saudi private sector. The comparison with Iran will concentrate on the following areas:

- The current situation of women's education and employment in the private sector.
- Women's working environment, facilities and job opportunities.
- Factors affecting women's employment in the private sector.

7.11.1 The sample process

In order to achieve more information on the current situation of women's employment in the private sector in Iran, three important samples that were involved with women's employment were invited to participate in this study. These samples were business managers, women employees in the private sector, and unemployed women. This will help in the understanding and investigation of problems and obstacles facing women's employment in the private sector in Iran.

242 Iranian business managers, who visited Saudi Arabia when the largest Iranian companies came to participate in national and international expositions in Riyadh City from 23-29 November 1998 and in Dhahran City from 16-22 March 1999, were selected.

300 women employees in the Iranian private sector were selected randomly from different national Iranian companies together with 200 unemployed qualified women from Iran, currently seeking jobs.

The cities of Tehran and Asfahan were chosen from Iran. The reasons for choosing these cities in Iran can be summarised in the following:

1. **Tehran City** is the capital of Iran and is the most populated area; about fifteen million people live in the city. It is the centre for official governmental offices, ministries and political offices. The city is the political and commercial centre of Iran.
2. **Isfhan City** is an historical city in Iran and it is one of the largest industrial cities. It is the centre of many industrial and manufacturing companies.

The questionnaires were originally written in English. These were then translated into Persian for use in Iran with non-English speakers. The Persian translation was carried out by a qualified speaker of the English and Persian languages. (Dr Ali Sanaie, Dr Behroze Karimi and Mr Bejan all of them Academic staff in Iranian universities.)

In order to clarify and simplify the questionnaire for the targeted samples, two pilot studies were carried out before the official distribution.

The first pilot was carried out using a group of Iranian PhD students in the UK. The group was chosen simply because of its experience and background in Iranian society in order to discuss the questionnaire items. Students were asked to comment on the clarity and positioning of the questions in relation to each other, and the purposes for which these statements and questions had been prepared. They were also asked to check the time it took to complete the questions.

The questionnaire was also shown to Iranian academic staff from Tehran University and the University of Isfahan. Some words were changed because they were not clear. After modifying the questionnaire based on the views of students and academic staff regarding clarification, a second pilot study was carried out with business managers. The questionnaire was shown to Iranian business managers to be sure that the questionnaire was easy to read and was unambiguous. No questionnaire forms were received which contained comment. Therefore, these were then officially distributed.

Women's questionnaires were distributed to four women employees and to three unemployed women in Iran to be sure that the questionnaire was easy to read and was unambiguous. The main outcome of this pilot was that some words were replaced with others.

7.11.2 Questionnaire's distribution strategy

242 questionnaires were distributed by hand to the Iranian business managers who visited Saudi Arabia when the largest Iranian companies came to participate in a national and international exposition. The questionnaire was distributed by the following methods:

1. 150 questionnaires were distributed to business managers who attended the Exposition of Iranian National Products, which was open in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, from 23-29 November 1998.

2. 92 questionnaires were distributed to other Iranian business managers who attended the International Exhibition for private sector companies, which was open in Dhahran City, Saudi Arabia, from 16-22 March 1999.

The researcher stayed at the exhibition centres for the entire period to make sure of getting the relevant responses. Although most of the questionnaires were returned by hand, some were sent by post to the researcher's address in the UK.

500 questionnaires were distributed to women employees in the private sector as well as to unemployed women in Iranian's two largest cities, Tehran City and Isfahan City. The distribution was carried out as follows:

- 200 questionnaires were distributed to women employees as well as to unemployed women (150 women employees and 50 unemployed women) in Isfahan City between July 20 and 5 September 2000.
- 300 questionnaires were distributed to women employees as well as to unemployed women (200 women employees and 100 unemployed qualified women) in Tehran City between 15 August and 10 September 2000.

7.11.3 Data collection

The response level to the Iranian business managers' questionnaire was that 117 (48.35%) out of the 242 questionnaires that were submitted to Iranian business managers were returned. The distribution of the returned questionnaires was as follows: Exposition of Iranian National Products in Riyadh: 54 questionnaires (36.0%) were returned from 150 questionnaires, 63 questionnaires (68.47%) were returned by business managers from the International Exposition in Dhran City, from a total of 92 questionnaires.

The response level of the questionnaire for Iranian women was that 200 out of 500 questionnaires, which were submitted to Iranian women, were returned. This represents a rate of 40%.

7.11.4 Interview

Some Iranian authorities in public and private sectors were interviewed. All those people are responsible in different organisations such as Ministry of Science and Technology, University of Isfhan, Tehran Research Institute, Asad Private University and Industrial and Commercial Chambers. Two methods used in the interview: face-to-face and by phone. The same questions for Saudi authorities were designed for the

Iranian authorities after the results of the questionnaires investigating their opinions towards women's employment in the private sector in Iran.

The opened and closed questions were aimed to investigate the authorities' opinions towards some questionnaire results and to discover the similarity and differences between the three selected samples and authorities in Iran.

7.12 Summary

Questionnaires were chosen as the method of investigation and two were designed: one for business managers and one for qualified employed and unemployed qualified women, various authorities were also interviewed. The questionnaires were tested, piloted and given to large samples in Saudi Arabia and Iran. The response rate was very high in all three groups. This is shown in the Table 7.1:

Table 7.1: The response rate from the three groups

Sample	Questionnaires to Saudi Arabia		Questionnaires to Iran	
	Distributed	Returned	Distributed	Returned
Business managers	800	220 (27.5%)	242	117 (48.3%)
Women employees	400	207 (51.7%)	350	146 (41.7%)
Unemployed women	300	145 (48.3%)	150	54 (36.0%)
Total	1500	572 (38.1%)	742	317 (42.7%)

The next four chapters look at the responses received from the Saudi Arabia respondents (Chapters Eight, Nine and Ten) and as a benchmark the responses from Iran (Chapter Eleven).

CHAPTER EIGHT

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BUSINESS MANAGERS IN SAUDI ARABIA

8.1 Introduction

The Saudi private sector has seen a major expansion in recent years. This may be due to the fact that this sector is receiving encouragement and support from the government. The other explanation for this expansion is that investors are now more aware of the role of the private sector in developing their own business interests. The Seventh Development Plan (1999-2004) supported the private sector and encouraged investment in it. Today the private sector plays a major role in the Saudi economy and employment and, therefore, the Sixth Plan expected that the private sector would employ 95.0% of new national workers by the end of the plan while the remainder would be employed in the public sector.

A lack of resource materials about women's participation in the Saudi private sector and the great need for information on the part of the authorities of women's education and employment in Saudi meant that up-to-date information was needed.

This chapter attempts to analyse data concerning issues of women's employment in the Saudi private sector, which has resulted from surveying 220 Saudi business managers in different companies.

This chapter will also look at the companies involved, the status of employed women in the private sector, their working environment, facilities, job opportunities and factors affecting and encouraging women's employment in the private sector in Saudi Arabia.

8.2 A General Survey of the Sample Companies

This section attempts to look at general information about the companies surveyed including: type of company, age, main activities, the capital and labour force of the companies in general and of women in particular.

Type of company

The survey showed that most of the companies in the surveyed sample were under sole proprietorship (71.4%), next came public companies (17.3%), while other companies had the lowest percentage (11.3%).

Companies' main activities

When asked about companies' main activities, it was found that the industrial companies were the most numerous of the companies surveyed (38.6%). This was followed by service companies (34.1%), then commercial companies (20.0%) and, finally, agricultural companies with a rate of only 7.3%.

Age of companies

Most of the surveyed companies have 10 years or more experience (54.1%). Next came companies having under 5 years experience (23.2%) while the companies between 5 to less than 10 years experience represented a minority among the surveyed companies (22.7%),

The capital of companies

Of the sample surveyed, 66.4% answered the question concerning the capital of the company. Those companies whose capital ten million and over Saudi Riyals (SR) were the most numerous (44.5%), while companies with capital of less than one million represented 30.8% of the total number of companies who answered the question. The smallest category of companies consisted of those whose capital ranged from one million to less than ten million (24.7%) (1\$= 3.75 SR).

Labour forces in the companies surveyed

It is essential to investigate the current situation regarding national and non-national manpower in the Saudi private sector. Therefore, this section investigates and analyses the labour forces in the companies surveyed in general and in the women's sector in particular.

Figure 8.1 and Table 8.1 shows that:

1. Saudi national employees (male and female) represent 21.5% of the total number of employees in the sample, while non-nationals represent 78.5%.

2. National women employees in the sample represent 2.5% of the total number of employees (male and female), while non-national women represent 9.8% of the total.
3. National women in the sample represent 20.0% of the total number of women employees, while non-nationals represent 80.0% of the total.

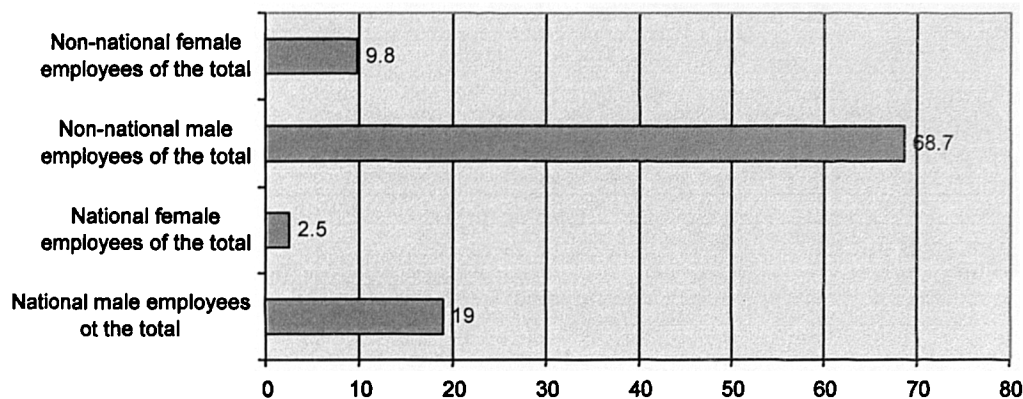


Figure 8.1: Distribution of the labour forces in the companies surveyed

Table 8.1: Distribution of the labour forces in the companies surveyed

Labour force	Number of employees		Total	% Female of total
	Males	Females		
National	7,358	956	8,314	2.5
Non-national	26,687	3,829	30,516	9.8
Total	34,045	4,785	38,830	12.3
National %	21.61	20.0	21.5	
Non-national %	78.39	80.0	78.5	

Women's employment in the companies surveyed

This section discusses the distribution of women employees according to the type of company, the company's age, its main activities, and its capital. It also considers women employees according to the type of jobs which women are doing in order to investigate the sort of jobs for national women in the sample in comparison with non-national women.

Women employees according to the type of company

In the sample, most women employees are concentrated in companies that are under sole proprietorship (75.0%). This is followed by public companies (15.2%),

women employees in other companies are very few. This represents only 9.8% (figure 8.2).

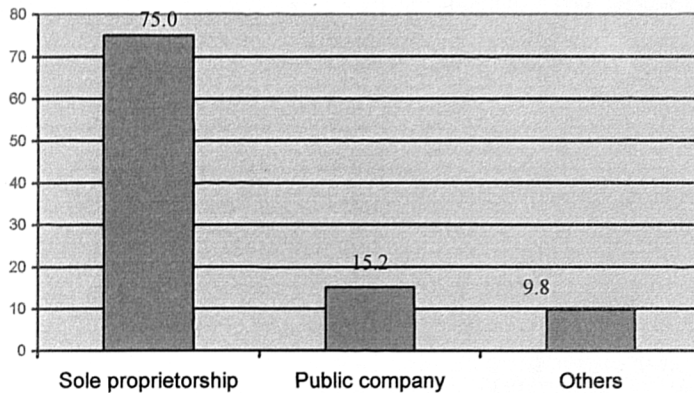


Figure 8.2: Distribution of women employees according to the type of company

Women employees according to the age of the company

Figure 8.3 shows that in the sample, the majority of companies that employ women are those whose age is 10 years and more (52.2%), followed by the companies whose age is less than 5 years (25.0%). The lowest proportion of the companies which employ women are those companies whose age is between 5 and less than 10 years they represent 22.8%. It is clear that the most popular companies that employ women are the companies with experience of more than 10 years in the labour market.

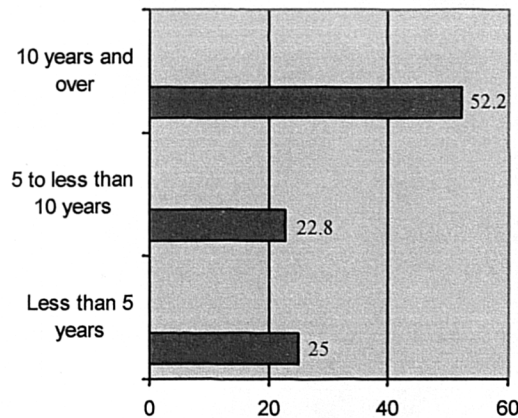


Figure 8.3: Distribution of women employees according to the age of the company

Women employees according to the company’s main activities

Figure 8.4 shows that the service companies in the sample employ the greater number of women (46.7%), followed by industrial companies with a rate of 35.9%, commercial companies with 15.2%, while there are only 2.2% of women employees in

agricultural companies.

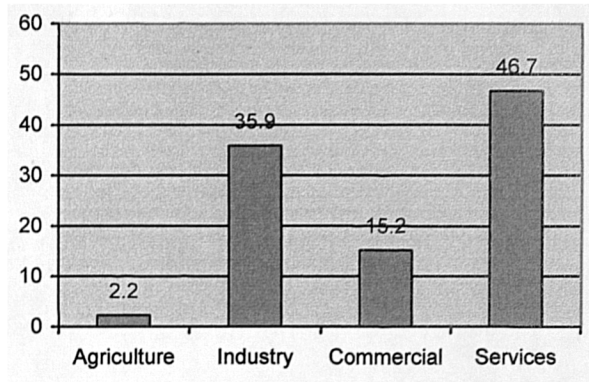


Figure 8.4: Distribution of women employees with regard to the company's activities

Women employees according to the capital of the company

Figure 8.5 shows that the majority of the sample which employ women are those with a capital of less than one million (SR). These represent 50.0%. Companies that employ the lowest number of women are those with capital 10 million and over 23.1%. It is clear that the most popular Saudi companies to employ women are the small companies.

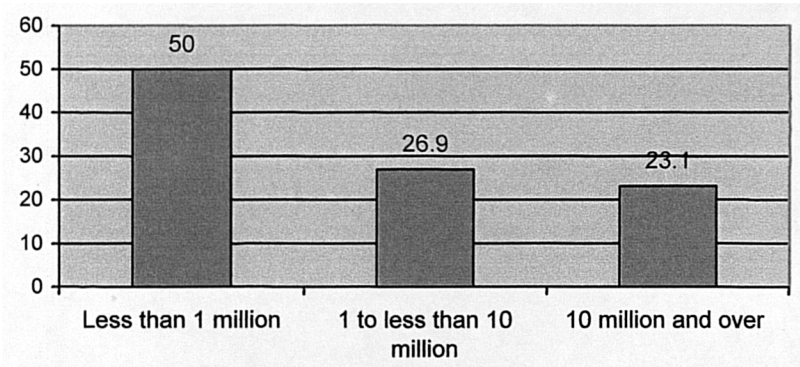


Figure 8.5: Distribution of women employees according to the capital of the company

Women employees with regard to the type of job

To investigate women's participation in the Saudi private sector it is important to identify and analyse the breakdown of national and non-national women employees in the companies surveyed (Table 8.2), and to identify the types of jobs that the private sector currently needs for women.

Table 8.2: Distribution of women employees in the companies according to the type of job

Type of job	Woman employees		Total numbers N	*National women according to type of jobs %
	National N	Non-national N		
Supervisory job	135	103	238	56.7
Professional	76	73	149	51.0
Administrative	333	108	441	75.5
Technical and technological	291	2534	2909	10.0
Vocational	54	824	878	6.2
Unqualified	24	150	174	13.8
Total	913	3,792	4,705	19.4

*This column represents the ratio of national woman employees in the Companies surveyed according to the total of each type of job

The table shows that there is a high percentage of Saudi women working in administrative, supervisory and professional jobs in comparison with non-national women (75.5%, 56.7% and 51.0% respectively) while non-nationals represent (24.5%, 43.3 %and 49.0%, respectively). The number of national women working in technical and vocational jobs in the companies surveyed was very low; they represented only 10.0% and 6.21% of the total number of women employees (national and non-national) in technical and vocational jobs, while non-national women in technical and vocational jobs represent 90.0% and 93.8% respectively of the total number of women employees in the companies surveyed.

8.3 Women's Working Environment and Facilities

The working environment and facilities are very important in recruiting and retaining working women in any job. A relaxing environment, as well as facilities to meet the needs of women, will help their commitment and will ensure an increase in productivity as well as encouraging them to continue in their work. Therefore, this section will look at women's working hours, facilities, market information, labour legislation and job opportunities.

Working hours

Following the researcher's question about women's environment in the private sector, it was found that most women in the sample work full-time (96 out of 220 companies). This was confirmed by 64.5% of the business managers, while 21.5% of

the companies have both full and part-time women workers. Companies that employ women part-time are the least popular option in the sample as these represent only 14.0% of the total number of companies that employ women.

Transport

In response to the researcher's question regarding whether or not the companies surveyed provided transport facilities for women employees, it was found that 75.0% of the sample provided transport for women employees, while 25.0% said they did not.

Childcare places

The most important role for women in Islam is fulfilling their family commitments. The main element of this fulfilment is to look after the family (such as husband and children etc.). Islam encourages and supports marriage at an early age, as well as forbidding abortion. Therefore, providing nursery facilities in working places is essential for women who wish to work outside the home. In the researcher's question about this kind of facility in the sample, it was found that 41.3% of the companies provided childcare places, while the majority of the sample (58.7%) who employ women said they did not.

Training

Training is a very important facility for women. In the researcher's question about this facility, it was found that 50.7% of the companies surveyed provide training for women employees, while 49.3% of the sample did not provide any training for women.

8.4 Market Information

This section discusses the role of labour market information in employing women in the private sector. The survey shows that the vast majority of the surveyed sample has difficulty in finding women applicants for the vacancies (76%). When the researcher asked about the sort of methods usually used by the sample that mentioned they had difficulty in finding women applicants, the results were as follows:

1. By advertising in newspapers or magazines (84.8%).
2. By contact with labour offices. This method is a popular method used by the

sample (65.2%).

3. By contact with the educational and training institutions for women. This method is not so popular in the sample (47.7%).
4. By personal contact (33.3%). This method is not popular because it is not accepted by society according to Saudi culture.
5. By using private agencies. This method was hardly used in the sample; it represented only 6.2%.

8.5 Promotion of Women's Employment in the Private Sector

The vast majority of business managers in the sample believed that there is a need for women to participate in the labour market (82.6%). The majority of the sample also needed to employ women in their companies (63.5%).

The researcher asked if there was any evidence of preference regarding the employment of males rather than females in the companies if the area of work was the same. The majority of the sample (71.6%) answered that they preferred to employ males rather than females.

When asked if the employment system and labour legislation helped and encouraged women's employment in the private sector, the figures show that the majority of the sample were not satisfied with either the employment system or labour legislation in the private sector towards women's employment. Only 44.7% and 31.8% of the sample said that the employment system and labour legislation both helped and encouraged women's employment in the private sector.

8.6 Women's Field of Work and Job Opportunities

8.6.1 Women's fields in the private sector

Table 8.3 shows the most important economic fields in which women can participate in support of the labour market. Of the sample, 83.9% mentioned that the service field is the most suitable for Saudi women in the private sector. Then came the technological and craft fields with rates of 63.6% and 39.2% respectively, while the least popular field in the sample for women's participation in economic activities was the agricultural field with a rate of 4.6%.

Table 8.3: Women's fields in the private sector

	Women's field of work	Business managers' agreement*	
		Frequency	%
1	Services	182	83.9
2	Technology	138	63.6
3	Crafts	85	39.2
4	Industry	64	29.5
5	Commerce	54	24.9
6	Agriculture	10	4.6

*Total number of respondents 217

8.7 Job Opportunities for Women in the Private Sector

When the researcher asked about the most important jobs for women which the private sector currently needs, the sample was divided as follows:

- Jobs urgently needed
- Jobs needed but not urgently
- Jobs not needed for women from the majority of the sample

Jobs urgently needed for women by the private sector

Table 8.4 shows the top ten jobs needed by the private sector for women in Saudi Arabia. Medical services are the jobs most needed by the private sector, with computing jobs the second. Textile jobs are in third place. Childcare, sewing, social services, teaching, food, electronics and accountancy are also needed in the private sector.

Table 8.4: The ten most needed jobs in the Saudi private sector

	Job opportunities for women in the private sector	Business managers*	
		Frequency	%
1	Medical and medical assistants	190	86.4
2	Computers	188	85.5
3	Textiles	182	82.7
4	Childcare	174	79.1
5	Sewing	167	75.9
6	Social services	149	67.7
7	Education	145	65.9
8	Food	108	49.1
9	Electronics	107	48.6
10	Accountancy	102	46.4

*Total number of respondents 220

Jobs needed for women but not urgently

Table 8.5 shows that, according to the sample, the following are jobs which are needed for women in the private sector but which are not urgently needed. The reason for this is that, although the minority of the sample believe that these jobs are needed for women in the private sector, the majority do not believe this because most of these jobs are still in male environments, such as business, economic, banking and marketing jobs.

Table 8.5: Jobs not urgently needed for women by the private sector

	Job opportunities for women in the private sector	Business managers' agreement*	
		Frequency	%
1	Banking	90	40.9
2	Hairdressing and beauty	87	39.5
3	Journalism	82	37.3
4	Crafts	73	32.2
5	Secretarial services	65	29.5
6	Reception duties	59	26.8
7	Interior decorating	59	26.8
8	Economics	57	25.9
9	Business	56	25.5
10	Marketing	50	22.7

*Total number of respondents 220

Jobs not needed for women by the private sector

Table 8.6 gives a list of jobs not seriously needed to be done by women in the private sector. This could be because most of these jobs are non-traditional jobs, and are not accepted by society as suitable jobs for women. At the same time, some of these jobs involve mixing with men.

Table 8.6: Jobs not needed by the Saudi private sector

	Job opportunities for women in the private sector	Business managers' agreement*	
		Frequency	%
1	Retailing	38	17.3
2	Machine maintenance	33	15.0
3	Electrical services	32	14.5
4	Security	30	13.6
5	Selling	28	12.7
6	Hotel services	26	11.8
7	Carpentry	24	10.9
8	Agriculture	22	10.0

*Total number of respondents 220

8.8 Women in Technical and Vocational Fields

The majority of the sample (83.1%) believed women's participation in technical and vocational field is still weak. When asked if they had any knowledge of technical and vocational education for women, 70.5% of the sample said they did have some knowledge. These managers believed that technical and vocational institutions enable women to graduate as qualified women into the private sector only to a very low degree (36.1%).

A majority of the sample believed that TEVT for women is unable to qualify women for the private sector (63.9%) and stated that there are weaknesses in certain factors.

Table 8.7 shows a lack of qualified female staff in TEVT for women (93.4%) was cited as most important by employed females, followed by a mismatch between TEVT output and the private sector needs for women (80.9%). Lack of co-operation between the public and private sectors concerning TEVT (70.8%). A lack of planning in TEVT policy for women and a shortage of facilities in TEVT institutions for women received the lowest percentages of the sample.

Table 8.7: Factors preventing women's employment in technical and vocational fields in the private sector

	Factors	Business managers' agreement	
		Frequency	%
1	A lack of co-operation between the public and the private sector concerning TEVT programmes and courses	63 (89)	70.8
2	A shortage of facilities in the TEVT institutions for women	59 (91)	64.8
3	A lack of planning in TEVT policy for women	55 (91)	60.4
4	A mismatch between TEVT output and private sector needs for women	72 (89)	80.9
5	Lack of qualified female staff in TEVT institutions	85 (91)	93.4

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

8.9 Factors Affecting Women's Employment in the Private Sector

To investigate business manager's opinions and attitudes towards factors affecting and/or encouraging women's employment in the private sector, this section looked at the following:

8.9.1 Factors contributing to women's employment in the private sector

Regarding the sample who believe that the companies need to employ women, 63.5% said their responses were due to the following factors:

1. Women are disciplined and work seriously. This was mentioned by 73.4% of the sample.
2. Women accept instructions. This was mentioned by 73.1% of the sample.
3. Women understand the value of work. This was mentioned by 71.0% of the sample.
4. Women have the skills for a specific task or work. This was mentioned by 68.4% of the sample.
5. Only 37.1% of the sample agreed that employing women in the private sector was because women accept lower salaries than the average male workers.
6. The sample disagreed that women are employed in the private sector because there are shortages of qualified males. Only 29.1% of the sample agreed with this.

Some of the sample added another factor for employing women in the private sector. This was because of the separation between the sexes in Saudi organisations; therefore, there is a need for women employees to fill jobs in women's sectors as these jobs cannot be done by men.

Table 8.8: Factors contributing to women's employment in the private sector

	Variables	Business managers' agreement	
		Frequency	%
1	Women are disciplined and work seriously	102 (139)	73.4
2	Women accept instructions	98 (134)	73.1
3	Women understand the value of work	98 (138)	71.0
4	Women have the skills for a specific task or work.	93 (136)	68.4
5	Women accept a lower salary than the average male worker	52 (140)	37.1
6	There are shortages of qualified national males in the private sector	39 (134)	29.1

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

8.9.2 Factors preventing women's employment in the private sector

The following are problems and obstacles that prevent women's employment in the Saudi private sector. The vast majority of the sample agreed that it is difficult to

employ women in the private sector because women face difficulties moving from one city to another city. This was mentioned by 91.7% of the sample.

Of the sample, 73.7% agreed that it is difficult to employ women in the private sector because some of the available jobs mean mixing with men.

In response to the researcher's question about whether a shortage of trained and skilled women in comparison with the private sector needs for women was a factor behind the difficulties of employing women in the private sector, the answer was that 72.4% of the sample agreed.

Of the sample mentioned that it is difficult to employ women in the private sector 63.5% stated that it was because women require extended holidays according to their status and their family.

The sample had a positive attitude towards women working outside the home. Just 43.4% of the sample agreed that it is difficult to employ women in the private sector because there are negative attitudes towards this.

For other factors that are less important than culture and education can be seen in Table 8.9.

Table 8.9: Factors preventing the employment of national women in the private sector

It is difficult to employ national women in the private sector because:		Business managers' agreement	
		Frequency	%
1	Women find it difficult to move from one city to another	198 (216)	91.7
2	Some available jobs for women in the private sector are in a mixed environment with men	160 (217)	73.7
3	There are shortages of trained and skilled women in comparison with private sector needs for women	155 (214)	72.4
4	Women require extended holidays according to their status and the family	134 (211)	63.5
5	Society has a negative attitude toward women working outside the home	95 (219)	43.4
6	Women face difficulties in moving from one job to another	82 (214)	38.3
7	Women will accept higher salaries than the average male workers	25 (214)	11.7

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

8.9.3 Factors that would encourage women's employment in the private sector

To reduce unemployment among women in society on the one hand, and to provide the private sector with qualified women on the other, certain factors must be considered in developing women's employment in the private sector. According to the sample, the main factors encouraging women's employment in the Saudi private sector are: improving the relationship between the public and private sectors towards women's education and training (89.2%), providing part-time work for women (85.6%), giving more importance to TEVT for women (84.7%), reducing working hours (81.9%), providing transportation (75.2%) and providing childcare facilities in the workplace (70.0%). However, changing society's attitudes towards women working outside their home and increasing salaries and rewards for women were the lowest rated factors which might encourage women's employment in the private sector (Table 8.10).

Table 8.10: Factors that would encourage women's employment in the private sector

Variables		(Agree)	
		Business managers	
		Frequency	%
1	Improving the relationship between the public and private sectors towards women's education and training	190 (213)	89.2
2	Offering part-time work	185 (216)	85.6
3	Giving more importance to TEVT	182 (215)	84.7
4	Reducing working hours	176 (215)	81.9
5	Providing transport for women	164 (218)	75.2
6	Providing child-care facilities	152 (217)	70.0
7	Improving and updating labour legislation	132 (216)	61.1
8	Changing society's attitudes towards women working outside the home.	127 (216)	58.8
9	Increasing job salaries and rewards	74 (212)	34.9

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

8.10 Summary of Findings from the Questionnaire

This chapter has considered the responses of the business managers of various Saudi companies to issue of women's employment in the private sector.

The companies themselves are first surveyed to give an indication of their types, activities, age, capital, and the make-up of their workforces, particularly with regard to women.

Secondly, the questionnaire surveyed the working environment and facilities which are available for women within the sample companies: working hours, transport, childcare facilities and training were examined.

Next, market information regarding jobs for women, attitudes to working women and the jobs which are required by the private sector, were considered, especially regarding work in technical and vocational fields.

The chapter ends with a resume of the obstacles which business manager respondents felt prevented the employment of more women in the private sector, together with a brief resume of the main and most important findings from the questionnaire responses.

It can be concluded from the companies surveyed that:

1. A small percentage of the workforce in the companies surveyed were nationals; these represented 21.5% of the total while 78.5% were non-nationals.
2. The number of Saudi women employees in the companies surveyed were very limited and they represented only 2.5% of the total employees, while non-national women represented 9.8% of the total.
3. National women in the sample work mostly in supervisory, administrative and professional jobs, while their participation in technical and vocational jobs was very limited in comparison with non-national women.
4. Women employees in the companies surveyed were concentrated in small companies (75.0%), while women employees in public companies represented 15.2% of the total proportion of women employees in the companies surveyed.
5. About half the women employees in the companies surveyed were employed in service companies and then industrial companies, while the number of women employed in commercial or agricultural companies was limited.
6. Women concentrated in companies whose capital was less than one million

- represented 50%, while companies with ten millions and over employed only 23.1% of the total woman employees in the companies surveyed.
7. 64.5% of the companies surveyed provided full-time work for Saudi women employees while only 14.0% provided part-time work.
 8. 75.0% of the companies surveyed provided transport for women, only 41.3% provided childcare facilities and 52.1% provided training.
 9. The majority of the sample had a positive attitude towards women's participation in the labour market and said they would employ women in their companies (82.3% and 63.5%, respectively).
 10. The majority of the sample believed that the service sector (83.9%), followed by the technological sector (63.6%) were the most suitable areas for women's employment in the private sector, while the commercial and agricultural sectors were not felt to be acceptable for women by the sample.
 11. Medical jobs, computer technology, textiles, childcare, sewing, social services, education, food, electronics and accountancy were the most important jobs in which the private sector still need women.
 12. 55.3% and 68.2% of the sample believed that the employment system and labour legislation do not encourage women's employment in the private sector.
 13. The majority of the sample was not happy with the labour market information that was available. They said they faced difficulties finding women applicants. This was mentioned by 76.0% of the sample.
 14. 91.7% of the sample said that it was difficult for women to move from one city to another, 73.7% noted that jobs for women which are available in the private sector mean mixing with men, and there is a mismatch between women's education, skills and the private sector's need for women. This was mentioned by 72.4% of the sample as the main factors affecting national women's employment in the Saudi private sector.
 15. The majority of the sample believes women's participation in technical and vocational field is still weak (83.1%). They believe that TEVT for women is unable to qualify women to the private sector (63.9%).
 16. Improving the relationship between the public and private sectors towards

women's education and training (89.2%), providing part-time work (85.6%), giving more importance to TEVT for women (84.7%), reducing working hours (81.9%) and providing transport and childcare facilities (75.2% and 70.0%, respectively), are the most important factors encouraging women's employment in the private sector. However, changing society's attitudes towards women working outside the home and increasing salaries and rewards are not factors which are seen as very important in encouraging women's employment in the private sector.

8.11 Overall Summary

Overall, a lack of qualified staff in TEVT for women (93.4%), a mismatch between TEVT output and the private sector needs for women (80.9%) and a lack of co-operation between the public and private sectors towards women's technical education and vocational training (70.8%) were the main factors preventing women's employment in the technical and vocational fields. Society's attitudes towards women's employment, and qualified women's expectations of higher salaries than those of the average males were limiting factors towards preventing women's employment in the private sector. (This is summarised in Calvert and Al-Shetaiwi, (2002) in the appendix.) How qualified women see the factors affecting their employment opportunities is the concern of Chapter Nine, which looks at the responses from qualified women.

CHAPTER NINE

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SAUDI WOMEN

9.1 Introduction

This chapter concentrates on the questionnaire responses from employed (207) and unemployed (145) Saudi women in the private sector.

The questionnaire attempts to reveal information that could help to understand the current situation of women's employment in the Saudi private sector. It will also investigate the main factors affecting the employment of qualified Saudi women in this sector. A comparative analysis between women employees and unemployed women will be investigated to explore the common and different points of view between both samples regarding their different experience of women's employment in the Saudi private sector.

The main objective of this chapter is to analyse the data concerning issues of women's employment in the Saudi private sector, which has resulted from the responses of women in Saudi Arabia.

The main statistic used is the chi-square to cross-tabulate data. Therefore, the tables have been reduced to groups of answers with more than five responses in some cases where the significance could be affected.

This chapter will look at the following:

- A general survey of the sample women (marital status, age, children, educational qualifications and family status) and the main reasons behind choosing subjects of studies and working or seeking jobs
- Women employees of the sample and the private sector environment.
- Sample women and promotion of women's employment in the private sector.
- Sample women and field of work and job opportunities for women.
- Sample women and technical and vocational areas.
- Sample women and factors affecting national women's employment in the private sector.

9.2 General Information

Marital status

Table 9.1 shows that more than half (58.45%) of employed Saudi women are married, while the majority of unemployed Saudi women (54.48%) are single. The result of the chi-square test shows that there is a significant difference between both groups. The reason behind the difference could be that some women refuse to marry until they finish their university degree, hence the higher proportion of women employees holding a higher education degree (69.08%), compared with the number of unemployed women holding a higher education degree (58.62%).

Table 9.1: Marital status

Marital status		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1.	Married	121	58.45	55	37.93
2.	Single	67	32.36	79	54.48
3.	Divorced or Widowed	19	9.17	11	7.58
	Total	207	100.0	145	100.0

Chi-square = .000

Women's age

In Table 9.2, it can be seen that the majority of the sample (65.53%) in employment are in the age range of 25 to less 35; this is followed by the under 25 age range (26.66%). When looking at the unemployed, it can be seen that this is in reverse, 50.34% and 41.25% respectively. The result of the chi-square test shows that there is a significant difference between employed and unemployed women.

Table 9.2: Women's age

Age		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Under 25 years	55	26.66	72	50.34
2	25 to less 35 years	135	65.53	59	41.25
3	35 years and over	16	7.76	12	8.39
	Total	206		143	

Chi Square = .000

It is not surprising to find the age difference between employed and unemployed women. This is because of their qualifications and experience of work (20% of women employees have had experience in their work of between 2-10 years).

Women and children

Table 9.3 shows that 48.52% of women with one or two children are unemployed while 40.71% are in employment. However, there are more of the sample women (39.99%) in employment than the unemployed (33.82%) with three or more children. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportion of the two samples.

Table 9.3: Women and children

Women with children		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	No children	27	19.28	12	17.64
2	One or two	57	40.71	33	48.52
3	Three and more	56	39.99	23	33.82
	Total	140		68	

Chi Square = .557

Children under school age

The number of unemployed women with one child under school age in comparison to employed women, is very similar at 46.42% to 45.21% respectively. Women with two children and more are also very similar at 32.14% to 34.78% respectively. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.4: Children under school age

Children under school age		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	None	23	20.00	12	21.42
2	One	52	45.21	26	46.42
3	Two and more	40	34.78	18	32.14
	Total	115		56	

Chi Square = .938

House owner or tenant

The majority of 68.53% who own their own property are in the Saudi female unemployed category in comparison to 60.60% of females who are employed (Table 9.5). In the tenant category, 39.40% of Saudi females are in the employed section and 31.46% are unemployed. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.5: House owner or tenant

House		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Owner	123	60.60	98	68.53
2	Tenant	80	39.40	45	31.46
	Total	203		143	

Chi Square=.130

Father's job status

Table 9.6 shows that the fathers' occupation in Saudi Arabia for the majority of women in both unemployed (51.74%) and employed (49.75%) categories are in the public sectors. Working in the private sector (17.7%) came next in the employed category while for the unemployed women it was (13.28%). The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.6: Father's job status

Father's job		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Working in public sector	101	49.75	74	51.74
2	Working in private sector	36	17.7	19	13.28
3	Self employed	35	17.2	26	18.18
4	Retired	16	7.9	18	12.58
5	Unemployed or disabled	15	7.4	6	4.19
	Total	203		143	

Chi Square = .348

Family monthly income

Family income is in the highest bracket of 10,000 SR and more for 29.55% of female employed while for unemployed females the monthly income was in the 3,000 SR to less than 5,000 SR bracket for 34.72%. Income of less than 3,000 SR was lowest for unemployed women (13.19%) while for employed was in the 5000 to less than 10,000 SR (20.69%) (Table 9.7). It is clear that most Saudi families received an income of 5,000 SR or more for both the employed and unemployed women. The oil revenue is the reason for the high standard of family incomes. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.7: Family monthly income

Family monthly income		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Less than 3000 SR	49	24.14	19	13.19
2	3000 to less than 5000	52	25.62	50	34.72
3	5000 to less than 10000	42	20.69	35	24.31
4	10000 and more	60	29.55	40	27.78
	Total	203	100.00	144	100.00

1\$ = 3.75 SR: Chi Square = .044

Family's servants

In Saudi Arabia, before Saudi women became involved working outside the home, foreign female servants or foreign male drivers were not normally used. However, when Saudi women started working outside the home the importation of female servants (to look after the children while they worked) and male drivers became necessary for most families because of the shortage of childcare centres and lack of public transport. These workers are usually imported from India, Sri Lanka and Indonesia because they are cheap labour (350-1,000 SR monthly). The majority of households at present have one or more female servant and this is one of the problems which the Saudi family is facing today with their children because of the different cultures and religions, some servants are non-Muslim. Saudi Arabia today is one of the largest countries to employ foreign workers. According to the last census in 1992, 70% of foreign female workers in Saudi Arabia were employed as servants and housemaids among Saudi families (the total number was more than 200,000 servants). See Chapter Five.

From Table 9.8, both sections (61.80% employed and 62.50% unemployed) of Saudi female respondents stated that they have a female servant and also employ drivers. This is mentioned by 28.47% of the unemployed and 26.57% of the employed women. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.8: Family's servants

Family's servants		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Female servant	128	61.80	90	62.50	.900
2	Personal driver	55	26.57	41	28.47	.694
	Total	207		144		

Women's qualifications

Women's qualifications are very important in the study of women's employment and development. Therefore, the researcher investigated women's qualifications in Saudi Arabia in general, and the qualifications of unemployed women, specifically, in comparison with job opportunities provided by the private sector (Chapter Eight).

When asking the respondents about their educational qualifications, the majority in both sections declared themselves to be educated to the higher education level. For the employed the percentage was 69.08% and for the unemployed 58.62%. Secondary certificates came next for both groups followed by diplomas below university level (Table 9.9).

The number of women employees and unemployed women who hold diploma degrees is low; the figures are similar between the two groups at 14.94% and 12.41% respectively. Saudi women at this level of study can get jobs in the public sector in health and education fields as nurses or as teachers in primary schools. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.9: Women's qualifications

Women's qualification		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Higher education	143	69.08	85	58.62
2	Diploma	31	14.97	18	12.41
3	Secondary certificate	33	15.94	42	28.96
	Total	207		145	

Chi Square .013

Choice of subjects

In Table 9.10 it can be seen that the majority of both unemployed (34.00%) and employed (26.06%) females in the sample chose subjects in the humanities sector. Education was next, but the percentage was higher for the employed (22.42%) than for the unemployed (19.00%). Computing, engineering and medicine were the least chosen subjects by both the employed and unemployed with scores of 6.10% and 4.20% (employees) and 5.00% and 4.00% (unemployed) respectively. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples (chi-square .337).

The table also shows that the majority of employed and unemployed women opt for theoretical rather than technical subjects (77.57%) and (76.00%) respectively. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples (chi-square .768).

Limited opportunities for women in higher education in some subjects, low capacity in technical and vocational fields, and the absence of colleges of technology for women are the main reasons behind the lack of women in technical and scientific subjects.

Table 9.10: Choice of subjects by women

Choice of subjects by women		Percentage (Agree)			
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Humanities	43	26.06	34	34.00
2	Education	37	22.42	19	19.00
3	Culture and Religion	24	14.63	15	15.00
4	Business	24	14.63	6	6.00
5	Home Economics	10	6.06	11	11.00
6	Math and Physics	10	6.06	6	6.00
7	Computing and Engineering	10	6.10	5	5.00
8	Medicine	7	4.2	4	4.00
10	Total	165		100	100

Chi Square .337

Situation of unemployed women in the sample

It is very interesting to know if unemployed Saudi women are interested in developing their skills and knowledge in their subject according to the private sector's need for women. The researcher asked unemployed women if they had attended any training courses after their graduation. 30.34% of respondents stated that they did attend courses when they had completed their studies while the others said they had not (69.66%).

The majority of unemployed women who attended training courses after graduation (30.34%) were interested in the following courses: computer training, the English language and secretarial affairs, while some had attended courses in hairdressing, beauty and sewing.

Of unemployed females 41.66% stated that they had been looking for a job for between 1 year to less than 3 years, while 47.9% said they had been looking for a job for less than 1 year. There was a very low percentage for those looking for a job for

3-5 year or for over 5 years.

In reply to the researcher's question about women trying to get jobs in the private sector, the majority answered that they had tried (59.3%) while 40.7% said they had not. However, the majority would accept working in the private sector if they found a job. This was mentioned by 81.4% while the minority said they would not (18.6%).

Factors that affect women choosing their subjects

It is not always that the problem of women's employment comes from the labour market, sometimes it comes from the women themselves. Therefore, this section investigates the relationship between women choosing their subjects and the labour market's need for women. This is can be shown through women's attitudes towards choosing their subject and/or their field of studies.

In the sample, the top three factors affecting women choosing their subjects were good social status after graduation (73.52% and 71.09%), personal interest (74.75% and 68.78%) and public sector needs (72.81% and 66.09%) for both unemployed and employed females respectively. Table 9.11 shows that "no option for other subject" ranked lowest for both groups. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.11: Factors that affected women choosing their subject

Variables		Percentage (Agree)				
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Good social status after graduation	123 (173)	71.09	75 (102)	73.52	.664
2	Personal interest	119 (173)	68.78	77 (103)	74.75	.290
3	Market needs in the public sector	115 (174)	66.09	75 (103)	72.81	.244
4	Nature of work after graduation	91 (169)	53.84	51 (103)	49.51	.488
5	Market needs in the private sector	26 (171)	15.20	17 (102)	16.7	.748
6	No option for other subject	23 (173)	13.29	16 (103)	15.5	.605

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

This is interesting because it shows that the unemployed and employed women in the sample had very similar attitudes to the appropriateness of education. This

suggests a positive attitude to employment in the unemployed group. In other words, there was no suggestion of choosing to be unemployed.

Factors affecting women seeking jobs

In most countries in the world, and in the developing countries in particular, one of the reasons behind women seeking jobs is for financial reasons.

Table 9.12 attempts to explore the main reason behind Saudi women working and/or looking for jobs outside the home, to understand the main factors behind Saudi women seeking their jobs. It can be seen that both groups of respondents are agreed on the variable for culture and social needs as the major reason for seeking work (72.41% for the unemployed and 71.35% for the employed). This is followed supporting the national economy (59.02% for unemployed women and 52.65% for woman employees), while the family's financial income was the least rated reason (32.85% for the employed and 30.34% for the unemployed).

Saudi women would rather guard their reputation than seek employment for financial reasons. This was given as the main reason, because women are not responsible for family expenditure according to Islamic Sharia'a, therefore, it is easy for some Saudi women to leave their jobs.

The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.12: Factors affecting women seeking jobs

Variables		Percentage (Agree)				
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1.	For culture and social needs	147 (206)	71.35	105 (145)	72.41	.829
2.	To support the national economy	109 (207)	52.65	85 (144)	59.02	.238
3.	To be independent	99 (207)	47.82	72 (145)	49.65	.735
4.	For personal financial needs	86 (207)	41.54	57 (145)	39.31	.674
5.	To support family financial income	68 (207)	32.85	44 (145)	30.34	.619

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

Again, the close similarity between the two groups highlights a close agreement on the employment sector between those in employment and those who are

not. This emphasises the positive attitude to employment of the groups rather than indicating a choice not to work.

9.3 Woman Employees and the Private Sector Environment

Saudi women who are currently employed were asked to state their occupation. The highest percentage is in the administration sector (41.54%), followed by professional (33.33%) and supervision (15.45%). The lowest number are employed in technical (4.83%), vocational (4.34%) and technological (0.48%) sectors.

When the researcher asked about women's experiences in the private sector, it was found that women with 2 years and less experience had the highest percentage (46.37%), followed by 2 to less than 5 years (34.29%), with the lowest percentage being ten years and more (19.34%). This could be because women have only started working in the private sector recently due to the lack of job opportunities in the public sector or because some Saudi women left employment when they started a family.

In the researcher's question about current monthly salaries which provided for women employees in the private sector, the highest income bracket for Saudi women in employment is between 1,000 SR and less than 3,000 SR (54.59%) followed by 3,000 to less than 5,000 SR (23.67%) and then women who received 5,000 or more (16.91%). Looking at both ends of the income brackets, it can be seen that only a very small percentage are in the income brackets of less of 1,000 (4.83%).

9.4 Promotion of Women's Employment in the Private Sector

The majority of employed Saudi women work full-time (83.98%) and only a small percentage work part-time (16.02%). Most women in the sample prefer to work part-time. This rated 62.31% and 59.31% of the employed and unemployed respectively.

When asked if women prefer working in the private rather than the public sector, the answer from the majority was negative (93.8% unemployed and 80.5% employed women). The result of the chi-square test shows that there is a very significant difference between the proportions of the two groups (chi-square=.000). The reason behind the difference may be that some women employees have had some experience in the private sector and some are happy in their jobs because some of the companies have better salaries and facilities than those in the public sector.

When the reasons behind the concentration of Saudi women in the public sector rather than the private sector were probed, the results showed that the majority of employed and unemployed women respondents stated that it was because the public sector provides shorter working hours, more holidays, higher salaries and rewards, more security and the fact that the available jobs are not in a mixed environment.

Market information

The high percentages of both employed (83.00%) and unemployed (82.75%) women indicates the difficulty faced by for Saudi women in finding information about the availability of jobs in the private sector. The result of the Chi-square shows that there is no a significant differences $P = .951$

The researcher asked which was the most difficult of the available media to use to find jobs. Table 9.13 indicates that the top three methods: direct contact for the companies, labour offices and private advertising agencies, were the most difficult media to use while for looking for jobs for both respondent groups. Newspapers or magazines and educational institutions for women were seen as the least difficult with 28.15% and 39.40% respectively for employed women and 25.17% and 35.46% respectively, for unemployed women.

The result of the chi-square test shows that there is no significant difference between the proportions of the two groups in any of the types of media. It could be expected, however, that the two groups would have different ideas about accessing job information.

Table 9.13: Women face difficulties to use the following media

Media	Percentage (Agree)				
	Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		P
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Personal direct contact	162 (206)	78.64	121 (142)	85.21	.122
Government labour offices	161 (207)	77.77	113 (144)	78.47	.877
Private agencies	159 (206)	77.18	113 (142)	79.57	.595
Educational and training institutions for women	80 (203)	39.40	50 (141)	35.46	.458
Newspaper or magazines	58 (206)	28.15	36 (143)	25.17	.537

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

Promotion of women's employment

To develop women's employment in the private sector it is important to investigate and explore women's views towards the needs of women to participate in economic activities. Their private attitudes towards women's employment in their companies in comparison with males and women's views of private sector organisations and structures which encourage women's employment also need to be investigated.

85.99% of employed and 89.65% of unemployed females stated that there was a need for women's participation in the labour market (Table 9.14). However, both groups believe that the private sector prefers male employees to females and only a low percentage believe that the private sector encourages women's employment within it and that there is equal opportunity for both sexes. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.14: Promotion of women's employment in the private sector

Variables		Percentage (Agree)				P
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	There is a need for women's participation in the labour market	178 (207)	85.99	130 (145)	89.65	.306
2	Private sector prefers males rather than females in the same field or studies	163 (207)	78.74	112 (142)	78.87	.977
3	Employment system in the private sector encourages women's employment	72 (206)	34.95	43 (143)	30.06	.340
4	Labour legislation gives equal opportunities for males and females	27 (207)	13.04	26 (145)	17.93	.435

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

9.5 Women's Field of Work and Job Opportunities

Looking at Table 9.15, it can be seen that both respondent groups were in agreement when ranking the most important field of production for women. Services had the highest percentage (87.85% unemployed and 82.60% employed), followed by technology and crafts. Agriculture ranked least with 8.69% for employed women and 4.12% for unemployed women. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.15: Women's fields in the private sector

Women's field of work		Percentage (Agree)				P
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Services	171 (207)	82.60	127 (145)	87.58	.202
2	Technology	127 (207)	61.35	101 (145)	69.65	.108
3	Crafts	100 (207)	48.30	61 (145)	42.06	.247
4	Commerce	77 (206)	37.37	49 (145)	33.79	.490
5	Industry	54 (207)	26.08	34 (145)	23.44	.574
6	Agriculture	18 (207)	8.69	6 (145)	4.12	.095

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

The fields that contribute to the national economy

Table 9.16 shows the top ten jobs where Saudi women prefer to work in the private sector. Computing, education, childcare and textiles are the highest ranked by both respondent groups. It is believed that computing ranked highest (89.37% employed and 88.27% unemployed) because this is the era of technology. Many jobs today may, in fact, involve IT in some form or another. Social services ranked fifth with employed women but for the unemployed the fifth ranking area was medical and medical assistant. Both groups ranked electronic services as the lowest percentage of the top ten jobs preferred with 48.96% for unemployed women and 48.30% for employed women. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.16: Jobs strongly preferred by women in the private sector

Women's attitudes towards certain jobs in the private sector such as:		Percentage (Agree)				P
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Computing	185	89.37	128	88.27	.747
2	Education	183	88.40	127	87.58	.815
3	Child care	162	78.26	119	82.06	.381
4	Textiles	153	73.91	116	80.00	.185
5	Social services	148	71.49	96	66.20	.289
6	Accountancy	135	65.21	88	60.68	.386
7	Food	128	61.83	84	57.93	.461
8	Medical & medical assistants	128	61.83	103	71.03	.074
9	Sewing	125	60.38	94	64.82	.398
10	Electronic services	100	48.30	71	48.96	.903

Total number of respondents: Employed Saudi women = 207; Unemployed Saudi women 145

Table 9.17 show jobs not ranked as urgent where Saudi women prefer to work in the private sector. However, for employed women the two highest-ranking jobs are traditional jobs for women (hairdressing and beauty, and secretarial services) and journalism was ranked third (42.09%). Whereas for unemployed women hairdressing and beauty also came first (44.85%) but this was followed by banking (40.00%). Business had the lowest percentage by both respondent groups. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples except in business where there is a significant result of .000.

Table 9.17: Job not strongly preferred by women in the private sector

Women's attitudes towards certain jobs in the private sector such as:		Percentage (Agree)				P
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Hairdressing & beauty	98	47.34	65	44.82	.641
2	Secretarial services	95	45.89	52	35.86	.060
3	Journalism	89	42.99	57	39.31	.490
4	Banking	87	42.02	58	40.00	.703
5	Business	81	39.13	29	20.13	.000

Total number of respondents: Employed Saudi women = 207; Unemployed Saudi women 145

Jobs not preferred by women in the private sector

Table 9.18 show the jobs in the private sector that are least preferred by Saudi women in both the employed and unemployed sectors. In general, it can be seen that most of the jobs are not traditional and are not accepted by society as suitable for women. Some of these jobs are involve mixing with men.

The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.18: Jobs not preferred by women in the private sector

Women's attitudes towards certain jobs in the private sector such as:		Percentage (Agree)				P
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Crafts	66	31.88	41	28.27	.469
2	Reception duties	66	31.88	37	25.51	.196
3	Economics	58	28.01	30	20.68	.118
4	Interior decorating	57	27.53	39	26.89	.894
5	Marketing	33	15.94	29	20.00	.325
6	Selling	18	8.69	16	11.03	.465
7	Hotel services	15	7.24	5	3.44	.130
8	Electrical services	13	6.28	8	5.51	.766
9	Agriculture	13	6.28	8	5.51	.766
10	Retailing	11	5.31	8	5.51	.934
11	Carpentry	10	4.83	2	1.37	
12	Machine maintenance	8	3.86	11	7.58	.128
13	Security	0	0.0	0	0.0	

Total number of respondents: Employed Saudi women = 207; Unemployed Saudi women 145

9.6 Women in Technical and Vocational Areas

Women's participation in both technical and vocational fields are believed to be weak to a high degree (Table 9.19) by both unemployed and employed Saudi females (87.4% and 89.37% respectively).

Table 9.19: Women's participation in technical and vocational fields

Women's participation in technical and vocational fields		Percentage (Agree)			
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Women's participation is still weak in technical and vocational fields	185 (207)	89.37	127 (145)	87.4

Chi square .603

When asked if they had any knowledge of technical and vocational education for women, 72.72% of the unemployed and 67.47% of the employed Saudi women said they did have some knowledge. (Chi-square = .294.)

Technical education and vocational institutions

Saudi unemployed and employed women who had knowledge about TEVT for women believe that technical and vocational institutions for women enable women to graduate into the labour market but only to a very low degree (20% and 17.51% respectively). The majority of Saudi women, both employed and unemployed, who believe that TEVT for women is unable to qualify women for the private sector

(82.49% and 80% respectively) stated that there were weaknesses in certain factors (Chi-square=.623).

Lack of qualified staff in TEVT for women (91.45%) was ranked highest by employed females, followed by a lack of co-operation between the public and private sectors towards women's education (82.45%). Moreover, unemployed women pointed out a lack of qualified staff (86.58%), followed by a mismatch between TEVT output and the private sector needs for women (84.48%). A lack of planning in TEVT policy for women and a shortage of facilities in TEVT institutions for women received the lowest percentage by both respondent groups (Table 9.20). The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.20: Factors preventing women's participation in technical and vocational fields

Variables		Percentage (Agree)				P
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	A lack of qualified female staff in TEVT institutions	107 (117)	91.45	71 (82)	86.58	.271
2	A lack of co-operation between the public and the private sector concerning TEVT programs and courses	94 (114)	82.45	63 (80)	78.75	.720
3	A mismatch between TEVT output and private sector needs for women	94 (115)	81.73	66 (81)	84.48	.963
4	A lack of planning in TEVT policy for women	81 (116)	69.82	61 (82)	74.39	.483
5	A shortage of facilities in TEVT institutions for women	66 (117)	56.41	44 (80)	55.00	.271

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

9.7 Factors Affecting Women's Employment in the Private Sector

Factors contribution women's employment in the private sector

According to Table 9.21, women have the necessary skills for specific tasks (85.51% unemployed). They also understand the value of work (80.97% employed), are disciplined and work seriously (80.68% unemployed). This makes them a necessity in the labour market. Women accepting lower salary and shortages of qualified males were the variables which had the lowest percentages. Also, some of

the employed and unemployed respondents added that some jobs in the private sector are in women's organisations and women must occupy them because of the separation between the sexes in Saudi Arabia. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.21: Factors contributing to women's employment in the private sector

Variables		Percentage (Agree)				
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1.	Women have the skills for a specific task or work	168 (206)	81.55	124 (145)	85.51	.328
2.	Women understand the value of work	166 (205)	80.97	111 (145)	76.55	.316
3.	Women are disciplined and work seriously	161 (206)	78.15	117 (145)	80.68	.565
4.	Women accept instructions	157 (206)	76.21	106 (144)	73.61	.579
5.	Women accept a lower salary than the average male worker in the private sector	95 (207)	45.89	56 (145)	38.62	.175
6.	There are shortages of qualified males in the private sector	54 (207)	26.08	41 (144)	28.47	.621

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

Factors preventing women's employment in the private sector

To investigate what are the main factors in preventing women's employment in the Saudi private sector, the researcher specified certain factors which resulted from the literature review. Some of the main factors preventing women's employment in the private sector in either looking for employment or, in some cases, already being employed are: being able to move from city to city or job to job, mixing with males, society's attitude to women working outside the home, salary or rewards, and shortage of skills. Table 9.22 shows that the highest percentages for both respondent sectors were (a) Women find it difficult to move from one city to another (90.14% unemployed and 85.50% employed). (b) Some available jobs are in mixed environments with men (77.62 unemployed and 67.30% employed). (c) Women require extended holidays according to their status and family, this was confirmed by 74.75% of the employed and 72.2% of unemployed women. d) Shortages of skilled women in comparison with private sector needs was a reason mentioned by 72.22% (unemployed) and 71.49% (employed). The result of the chi-square test shows that

there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples.

Table 9.22: Factors preventing women's employment in the private sector

Variables		Percentage (Agree)				
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Women find it difficult to move from one city to another	177 (207)	85.50	128 (142)	90.14	.200
2	Women require extended holidays according to their status and family	154 (206)	74.75	103 (143)	72.02	.569
3	There are shortages of skilled women in comparison with private sector needs	148 (207)	71.49	104 (144)	72.22	.882
4	Some available jobs in the private sector are in a mixed environment with men	138 (205)	67.30	111 (143)	77.62	.036
5	Women face difficulties in moving from one job to another	79 (205)	38.53	59 (145)	40.68	.685
6	Society has a negative attitude toward women working outside the home	72 (204)	35.29	63 (143)	44.05	.099
7	Women expect higher salaries than average male workers	35 (206)	16.99	15 (141)	10.63	.098

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

Factors which would encourage women's employment in the private sector

When Saudi employed women were asked what facilities their company provided, nursery places were seen to be provided by 48.30%, transport by 39.80%, and training by 37.19% of companies.

There are a number of factors that could attract and encourage women into the private sector. Table 9.23 shows that both samples, women employees and unemployed women, believe that improving the relationship between the private and public sectors towards women's education and training (90.68% and 93.00%) is the most important factor encouraging women's employment in the private sector. Offering women part-time work was followed by giving importance to technical and vocational education (85.50% and 83.57% respectively). This scored higher for woman employees than for unemployed women (74.48% and 80.41% respectively) but only marginally. Providing childcare (81.55%), providing free transport (80.19%), and reducing working hours (79.71%) would also, women employees believe, encourage women into employment in the private sector. Unemployed women also believe that providing transport (87.32%), reducing working hours (78.62%) and

providing childcare facilities (76.38%) would encourage women's employment in the private sector. Other factors, such as improving and updating labour legislation, changing society's attitudes towards working women, and increasing salaries and rewards, followed. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples except with practising part-time work where there is a significant result between both samples. This is because some unemployed women are not married and do not have children or responsibilities at home.

Table 9.23: Factors which would encourage women's employment in the private sector

Variables		Percentage (Agree)				P
		Saudi woman employees		Saudi unemployed women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Improving the relationship between public and private sectors towards women's education and training	185 (204)	90.68	133 (143)	93.00	.442
2	Offering part-time system for women	177 (207)	85.50	108 (145)	74.48	.010
3	Given more importance to TEVT for women	173 (207)	83.57	115 (143)	80.41	.447
4	Providing child-care facilities for women	168 (206)	81.55	110 (144)	76.38	.240
5	Providing free transport for women	166 (207)	80.19	124 (142)	87.32	.081
6	Reducing working hours for women	165 (207)	79.71	114 (145)	78.62	.804
7	Improving and updating labour legislation in the private sector	144 (206)	69.70	89 (142)	62.67	.159
8	Changing society's attitudes towards women's working in the home	105 (206)	50.97	71 (145)	48.96	.711
9	Increasing job salaries and rewards for women	83 (207)	40.09	62 (145)	42.75	.617

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

9.8 Summary of Findings from the Questionnaire

It can be concluded from the data that there are some issues preventing women's employment in the Saudi private sector, and greater prioritisation of targets must be considered when planning for women's employment in this sector. These considerations include the following issues:

1. There is a mismatch between the jobs available in the private sector and women's skills and experience. The majority of women (employed and unemployed) have

studied theoretical subjects rather than technical, vocational and scientific subjects (77.57% and 76.00% respectively).

2. Most women in the sample prefer to work part-time, as stated by 62.31% and 59.31% of the employed and unemployed respectively.
3. The majority of women in the sample prefer working in the public rather than the private sector (93.79% for unemployed women and 80.58% for employed).
4. The high percentage for both employed (83.30%) and unemployed (82.75%) women indicates the difficulty for Saudi women in finding information about the availability of jobs in the private sector because of a lack of market information.
5. The majority of women in Saudi believe that the private sector system does not help and encourage women's employment.
6. The top ten jobs where Saudi women prefer to work in the private sector are: computing, education, childcare, textiles, medicine, social services, food, electronic, accountancy and sewing.
7. Women's participation in technical and vocational fields is seen as weak to a high degree by both unemployed and employed Saudi females (87.4% and 89.37% respectively).
8. Saudi unemployed and employed women who had knowledge about TEVT for women believe that technical and vocational institutions for females enable women to graduate into the private sector but only to a very low degree (20% and 17.51% respectively).
9. A majority of Saudi women both employed and unemployed, believe that TEVT for women is unable to qualify women to the private sector (82.49% and 80% respectively). They stated that there were weaknesses in certain factors, these are shown in Table 9.20. Lack of qualified staff in TEVT for women (91.45%) was ranked highest by employed females; this was followed by lack of co-operation between the public and private sectors towards women's education (82.45%). Unemployed women stated there was a lack of qualified female staff (81.70%), followed by a mismatch between TEVT output and the private sector needs for women (84.48%). A lack of co-operation between the public and private sectors (78.75%), a lack of planning in TEVT policy for women, and a shortage of facilities in TEVT institutions for women; these received the lowest ranking by both respondent groups.

10. Women face difficulties moving from one city to another, some available jobs for women involve mixing with males, and mismatch between women's skills, education and private sector needs for women. These were the main factors in preventing women's employment in the Saudi private sector.
11. Improving the relationship between the public and private sectors towards women's education and training; offering part-time work; giving more importance to TEVT for women; reducing working hours; providing free transport, and providing childcare facilities. These were the main factors which would encourage women's employment in the private sector in Saudi Arabia.

9.9 Overall Summary

This chapter offers a detailed analysis of the questionnaires received from employed and unemployed women in the Saudi private sector.

Women respondents have given more emphasis to factors relating to education, labour market information, childcare and transportation facilities and flexible employment, however, little emphasis was given to factors relating to society's attitudes and remuneration issues.

An interesting result of the analysis of the women's responses is the agreement in a lot of the questions between employed and unemployed women. There is no evidence of unemployed women being unemployed because of different attitudes to employment from qualified women who do work.

In Chapter Ten, the responses from business managers are compared with the responses from qualified women and with the views of various authorities.

CHAPTER TEN

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN BUSINESS MANAGERS AND WOMEN IN SAUDI ARABIA

10.1 Introduction

Chapters Eight and Nine discussed and analysed respectively the views of Saudi business managers and the views of qualified Saudi women, employed and unemployed, regarding women's employment in the private sector. The main objective of this chapter is to compare the results found from both samples (business managers and women) and to investigate the similarities and differences between the two groups affecting women's employment in the Saudi private sector.

This chapter will look at the following:

- Woman's employment and private sector environment and facilities
- Promotion of women's employment in the private
- Job opportunities and field of work in the private sector in comparison with women's skills and attitudes
- Women in technical and vocational areas
- Factors affecting women's employment in the private sector

10.2 Woman's Employment and Private Sector Environment and Facilities

This section will look at the information systems, the environment and the facilities provided for women in the private sector and these will be compared with women's attitudes.

- **Information systems and women's employment**

As can be seen in Table 10.1, the majority of both respondent groups (business managers and women) believe that the lack of labour market information in the private sector is one of the problems in Saudi national employment. It is unable to provide information about jobs which are available for women in the private sector or provide comprehensive data about women applicants. This problem was mentioned by

76.0% of business managers and 82.9% by women. This is now one of the challenges of the Seventh Development Plan (2000-2004). As one of the practical steps to develop a labour force in Saudi Arabia, the plan argues that:

“It is very important to encourage private employment agencies to be more attractive to business managers, educational institutions and students and to improve labour market information. It is necessary to develop information systems in the labour market which will provide data from Labour Offices in all regions about labour market information, job opportunities and graduates from educational and training institutions. This data must be made available for business men or women, students, and the unemployed according to their subjects, it must be to updated yearly.” (Seventh Development Plan, 2000: 183)

Table 10.1: Labour market information

Labour market information		(Agree)				
		Business managers		Women		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Labour market information is unable to provide data about job opportunities or women applicants in the private sector	73 (96)	76.0	291 (351)	82.9	.125

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

When asked about looking for women applicants, over three-quarters (84.8%) of business managers who employ women (96 out of 220) agree that they use newspapers or magazines when advertising jobs for women. Therefore, this medium is not difficult for women (73.1%) to use. However, while 65.2% of business managers' use the government labour offices, a fairly high percentage (78.1%) of Saudi women do find this a difficult medium. This could be because all employees in the labour offices are men and there are no women around to serve women applicants. When asked about educational institutions just under half (47.7%) of business managers said they did use this medium while just 37.8% of Saudi women found it difficult to use. Although this media is suitable for women applicants, most companies surveyed who employ women never use it. This is one of the mismatches between the public and the private sector in women's employment.

Personal contact, on the other hand, was difficult for women (81.3%) to use according to Saudi culture. However, this kind of medium is only used by a small

amount of business managers (33.3%) and may be used by women employees rather than men in these companies.

Private advertising agencies (6.2%) are rarely used by business managers and women also said it was a difficult medium to use (78.2%); this could be because of the high fees which are usually taken from companies or applicants (Ministry of Labour, 2001 and Al-Shadadi, 2001). Also, there are no women employees in these offices to serve women applicants and so, for cultural reasons, most woman do not use this medium at present or if they do, they use it through their parents or brothers etc. The result of chi-square was a significant difference between the two groups (Table 10.2)

Table 10.2: Do women face difficulties using media to find jobs in the private sector?

Media		Agree				
		Business managers using this medium		Easy for women using this medium		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Newspapers or magazines	56 (66)	84.8	255 (349)	73.1	.043
2	Government labour offices	43 (66)	65.2	77 (351)	21.9	.000
3	Educational institutions for women	31 (65)	47.7	214 (344)	62.2	.029
4	Direct contact with the companies	23 (69)	33.3	65 (348)	18.7	.006
6	Private advertising agencies	4 (65)	6.2	76 (348)	21.8	.003

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

Women's working environment and facilities

The working environment and facilities are very important in recruiting and retaining working women in any job. Facilities to meet the needs of women will help their commitment and will increase and encourage them to continue in their work. Therefore, this section will look at women's attitudes towards working hours in the private sector in comparison with the situation in the companies surveyed, the facilities provided for women employees by the companies surveyed, and women's attitudes towards working in the private sector.

Working hours

In Table 10.3, most women employees in the companies surveyed practise full-time work. This was confirmed by 83.98% of the sample of woman employees. Women who practise part-time work, however, represent only 16.02% of the total number of woman employees in the companies surveyed.

On the other hand, the majority of women employees and unemployed women in the sample prefer working part-time (61.08%) while the minority of the sample prefer full-time work (38.92%).

Table 10.3: Schedule of woman employees in the private sector

Working hours		Type of work Saudi women practice in the companies		Type of work women prefer	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Full time work	173	83.98	137	38.92
2	Part time work	29	16.02	215	61.08
	Total	202	100%	352	100%

Facilities

When making a comparison about the question of facilities for women it was found that 50.7% of the Saudi business managers said they have training centres while 37.2% of Saudi women said they were provided with training. It is clear from the figures there is a significant difference between the two groups (chi-square .028). The reason for the difference is because most of the companies who employ women are small companies.

Transport is also important for women in Saudi Arabia, so when asked, 75.0% of business managers said transport was provided and for Saudi women this figure was 39.8%. There is a significant difference between the two respondents (chi-square=.000). The difference could be because usually in Saudi Arabia some companies provide transportation for only non-national women while national women opt for reimbursement or a bonus for this facility.

As can be seen in Table 10.4, 41.3% (business) and 48.3% (women employees) stated that childcare facilities were provided in their jobs. The result was very similar between two groups, but this facility is still insufficient for women according to Islamic conditions for women working outside the home. Because, as mentioned in Chapter Two, Islamic Sharia'a imposes conditions on women working

outside the home, and this means that women who do work must not let their work influence their role in bringing up the children.

Table 10.4: Facilities provided for women in the private sector

Facilities		Agree				P
		Business Managers		Woman employees		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Training	105 (220)	50.7	77 (207)	37.2	.028
2	Transport	72 (96)	75.0	82 (206)	39.8	.000
3	Nursery places	38 (92)	41.3	100 (207)	48.3	.262

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

10.3 Promotion of Women's Employment in the Private

When asked about attitudes toward the need for women's participation in the private sector, 87.5% of women and 82.6% of business managers stated that there was a need for women to participate (Table 10.5).

Both respondent groups also agreed that the private sector prefers male employees to females (78.5% women and 71.6% business managers). However, there is a higher percentage of business managers (31.8%) than women (15.1%) who believe that the labour legislation gives equal conditions to both male and female. In general, the majority of business managers and women believe that labour legislation in the private sector does not offer equal conditions to male and females. This could be because legislation was established in 1969 and it may not have considered women's circumstances according to Saudi culture and family needs.

Table 10.5: Promotion of women's employment in the private

Variables		Agree				P
		Business managers		Women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	There is a need for women's participation in the labour market	181 (219)	82.6	308 (352)	87.5	.108
2	Private sector prefers males rather than females in the same field or areas of study	156 (218)	71.6	274 (349)	78.5	.050
3	Employment system in the private sector encourages women's employment	98 (219)	44.7	115 (349)	33.0	.005
4	Labour legislation gives equal opportunities for males and females	70 (144)	31.8	53 (241)	15.1	.000

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

Companies' needs for women

In the previous question the sample strongly agreed that there is a need for women in the private sector. Hence, in this section, it is interesting to investigate the reason behind that and what is similar and different between the two groups (business managers and women).

In the previous chapters it was found that most countries employ women because they accept lower salaries than men, especially in developing countries such as Bangladesh and Malaysia.

Regarding the need for women in the companies surveyed, Table 10.6 explains the opinions of the two groups towards this issue and what the similarities and differences are between them. The table shows the major factors behind the demand for Saudi women in the private sector.

Table 10.6: Companies' needs

Variables		Agree				
		Business managers		Women		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Women are disciplined and work seriously	102 (139)	73.4	278 (351)	79.2	.164
2	Women accept instructions	98 (134)	73.1	263 (350)	75.1	.650
3	Women understand the value of work	98 (138)	71.0	277 (350)	79.1	.055
4	Women have the skills for a specific task or work	93 (136)	68.4	292 (351)	83.2	.000
5	Women accept a lower salary than the average male worker	52 (140)	37.1	151 (352)	42.9	.242
6	There are shortages of qualified national males in the private sector	39 (134)	29.1	95 (351)	26.8	.653

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

It is clear from the table that there was very little difference in the business managers' responses to the factors that women are disciplined and work seriously (73.4%), women accept instruction (73.1%) and their understanding of the value of work (71.0%) and the responses of Saudi women. However, it was having the necessary skills for specific tasks (83.2%) that ranked first for women, while being disciplined and working seriously (79.2%), understanding the necessity for speed (79.1%) and accepting instruction (75.1%) followed. Women accept lower salaries than the average male workers (37.1% and 42.9%) and there is a lack of qualified males (29.1% and 26.8%) are not reasons behind the demand for women in the

companies surveyed, from both business managers and women, respectively. It is not surprising to find a difference between the two groups towards such questions.

10.4 Women's Fields of Work and Job Opportunities

There is agreement that the service sector is the most important field for women to participate in the private sector; 83.9% of business managers and 84.7% of women hold this view. Table 10.7 also shows that technology was believed by 63.6% business managers and 64.8% women to be important. Crafts and commerce followed next, while agriculture ranked least with only 4.6% and 6.8% for business managers and women, respectively. In general there is no significant difference between the two groups except in the commercial sector. The result of the chi-square test was significant with .006. This could be because, in Saudi Arabia, women are allowed to conduct business the same as men with their parents' or husband's help if necessary. Also, women's market centres which are managed by women have increased recently and are accepted in most of Saudi society today. Now, many women employees have established small factories, schools, computer and English centres, supermarkets, hairdressing salons and sewing shops.

Table 10.7: Women's fields in the private sector

Fields of work		Agree				P
		Business managers		Women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Services	182 (217)	83.9	298 (352)	84.7	.802
2	Technology	138 (217)	63.6	228 (352)	64.8	.776
3	Crafts	85 (217)	39.2	161 (352)	45.7	.125
4	Industry	64 (217)	29.5	88 (352)	25.0	.239
5	Commerce	54 (217)	24.9	126 (351)	35.9	.006
6	Agriculture	10 (217)	4.6	24 (352)	6.8	.280

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

The top ten jobs needed in the private sector

Table 10.8 shows the top ten jobs that both respondent groups believe are needed by the Saudi private sector. Medicine (86.4%), computing (85.5%), textiles 82.7%, childcare (79.1%), sewing (75.9%) and social services (67.7%) were the top

six fields for business managers. However, it can be seen that all but the first two are classed as female jobs.

Saudi women also believed that these jobs are needed but see them in a different order, for example, computing (88.9%), education (88.1%), childcare (79.8%), textiles (76.4%), social services (69.3%) and medicine (65.6%). However, it can be seen that there is a difference between the two lists: Saudi managers believe that medicine is the most important area needed by the private sector for women while Saudi women believe it to be education. It is not surprising that both groups believe computing to be important as many jobs today may well involve IT in some form or another.

Table 10.8: Most important jobs

Acceptable jobs		Agree				P
		Business managers		Women's preferences		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Medicine	190	86.4	231	65.6	.000
2	Computing	188	85.5	313	88.9	.221
3	Textile	182	82.7	269	76.4	.072
4	Childcare	174	79.1	281	79.8	.831
5	Sewing	167	75.9	219	62.2	.001
6	Social services	149	67.7	244	69.3	.690
7	Education	145	65.9	310	88.1	.000
8	Food	108	49.1	212	60.2	.009
9	Electronic services	107	48.6	171	48.6	.989
10	Accountancy	102	46.4	223	63.4	.000

Total number of respondents: Business managers = 220; women 352

From the table it can be seen that there is no significant difference between the two groups in some jobs, such as computers, textiles, childcare, social services, electronics, and food services, while there are significant differences in others, for example, in medicine, sewing, education and accountancy.

The differences could be because of the following reasons:

- Regarding medicine, some women still see this type of job as not being acceptable for cultural reasons and this could be because some of these jobs are usually in a mixed environment in most Saudi health sectors.
- Sewing jobs are acceptable for the majority of women (62.2%), but still not preferred by others (33.8%). The reason could be that some women, especially university graduates, still see this job as lower in status.

- There is a positive attitude from women towards accountancy jobs (63.4%), while the demand for this job from business managers represents only (46.4%). The reason behind this is that while women look at this job as suitable for women, the demand for women in this job is low. This could be because the private sector sees this as a man's job and employing women will cost them because they must then provide separate places for women.

Further job opportunities

Table 10.9 shows the jobs not ranked urgent that business managers and Saudi women believe the private sector currently need women to do in Saudi Arabia. It is interesting to note, however, that the highest job ranked by business managers is banking (40.9%), followed by a job that is traditional for women (hairdressing and beauty – 35.9%), while journalism was ranked third (37.39%), crafts (32.2%) and finally secretarial services (29.5%). Saudi women were almost in agreement with business managers, except that they placed hairdressing and beauty first (46.3%), followed by secretarial services (41.8%), then journalism (41.5%) and banking (41.2%), while crafts was lowest (30.4%). The result of the chi-square showed no significance between the two groups except in secretarial jobs where the result was .003 because some women see this job as suitable for them in women's organisations.

Table 10.9: Further important jobs

Job needed but not urgently		Agree				P
		Business managers		Women's preferences		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Banking	90	40.9	145	41.2	.946
2	Hairdressing and beauty	87	39.5	163	46.3	.113
3	Journalism	82	37.3	146	41.5	.318
4	Crafts	73	32.2	107	30.4	.485
5	Secretarial services	65	29.5	147	41.8	.003

Total number of respondents: Business managers = 220; women 352

Lowest ranked job opportunities

Table 10.10 shows the jobs that both respondent groups believe are least needed in the private sector or are not preferred by women. In general, it can be seen that most of the jobs are not traditional jobs and are not accepted by society as suitable for women. Some of these jobs involve mixing with men. Some of these jobs also involve travelling, and women are not able to drive or travel alone.

Table 10.10: Lowest ranked job opportunities

Job not needed		Percentage Agreement				P
		Business managers		Women's preferences		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Reception duties	59 (220)	26.8	103 (352)	29.3	.528
2	Interior decorator	59 (220)	26.8	96 (352)	27.3	.905
3	Economics	57 (220)	25.9	88 (352)	25.0	.808
4	Business	56 (220)	25.5	110 (351)	31.3	.132
5	Marketing	50 (220)	22.7	62 (352)	17.6	.134
6	Retailing	38 (220)	17.3	19 (352)	5.4	.000
7	Machine maintenance	33 (220)	15.0	19 (352)	5.4	.000
8	Electrical services	32 (220)	14.5	21 (352)	6.0	.001
9	Security	30 (220)	13.6	0.0	0.0	-
10	Selling	28 (220)	12.7	34 (352)	9.7	.251
11	Hotel services	26 (220)	11.8	20 (352)	5.7	.009
12	Carpentry	24 (220)	10.9	12 (352)	3.4	.000
13	Agriculture	22 (220)	10.0	21 (352)	6.0	.075

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

It is interesting to find significance differences between the two groups. The reason could be because of the structure of Saudi organisations towards the separation between males and females. Although the demand for women in these jobs is very low, some companies still need women to fulfil them because males are not allowed to work in a woman's environment.

Match and mismatch between women's education and private sector needs

When asking unemployed women about their education qualifications, the majority said they were educated to the higher education (university and above) level (58.62%). The secondary certificate (28.96%) came next followed by the diploma (12.41%).

Regarding the subjects which unemployed women had taken the majority held theoretical subjects (76.0%) rather than technical and scientific subjects (24.0%).

The majority of unemployed women (34.00%) chose humanities followed by education (19.00%). The least chosen subjects by the unemployed were medicine, computing and engineering with a score of between 4.0% - 1.0%. (See Chapter Nine.)

The researcher asked unemployed women if they attended any training courses after their graduation. 30.34% of respondents stated that they did attend courses when they had completed their studies while the others said they had not (69.66%).

Most unemployed women who attended training courses after graduation (30.34%) were interested in the following courses: computer training, the English language and secretarial affairs, while very few had attended courses in hairdressing, beauty and sewing.

10.5 Women in Technical and Vocational Areas

According to Al-Muslemani (1996: 8-9), the sufficiency of any TEVT can be achieved by investigating the relationship between TEVT output and the labour market needs. This can be achieved by investigating the following:

1. The ability to provide skilled human resources for all technical and vocational fields.
2. The ability to provide skilled human resources for all levels in each occupation.
3. The need for all labour forces to have enough knowledge and skill to practise their qualification.

It is interesting to compare the results of business managers (Chapter Eight) and the result of women (Chapter Nine) towards TEVT output and the private sector's needs for women.

The majority of the sample believed that women's participation in technical and vocational fields in the private sector is still weak (83.1% of business managers and 88.6% of women). (See Table 10.11.)

Table 10.11: Women's participation in technical and vocational fields

		Percentage				P
		Business Managers		Women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Women's participation is still weak in technical and vocational education	182 (219)	83.1	312 (352)	88.6	.060

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

When asked if the sample had any knowledge of technical and vocational education for women, 70.5% of business managers and 69.0% of women said they did have some knowledge (Table 10.12). It is clear from the figures there is a noticeable similarity in the answers of the two groups and there is no significant difference between them. The result of the chi-square was .834.

Table 10.12: Knowledge about technical and vocational education

		Percentage Agreement				
		Business managers		Women		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Do you have any knowledge about technical and vocational education for women?	155 (220)	70.5	243 (349)	69.0	.834

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

Table 10.13 shows that only 36.1% of business managers and 18.6% of Saudi women believe that technical and vocational institutions enable women to graduate as qualified women into the private sector. The majority of the respondents (business managers and women) believe that TEVT for women is unable to qualify women for the private sector needs (63.9% and 81.4% respectively).

Table 10.13 Technical education and vocational institutions

Attitude towards TEVT		Percentage Agreement				
		Business managers		Women		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Do technical education and vocational institutions enable women to graduate as qualified women for the private sector?	52 (144)	36.1	45 (242)	18.6	.000

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

Are there weaknesses?

Both business managers and women stated that there were weaknesses in the factors, this is shown in Table 10.14. A lack of technically qualified staff in TEVT for women (93.4%) was rated highest by business managers, followed by a mismatch between TEVT output and the private sector needs for women (80.9%) and a weakness in co-operation between the public and private sectors towards women's education and training (70.8%). These top three factors ranked in the same order for women (89.4%, 81.6%, and 80.9% respectively). However, a shortage of TEVT

facilities, misadministration and poor planning in TEVT for women received the lowest percentages from both respondent groups.

Table 10.14: Factors preventing women's participation in technical and vocational area

Variables		Percentage Agreement				P
		Business managers		Women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	There is a lack of technically qualified staff	85 (91)	93.4	178 (199)	89.4	.282
2	There is a mismatch between educational output and private sector needs for women	72 (89)	80.9	160 (196)	81.6	.883
3	There is a weakness in co-operation between TEVT institutions and the private sector	63 (89)	70.8	157 (194)	80.9	.114
4	There is a shortage of TEVT institutions	59 (91)	64.8	110 (197)	55.8	.245
5	There is misadministration and poor planning	55 (91)	60.4	142 (198)	71.7	.056

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

10.6 Factors Affecting and/or Encouraging Women's Employment in the Private Sector

Factors preventing women's employment in the private sector

One of the main problems for women in either looking for work, or in some cases already being employed, is being able to move from city to city (Table 10.15). 91.7% of business managers and 87.4% of Saudi women agreed with this factor. This is not really surprising as Saudi women are not responsible for family needs, they are not allowed to drive, and when travelling must be accompanied by a Mohren (that is, a man who is a close relative, one whom by Islamic Sharia'a they would be unable to marry).

The factors of some of the available jobs are in mixed environments with males, and the shortage of skilled women in comparison with the private sector's need for women had similar percentages for business managers (73.7% and 72.4% respectively). While women agreed with these same factors, they believed that requiring extended holidays (73.6%) came second in the ranking. There was little difference in the percentages for the factors regarding society's negative attitude to

women working outside the home (43.4% business managers and 38.9% women) and moving from one job to another (38.3% business managers and 39.4% women). Both respondent groups, business managers and women, stated that women accepting higher salaries had the lowest percentage score (11.7% and 14.4% respectively). The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportions of the two samples, except in the fourth factor (women need extended holidays according to their circumstances) where the chi-square=.034. It is not surprising to find the difference between the two groups according to their different experiences and attitudes.

Table 10.15: Factors which prevent women's employment in the private sector

Variables		Agree				P
		Business managers		Women		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Women find it difficult to move from one city to another	198 (216)	91.7	305 (349)	87.4	.114
2	Some available jobs are in a mixed environment with men	160 (217)	73.7	249 (348)	71.6	.573
3	There are shortages of skilled women in comparison with private sector needs	155 (214)	72.4	252 (351)	71.8	.870
4	Women require extended holidays according to their status and family	134 (211)	63.5	257 (349)	73.6	.011
5	Society has a negative attitude toward women working outside the home	95 (219)	43.4	135 (347)	38.9	.291
6	Women face difficulties in moving from one job to another	82 (214)	38.3	138 (350)	39.4	.793
7	Women expect higher salaries than average male workers	25 (214)	11.7	50 (347)	14.4	.357

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

Factors to develop and attract women's employment in the private sector

There are a number of factors that could develop and attract women into the private sector. Table 10.16 shows the highest percentage for business managers and women is improving the relationship between the private and public sectors towards women's education and training (89.2% and 91.6%). Second for business managers was offering women part-time work (85.6%), although for females this came fourth with a slightly different rate (81.0%). Both groups were in agreement towards giving more importance to TEVT for women. This factor came third for both samples (84.7% for business managers and 82.3% for women).

Reducing working hours is rated fourth by business managers (81.9%) while for women the factor represents 79.3%. Providing transportation and childcare came next for business managers (75.0% and 70%) respectively while for women these

factors represent 83.1% and 79.4% respectively. This result being higher for women than business managers is not surprising due to their circumstances according to Saudi culture and society. Increasing job salaries and rewards was considered the least important by both groups, because women in Saudi Arabia do not have the responsibility of providing for the family. This is because, according to Islam, the male of the household is the breadwinner and this is his responsibility. The result of the chi-square test shows that there are no significant differences between the proportion of the two samples except in the fourth factor (providing childcare facilities) where the chi-square result was .001. This is because the majority of female employees in the companies surveyed were married with children.

Table 10.16: Factors which would develop and attract national women into employment

Variables		Agree				
		Business managers		Women		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Improving the relationship between the private and public sectors towards women's education and training	190 (213)	89.2	318 (347)	91.6	.344
2	Offering part-time work for women	185 (216)	85.6	285 (352)	81.0	.152
3	Giving importance to technical and vocational education	182 (315)	84.7	288 (350)	82.3	.465
4	Reducing working hours for women	176 (215)	81.9	279 (352)	79.3	.451
5	Providing free transport for women	164 (218)	75.2	290 (349)	83.1	.023
6	Providing child-care facilities for women	152 (217)	70.0	278 (350)	79.4	.011
7	Improving and updating labour legislation	132 (216)	61.1	233 (348)	67.0	.158
8	Changing society's attitudes towards women working outside the home	127 (216)	58.8	176 (351)	50.1	.045
9	Increasing job salaries and rewards for women	74 (212)	34.9	145 (352)	41.2	.138

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

10.7 Authorities' Interviews

In order to investigate the opinions and attitudes of the Saudi authorities in the public and private sectors on the employment of women, eight authorities (5 males and 3 females) were interviewed between February and March 2002. All agreed to

answer questions on women's employment in the private sector, with particular regard to the factors affecting woman's employment in the private sector.

In the first question, respondents were asked to give their opinion on the present state of women in the private sector in Saudi Arabia. Replies generally indicated that the employment of women in the private sector is limited. This was mentioned by all the interviewees.

This was seen, according to the all respondents, as partly the result of a mismatch between educational output and the private sector needs. They argue that many more women are going to university and graduating but their degrees are not necessarily in areas that are required by the labour market. For example, while there may be numerous female graduates in humanities subjects, there are very few, if any, in technical and technological areas.

There is generally a shortage of suitably qualified women to work in the private sector. Education for women has been directed to the public rather than the private sector especially in higher education with subjects not needed by the private sector. Some linked education and humanities and technical education and vocational training as limited areas.

Another issue concerning women's employment in the private sector that all respondents noted was that the private sector does not relate well to the status of women in Saudi Arabian homes. Since most women will also have domestic duties and responsibilities, businesses need to respond to women's needs in terms of the hours that women work, the timing of holidays to take into account the need to care for children, and the provision of childcare facilities for women with children below school age. Furthermore, there is a need to organise suitable travel arrangements, separate activities for males and females in the same workplace and to address the problems of jobs requiring workers to make home visits. All of these difficulties, which are inherent in the organisation of Saudi society, are particularly pertinent in the employment of women.

Another point made by the authorities, was the problem of job security for women in the private sector. In the public sector, where the vast majority of women are employed, jobs are secure and are organised with due regard to Islamic laws and the needs of women. In the private sector, no such safeguards are guaranteed.

Women and their families may regard this as a significant disincentive when considering employment in the private sector.

Some respondents also noted that there is, at present, no specific department which is concerned solely with women's issues (Al-Rumaih and Al-Muhaimeed). As a result, there is little information which is directly concerned with areas of employment into which women might enter. This is particularly true for women graduates who may be unaware of job vacancies and private sector requirements for skills in particular areas.

All respondents agree that the structure of the private sector does not provide a suitable environment for women, especially in the industrial and health sectors.

All respondents noted a general shortage of facilities which would make it easier for women to utilise the opportunities that exist. Childcare facilities are poor and lack of transport arrangements make it difficult on a purely practical level for women to leave their homes.

The second question, which was put to respondents, concerned areas of work that would be useful in order to provide the private sector with suitably qualified female workers. The main field of work for women in the private sector was felt to be the services sector by all respondents (100%), followed by technology (62.5%), and industry (50%) while a minority of the authorities said commercial work and crafts were also needed (37.5% for both).

The main jobs for women in the private sector which were mentioned by the majority of the authorities are outlined below:

1. Medical and medical assistants
2. Computing services
3. Social work
4. Textiles and sewing
5. Teaching and training
6. Food processing
7. Internal accounting and auditing

There are also some jobs which are suitable for women and which are still needed, such as:

- Administrative and secretarial services in women's organisations (schools, hospitals, universities etc.)
- Packaging design, fabrication and jewellery
- Design, fabrication of clothes and household products
- Machine maintenance in women's institutions

All the authorities agree that technical and vocational education for women is unable to provide for qualified women for the private sector with the exception of Al-Hazmi.

The majority of authorities (75%) believe that the employment system and labour legislation do not encourage and attract women to the private sector (75% and 87.5% respectively).

Also, the information system is still unable to provide data and information to link student graduates with the jobs which are available in the private sector. This issue is mentioned by 78.5% of the authorities. Women should have access to such information in order to understand where they can readily find employment. This is important so that jobs presently occupied by foreign workers can be taken over by Saudi labour.

The authorities were asked about the reasons behind the replies on non-national women in the private sector. The answers given by the majority included:

- Non-national women have more skills and experience than national women
- Non-national women accept lower salaries. They also easily accept moving from one place to another, working in a mixed environment in the health sector and working in some jobs not acceptable to national women, such as servants and carrying out some vocational work, such as sewing and hairdressing.

The final question asked was about the best ways of improving and developing women's employment in the private sector. All the authorities agree that:

1. Education and the labour market must be linked instead of being seen as entirely separate entities.
2. A suitable environment and facilities such as childcare and transportation for women must be provided.
3. Part-time work needs to be available.
4. *There should be more co-operation between the public and private sectors.*

5. Labour laws should be reformed. At present the labour laws are advantageous for men over the needs of women. This is because, traditionally, men have formed the workforce; this is now outdated and should be changed to acknowledge the need to attract women, particularly into the private sector.
6. Information centres, which focus on the opportunities for female employment, should be established in all regions of the country.

Certain authorities also added some further suggestions such as:

1. Technology colleges should be set up for the promotion of technological and scientific education for women (Al-Rumaih and Al-Mohaimeed).
2. Educational supervision, advice and guidance should be improved in universities and colleges so that more women are attracted to practical and technological subjects (Al-Mohaimeed).
3. Women's employment centres should be established within labour offices to help women who are seeking jobs (Al-Rukaibh).
4. Areas which national women can fill in the private sector should be specified by the government authorities on women's employment (Labour Force Council) (Ben-Duhaish).
5. The private sector system should be restructured to attract national women through providing a suitable environment for women according to Islamic Sharia'a (Al-Mushaikeh).

10.8 Summary of Main Findings

To summarise, a comparative analysis between business managers, women and authorities in Saudi Arabia towards women's employment in the private sector elicited the following main points:

- The majority of all the respondent groups (business managers, women and authorities) believe that labour market information in the private sector is unable to provide information about the jobs which are available for women in the private sector or provide comprehensive data about women applicants.
- Although 78.1% of business managers who employ women use government labour offices for advertising job opportunities, a fairly high percentage (78.1%) of Saudi women find this a difficult medium to use.

-
- Most women employees in the companies surveyed practise full-time work. This was confirmed by 83.98%. On the other hand, the majority of women employees and unemployed women in the sample prefer working part time (61.08%).
 - 87.5% of women and 82.6% of business managers have a positive attitude towards the need for national women to participate in the labour market and all the authorities agree there is a need for women in the private sector.
 - The majority of the authorities, business managers and women believe that the employment system and labour legislation do not encourage women's employment in the private sector.
 - There is an agreement between the authorities, business managers and women that the service and technological sectors are the most important fields for women's participation in the private sector.
 - The top ten jobs that business managers believe are needed by the private sector are: Medicine, computing, textiles, childcare, sewing, social services, food services, electronics and accountancy. However, it can be seen that all but the first two are classed as female jobs. Saudi women also have positive attitudes towards these jobs and believe that these jobs are acceptable as work. Most of the above jobs were mentioned by most of the authorities as suitable jobs for women in the private sector.
 - All samples (authorities, business managers and women) believe that technical education for women is unable to qualify women for the private sector at present.
 - A lack of technically qualified staff in TEVT for women, a mismatch between TEVT output and private sector needs for women, and weakness in co-operation between the public and private sectors towards women's education and training were the highest factors affecting women's participation in technical and vocational areas.
 - The majority of the sample (business managers, women and authorities) believe that the main problem for women in either looking for, or in some cases already being employed, is being able to move from city to city. Some of the jobs which are available mean mixing with males and this reason and the mismatch between women's skills and private sector needs for women had similar percentages for business managers and women as the main factors preventing women's employment in the private sector.

- The highest factors that would develop and attract women to participate in the private sector which were mentioned by the majority of the sample and the authorities are: improving the relationship between the private and public sectors towards women's education and training, offering women part-time work, giving more importance to TEVT for women, reducing working hours, and providing transportation and childcare facilities.

10.9 Overall Summary

This chapter offers a detailed comparison of the responses to the questionnaires by Saudi business managers, employed, unemployed women and authorities.

Saudi business managers, women and respondents from the authorities agreed that there is a mismatch between women's education, training and the needs of the private sector for women. There was also an emphasis to flexible employment, information availability, facility issues and the work environment. However, little emphasis was demonstrated regarding society's attitude. It was interesting to find that there was no significant evidence regarding remuneration affecting women's employment in the private sector. However, this factor is one of the most important factors affecting Saudi males towards working in the private sector.

In Chapter Eleven, Iran is used as a benchmark to investigate factors affecting qualified women's employment in the private sector.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

CROSS NATIONAL COMPARISON

(Using Iran as Benchmark)

11.1 Introduction

There have been a number of narrow empirical studies on women's employment in Saudi Arabia. However, most have been national studies and have not been interested in the private sector or cross-national comparisons. The main objective of this section is to compare the results from business managers and women in Saudi Arabia (Chapter Eight, Nine and Ten) with those from Iran to investigate the common ground and differences between the two countries regarding women's issues in employment in the private sector.

This chapter will look at the following:

- The current situation of women's employment in the private sector in Iran in comparison with the case of Saudi Arabia (working environment, facilities, type of jobs, working hours and experiences).
- Promotion of women's employment in the private sector in Iran in comparison with Saudi Arabia.
- Women's education in comparison with the private sector needs for women in Iran in comparison with Saudi Arabia.
- Factors affecting women's employment in the private sector in Iran in comparison with Saudi Arabia.

11.2 Why a Cross-national Comparison is Useful?

Exploring job opportunities, examining the validity of the educational and employment system, and problems or obstacles of employment in one country as compared to another needs to be evaluated by cross-national studies. This helps in exploring new policies, systems and/or different attitudes towards certain issues according to different cultures, societies, countries or regions. According to Anker (1998), cross-national studies encourage analysts and others to explain unusual national or regional situations. Again, this is something which national studies do not

have a perspective on. In any case, national studies are prone to take for granted long-standing relationships as normal and so do not question them. The advantages of cross-national studies are therefore important.

Cross-national studies enable one country to learn from the experiences and policies of other countries. They also provide a basis for evaluating the national situation and recent progress (or lack of progress) in reducing occupational segregation by sex. These advantages can be very important for policy formulation, evaluation and advocacy.

However, Anker argues that there are also important disadvantages in cross-national studies such as problems with data collected and knowledge of the countries included in a cross-national study is necessary, especially in a study which lacks reference to other studies and which is completed in a different language (Anker, 1998: 15-20).

11.3 General Survey of the Sample

11.3.1 Companies surveyed

This section includes general information about the companies surveyed in Saudi Arabia and Iran, such as type of company, company's main activities, age, capital and labour force in the companies surveyed (Figure 11.1).

1. Type of company

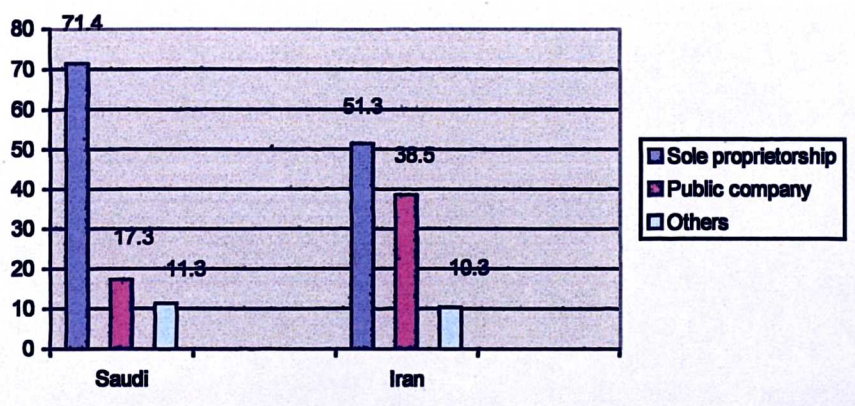


Figure 11.1: Distribution of companies surveyed with regard to type

The survey showed that most of the surveyed sample was under sole proprietorship (71.4% Saudi and 51.3% Iran); public companies were more numerous

in Iran than Saudi (17.3% Saudi and 38.5% Iran). Other companies were the lowest percentages in both countries (11.3% Saudi, 10.3% Iran). It is not surprising to find a difference between these two countries as most of the respondents to the questionnaire came from small companies in Saudi Arabia. Also, the Iranian sample was under the researcher's control because all the business managers came to Saudi Arabia to attend an international Trade Exposition.

2. Company's main activities

Figure 11.2 shows that the industrial companies were the most numerous of the companies surveyed with their rate reaching 38.6% for Saudi and 48.3% for Iran. This was followed by service companies (34.1% Saudi and 29.3% Iran); then commercial companies (20.0% Saudi and 17.2% Iran) and finally agricultural companies whose rate was only 7.3% Saudi and 5.2% Iran. The lowest response coming from the agriculture companies is due to there being very few companies in Saudi Arabia which employ women in this field. Although the number of respondents from Iran is also low for agriculture companies, this is not a true figure as only a few agriculture companies responded while many agriculture companies exist and employ women in Iran.

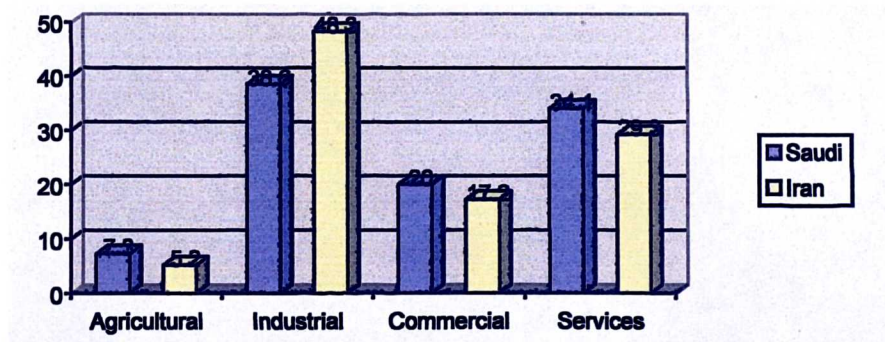


Figure 11.2: Distribution of companies surveyed with regard to their main activities

3. Company's age

Figure 11.3 shows that most of the surveyed companies had 10 years and more experience (54.1% Saudi and 65.5% Iran). Companies having between 5 to less than 10 years experience were: Saudi 22.7% and Iran 21.6%, while the companies with less than 5 years experience represented (23.2% Saudi and 12.9% Iran).

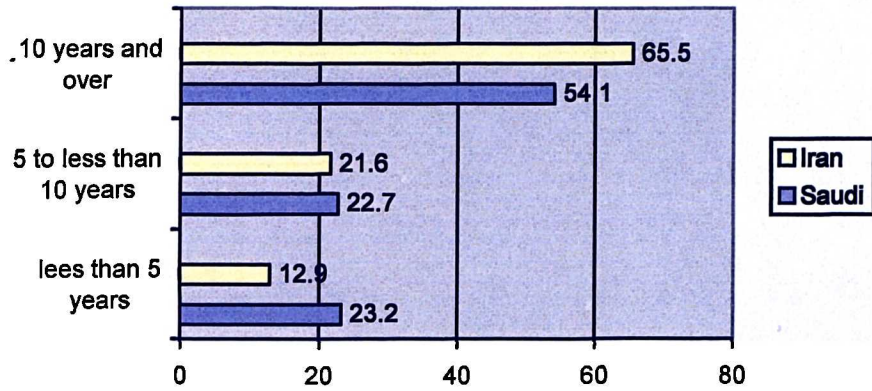


Figure 11.3: Distribution of companies surveyed with regard to age

4. Capital of companies

Figure 11.4 shows that 66.4% from Saudi and 61.5% from Iran answered the question concerning the capital of the company. It is important to notice that according to the researcher request all the capital of companies surveyed was in Saudi Riyal. (1\$= 3.75 SR)

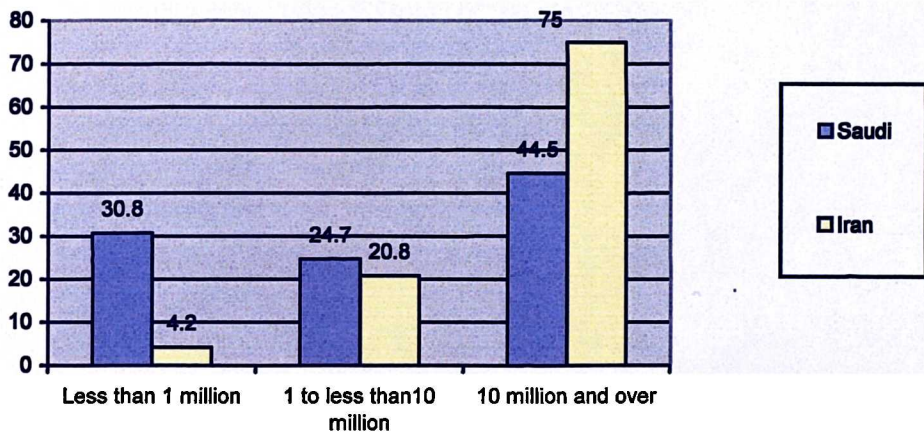


Figure 11.4: Distribution of companies with regard to capital

The figure also shows that the companies whose capital amounted to ten million or more (SR) were the most numerous (44.5% Saudi and 75.0% Iran); companies with capital of less than one million represented 30.8% (Saudi) and only 4.2% (Iran) of the total number of companies who answered the question in both countries. The smallest group of companies responding was in the range of one million to less than ten million. For Saudi companies the figure was 24.7% while in Iran it was 20.8%.

5. Labour forces in the companies surveyed

It is essential to investigate the current situation regarding national and non-national manpower in the Saudi private sector in comparison to Iran. Therefore, this section investigates and analyses the labour forces in the Saudi and Iranian companies surveyed in general and in the women's sector in particular (Figure 11.5).

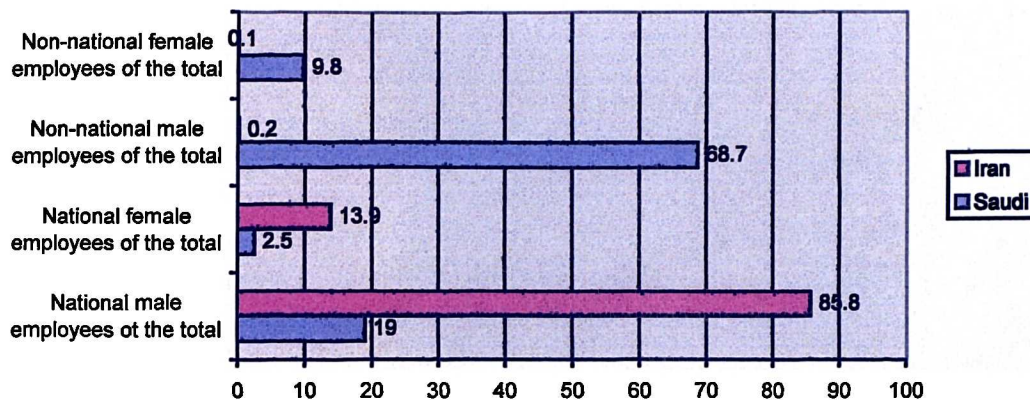


Figure 11.5: Distribution of the labour forces in the companies surveyed

The figure shows that:

- Saudi national employees (male and female) represent 21.5% of the total number of employees in the Saudi companies used in the study, while non-nationals represent 78.5%. However, Iranian national employees represent 99.7% of the total number of employees in the Iranian companies used in the study; there are only 0.3% non-national employees in those companies.
- National women employees in Saudi Arabia represent 2.5% of the total number of employees (male and female) in Saudi companies, while non-national women represent 9.8% of the total. However, in Iran, national women employees represent 13.9% of the total number of employees in the Iranian companies; there are only 0.1% non-national women in the total number.
- National women in Saudi companies represent 20.0% of the total number of women employees, while non-nationals represent 80.0% of the total number of women employees. However, in Iran, national women employees represent 99.3% of the total number of women employees, while non-national women represent only 0.7% of the total.

It is clear that the major difference between Saudi Arabia and Iran is the percentage of non-nationals employed in the companies surveyed. The percentage which is much higher for Saudi Arabia is due in part to the lower population and to the unavailability of a skilled national workforce. The national workforce has been unable to develop the necessary skills in the required time frame as the pace of the economic development has been so rapid.

6. Women's employment in the companies surveyed

This section discusses the distribution of women employees according to the type of company, the company's age, its main activities, and its capital. It also considers women employees according to the type of jobs which women are doing in order to investigate the sort of jobs for national women in the companies surveyed in comparison with non-national women in Saudi and Iran.

Women employees according to the type of company

In Saudi Arabia and Iran most companies surveyed employ women are sole proprietorship (75.0% Saudi and 50.4% Iran) and then public companies (15.2% Saudi and 38.9% Iran), while other companies represent (9.8% Saudi and 10.6% Iran). This is shown in Figure 11.6.

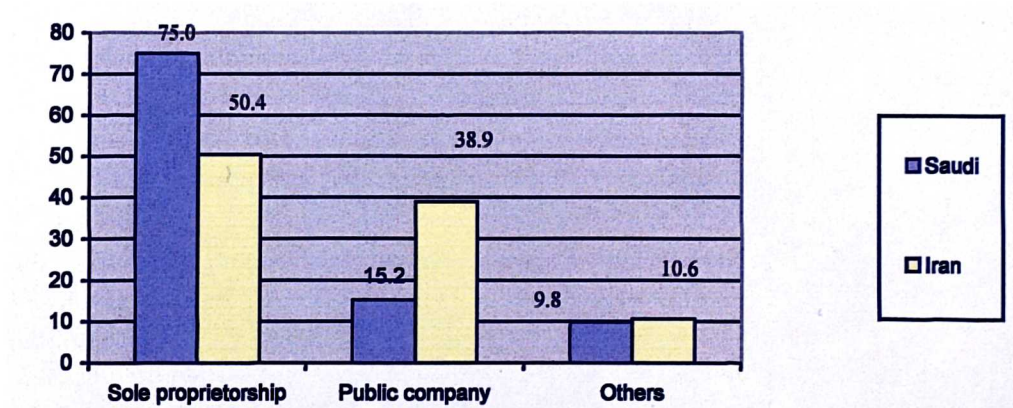


Figure 11.6: Distribution of women employees according to the type of company

Women employees according to the age of the company

Figure 11.7 shows that the majority of companies which employ women are those whose age is ten years and more (52.2% Saudi and 66.1% Iran), followed by the companies whose age is less than 5 years (25.0% Saudi while in Iran this was 12.5%).

The lowest proportion of the Saudi companies which employ women are those companies whose ages are from 5 to less than 10 years. They represent 22.8% and 21.4% for Iran.

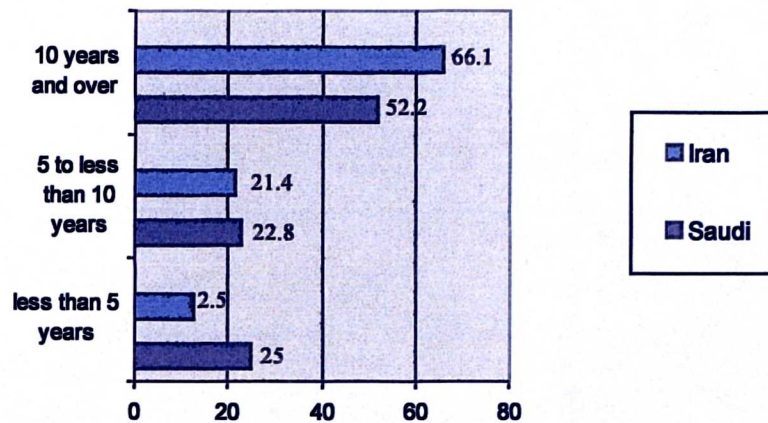


Figure 11.7: Distribution of women employees according to the age of the company

Women employees according to the company's main activities

Figure 11.8 shows that the majority of companies surveyed which employ women in Saudi Arabia are service companies (46.7%), followed by industrial companies with a rate of 35.9%, then commercial companies with 15.2%, while there are only 2.2% of agricultural companies employ women. In Iran, women are employed in industrial companies (47.3%), followed by services companies with a rate of 30.4%. Commercial companies come next with 17.0% and finally agricultural companies with a rate of 5.4%.

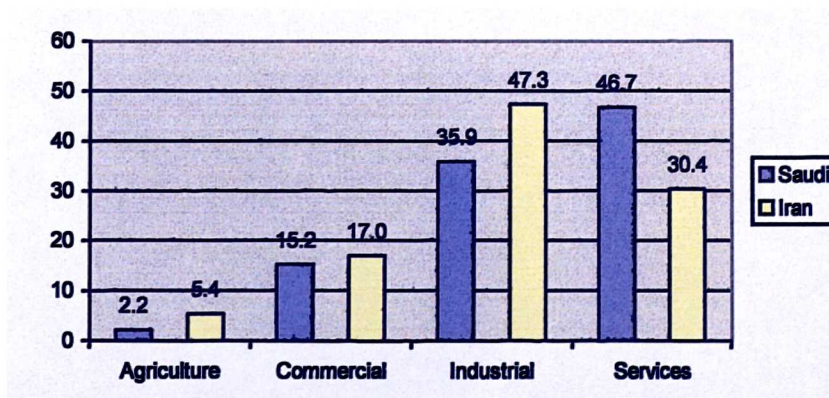


Figure 11.8: Distribution of women employees with regard to the company's main activities

The difference between the two countries is due to Iranian women being mostly productive in handicrafts, textile, carpet and clothing designs, Therefore, the Iranian economy depends on women in this sector and women in Iran are considered as labourers in this sector. In Saudi Arabia women started working in the private sector more recently; and they concentrated in the services sector which provides the majority of women's jobs especially in private schools, hospitals and social work in women's institutions.

Women employees according to the capital of the company

Figure 11.9 shows that most Saudi companies who employ women are those whose capital is less than one million SR (50%); in Iran, however, these represent only 4.3%. Companies whose capital ranges from one million to less than ten million SR employ the lowest number of women in Saudi Arabia and Iran (26.9% Saudi and 21.4% Iran). The companies in Iran which employ the highest number of women are those whose capital is 10 million and over (65.4%) while in Saudi the figure is 23.1%.

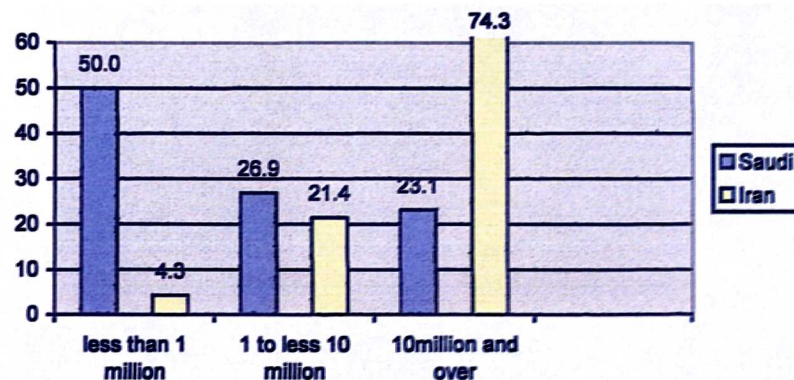


Figure 11.9: Distribution of women employees with regard to the capital of companies

It is clear from the figures that there is a difference between the two countries because in Saudi Arabia women are not allowed to work in large companies except those which have branches for women such as banks or in companies managed by women. Also, some large Saudi companies are unwilling to employ women because they have to provide segregated areas and this is could be expensive. In Iran the separation between sexes at work is not as strict as in the case of Saudi Arabia, this is due to the different emphasis on interpretation of Hijab between the two countries. In

Saudi Arabia they follow (Sunnah) in which women must cover their body and face when they go out of their home, while in Iran they follow (Shiah) where they cover their body and leave the face when they leave their home. Therefore, Iranian women can work in a mixed sex environment which is not the case in Saudi Arabia.

Distribution of women employees in the companies surveyed with regard to the type of job.

To investigate women's participation in the Saudi private sector it is important to identify and analyse the breakdown of national and non-national women employees in the companies surveyed, and to identify the types of jobs for which the private sector currently employs women in Saudi in comparison with Iran.

Table 11.1 shows that in Saudi Arabia the most popular jobs which were occupied in the companies by Saudi women, were administrative and technical jobs; the rates for these were 7.08% and 6.19% respectively of the total number of women employees in the companies surveyed, while the majority of jobs occupied by non-national women are mainly technical jobs followed by vocational jobs. These represent 53.86% and 17.51% respectively of the total number of women employees in the companies surveyed in Saudi Arabia. In Iran, most companies surveyed employ national women in technical and vocational jobs. They represent 42.38% and 24.55% respectively of the total number of women employees in the companies surveyed. However, in supervisory and administrative jobs the number is very low, representing only 6.32% and 7.51% respectively of the total number of women employees.

Table 11.1: Distribution of woman employees in the companies according to the type of job

Type of job	Saudi		Iran	
	National %	Non-national %	National %	Non-national %
Supervisory job	2.87	2.19	6.32	0.0
Professional	1.60	1.55	10.12	0.03
Administrative	7.08	2.30	7.51	0.02
Technical and technological	6.19	53.86	42.38	0.32
Vocational	1.15	17.51	24.55	0.29
Unqualified job	0.51	3.19	8.42	0.04
% from the total	19.40	80.60	99.30	0.70
Sub-total	913	3,792	11,505	81
Total of women employees	4,705		11,586	

Note: This table explains the percentage of women employees regarding type of job in which women are concentrated according to the total number of women employees in the companies surveyed

It is clear from the table that the demand for women in the private sector in the two countries, Saudi Arabia and Iran, is mostly in technical and vocational areas. It is interesting to find that in Saudi Arabia the majority of woman employees in the companies surveyed were non-national women, while in Iran there was no non-national woman employees in the companies surveyed except (0.70%). The reasons for this difference is due first to the different size of population between the two countries (in Iran the population was 60 millions in 1998 while in Saudi Arabia it was 16 millions in 1992). The second reason is that in Saudi Arabia the majority of women of working age are in the education system due to the formal education of women starting in 1960. Therefore, most of the qualified national women are employed in the public sector, in particular in education and health, and still this sector has a demand for qualified women in scientific, technical and vocational fields.

11.3.2 A general survey of women

1. Marital status

Table 11.2 shows that more half of sample (50% Saudi women and 49% Iranian women) are married, while single women represent 41.5% (Saudi) and 44% (Iran). The minority of the sample were divorced or widowed (8,5% Saudi and 7% Iran). The result of the chi-square test shows that there is no significant difference between both countries, Saudi and Iran. $P = .745$

Table 11.2: Marital status

Marital status		Percentage			
		Saudi		Iran	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1.	Married	176	50.0	98	49.0
2.	Single	146	41.5	88	44.0
3.	Divorced and widowed	30	8.5	14	7.0
	Total	352	100.0	200	100.0

Chi-square: $p = .745$

2. Women's age

Table 11.3 shows that 55.58% of Saudi and 44.22% of Iranian women are in the age group 25 to less than 35 years. The lowest percentage of women respondents were in the 35 years and over bracket (15.57% (Iranian) and 8.02% (Saudi)).

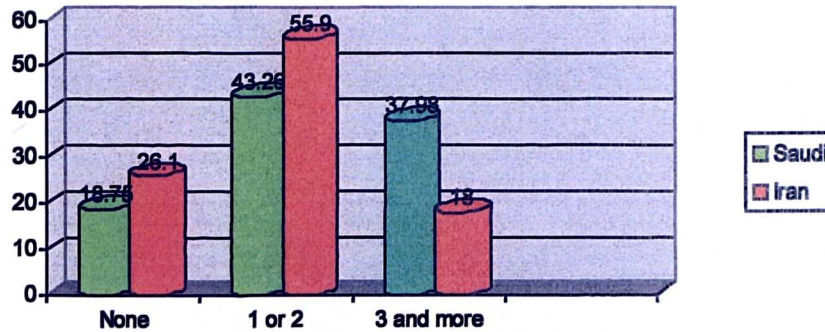
Table 11.3: Age

Age		Percentage			
		Saudi		Iran	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Under 25	127	36.38	80	40.20
3	25 to less 35	194	55.58	88	44.22
4	35 years and over	28	8.02	31	15.57
	Total	349		199	

Chi-square: $p = .006$

3. Number of children

In a comparison between Saudi and Iranian women, it can be seen in Figure 11.10 that the majority of Iranian women (55.90%) and Saudis (43.26%) had 1 or 2 children. It can also be seen that whereas 37.98% of Saudi women have 3 or more children, this compared with only 18.01% of Iranian women. The result of the chi-square (.001) shows that there is a significant difference between the proportions of the two samples. The reason behind the difference is because of the different sizes of the population between the two countries. In Saudi Arabia, it is not only the government that encourages an increase in the population because of the shortage of the national population (12 million), but also traditionally children are considered a blessing and families tend to be on the large size. In Iran the government encourages a decline in the fertility of women because of the high population in comparison with economic revenue (60 million) (Joseph, 2001: 194-195), while the traditional family values are similar to those in Saudi Arabia.

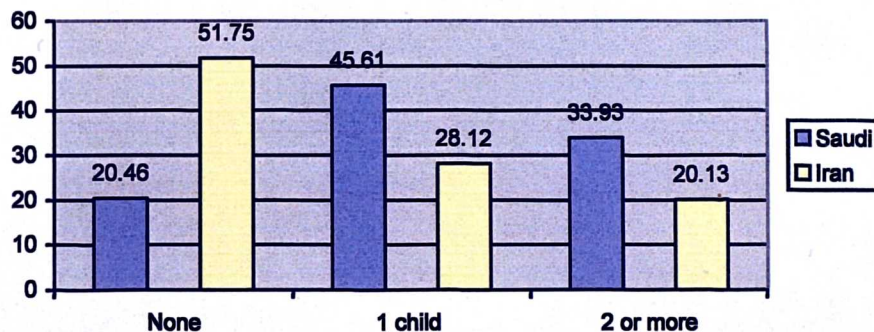


Chi-square: $p = .001$

Figure 11.10: Number of children

4. Children under school age

Figure 11.11 shows that 51.56% (the highest percentage) of Iranian women did not have children under school age while the highest percentage of Saudis (45.61%) had 1 or 2. The result of the chi-square (.000) shows that there is a significant difference between the respondent groups. This difference could be due to the difference in the policies of the two governments towards the size of population.

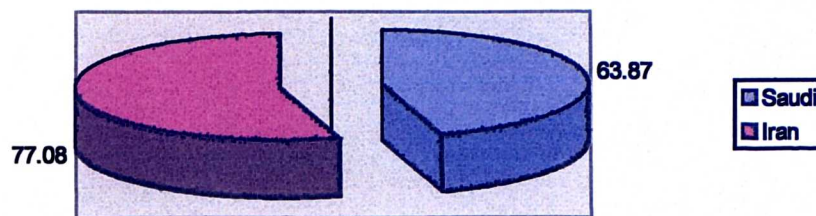


Chi-square: $p = .000$

Figure 11.11: Children under school age

5. Family house

The majority (77.08%) of respondents who own their property are in the Iran group. This is in comparison to 63.87% of Saudis (Figure 11.12).



Chi Square. 002

Figure 11.12: Family house

It is clear from the figure that there is a slightly significant difference between the two countries regarding the status of the family home. The reason behind this difference may be because most Saudi women in the sample were married and, in Saudi society, most newly married women tend to wish to be independent. They prefer to leave their husband's family house, this tendency is not as pronounced in Iran.

6. Father's job status

Table 11.4 shows the father's main job in Saudi (50.57%) and Iran (34.50%) is in the public sectors. Working in the self-employed sector (17.63% Saudi and 24.50% Iranian) came next; followed by working in the private sector (15.89% Saudi and 20.00% Iran). Unemployed or disabled show the lowest percentage for both respondent groups.

The major difference between the two countries is the father's occupation being in the public sector is much higher for Saudi Arabia than Iran. This is due to the government being the largest single employer for national labour in Saudi Arabia. Also, in Saudi Arabia there is a mismatch between the availability of jobs in the private sector and the skills required to fill those jobs. This has been discussed in greater detail in earlier chapters in this thesis.

Table 11.4: Father's job status

Father's job		Comparison			
		Saudi		Iran	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Working in public sector	175	50.57	69	34.50
2	Self employed	61	17.63	49	24.50
3	Working in private sector	55	15.89	40	20.00
4	Retired	34	9.82	26	13.00
5	Unemployed or disabled	21	6.06	16	8.00
	Total	346		200	

Chi Square. 010

7. Family monthly income

In Saudi Arabia the family monthly income between 3,000 and less than 5,000 SR and 10,000 SR and over (\$1 = 3.75 SR) was the highest (29.40% and 28.80% respectively) of Saudi females. In Iran the highest percentage of family income was between 1,000,000 and less than 3,000,000 IR (\$1 = 8,000 IR), then families with an income of less than 1,000,000 IR (47.60% and 31.40% respectively), the families who have a high income of 5,000,000 IR and over represent only 4.80%. As can be seen in Table 11.5, there are 47.60% of Iranians in the lowest income compared to 19.60% of Saudi. The result of the chi-square ($P = .000$) was very significant. This is due to the economic difference and the standard of living between the two countries. (The average yearly income of a Saudi person was \$7,070 while in Iran it was \$2,320 in 1993 (Al-Matri, 1998: 301).

Table 11.5: Family monthly income

Family monthly income		Saudi		Iran	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Less than 3,000 SR (1,000,000 IR)	68	19.60	59	31.40
2	3,000 to less than 5,000 (1,000,000 to less 3,000,000 IR)	102	29.40	89	47.30
3	5,000 to less than 10,000 (3,000, 000 to less 5,000,000 IR)	77	22.20	31	16.50
4	10,000 SR and over (5,000,000 IR and over)	100	28.80	9	4.80
	Total	347	100.0	188	100.0

Chi Square = .000

8. Women's qualifications

When the respondents were asked about their educational qualifications, the majority in both sections declared they were in the higher education level (Table 11.6). For Saudi women, the percentage is 64.80% and for Iranian women 51.50%. The secondary school came next for Saudi women (21.30%) while for Iran it was the diploma level (28.50%). The result of the chi-square ($P=.000$) shows that there is a significant difference between the proportions of the two samples. The reason behind this may be that Iranian women have the opportunity to choose from different fields of study, especially within the technical subjects, which are being developed for Saudi women.

Table 11.6: Women's qualification

Women's qualification		Comparison			
		Saudi		Iran	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Higher education	228	64.80	103	51.50
2	Diploma	49	13.90	57	28.50
3	Secondary school	75	21.30	40	20.00
	Total	352		200	

Chi Square .000

9. Women's subjects

In order to consider the educational output and the job opportunities for women in the private sector the subjects offered for study have to be considered. Table 11.7 shows that the majority of Saudi women are qualified in theoretical subjects rather than technical subjects (76.98%) while in Iran, women who have qualifications in theoretical subjects represent 42.59%. The result of the chi-square test shows that there is a very significant difference between the proportions of the two samples (chi-square .000).

The table also shows that business and humanities subjects were chosen by the majority of Saudi women (40.37%) with education coming next (21.13%). Followed by culture and religions (14.71%) Business and humanities followed by computing and engineering were chosen by the majority of Iranian women, (28.38 and 25.92%, respectively). Engineering, computer studies and medicine were the least popular subjects for Saudi women while for Iranian females these were culture, religion, maths and physics. The result of the chi-square test ($P=.000$) shows that there is a significant

difference between the proportions of the two countries. One reason behind the difference is because of the limited range of subjects which can be studied by Saudi women. Other reasons include the availability of jobs for Saudi women in the public sector, and also Saudi women traditionally restrict their choice of subjects studied due to social and cultural values.

Table 11.7: Women's subjects

Women's subjects		Comparison			
		Saudi		Iran	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Business and Humanities	107	40.37	46	28.39
2	Education	56	21.13	12	7.40
3	Culture and religion	39	14.71	11	6.79
4	Home Economic	21	7.92	19	11.72
5	Maths and Physics	16	6.03	10	6.17
6	Medical and assistant medical	11	4.15	22	13.58
7	Computing & Engineering	15	5.66	42	25.92
	Total	265		162	

Chi square .000

10. Is employment in the private sector considered by women when they choose their subjects of study?

In this section it is necessary to explore women's attitudes towards employment in the private sector with respect to their chosen subjects for study. The top three factors affecting Saudi women choosing their subject were 'good social status after graduation' (72.00%), 'personal interest' (71.01%) and 'market needs in the public sector' (68.59%). When Iranian women were asked to choose their subjects, their first choice was personal interest (73.24%), followed by nature of work after graduation (62.17%) and market needs in the public sector (39.10%) as the top three. Table 11.8 shows that 'no option for other subject' was ranked lowest for both groups.

Table 11.8: Factors that affected women choosing their subject

Variables		Comparison				
		Saudi		Iran		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Good social status after graduation	198 (275)	72.00	54 (157)	34.39	.000
2	Personal interest	196 (276)	71.01	115 (157)	73.24	.619
3	Market needs in the public sector	190 (277)	68.59	61 (156)	39.10	.000
4	Nature of work after graduation	142 (272)	52.20	97 (156)	62.17	.046
5	Market needs in the private sector	43 (273)	15.75	82 (157)	52.22	.000
6	No option for other subject	39 (276)	14.13	24 (156)	15.38	.723

It is clear from the table that while “good social status after graduation” and “market needs in the public sector” were the most important factors for Saudi women choosing their subjects, in Iran these factors were the least important. One example is the status of ‘doctor’ in both countries. In general, Saudi Arabian women do not want to be medical doctors (Al-Muhaimmed Saudi Authority Interview, 2002), while in Iran there is no such inhibition. According to Eftakhari (Iranian Authority Interview, 2001) it was argued that the limitation of jobs available in the Iranian public sector cause most students (male and female) to choose technical and scientific subjects which are needed in the private sector such as engineering, information technology and electronics.

In Saudi Arabia, however, women do not generally consider private sector needs when choosing the subjects they will study because they prefer employment in the public rather than the private sector (see Chapter Six).

11. Unemployed women in Saudi Arabia and Iran

It is very interesting to know if unemployed Saudi and Iranian women are interested in developing their skills and knowledge in their subject according to the private sector needs for women. The researcher asked the unemployed women if they had attended any training courses after their graduation. 30.34% of Saudi respondents stated that they did attend courses when they had completed their study while the others said, no, they had not (69.66%). In Iran, the unemployed women who attended courses after their studies reached 55.55%, while those who did not attend any courses

amounted to 44.45%. The result of the chi-square test (chi-square = 0.001) shows that there is a significant difference between the proportions of the two countries.

What courses are unemployed women interested in?

The majority of unemployed women who attended training courses after graduation in Saudi Arabia and Iran were interested in computer training, the English language and secretarial services, while some had attended courses in hairdressing and clothes' design in Saudi Arabia. In Iran, some had attended courses in sewing, banking and accountancy. It is interesting to find that in both countries' unemployed women were interested in computing and in the English language as the most popular courses.

Unemployed women and their experience in looking for jobs

The majority of unemployed Saudi women (47.9%) stated that they had been looking for a job for less than one year. In Iran, it was 44.44%. While 41.66% of Saudi women had been looking for job between 1 to less than 3 years, in Iran it was 35.18%. There was a very low percentage for those looking for a job for 3 years and more: in Saudi Arabia this was 10.41% while in Iran it was 20.37%. The result of the chi square test was not significant between the two countries ($P=.176$).

Do unemployed women accept working in the private sector?

In reply to the researcher's question about women seeking employment in the private sector, the majority answered yes they had tried (59.3% Saudi and 61.11% Iran) while 40.7% Saudi and 38.88% Iran said no they had not tried ($P= .818$). However, the majority would accept working in the private sector if they found a job, this was mentioned by 81.40% of Saudi women and 72.22% of Iranians. Chi square results show no significant difference between the two countries ($P=.159$).

12. The current situation of women employees in the private sector

This section attempts to investigate the current situation of woman employees in the Saudi and Iranian private sectors, such as type of occupation, experience, salary, working environment and facilities.

What sort of job do women do in the private sector?

Women who are currently employed in the private sector were asked to state their occupation. The highest percentage of woman employees working in both countries was in administration jobs (41.54% Saudi and 51.93% Iran), followed by professional work for Saudis (33.33%) while in Iran technical jobs came second (22.48%). This was followed by supervisory jobs in Saudi (15.45%) while in Iran there is no difference between women employed in supervisory and professional jobs (13.17% and 12.40% respectively). The lowest number of women in Saudi Arabia were employed in technical and vocational jobs, with a rate of 9.66%. The chi-square was very significant between the two countries ($P=.000$). It is clear that in Saudi Arabia professional jobs were the second choice whereas in Iran technical jobs came second.

What is the relevant experience in the private sector?

When the researcher asked about women's experiences in the private sector, it was found experience of 2 years and less had the highest percentage in Saudi (46.37% while in Iran it was 27.77%), followed by 2 to less than 5 years (34.29% Saudi and 27.08 Iran) with the lowest percentage being 10 years and more. Only 5.79% of Saudi women had more than 10 years experience while in Iran it was 19.44%. The result of the chi-square showed a significant difference between the two countries ($P=.000$). This could be because women in Saudi Arabia have only started recently in the private sector due to the lack of job opportunities in the public sector in recent years.

Women employees and monthly wages in the private sector

In the researcher's question about monthly wages for women employees in Saudi Arabia and Iran it can be seen that the highest wage bracket for Saudi women in employment is between 1,000 SR and less than 3,000 SR (54.59%) followed by 3,000 to less than 5,000 SR (23.67%), and women who received 5,000 or more (16.91%). Only a very small percentage is in the wage bracket of less than 1,000 SR (4.83%).

In Iran, however, the majority of women employees receive low wages of less than 1,000,000 IR. This represents 58.90% of woman employees. Iranian women who receive wages between 1,000,000 and less than 3,000,000 IR represent 21.23%, and those who receive 3,000,000 to less than 5,000,000 IR represents 10.27%. The lowest

rate was for those who receive more than 5,000,000 IR. These represent only 9.58%. The differences between the two countries ($P=.000$) is not surprising to find, due to the difference in the economic factors and the size of the population.

Women employees and working schedule

It is interesting to examine the current situation of women's employment in the private sector with respect to the Iranian and Saudi Arabian private sectors. Most women employees in the Saudi companies surveyed practise full-time work. This was confirmed by 83.57% of the sample of woman employees. In Iran, this figure was 73.23%. Saudi women who practise part-time work represent only 16.43% of the total number of female employees in the companies surveyed while in Iran it was 26.77%. The chi-square showed a significant difference between the two countries ($P=.019$). The difference could be because in Saudi Arabia there is no formal system for part-time work in the private sector. Also, this sort of work is not included in Saudi labour legislation, while it is in Iran.

13. Women and their attitudes towards working in the private sector

Is full-time or part-time preferred?

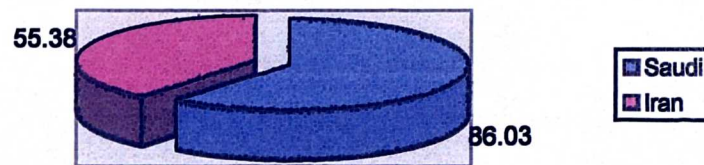
According to Rees (1992) dual labour market theory explains the labour force as divided into "primary" and "secondary" sectors. Those in the primary sector are employed full-time and enjoy reasonable security, prospects of promotion and favourable conditions. Those in the secondary sector, however, are usually part-time or temporary, without fringe benefits and do not enjoy a reasonable level of job security; women usually choose this sector. It is interesting to examine this theory with respect to Saudi Arabia and Iran.

The majority of Saudi and Iranian women in the sample preferred working part-time (61.08% Saudi) and (64.50% Iran) while the minority of the sample preferred full-time work (38.92% Saudi) and (35.50% Iran). The chi-square rated $P=.425$. In Saudi and Iran the majority of women who have chosen full-time work were single women.

Positive or negative attitudes towards working in the private sector

When asked if Saudi women (employed and unemployed) preferred working in the public or the private sector, the positive answer was high (86.03%) while just

over half (55.38%) of the Iranian women said they would prefer the public sector (Figure 11.13). Although the majority of women in Saudi and Iran prefer working in the public sector rather than the private sector, there is a significant difference between the two countries ($P=.000$). This was because some big companies in Iran were providing facilities and wages which are higher than the public sector (Karimi Iranian Authority Interview, 2002).



Chi-square $P= .000$

Figure 11.13: Working in the public or private sector

14. Why women prefer the public rather than the private sector?

From the previous question it found that in both countries, Saudi Arabia and Iran, women preferred working in the public sector rather than the private sector. When asked the reasons for this the majority of women respondents in both countries stated that it was because the public sector provides a pension, shorter working hours, more holidays, higher salaries, job security and a better environment. Also, according to Behri (Iranian Authority Interview, 2002) and Al-Rumaih (Saudi Authority Interview, 2002), women who work in the public sector (in both Saudi and Iran) usually have a better status in society than those who work in the private sector.

15. Is there a financial need behind women choosing to work outside the home?

In Chapter 2 the researcher discussed the responsibility of the husband or father with respect to women's rights in Islamic Sharia'a. After God, man is the provider for the family. Some women in Islamic countries prefer to be occupied with the financial remuneration being secondary (see Chapter Three and Four). Table 11.9 shows that both groups of respondents are agreed on the variable for cultural and social needs as the major reasons for working or seeking work (71.79% Saudi and

64.32% Iran). However, to support family financial income was the least popular reason (31.81% Saudi and 39.19% Iran). In general, there is no significant difference between the two countries except the third factor which is to be independent. In this factor there is a significant difference between the two countries (48.60% Saudi and 72.86% Iran). The chi-square for this category was very significant at $P=.000$. This could be because Iran, before 1979, was run largely as a Western country and perhaps some of these more secular ideas still remain within some families.

Table 11.9: Factors affecting women seeking jobs

Variables		Comparison				
		Saudi		Iran		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	For cultural and social needs	252 (351)	71.79	128 (199)	64.32	.068
2	To support national economy	194 (351)	55.27	123 (200)	61.5	.155
3	To be independent	171 (352)	48.60	94 (129)	72.86	.000
4	For personal financial needs	143 (352)	40.62	91 (198)	45.72	.225
5	To support family financial income	112 (352)	31.81	78 (199)	39.19	.080

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

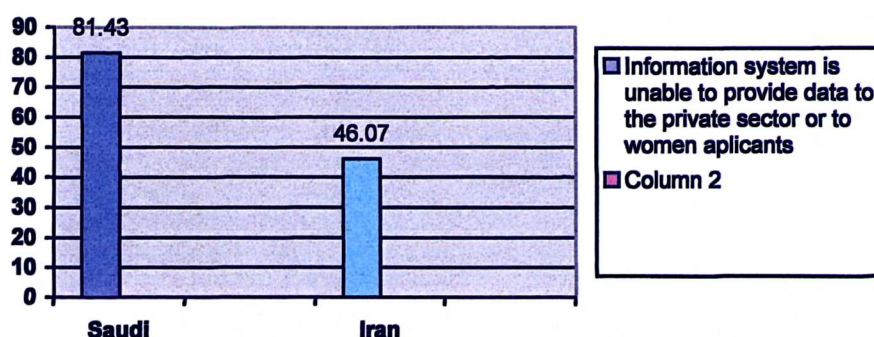
11.4 Promotion of Women in the Private Sector in Saudi Arabia and Iran

This section looks at attitudes towards labour market information, the promotion of women in the private sector and attitudes towards the need for woman employees in the private sector in Saudi Arabia and Iran.

- **Information system and women's employment**

As can be seen in Figure 11.14, the majority of Saudi respondents (81.4%) believe that labour market information in the Saudi Arabia is not able to provide comprehensive data for woman applicants (76.0% business manager respondents) and is not able to provide data for available jobs provided for women in the private sector (82.9% women respondents). In Iran, this problem was mentioned by 46.1% of the Iranian respondents (40.6% business managers and 49.0% women). The result of the

chi-square shows that there is a very significant difference between the two countries (P= .000).



Chi-square=.000

Figure 11.14: Labour market information

What sort of media is usually used by business managers and women in Saudi Arabia and Iran?

Table 11.10 indicates that newspapers and magazines, government labour offices, and educational institutions are the top three methods usually used by the companies surveyed in Saudi and Iran. All these methods are acceptable to Saudi and Iranian women except the government labour offices. This method is not accepted by Saudi women. For the reasons behind this see Chapter Ten - Table 10.2.

Private advertising agencies and personal contact are not popularly used by the companies surveyed in Saudi Arabia and Iran, and also by women. However, in Iran, private agencies are preferred by women (68.0%) although only 35.7% of Iranian companies surveyed use this media.

Table 11.10: The top advertising methods using in women's employment

Variable	Business Managers usually using			Women who see this media as easy to use		
	Saudi	Iran	P	Saudi	Iran	P
Newspapers or magazines	56 (66) 84.8%	35 (43) 81.4	.635	255 (349) 73.1%	140 (195) 71.8%	.750
Government Labour offices	43 65.2%	24 57.1%	.403	77 21.9%	116 (200) 58.0%	.000
Educational institutions for women	31 (65) 47.7%	33 (43) 76.7%	.003	214 (344) 62.2%	144 (200) 72.0%	.020
Private advertising agencies	4 (65) 6.2%	15 (43) 35.7%	.000	76 (348) 21.8%	136 (200) 68.0%	.000
Personal contact with the companies	23 (69) 33.3%	14 (43) 32.6%	.932	65 (348) 18.7%	43 (200) 21.5%	.424

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

In general there is no significant difference between business managers in Saudi Arabia and Iran towards advertising methods except methods of educational institutions and private advertising agencies. This could be due to the different roles of educational institutions and private advertising agencies in employment in the two countries. The latter is popular in Iran while in Saudi Arabia it is not as popular.

In the case of women in the two countries there is agreement that some methods such as newspapers and magazines are popular with women but personal contact is not a popular method. In other methods there is a significant difference between the two groups.

In the case of Iran there was no significant differences between business managers and women except regarding private advertising agencies. This method is accepted and easy to use by women but is not popularly used by companies. Therefore, there is a very significant difference between the two groups (chi-square results were .196, .919, .526, .000, .121 respectively). For Saudi Arabia see Chapter Ten.

According to Sehlawi (2002) and Eftekhary (2001) (Iranian authorities), in Iran companies usually do not face difficulties in getting information about women applicants because they can use certain media such as newspapers and/or magazines, or go through the government labour offices which provide comprehensive data about job opportunities in the labour market. Such services also supply information about women applicants, including women's qualifications, subjects, the sort of jobs they prefer, and the places where women can work. Also, they mentioned that universities and colleges have a role in this issue. Departments of student graduates in universities and colleges provided offices to help graduate students find jobs in the private sector. In Saudi Arabia, there are departments of student graduates in universities and colleges but as far as the researcher is aware, in women's institutions educational institutions or women's colleges there is no such employment services in these departments. Currently in Saudi Arabia, the demand for graduate women is low but if the demand were to increase the services would have to be upgraded. Although the government labour offices and private advertising agencies do have a role in employing national labour, the issue of information systems is being confronted in the Saudi Seventh Development Plan (2000-2004) (see Chapter Ten).

Generally speaking, Although the Internet is an acceptable method used internationally and easy for women to use, it was not mentioned by the respondents in the two countries.

- **Promotion of women in the private sector**

In the question regarding attitudes to women's participation in the private sector, 85.6% of Saudi responses and 92.7% of Iranian responses stated that there is a need for women's participation in the private sector. However, there is a significant difference between the two countries (chi-square $P = .107$) (Table 11.11).

The majority of the Saudi and half of the Iranian responses show that the employment system in the private sector does not encourage women's employment (62.5% of Saudi and 51.7% of Iran). The chi-square showed a significant difference between the two countries ($P = .002$).

When asked if private sector companies prefer male employees to females 76.0% (Saudi) and 52.6% (Iran) said yes. However, a higher percentage from Iran (62.3%) than Saudi (21.5%) said that they believed that labour legislation gives equal conditions to both males and females. The chi-square shows that there is a very significant result between the two countries ($P = .000$).

It is not surprising to find this difference between Saudi and Iran towards the employment system and the preference for males over females (it was higher for Saudi than for Iran). This could be due to the different systems of employment in the two countries. While in Saudi Arabia there is separation between males and females in all organisations, this is not the case in Iran. Therefore, Iranian women can work in a predominately male environment in most private sector companies.

Table 11.11: Promotion of women in the private sector

Attitudes towards women's employment in the private sector		Comparison				
		Saudi		Iran		P
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	There is a need for women's participation in the private sector.	489 (571)	85.6	290 (313)	92.7	.002
2	Private sector prefers male rather than female in the same field or study.	431 (567)	76.0	161 (306)	52.6	.000
3	Employment system in the private sector encourages women's employment.	213 (568)	37.5	153 (317)	48.3	.002
4	Labour legislation gives equal opportunities for males and females.	123 (572)	21.5	197 (316)	62.3	.000

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

From the table and with respect to Iranian society (business managers and women) there was no significant difference between the two groups towards the four points: chi-square was .136, .799, .128 and .495 respectively. In the case of Saudi Arabia see Chapter Ten.

Company's needs

In the previous question, the sample, both Saudi and Iran, agreed that there is a need for women in the private sector. Hence, in this section it is interesting to investigate the reason behind the need for women, in order to investigate the similarities and differences between Saudi Arabia and Iran.

Factors relating to the immigration of qualified males and factors relating to wage discrimination between the sexes are factors behind the promotion of women's employment in the labour market in some developing countries. Therefore, this section attempts to investigate the views of Saudi and Iranian respondents towards the main factors behind the need for women's employment in the private sector.

According to Table 11.12, women have the necessary skills for specific tasks (79.1% Saudi and 90.2% Iran), women are disciplined and work seriously (77.6% Saudis and 90.7% Iranians), women understand the value of work (76.8% Saudis and 88.2% Iran) and women accept instructions (74.6% Saudi and 82.7 Iran). This makes them a necessity in the private sector. In both countries there is no evidence factors relating women accept lower salaries than the average male workers (41.3 Saudi and 47.6% Iran) and the shortage of qualified males moving into women's employment in the private sector (27.6% Saudi and 25.3% Iran). See Table 11.12.

Table 11.12: Company's needs

Variables		Agree				P
		Saudi		Iran		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1.	Women have the skills for a specific task or work.	385 (487)	79.1	267 (296)	90.2	.000
2.	Women are disciplined and work seriously.	380 (490)	77.6	273 (301)	90.7	.000
3.	Women understand the value of work.	375 (488)	76.8	261 (296)	88.2	.000
4.	Women accept instructions.	361 (484)	74.6	244 (295)	82.7	.008
5.	Women accept a lower salary than the average male worker in the private sector	203 (492)	41.3	137 (288)	47.6	.086
6.	There are shortages of qualified national males.	134 (485)	27.6	71 (281)	25.3	.477

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

It is clear from the table that there was agreement between the two countries in the relative importance of the factors. However, in Iran there is a higher response than in Saudi for all factors except for the shortage of qualified males.

The result of the chi-square between the two countries was significant in most factors. This could be due to the fact that some business manager respondents in Saudi Arabia do not employ women. This would affect the Saudi responses because they have no experience of women's employment in the private sector. It is interesting to see that although women's employment in some countries in the private sector require women to accept lower levels of remuneration than men, this is not the case for either Saudi Arabia or Iran. Because there is separation between males and females in all organisations in Saudi Arabia which means there is no competition between the sexes. This is also true for some organisations in Iran (e.g. girl's schools).

When the Iranian sample was looked at (business managers and women) regarding these factors, it found that there were no significant differences between the two groups in all factors except the statement women accept lower salaries than the average of males (chi-square was .297, .154, .094, .118, .019 and .828 respectively). See Chapter Ten for the case of Saudi responses. There is only a significant difference between the two groups (business managers and women) for the factor that women accept lower salaries than the average male as a factor behind the employment of women in the private sector in Iran.

11.5 Women's Field of Work and Job Opportunities

Field of work in the private sector

According to World's Women Trends and Statistics 2000, the majority of women's participation in the labour market in developed countries, and some developing countries, is in the service sector. Therefore in this section, the researcher is interested to explore what are the private sector needs and the women's preferences in this sector.

From Table 11.13 it can be seen that there is agreement between the two countries that the service sector is the most important field for women to participate in the private sector; 84.4% of Saudis and 81.5% of Iranians hold this view. Technology was believed by 64.3% Saudi and 76.4% Iran to be the second most important. Craft followed next in both countries with a rate of 43.2% (Saudi) and 74.4% (Iran). In Saudi Arabia, commerce was the fourth important field for women (31.7%) while in Iran it was the least (28.8%). In Saudi Arabia, the industrial and agricultural sectors ranked least with 26.7% and 6.0% respectively. However, in Iran, these sectors are more important than in Saudi (34.7% and 30.0% respectively).

Table 11.13: Women's fields in the private sector

Most important fields		Comparison				P
		Saudi		Iran		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	Services	480 (569)	84.4	256 (314)	81.5	.280
2	Technology	366 (569)	64.3	210 (275)	76.4	.000
3	Craft	246 (569)	43.2	232 (312)	74.4	.000
4	Industry	152 (569)	26.7	109 (314)	34.7	.013
5	Commerce	180 (568)	31.7	91 (316)	28.8	.371
6	Agriculture	34 (569)	6.0	96 (316)	30.4	.000

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

It is clear from the table that there is no significant difference between the two countries in some sectors. However, there is a significant difference in the others. This is because, for example, the craft sector in Iran is one of the most important sources of non-oil sector income and this sector depends on women's labour. Also, in Iran, women are considered as labour in most traditional industries, while Saudi

women are not considered as labour in the industrial sector except in some small factories, such as sewing and clothing designs.

When the Iranian sample was examined, it was found that there is an agreement between the two groups (business managers and women) except in two sectors: services and industry. While women look at services as the most suitable field of work for women (85.9%), with business managers the rate was 74.1% ($P=.010$). Iranian women see the industrial sector as the least suitable with a rate of 24.2%. However, more than half of business managers in Iran see this sector as needed for women (52.6%) ($P=.000$). The reason behind the difference is because most traditional industries in Iran depend on woman workers, especially in the carpet and weaving jobs (Sehlawi, Iranian Authority Interview, 2002).

Match or mismatch between job opportunities for women and women's attitudes

Table 11.14 shows the top ten jobs needed by the Saudi private sector in comparison with Iran. Medical services are the jobs most needed by the private sector in Saudi, while this job represents the fourth most needed by the Iranian private sector. Computing jobs are the second most needed jobs in the private sector in Saudi, but top of the Iranian list. Textile jobs are in third place in both Saudi and Iran.

Although there were jobs needed in the Saudi private sector such as teaching, social services and food services, those jobs are not urgently needed in the Iranian private sector. This is because there is no shortage of qualified women in these subjects and the private sector can get applicants any time because there are university and college graduates in these subjects looking for work (Sehlawi, 2002 and Karimi, 2002 Iranian Authority Interviews). The chi-square results between the two countries regarding business managers showed significant differences between both countries.

From the table below (Table 11.14) it can be seen that, in general, there is no significant difference between the two countries regarding women's attitudes towards job opportunities in the private sector, such as computers, textiles, sewing, education, food services and accountancy. However, there was a significant difference in some jobs such as childcare, social services, medicine and electronic services.

Table 11.14: Most important jobs

Variable	Business Managers Job opportunities for women			Women's attitudes towards these jobs		
	Saudi	Iran	P	Saudi	Iran	P
Medicine	86.4	72.2	.001	65.6	74.0	.041
Computers	85.5	93.0	.042	88.9	90.0	.693
Textiles	82.7	74.4	.068	76.4	70.0	.098
Childcare	79.1	60.9	.000	79.8	55.3	.000
Sewing	75.9	61.7	.007	62.2	67.7	.200
Social services	67.7	47.8	.000	69.3	45.7	.000
Education	65.9	41.2	.000	88.1	84.5	.234
Food	49.1	24.6	.000	60.2	54.0	.154
Electronic	48.6	34.8	.015	48.6	34.0	.001
Accountancy	46.4	61.7	.007	63.4	65.7	.589

It is interesting to find that, in Saudi Arabia, women see childcare and social services jobs as acceptable jobs (79.8% and 69.3% respectively) while to Iranian women these jobs are less attractive (55.3% and 45.7% respectively). On other hand, Iranian women see the medical jobs as preferred jobs. This was mentioned by 74.0% of women. While in Saudi women see medical jobs are less attractive (65.6%)

Regarding medical jobs, the Saudi private sector is very active in the health services and there are many foreign workers doing jobs in several health sectors such as hospitals, surgeries and medical laboratories. In Iran, this kind of job represents the fourth most needed by the Iranian private sector because in Iran the Iranian health sector is covered by national manpower, both males and females, and there is no great need for women at present in medical services (Karimi, Iranian Authority Interview, 2002).

However, in Saudi Arabia, because of the lack of qualified nationals in the health sector, and because the market depends on foreign workers, there is considerable need for national women in the medical services.

Computing is the new world-wide technology area for employment. This may be due to the fact that most traditional jobs involve IT in some form or another. Therefore, computing jobs are the second most needed jobs in the private sector in Saudi, and at the top of the Iranian list. The reason behind the need for this kind of job is the changes that have come about as the labour market has become computerised. At the same time, women can do these jobs at home without needing to leave their homes. Some business managers in both Saudi and Iran mentioned this reason (Al-

Mohaimmed, 2002, Al-Mushaikeh (Saudi Authority Interviews, 2001) and Sanaie and Karimi (Iranian Authority Interviews, 2002)).

Textile jobs are in third place in both Saudi and Iran. In Saudi this is because of a lack of qualified national manpower to fill this sector, however, more than 80.0% of these jobs are filled by foreign workers in the private sector. In Iran, it because the Iranian economy depends on the textile sector as one of its main sources of income outside of its oil-producing industry. Therefore, there is a need for women in this sector.

Further job opportunities

Table 11.15 shows a list of the jobs needed by the Iranian private sector, but not as urgently by the Saudi private sector. These jobs include banking, hairdressing and journalism etc. However, there are positive attitudes from Saudi women towards these jobs.

Table 11.15: Further important jobs

Job opportunities available for women in the private sector	Business Managers Job opportunities for women			Women's attitudes towards these jobs		
	Saudi	Iran	P	Saudi	Iran	P
Banking	40.9	65.2	.000	41.2	57.1	.000
Hairdressing and beauty	39.5	53.9	.012	46.3	63.8	.000
Journalism	37.3	38.1	.889	41.5	48.2	.124
Craft	32.2	61.7	.000	30.4	38.2	.062
Secretarial services	29.5	84.3	.000	41.8	68.3	.000

In Saudi Arabia, it is clear that the above jobs are less needed than in Iran and also less preferred by Saudi women than Iranian women. The result of the chi-square shows that there were significant differences in attitudes towards most of these jobs between the two countries among business managers and among women as well.

This is because of the different work environments in the two countries according to different cultures and organisations. In Saudi Arabia, some of these jobs involve women mixing with men in such areas as crafts, banking and secretarial work except in women's institutions or branches. In Iran, there is a higher need for these jobs than in Saudi because in Iran, women participate in most of the economic sector with men and there is no completely separation between them, except in some organisations such as general schools, women's hospitals and also some companies

which have separate places for women. Iranian banks recently became dependant on qualified women in some jobs which were at one time only for men, at the same time some of these jobs are “female” jobs and are not open to men such as hairdressing. Others are perceived as women’s jobs and are unacceptable to men, such as crafts and secretarial jobs (Sehlawi Iranian Authority Interview, 2002).

Lowest ranked job opportunities

Table 11.16 shows that there is agreement between the two countries in all groups (business managers and women) that the following jobs are not needed by the private sector for women. Also, these jobs are not acceptable for women because most of them are non-traditional jobs or are seen as not suitable jobs for women.

Table 11.16: Lowest ranked job opportunities

Job opportunities available for women in the private sector	Business Managers Job opportunities for women			Women attitudes towards these jobs		
	Saudi	Iran	P	Saudi	Iran	P
Reception duties	26.8	36.8	.059	29.3	43.5	.001
Interior decorator	26.8	22.1	.350	27.3	28.5	.757
Economics	25.9	15.0	.024	25.0	20.7	.254
Business	25.5	9.6	.001	31.3	24.7	.102
Marketing	22.7	23.5	.877	17.6	13.6	.224
Retailing	17.3	5.3	.002	5.4	9.5	.067
Machine maintenance	15.0	0		5.4	0	
Electrical service	14.5	4.4	.005	6.0	3.5	.213
Security	13.6	7.0	.071	0	8.5	
Selling	12.7	20.9	.051	9.7	18.7	.002
Hotel services	11.8	8.8	.395	5.7	9.5	.089
Carpentry	10.9	0		3.4	2.5	.559
Agriculture	10.0	5.2	.133	6.0	6.0	.976

It is interesting to find that the above jobs are seen as not needed or not urgent by the private sector in both countries from the responses of the majority of business managers and women. From the table it is not surprising to find a negative agreement attitude between women in the two countries. This could be because these jobs are considered non-traditional jobs for women.

Match and mismatch between women’s education and private sector needs

Al-Musnid (1997: 295) points out that Arab women aged between 15 and 42 face unemployment because: in the Arab region, from the early 1980s, more women than men were entering the job market and the market was unable to absorb them

because women had limited access to available jobs and preferred to work in certain areas where there were few vacancies.

The previous tables (11.14 and 11.15) show that more than two-thirds of the top jobs needed by the private sector for women in Saudi and Iran are in technical, vocational and scientific subjects. However in Saudi Arabia, unemployed women who hold technical qualifications only represent 24.0% while in Iran they represent 66.67%. The result of the chi-square test shows that there is a significant difference between the two countries ($P=.000$).

30.34% of unemployed Saudi respondents stated that they did attend courses when they had completed their studies, while in Iran these represent 55.55%. Most unemployed women who attended training courses after graduation in both Saudi Arabia and Iran were interested in computer training, the English language and secretarial affairs.

The English language, computer and secretarial affairs were common popular courses for women in Saudi Arabia and in Iran. In Saudi society, males and females are interested in learning about computers and the English language not only for jobs but for personal interest. This is also happening in Iran (Eftekhari Iranian Authority Interview, 2001).

When women's education and training for the unemployed in Saudi and Iran is compared, it can be seen that Iranian women are more involved in technical and scientific subjects than unemployed Saudi women. While the majority of Iranian women employees and unemployed women are concentrated in technical and scientific subjects, Saudi female employees and unemployed women still prefer social sciences and education subjects. In the field of training in both countries the unemployed women were concentrated in specific subjects and yet they were needed by the private sector in both countries (computer skills, the English language and secretarial affairs). In Saudi Arabia, one of the problems concerning employing national workers (males or females) is their lack of experience in computers and with the English language. (See Chapter Six.)

11.6 Women in Technical and Vocational Areas

Women have seen sharp changes in equal opportunities world wide, with the introduction of policies and guidelines by authorities. However, women still suffer from discrimination at work, as UNESCO, (1993: 14) argued:

“Although tremendous efforts have been made to eliminate discrimination in technical and vocational education, many millions of women throughout the world occupy jobs without even a minimum of equality.”

There is still a lack of women in the labour market, especially in developing countries. Therefore, women need to be encouraged to join TEVT programmes to participate in the labour market effectively. One of the tools which can be used to involve women in the labour market is encouraging them to join TEVT programmes. This can be achieved by clear national policies.

UNESCO (1994: 22) recommends that:

“Countries should develop national policies with special Technical, Vocational and Educational programs to accommodate the training needs of women wanting to work in non-traditional occupations. Countries will also need to ensure that support mechanisms and appropriate facilities are made available for women undertaking TEVT programs.”

In the case of Saudi Arabia and Iran towards the promotion of women in TEVT, the samples in both countries were asked about women’s participation in technical and vocational fields. The majority of the Saudi sample believed that women’s participation in technical and vocational fields in the private sector is still weak (86.51%) while in Iran the rate was only 41.13% (Figure 11.15). The result of the chi-square showed a very significant difference between the two countries ($P=.000$). The reason could be because TEVT for women in Saudi Arabia is very limited and graduates from this field represent only 5% of the total number of students enrolled in these fields of study. Also, colleges of technology for women are not yet established, while in Iran, according to Sanaie and Sehlawi (Iranian Authorities Interviews, 2002) women’s participation in TEVT is satisfactory and women in Iran have the chance to choose from certain subjects within technical institutes and colleges of technology.

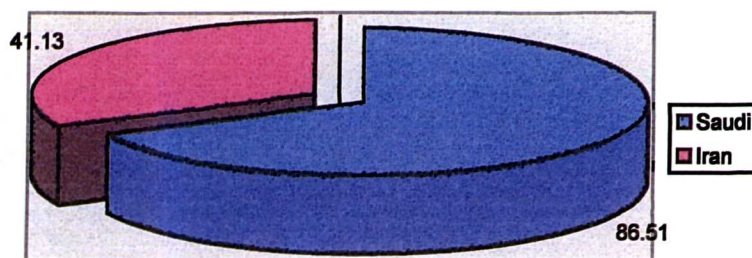


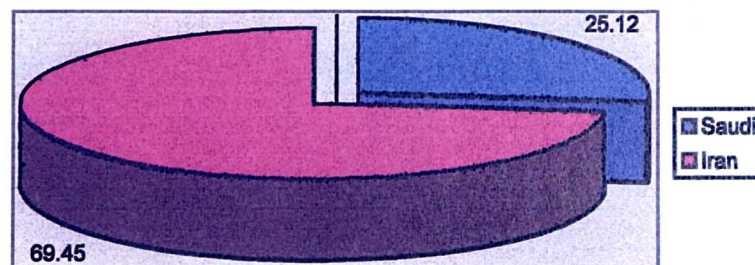
Figure 11.15: Women's participation in technical and vocational fields

When asked if the sample had any knowledge of technical and vocational education for women, 69.94% of Saudi respondents said they did have some knowledge while in Iran the respondents who had some knowledge numbered 75.47%. It is clear from the figures that there was a similarity in the answers from the two countries and there is no significant difference between them. The result of the chi-square was $P=.834$. (See Table 11.17.)

Table 11.17: Knowledge of TEVT for women

Knowledge about TEVT		Saudi		Iran		P
1	Do you have knowledge about TEVT for women (programs and courses)	398	69.94	237	75.47	.080
	Total of respondents	569		314		

When the respondents who had knowledge about TEVT for women (69.94% of Saudi and 75.47% of Iran) were asked if TEVT for women was able to graduate qualified women to the private sector, the answer was yes from the minority of Saudi responses (25.12%) while in Iran the rate of response from those who said yes was much higher than those from Saudi (69.45%) (Figure 11.16). The result of the chi-square shows that there was a very significant difference between the two countries ($P=.000$). The reason behind this is that formal TEVT institutions for women in Saudi Arabia provide limited subjects for women. In Iran, there are certain institutions and colleges which provide certain courses and programmes for women in different subjects (for more details about TEVT in Iran see Chapter Four).



Chi-square=.000

Figure 11.16: Technical education and vocational institutions

Are there weaknesses in TEVT for women?

Al-Muslemani (1996: 8-9) stated that any TEVT can be assessed by investigating the relationship between TEVT output and the labour market needs in three areas:

1. The ability to provide skilled human resources for all technical and vocational fields.
2. The ability to provide skilled human resources for all levels in each occupation.
3. The need for all labour forces to have enough knowledge and skill to practice their qualification

Respondents who believed that TEVT for women was unable to qualify women for work in the private sector (74.88% of Saudi and 30.55% of Iran) were asked about weaknesses in TEVT. Both Saudi and Iran respondents stated that there were weaknesses in the factors in Table 11.18. Lack of technical qualified staff in TEVT for women (90.7% of Saudi and 88.1% of Iran) was rated highest by both countries, followed by a mismatch between TEVT output and private sector needs for women (81.4% of Saudis). In Iran, shortage of facilities in TEVT institutions was mentioned by 62.3% of Iranian respondents.

A weakness in co-operation between the public and private sectors towards women's education and training was third in both countries in a different order (77.7% of Saudi and 41.2% in Iran). In Saudi Arabia, however, a shortage of TEVT facilities, misadministration and poor planning in TEVT for women received the lowest percentages from the Saudi responses.

The result of the chi-square test showed that there were high significant differences between the two countries in some factors but an agreement regarding the top and bottom factors.

Table 11.18: Factors affecting women's participation in technical and vocational area

		Percentage (Agree)				P
		Saudi Arabia		Iran		
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
1	There is a lack of technical qualified staff in TEVT	263 (290)	90.7	59 (67)	88.1	.514
2	There is a mismatch between TEVT output and private sector needs for women	232 (285)	81.4	24 (68)	35.3	.000
3	There is a lack in co-operation between public and private sector in women's education and training	220 (283)	77.7	28 (68)	41.2	.000
4	There is misadministration and poor planning in TEVT for women	197 (289)	68.2	18 (68)	26.5	.000
5	There is a shortage of TEVT facilities	169 (288)	58.7	43 (69)	62.3	.435

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

It is clear that the top factor affecting TEVT in Saudi and Iran was the lack of qualified staff. This is because, in Saudi Arabia, the TEVT institutions or centres in the government and private sector still depend on non-national staff and trainers. This is also a problem in Iran, according to Eftekhari (Iranian Authorities Interview, 2001). He mentioned that in most colleges of technology in Iran there is a lack of qualified female staff and therefore most colleges of technology depend on qualified male staff.

11.7 Factors Affecting Women's Employment in the Private Sector

- **Factors preventing women's employment in the private sector**

UNESCO (1994) asserted that female participation in the labour market in Arab countries was limited because of certain factors such as:

1. There was discrimination between males and females at both an educational and a development level.
2. Women were not taken into account during planning.
3. There was a mismatch between educational output and labour market needs.
4. Negative attitudes existed to the idea of women working

5. There was discrimination between men and women in terms of salaries and promotion prospects.
6. There was a lack of training programmes for women and also a lack of a suitable environment and facilities, such as transport, childcare, etc.
7. Women faced difficulties regarding their dual role at work and at home.
8. There was no equality regarding the technical and vocational programmes for men and for women and, as a result, programmes were made to be better suited to men.

In the following section the main factors affecting the under-utilisation of qualified women in the Saudi private sector are examined in comparison with Iran. Table 11.19 shows certain factors which could affect women's employment in the private sector.

Table 11.19: Factors which may prevent women's employment in the private sector

It is difficult to employ national women in the private sector because:		Agreed				
		Saudi Arabia		Iran		
1	Women find it difficult to move from one city to another.	503 (565)	89.0	251 (312)	80.4	.000
2	Some available jobs are in a mixed environment with men.	409 (565)	72.4	175 (313)	55.9	.000
3	There are shortages of skilled women in comparison with private sector needs.	407 (565)	72.0	70 (312)	22.4	.000
4	Women require extended holidays according to their status and family.	391 (560)	69.8	229 (313)	73.2	.297
5	Society has a negative attitude toward women working out side the home.	230 (566)	40.6	123 (313)	39.3	.698
6	Women face difficulties in moving from one job to another.	220 (564)	39.0	94 (312)	30.1	.009
7	Women accept higher salaries than average male workers	75 (561)	13.4	44 (308)	14.2	.707

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

The vast majority of the Saudi respondents agreed that the problem of women moving from one city to another city (89.0%) is the main difficulty in employing women in the private sector. In Iran, this problem is also faced by the private sector but it is not as great a problem as in Saudi. 80.4% of the Iranian responses mentioned this as a problem. The result of the chi-square test shows that there was a very significant difference between the two countries ($P=.000$).

The high percentage noted in the Saudi private sector is understandable because Saudi women cannot drive cars, as there is a Saudi law forbidding women to drive. In Saudi Arabia and Iran, women need to be accompanied on their travels by a

Mohrom, a male relative to whom she is not married, such as father, brother, uncle etc.

About two-thirds of the Saudi responses (72.4%) agreed that it is difficult to employ women in the private sector because some available jobs are in mixed environments with males. Because of complete separation between the sexes, Saudi women cannot work in a mixed environment with men. In Iran, just over half (55.9%) of the Iranian responses showed agreement. The result of the chi-square test shows that there was a very significant difference between the two countries ($P=.000$).

It is not surprising to find such differences between the two countries because this is due to the fact that, in Iran, women can work with men in the private sector except in some women's organisations such as public schools for girls and women's hospitals. Also, in certain companies, they have separate places for women away from men. According to the companies surveyed in Saudi Arabia, 91.7% of the Saudi companies surveyed have separation between the sexes in the work place while in Iran it was only 34.8%. Although the environment in the private sector is one of the main factors affecting women's employment in the private sector, in Iran it is not as important as in Saudi Arabia.

In response to the researcher's question about whether a shortage of capable and skilled women was a reason behind the difficulties of employing women in the private sector, the answer was that 72.0% of Saudi respondents agreed, while this reason was not a factor in the Iranian private sector (22.4%). The result of the chi-square test shows that there was a very significant difference between the two countries ($P=.000$). This is due to the role of TEVT in the two countries, in Saudi Arabia, for example, girls enrolled in TEVT represent 10% of the total number of students enrolled in TEVT, while in Iran they represent 35% of the total number of students enrolled in TEVT.

About 69.8% of Saudi and 73.2% of Iranian responses mentioned that women requiring extended holidays are a factor affecting their employment in the private sector. The result of the chi-square test shows that there was no significant difference between the two countries ($P=.297$).

It is not surprising to find an agreement between the two countries towards this factor because women in these countries have family and social commitments. Traditionally, women take holidays for their weddings, for childbirth and for deaths or

illnesses in the family. Islamic society is a mixture of religion and traditional culture and this has led to powerful attitudes toward women, guided by both religion and culture.

Regarding the nature of women in society, the majority of respondents in Saudi and Iran had positive attitudes towards women working outside the home. Only 40.6% of Saudi and 39.3% of Iranian responses agreed that there are negative attitudes in society towards women working outside the home. The chi-square result shows that there was no significant difference between the two countries ($P=.698$).

For other factors, such as women facing difficulties moving from one job to another and women accepting higher salaries than the average males, these are less important in affecting women's employment in the private sector in both countries.

In Iran, in comparing the responses of business managers and women towards the above factors, it was found that in general there was an agreement between the two groups in all factors and there was no significant difference between them. The chi-square results were .129, .053, .168, .251, .562, .336 and .131 respectively. (For Saudi Arabia, see Chapter Ten.)

- **Woman employees and facilities in the companies surveyed**

Before investigating factors encouraging women's employment in the private sector in Saudi Arabia and Iran, it is interesting to look at facilities provided by the companies surveyed for woman employees.

- 1. Woman employees and training facilities**

When making a comparison about the question of facilities for women it was found that 37.2% of Saudi women and 56.16% of the Iranian women said they were provided with training. It is clear from the figures there is a very significant difference between the two countries ($\text{chi-square}=.000$). The reason for the difference could be because most of the companies which employ Saudi women are small companies.

- 2. Is there any transportation facility for woman employees?**

Transport is also important for women in Saudi Arabia so, when asked, only 39.80% of Saudi women said transport was provided by the companies, while, in Iran, this facility was provided for 60.95% of women. It is clear that there is a significant result between the two sets of respondents ($\text{chi-square}=.000$). The difference could be

explained by the fact that most Saudi women work in small companies. Also, some Saudi companies provide transportation for non-national women while national women usually take a bonus or extra salary for this facility.

3. Do the companies surveyed provide childcare facilities for women employees?

In Saudi Arabia, 48.30% of Saudi women employees and 55.31% of Iranian women stated that childcare facilities were provided in their jobs. The result was similar between two groups, but this facility is still insufficient for women according to Islamic conditions for women working outside their home. There is no significant difference between the two groups ($P=.199$).

- **Factors which would develop women's employment in the private sector**

In general there is agreement between the Saudi Arabian and Iranian responses towards all or most of the factors which would develop women's employment in the private sector. However, the order is different. Table 11.20 shows the highest percentage for Saudi was improving the relationship between the private and public sectors towards women's education and training (90.7%). In Iran, it was 79.3%. The second factor for Saudi was to give greater importance to TEVT (83.2%). In Iran, this factor was the highest with 87.5%. Offering women part-time work was the third in Saudi (82.7%) and the second with a slightly different rate in Iran (85.0%). In Saudi the fourth was reducing working hours (80.2%) while in Iran this factor was the fifth with a rate of 75.7%. In Saudi Arabia, the fifth and sixth were providing transport facilities and childcare with a rate of 80.1% and 75.8% respectively while, in Iran, providing childcare was important; this was rated third with 80.2%. Providing transport was not very important in Iran (68.3%) and improving labour legislation, changing societies attitudes towards women's working, and increasing salaries were the lowest in Saudi and Iran.

Table 11.20: Factors which would develop and attract national women into employment

Variables		Agreed				
		Saudi Arabia		Iran		P
1	Improving the relationship between the private and public sectors	508 (560)	90.7	180 (227)	79.3	.000
2	Offering part-time work for women	470 (568)	82.7	256 (301)	85.0	.384
3	Give importance to technical and vocational education	470 (565)	83.2	272 (311)	87.5	.093
4	Reducing working hours for women	455 (567)	80.2	231 (305)	75.7	.121
5	Providing free transport for women	454 (567)	80.1	211 (309)	68.3	.000
6	Providing child-care facilities for women	430 (567)	75.8	251 (313)	80.2	.139
7	Improving and updating labour legislation	365 (564)	64.7	202 (301)	67.1	.480
8	Changing society's attitudes towards women working outside the home	303 (567)	53.4	127 (306)	41.5	.001
9	Increasing job salaries and rewards for women	219 (564)	38.8	131 (307)	42.7	.269

Numbers in brackets represent the total number of respondents

It is clear from the table that there were significance differences between the two countries regarding transportation and co-operation between the private and public sector towards women's education and employment. It is not surprising that transport is less important in Iran because Iranian women can drive and transportation is not a very important factor in encouraging women's employment in the private sector while this facilities is very important in Saudi Arabia because women do not drive cars. Regarding the relationship between the public and private sector in Iran, there is a strong relationship between the two sectors towards education and employment and this is also true in Saudi Arabia but it is stronger for men's education than women's. Also, there was a slight difference between the two countries towards the natural place of women. But this factor was not very important to developing women's employment in either country.

In Iran, when comparing the responses of business managers and women towards the above factors, it is interesting to find no significant differences between the two groups in almost all factors. The chi-square results were $P=.409, .638, .271, .204, .173, .465$ and $.520$ respectively. However, there were significant differences between the two groups in the factor relating to transport and the factor relating to

labour legislation. The results of the chi-square test were $P=.000$ and $P=.043$ respectively. For the case of Saudi Arabia, see Chapter Ten.

11.8 Saudi and Iranian Authorities' Interviews

Interviews with key officials in the public and private sector in Iran were used as a benchmark comparison with the results of the interviews in Saudi Arabia.

It is interesting to note that the Iranian respondents were much more positive about women's participation in the labour market than their Saudi counterparts. While all the Saudi respondents saw women's participation as "low", the judgements of the Iranians ranged from "low" to "fine" with most comments expressing the idea that their participation was, at least, satisfactory. The Iranian respondents were also positive about TEVT outputs, seeing these as good or quite good in comparison with the market needs in the private sector while the Saudi respondents viewed their TEVT provision as largely unable to provide qualified women for the private sector's needs.

In terms of the fields of work which were important for women in the private sector, there was general agreement among the Iranian and Saudi respondents with services and technology being mentioned as important areas by the majority of interviewees. There was also general agreement about the kinds of employment for women which respondents saw as providing opportunities within the private sector where a wide range of jobs, including medical work, computing, textiles, teaching and sewing, were noted by both sets of respondents.

There was general agreement about the factors which prevented women's employment in the private sector through the unsuitability of women's education and training, while a factor in Saudi Arabia, was not seen as an issue in Iran. Practical problems, such as lack of facilities, lack of transport arrangements, long working hours etc., were much more common to both countries, however. Indeed, these responses were carried through to the respondents' opinions regarding the main factors which need development if more women are to find employment in the private sector. While the Iranian interviewees concentrated on the provision of practical facilities, such as better facilities, flexible-working conditions and improved salaries, the Saudi respondents also mentioned development in education and training as an important factor. This would suggest that a mismatch between the qualifications and expertise of Saudi women and the needs of the private sector is more prevalent than it

is in Iran. Some lack of compatibility between the qualifications gained by female Iranian graduates and the requirements of the private sector was noted, however, by the female Iranian respondents in the question concerning unemployment among women graduates.

There was general agreement between the two sets of interviewees that labour market information was generally insufficient, though this was viewed as more of a problem in Saudi Arabia than it was in Iran where two-fifths of the respondents felt that the information was largely sufficient. The Saudi respondents felt, however, that it was vital that their information systems were improved in order to provide more up-to-date information regarding employment since they rated their present system as either insufficient or almost useless.

All respondents agreed that certain areas of the private sector definitely preferred to employ men though the answers from the Saudi interviews were more unequivocal and mentioned the perception of women's unsuitability to certain fields because of women's primary responsibility for the home and family. The Iranian respondents, while also generally recognising that men were often preferred over women in the private sector, focussed instead on different fields such as heavy industry and marketing. One Iranian respondent also noted that there were areas, such as in health work and design where women were preferred over men while a second respondent noted that this depended entirely on the area of work being considered.

All respondents in Saudi Arabia and Iran agreed that there is a shortage of women working in the private sector, especially in technical and vocational areas and, equally, that there was little or no encouragement within the private sector itself for women to join the workforce.

As regards the part played by labour legislation in the encouragement of women's employment there was, by contrast, considerable disagreement between the two sets of interviewees. In Iran, the respondents were unanimous in agreeing that their government supported and encouraged the employment of women although one respondent noted that the private sector legislation was only recent and another remarked that some companies did not actually practise the law as it stands. In Saudi Arabia, however, most respondents felt that legislation did nothing to encourage women to work, although, it was noted by two interviewees, that new laws were in the

process of being prepared. Almost all the respondents from both nations felt that more research was needed into this area.

General levels of agreement were found in both sets of respondents regarding the factors preventing the participation of women in the private sector though while Saudi interviewees felt there was a definite availability of jobs in a mixed environment (100%) and a mismatch between women's skills and those needed by the private sector (87.5%), these were viewed as being much less of a problem in Iran (57.14 and 28.57% respectively). The authorities have not given any importance to the social and economic factors.

Table 11.21: Authorities views of factors preventing women's employment in the private sector from Saudi Arabia and Iran

Variables		Agreed %			
		Saudi Arabia		Iran	
1	Women find it difficult to move from one city to another.	7	87.5	7	100.0
2	Some available jobs are in a mixed environment with men.	8	100.0	4	57.14
3	There are shortages of skilled women in comparison with private sector needs.	7	87.5	2	28.57
4	Women require extended holidays according to their status and family.	5	62.5	5	71.42
5	Society has a negative attitude toward women working out side the home.	0	00.0	0	0.00
6	Women accept high salaries than the average male workers	0	00.0	0	0.00
Total of authorities' respondents		8			7

On factors which would affect the development of women's employment, there was almost complete consensus, with all respondents agreeing that improved facilities, such as childcare and transport, and making work more flexible (part time work), as well as improving TEVT, would make it more likely, in both nations, that women would join the private sector workforce. See Table 11.22.

Table 11.22: Authority attitudes towards the main factors developing women's employment in the private sector

Variables		Agreed %			
		Saudi Arabia		Iran	
1	Improving the relationship between the private and public sectors	8	100.0	5	71.42
2	Offering part-time work for women	7	87.5	7	100.0
3	Give importance to technical and vocational education	8	100.0	6	85.71
4	Reducing working hours for women	7	87.5	6	85.71
5	Providing free transport for women	8	100.0	5	71.42
6	Providing child-care facilities for women	8	100.0	7	100.0
	Total of authorities interviews	8		7	

11.9 Summary of Findings from the Comparison

The following summary has been drawn from the analysis between Saudi Arabia and Iran towards women's employment in the private sector and has been divided into two sections covering the major similarities and differences.

Similarities

- More than half of the sample (50% Saudi women and 49% Iranian women) are married, while single women represent 42% (Saudi) and 44% (Iran).
- The majority of unemployed women in Saudi Arabia and Iran were interested in computer training, the English language and secretarial affairs.
- In Saudi Arabia, 47.9% of unemployed women and in Iran, 41.66%, had been looking for a job for less than one year while those who had been looking for a job for 3 years and more in Saudi Arabia rated 10.41% while in Iran it was 20.37%.
- The majority of unemployed women in Saudi and Iran have tried to get a job in the private sector (59.3% Saudi and 61.11% Iran) and they would accept working in the private sector if they found a job (81.73% Saudi and 72.22 Iran).
- Most women employees in Saudi Arabia and Iran practise full-time work. This was confirmed by 83.57% of Saudi women employees and 73.23% of Iranian women.
- The majority of women in both countries prefer working part-time (61.08% Saudi and 78.89% Iran).
- The majority of women in both countries stated that the main reasons behind

preferring to work in the public rather than the private sector were: shorter working hours, more holidays, higher salaries, and greater job security in a good environment.

- Women from both countries are agreed that cultural and social needs are the main reasons to work or for seeking work (71.79% Saudi and 64.32% Iran). However, to support family income was the least important reason give by 33.81% of Saudis and 39.19% of Iranian women.
- The top methods of newspaper and magazines and government labour offices are the most popular methods used by the companies surveyed in Saudi and Iran to find employees.
- The majority of responses in both countries stated that there is a need for women's participation in the private sector (85.6% of Saudi and 92.6% of Iranian respondents).
- Women have the necessary skills for specific tasks, women are disciplined and work seriously, and women understand the value of work, this makes women a necessity in the private sector in both Saudi and Iran.
- Women accept lower salaries than the average male workers and a shortage of qualified males were not important factors behind employing women in the private sector (41.3% and 27.6% in Saudi and 56.6% and 25.3% in Iran respectively).
- In both Saudi Arabia and Iran, respondents believe that the service sector is the most important field for women to participate in the private sector. Technology was believed to be the second most important.
- There was an agreement between Saudi and Iranian business managers that medical, computing, and textile jobs are in the top ten jobs most needed by the private sector in both countries.
- In Saudi Arabia and Iran, the respondents believe that non-traditional jobs (electrical services, carpentry, agriculture, retailing, marketing etc.) were not needed by the private sector and were not acceptable jobs for women compared to other jobs.
- Most of the Saudi and Iranian sample had knowledge of technical and vocational education for women (69.94% Saudi and 75.47% Iran).
- Respondents who believed that TEVT for women is unable to qualify women for

the private sector stated that there is a lack of qualified staff in TEVT for women (90.7% of Saudis and 88.1% of Iranians).

- The vast majority of Saudi and Iranian responses agreed that there was a problem with women moving from one city to another (89.0% Saudi and 80.4% Iran). This is the main difficulty when employing women in the private sector.
- There was agreement that women require extended holidays according to their role in the family. This was one of the factors affecting their employment in the private sector (69.8% Saudi and 73.2% Iran).
- According to the nature of women in society, the majority of respondents in Saudi and Iran had positive attitudes towards women working outside the home.
- Women facing difficulties in moving from one job to another and women expecting higher salaries than the average male; these are less important factors affecting women's employment in the private sector in both countries.
- Both countries gave importance to the factors relating to part-time work, TEVT, reducing working hours, and improving childcare facilities, as these factors would encourage women's employment in the private sector.
- 63.1% of Saudi responses and 51.74% of Iranian responses demonstrated a belief that the employment system in the private sector does not encourage women's employment in both two countries Saudi and Iran.
- A majority in both countries believes that male employees are preferred to females (76.0% Saudi and 52.6% Iran).

Differences

- In comparison with Iran, only a small percentage of the labour force in the companies surveyed in Saudi Arabia were nationals (21.4%) while 78.6% were non-nationals. This is in total contrast with Iran where 99.6% of the labour force are nationals and only a very small percentage (0.4%) are non-nationals.
- When considering the case of women in the labour force in the companies surveyed, the percentage of national women employees in the companies surveyed in Saudi Arabia was extremely small (2.5%) of the total, while in Iran it was 13.9% of the total.
- The service companies in Saudi Arabia employ the greatest number of women (46.7%) followed by industrial companies with a rate of 35.9%. In Iran the

industrial companies followed by services companies employ the majority of women in the Iranian companies surveyed with the rate of 47.3% and 30.4% respectively.

- The majority of women in Saudi Arabia prefer working in the public to the private sector (86.03%) while in Iran just over half (55.38%) said they would prefer the public sector.
- In Iran, one of the most important factors affecting women seeking a job or already being employed in the private sector is to be independent (72.86%) while in Saudi Arabia this factor represents only 45.57%.
- Regarding training facilities for women, it was found that 37.2% of Saudi women said they were provided with training, while 56.16% of Iranian women were provided with this facility.
- Although transport is an important issue for women in Saudi Arabia, only 39.80% of woman employees said they were provided with this facility, while in Iran this facility was provided for 60.95% of women.
- The majority of Saudi respondents (81.43%) believe that the existing labour market information system is unable to provide data for woman applicants and is not able to provide data for available jobs provided for women in the private sector. In Iran, this problem was mentioned by just 46.06% of respondents.
- There was a higher percentage of Iranians (62.3%) than Saudis (21.5%) who believe that labour legislation gives equal conditions to both males and females.
- The craft sector is one of the most important sectors for women working in the private sector in Iran. This was mentioned by 74.4% of respondents while in Saudi Arabia the proportion was 43.2. In Saudi Arabia, industrial and agricultural sectors ranked least with 26.7% and 6.0% respectively, but in Iran these sectors were more needed for women (34.7% and 30.0% respectively).
- Although there are jobs that are needed in the Saudi private sector, such as teaching, social services and food services, these jobs are not urgently needed in the Iranian private sector.
- It was interesting to find that in Saudi Arabia, women see childcare and social service jobs as acceptable jobs (79.8% and 69.3% respectively) while Iranian women see these jobs as less acceptable (55.3% and 45.7 respectively). On the

other hand, Iranian women see the medical sector as a preferred sector (74.0%) while Saudi women see this jobs as less acceptable (65.0%).

- There is a higher need for women in Iran in secretarial affairs and banking 84.3 and 65.2 than in Saudi 29.5% and 40.9% respectively.
- More than two-thirds of the top jobs needed by the private sector in Saudi and Iran require technical and vocational subjects. However, in Saudi Arabia, unemployed women who hold technical, vocational or scientific subjects represent only 24.0% while in Iran they represent 66.67%.
- Iranian women are more involved in technical and scientific subjects (58%) while Saudi women still prefer theoretical subjects (75%).
- About two-thirds of the Saudi responses (72.4%) agreed that it is difficult to employ women in the private sector because some of the available jobs are in a mixed environment while in Iran the respondents who believe this is an important factor numbered 55.9%
- The majority of the Saudi sample believe that women's participation in technical and vocational areas in the private sector is still weak (86.51%) while in Iran the rate was only 41.13%.
- In Saudi Arabia the majority of responses (74.88%) believe that TEVT is unable to graduate qualified women into the private sector while in Iran the rate was 30.55%.
- A mismatch between TEVT output and private sector needs for women is one of the most important factors affecting women's participation in technical and vocational areas in the Saudi private sector. This was mentioned by 81.4%, while in Iran it was mentioned by only 35.3% of the Iranian respondents.
- A weakness in co-operation between the public and private sectors was one of the highest factors affecting women's participation in technical and vocational areas in the Saudi private sector (77.7%) while in Iran this factor was less important (41.2%).
- A shortage of capable and skilled women in comparison with private sector needs was one of the main factors behind the difficulties of employing women in the Saudi private sector. This was mentioned by 72.0% of Saudi responses. In Iran, this factor was not an important factor as it was mentioned by only 22.4% of the

Iranian responses.

- Providing transport for women is an important factor that would develop and attract women into the private sector. This was mentioned by 80.1% of the Saudi respondents. In Iran, it was not very important and was mentioned by 68% of the Iranian respondents.

11.10 Overall Summary

In both countries the respondents (business managers and women) give little emphasis to women's place in society and salary issues, but give more emphasis to facility issues and flexible employment.

The attitude of society towards the employment of women is not considered to be a problem probably due to society's attitude already being positive to the concept of women working. Also, the issue of remuneration has little importance for women due to them being financially secure within their family. In contrast, the facility issues and flexible part-time employment issues are considered to be much more important. One interesting result from the analysis was that although there are differences of culture, society and economics between the two countries there is agreement in a lot of the questions. However, higher importance is given to education and transportation in Saudi Arabia than it is in Iran.

In Saudi Arabia, educational output is one of the most influential factors affecting women's employment in the private sector in general and in technical and vocational education in particular, while in Iran it was not as influential as in Saudi Arabia. However, Iran already has a much higher proportion of women in education.

The conclusions, recommendations, and topics for further research will be presented in Chapter Twelve.

CHAPTER TWELVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

12.1 Conclusions

This study set out to analyse the reality of Saudi women's employment in the private sector. There are significant numbers of unemployed qualified Saudi women and the latest development plan (2000-2004) expects the private sector to provide the majority of jobs.

In Chapter One the question was posed; is the high level of unemployed qualified Saudi women due to the educational system, the attitudes of women to employment, the attitudes of managers to employing women or the attitudes of society in general?

Al-Muslemani (1996: 8-9) suggests in the context of TEVT, that an educational system can be assessed essentially on its breadth, its depth and its applicability for employment and these dimensions run through the thesis in the analysis of the system and in the views of the business managers and the qualified women.

Saudi Arabia is an Islamic country by nature and in law and so the research has to develop within the framework of current Islamic thinking on the employment of women using Iran as a benchmark.

Islamic thought towards women's education and employment is discussed in Chapter Two. This chapter shows evidence which supports women's education. Aisha, wife of Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) was one of the highest authorities on hadith and fiqh with respect to women's problems. She was also knowledgeable in the technical field, such as medicine. Some women at the time of the Prophet (peace be upon him) were working as nurses, and others did sewing and weaving, for example, to help the family and/or society. In general, it was found that women were active in culture and religion, economics, politics, education and social affairs. Also, it is noted in this chapter, that a necessary condition to allow women to work was that the environment should be according to Islamic Law; the permission of

the woman's guardian is necessary and the work should not be detrimental to her role in the family.

Also in Chapter Two, the researcher considered labour market theories with respect to women and discussed theories such as human capital theory, dual labour market theory, dual role system theory and patriarchal theory. All of these theories were found to be driven by economic needs. The situation of women in Saudi Arabia is not the same for women under these other theories. The researcher was unable to use these theories to examine factors affecting women's employment in the private sector in Saudi Arabia because they were not in accordance with the Islamic model which considers the primary role for a woman to be a wife and mother. At the same time, the conditions of women's employment in Islam was not considered in these theories, for example, separation of the sexes, permission of the guardian, travelling and the classification of jobs as for women only, e.g. hairdressing, and obstetrics and gynaecology.

It is very important to consider the position of women in the labour market in different and similar countries. Therefore, Chapter Three concentrated on women's participation in the labour market in developed and developing countries, including Arab states. The objective of this chapter was to learn from the experience of other countries regarding women's education and employment.

It was found within developed countries that education and training is ongoing for women; as are equal opportunities for jobs and competition between men and women in education and in employment. It was interesting to find women's opportunities in the labour market were flexible (full-time, part-time, and working from home). For example, in the USA women's participation in the labour force in 1998 represented 45.7%, in France 44.8%, in UK 43.7% and 41.2% in Japan (The World Bank, 2000: 46-48).

This chapter also highlighted developing countries which tried to develop women's education and employment. In Asia, the developed countries' model was applied which resulted in greater opportunities for women's education. This in turn increased women's participation in the labour market resulting in a higher level of employment. A significant factor in this higher level of women's employment in the labour force was the availability and contribution of technical and vocational education. For example, in 1998 women's participation in the labour force in

developing countries represents 45.2% in China, in Korea 41%, in Malaysia 37.5% and 37% in Turkey (The World Bank, 2000: 46-48).

Although women in developed and some developing countries competed for all jobs and had equal opportunities alongside men, women were still fewer in number in education and employment.

In Chapter Three the researcher also concentrated on women's education and employment in Arab Gulf states which have similar characteristics to Saudi Arabia. The researcher found women's participation in the labour force in these countries, in general, to be low in comparison with developed and some developing countries with the main concentration in the public sector in particular in education and health jobs, for example women represent in Kuwait 31.2%, Oman 15.7%, Saudi Arabia 14.8% and in UAE 14.1% (The World Bank, 2000: 46-48).

The major reason for the low figures for women in the Gulf states is due to educational output. Also, the availability of flexible hours, part-time work and childcare all play a part in limiting the employment of women in Gulf states in the labour force. Women in Gulf states still face difficulties with the availability of suitable subjects for study and prevailing social attitudes. With changes in society, together with growth of the economic sector from agriculture to services and industry in the Gulf states, more opportunities are being explored for women's education which encouraged women to participate in the labour market (UN, 2000: 138-139, UNDP, 2001: 222- 223)

In Chapter Four, while Iran has been used as a benchmark, it is not an Arab but an Islamic and a developing country. Prior to the Revolution the model for women in the workforce could be considered as a western-style developing country. After the Revolution there was a change and the model corresponded more with the model of Saudi Arabia with respect to Islamic Sharia'a. Iran has similar cultural, social and economic attitudes towards the employment of women in the labour force, and has utilised women in the labour market, especially in the service and traditional industries where women are considered to be necessary labour. The researcher highlighted women's employment in Iran, according to the cultural, social and economic factors. The study concentrated on women's status after the Islamic Revolution in 1979 and the changes resulting from this with respect to women's employment.

The main finding was the change in the attitude to women working. Prior to the Revolution there had been western-style employment opportunities. Afterwards, there was a restriction on women's education and the type of job available for them. Then came the war with Iraq and during this the economic situation was such that women needed to be involved in the labour force to fulfil necessary functions as well as their family obligations. The government therefore redefined the conditions of employment for women in the labour force, resulting in an increase of women's education and training at all levels. Women could now choose their subjects of study from different institutions such as Vocational and Technical Institutions, Colleges of Technology and universities including Distance Learning and Open Universities. For example, women enrolled at university represented 24.7% in 1970; this increased to 36.1% in 1997. Also, women enrolled in technical and vocational education represented 40% of the total number of students enrolled in this field of education in 1999 (See Chapter Four).

Women in Iran face difficulties in working in the private sector especially due to the lack of facilities, flexible work, low wages and the limited jobs which are available.

Although this thesis has concentrated on women's employment, Chapter Five gave the necessary background information about Saudi Arabia with respect to cultural, social, economical and educational factors which were considered an integral part of this study. The change in economic growth and social change in Saudi Arabia occurred after the discovery of oil, especially after 1970, which was when the First Development Plan was issued for Saudi Arabia. In the first three Five Year Development Plans (1970-1985), the government concentrated on developing the infrastructure within the country. This involved: schools, universities, roads, airports, postal services, hospitals, medical health, social services etc., and the importation of non-national labour to participate in this development due to the shortage of national human resources. In the following Five Year Development Plans (1985-2004), the government's highest priority was concerned with the shortage of national labour. The allocation of resources to infrastructure decreased in this period while the allocation of resources for developing the national human resources increased. As a result, the number of students enrolled in the educational system increased in this period (see Chapter Five).

The situation at the beginning of women's education was very harsh. Conservative members of society and many scholars were against women's education from the perspective that women working outside the home would corrupt the social system. It took thirty years after the beginning of education for males before women could be educated.

The researcher found in Chapter Five that although education for women started in 1960, thirty years after that for males, there are now almost equal numbers of males and females in education, and in secondary and higher education the number of women has increased to be greater than that of men. As a result of the development of women's education, about 96% of all teaching positions in general schools are filled by national females while thirty years ago they were all non-nationals in these positions. Women's education has concentrated from its inception on what may be classed as the traditional subjects for women. On the other hand, women's education had continued to develop quantitatively rather than qualitatively in comparison with the education of males which has expanded in the technical and vocational fields. In technical education, women represent less than 10% of the total number of students enrolled in this field of education. In developed countries these percentages for women were 40%-50%, and between 20%-40% in developing countries (see Chapter Three). One major reason for the difference between the percentages of female students enrolled in technical education in Saudi Arabia, compared with the percentage in other countries, is that women are free to select their field of study from the subjects available and the traditional fields continue to be very popular.

To investigate why Saudi Arabia has such continued dependence on non-national labour is the issue discussed in Chapter Six. The census of 1992 was analysed and the results compared with previous studies for the problem of Saudiisation, and the problem of women's employment in general, and for women's participation in the private sector in particular. The main findings from the analysis were a high percentage of non-national males concentrated in agriculture, construction and industry, while non-national women were concentrated in domestic services, health and education sectors. Also, the researcher found the major reasons behind the reliance on non-national labour in Saudi Arabia were: the majority of the population of Saudi Arabia was in education; a lack of national manpower in technical and

vocational fields; a concentration of national manpower in the public sector and in the main regions and women's participation in the labour market were low.

Public sector demand for the national workforce successfully competed with the private sector, as it provided competitive salaries, more comprehensive and permanent terms of employment, including shorter and friendlier working hours, and longer holidays. Some studies added factors such as negative attitudes towards certain jobs, difficulties in moving from one place to another, which is accepted by non-nationals and the lack of experience or skills in IT and the English language in general. These findings were confirmed by certain previous studies as Al-Nafai (1992), Al-Ghaith and Al-Mashoog (1997) and Dagestani (2000)

In Chapter Seven, with the limitation of previous studies in mind, a questionnaire was designed and circulated to determine the main factors affecting the employment of women in the private sector in Saudi Arabia. Iran was used as a benchmark. As a follow-up to the questionnaire, structured interviews were arranged with competent authorities both in the public and private sectors.

The increase of unemployed qualified Saudi women in comparison with the continued use of non-national labour, male and female, in positions which could be filled by national women is discussed in Chapters Eight, Nine and Ten. These chapters concentrated on the four most important categories of women's employment. These categories were Saudi business managers, Saudi women employees in the private sector, unemployed qualified Saudi women, and some Saudi authorities in the public and private sectors. These categories were selected from the largest economic cities in Saudi Arabia, which jointly employ 80% of the total number of women in employment (Saudi Census of Population and Housing, 1992). The main objective of this survey was to examine factors affecting the under-utilisation of qualified women in the private sector, which employs less than 10% of women employees in the private sector while 90% was non-national women. While studies have been done prior to this one, none of these previous studies could be considered as comprehensive.

The researcher analysed the factors affecting the four major categories in terms of common and specific factors affecting women's employment in the private sector for each of the categories in Chapters Eight (business managers) and Nine (employed and unemployed women). Then, in Chapter Ten, the responses of the business managers and women were compared to the responses of the authorities.

The main findings in these chapters were, for example, the availability of jobs for women which were urgently needed by the private sector in general and in the technical and vocational area in particular, such as medicine and para-medicine, IT, childcare, textiles, sewing, social services, education, electronics, food services and accountancy. (For business managers' responses to these jobs, see the Al-Shetaiwi and Calvert paper which was presented at the conference in Jamaica, July 2001 in the Appendix.) The questionnaire considered women's attitudes towards these jobs and a match with differing degrees was found. In general, the result was positive from the majority of the respondents. Another interesting result from the analysis was the mismatch between women's education and training with the requirements for the jobs available in the private sector. (The case of unemployed women is discussed in detail by Al-Shetaiwi and Calvert in a paper presented at the conference in Malaysia, November 2001. See Appendix.) Also, all the categories of respondents are unhappy with technical and vocational education for women, as they believe it is unable to qualify women for employment in the private sector. (For business managers' responses to this problem, see Al-Shetaiwi and Calvert's published paper in the *International Journal of Training and Development*, June, 2002. See Appendix.)

The researcher investigated factors affecting women's employment in the private sector, as given by the majority of Saudi respondents which are: difficulty of moving from one city to another, this is in agreement with the findings of Al-Hazmi (1997), and Daghestani (2000), the unsuitability of available work or the work environment which is confirmed in the findings of Al-Nimer (1988), Hamdi and Al-Haidar (1996) and the shortage of suitably skilled and trained women in comparison with private sector needs, agreed within the finding of Riyadh Chamber of Commerce and Industry (1997) and Daghestani (2000). The results from the questionnaire from most respondents had little emphasis to societal attitudes towards women's employment in the labour market. The vast majority of the respondents also accorded little emphasis to remuneration as a factor affecting women's employment.

Almost all Saudi respondents were unhappy with labour market information which they believed was unable to provide comprehensive data concerning the availability of women applicants and the availability of jobs for women within the private sector. This finding was confirmed by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (2001). "The private sector does not give accurate information regarding non-national labour for the total number of employees and the nature of jobs available to

the Ministry.” Due to the financial independence of most Saudi women, that is, most women are not seen as the provider for the family, financial needs were not found to be a motivation for choosing subjects of study or work.

Also in Chapter Nine the researcher found the majority of women respondents preferred working in the public rather than the private sector. The reasons were the availability of traditional jobs in the public sector, short working hours, long holidays, salaries, pensions and a suitable environment which was not available in the private sector. When asked, what were the main factors in developing women’s employment in the private sector, the majority of respondents mentioned improving the relationship between the public and private sector in education and training, to provide part-time employment, to give more importance to technical and vocational education for women and to improve the facilities for women such as childcare and transportation.

In previous chapters (Four and Six) which concentrate on Saudi Arabia and Iran, it was found that both countries had policies to develop women’s employment in the labour market, but still the participation of women in both was low in comparison with developed and some developing countries. Therefore, the researcher’s findings for Saudi Arabia from Chapters Eight, Nine and Ten were compared with Iran in Chapter Eleven. Of the major similarities between both countries concerning women’s employment in the private sector, it was found that the majority of respondents from Iran agreed with the Saudi respondents on the problem of women moving from one city to another. This is a cultural requirement rather than a problem with transport, as Islamic society protects its women and they cannot go any distance alone. This point was explained in detail in Chapter Two. The majority of Iranian respondents agreed that while some jobs are available some of these are not in suitable environments for women’s employment because they are mixed-sex, although to a lesser degree than in Saudi Arabia. In both countries the majority of respondents give little emphasis to women’s place in society and remuneration issues, and more emphasis to facility issues and flexible employment.

From the comparison of Iran with Saudi Arabia, Iranian women were in agreement with Saudi women in preferring work in the public rather than in the private sector because of job security, shorter hours, holidays and a suitable environment, as well as preferring part-time work to full-time. However, more

emphasis is given to education, transportation and labour market information in Saudi Arabia than it is in Iran.

Regarding the mismatch between the educational output for women and the private sector needs, this mismatch was very high for Saudi Arabia but was found to be considerably lower for Iran. While the educational output of Saudi women was high, this was linked to the public rather than the private sector. By contrast, Iran seemed to have gone some way toward overcoming this problem with the availability of choice of subjects within public and private universities, distance and open learning universities. Also, impetus was recently given to women's technical and vocational education in Iran. While Saudi Arabia has made some progress in this type of education, more needs to be done (See Chapters Four and Five for more details.)

Following the close agreement between unemployed and employed Saudi women on the factors affecting employment of women in the private sector, which suggest positive attitudes to employment, more emphasis was placed than expected on the information available on jobs for women.

12.2 Recommendations

- **Breadth of studies**

The main finding of this thesis was the mismatch between women's educational output in general, and in TEVT in particular, with the needs of the private sector in Saudi Arabia. There was an increasing number of unemployed Saudi women who graduated from universities (54%) with subjects not needed or who finished high school and were unable to continue with higher education (22%). The Seventh Saudi Development Plan (2000-2004: 297) expected that, at the end of 2004, a cumulative total of 490,000 total students will be enrolled in higher education with 52% of these being women. The plan also expected the cumulative number of graduating students at the end of 2004 will be 273,450 with women accounting for 53% of these. This gives 146,050 as the total number of women graduating over the period of the plan. This figure represents about half of the total number of women employed in the Saudi labour market today. It is obvious that unless educational opportunities are developed for women in line with the labour market needs this imbalance will only get worse. The recommendation put forward is that TEVT should be given more priority and status, and expanded to reduce the load on universities and, at the same time, to match the educational output with the needs of

the private sector within the Islamic framework. There was a suitable model in place for the males in Saudi Arabia (see Chapter Five) and perhaps this could be modified to be suitable for development for females. It is recommended that any model developed should take into consideration the role of national and non-national labour to increase the employment of women in the labour force.

- **Depth of study**

The graduates from the TEVT institutes should be national women qualified to function as trainers and teachers. TEVT for women in Saudi Arabia is still in its infancy in comparison with developed and developing countries which give more importance to this field of education. In Iran, a model was developed and the number of women enrolled in technical and vocational in 1999 was 40% of the total students enrolled in technical and vocational education.

- **Applicability of employment**

Regarding the Saudi Seventh Development Plan, 53% of the total enrolled students from higher education at the end of this plan will be women. It is incumbent on the education authority that guidelines are available for intermediate and secondary school students so they are aware that the subjects offered match the needs of the labour market. A greater awareness of the value of TEVT is required, particularly at the intermediate level, and this awareness should bring in the Islamic value of education within the context of Islamic Sharia'a and the positive role played by women in the labour force.

- **Co-operation between public and private sectors**

The results of the questionnaire have led to a recommendation that co-operation between the private and the public sector towards developing women's education and training is necessary. This is because the private sector is the major source of employment which is forecast to employ 95% of the national labour by the end of 2004.

According to Islamic Sharia'a, women are prohibited from travelling alone from one city to another without a guardian. Therefore, Saudi women prefer to seek employment within their own city. The private sector should take a greater role in investing in the development of women's employment and creating more job

opportunities in the private sector within each region. Recently, the government invited the private sector to contribute to higher education. Up to now more than one hundred applications have been accepted in different locations. While this will create more job opportunities for women in various fields, the graduates from such institutes should be offered employment within their own localities, according to resources, facilities and Islamic Sharia'a.

- **Flexible employment in the private sector**

According to Islamic Sharia'a, women's employment must not affect their primary role as wife and mother, therefore part-time employment is one of the most important factors in developing women's employment in the private sector. The results of the questionnaire have led to a recommendation for part-time employment to be made available. Part-time employment would give married women the opportunity to fulfil their primary role and, at the same time, contribute in the economic activity within the private sector. This model of part-time employment is found in developed and developing countries which give women the flexibility they need in work, as well as the opportunity to work from home.

- **Facilities to improve women's employment**

Also, Islamic Sharia'a allows women to work provided certain conditions are met, e.g. that the environment is suitable and childcare centres are available. Such facilities are available in developed countries and they would be needed in the private sector for women's employment to be developed in Saudi Arabia.

Transportation, as highlighted from the results of the questionnaire, was one of the main obstacles to women's employment in the private sector in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, providing transportation for women employees in the private sector is a necessity, as public transport is not sufficiently developed for this to be a suitable option for women.

- **Job market information**

The Saudi women respondents highlighted the dearth of existing labour market information and asserted that the services of labour offices did not meet their expectations. According to the anticipated growth of women's employment in Saudi Arabia, a Department for Women's Affairs should be established within the

government labour offices to be responsible for the employment of women in the private sector. Although women applicants had a positive attitude towards using educational institutions for job applicants the private sector does not utilise this route. Graduation units within women's institutions should be established to give guidelines for jobs which are available for women and to encourage more co-operation between the institution and the private sector. These facilities have proved successful in male institutions and in Iran as well.

In summary, improvements are needed in all these areas if more women are to be employed in the Saudi private sector.

12.3 Recommendations for Iran

Iran was used as a benchmark in this study for Saudi Arabia. Iran has a lot in common with Saudi Arabia. The research revealed similar problems to Saudi Arabia but demonstrated that improvements are possible in all the areas studied without major changes.

There are some recommendations for developing women's employment in the private sector, some of which have been explained with the recommendations for Saudi Arabia, such as the lack of facilities for women, unsuitable environment within the private sector, and a lack of part-time work which results in women preferring to work in the public rather than the private sector. Therefore, the researcher makes the following recommendations for the development of women's employment in the private sector in Iran:

- Part-time employment and working from home should be given more importance.
- Childcare facilities within the private sector should be improved; most respondents considered this necessary.
- Although TEVT was provided and developed recently the Iranian respondents requested this factor be developed further to give more importance in the private sector to utilising emerging technology. Still some women's institutes face a shortage of qualified women, especially in TEVT, which is holding back development in certain fields.
- Although work in textile and carpet industries is more suitable for women than for men, the majority of jobs in these sectors are still occupied by men. Therefore,

women should be given priority in these sectors and the provision of a suitable environment for women would increase their participation.

12.4 Further Study

This multi-disciplinary research needs to be continued to help develop women's education and employment in the private sector in Saudi Arabia. The researcher with other academics from Saudi Arabia will, in particular, be looking at the concept of non-traditional jobs for women in fourteen regions of Saudi Arabia in a funded study. This will mean further investigation of the educational system, the skills needed and being produced and the attitudes of women and the private sector in these fourteen regions.

Although there is very little evidence in the private sector of employed and unemployed women choosing non-traditional jobs such as machine maintenance, electrical services or security, the researcher feels these jobs could form part of the two-year's study mentioned above, especially as the subject requires some priority. If the suitability of these jobs could be reviewed for women and subsequently developed the tragedy that happened in Makkah (early 2002), where fourteen schoolgirls died due to an electrical fault in a private secondary school, might be prevented in the future.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

General Background Information of Saudi Arabia

GENERAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF SAUDI ARABIA

Geographical Aspects of Saudi Arabia

Location and landscape

Saudi Arabia is located in the extreme south-western part of Asia. It is the largest country in the Middle East. It is bordered to the north by Kuwait, Iraq and Jordan, and the Arabian Gulf, United Arab Emirates, Bahrain and Qatar on the east. To the south are Yemen and the Sultanate of Oman, while on the western boundary is the Red Sea. Saudi Arabia has a land area of approximately 2.25 million square kilometres (Ministry of Planning, Statistical Report, 1996: 15). In Saudi Arabia there are four administrative regions. They are distributed into: Najd, in the middle of the country which contains the capital Riyadh; Hijaz, which contains the two holy mosques of Makkah and Madina; the Asir region of the Sarawat Mountains of the Red Sea, and the oil area in the eastern region.

Climate

The climate of Saudi Arabia varies from one region to another because of its various topographical features. In most parts of the country, rainfall usually occurs during spring and winter. The summer is very hot and dry, especially in the central region, where the temperature reaches a maximum of 112 degrees Fahrenheit. Winter is cool, with occasional temperatures nearing freezing in the central and northern parts of the country. The coastal strips are under the influence of the adjoining seas; the relative humidity is usually higher there than in the interior areas.

Main cities

Riyadh represents the heart and the capital of Saudi Arabia; about three million people live in the city. The city is the centre of all the official governmental offices, ministries and political offices. Therefore, the city is the main political and commercial centre. Jeddah is the second largest city in Saudi Arabia in terms of land surface area and is a very important commercial centre. It is considered the pathway of the Kingdom to the Red Sea coast. This city has the largest Islamic assembly after Makkah City, which is the city of pilgrimages. Dammam is considered to be the pathway of Saudi Arabia to the Arabic Gulf coast. It is located in the eastern region of the country; it is the oil-producing and largest industrial region. It is the centre of

many industrial and manufacturing companies and the most popular area for the petroleum industry.

Religion

Saudi Arabia is an example of an Islamic State governed by the teachings of the Holy Quran and Sunnah; the Saudi people have quite a different culture from the Western world. Islam is the country's religion. The followers of Islam believe in one GOD. The Islamic legal system is based on the Quran, the holy book of the Islamic faith, and the Sunnah, the sayings of the prophet Mohammed. The Quran and the Sunnah are in Arabic, which is also the official language of the people of Saudi Arabia.

Social Structure

Saudi Arabia has been undergoing changes in all aspects of its social life, especially after the discovery of oil when major changes occurred to the structure of the economy. Although these changes have occurred, it still retains an essentially traditional character. The tribe is the main unit of social organisation in the country. Kinship ties and recognition of mutual obligation within the kin group are principal norms in Saudi social organisation. Therefore, the family is the centre of the social structure, and loyalty to the family overshadows all other obligations. Within the family all individual members participate in major family decisions, but the final decision is under the father's control. Women are increasingly being consulted in the decision-making process.

In general, Saudi Arabia has three different types of structure, each with its own social and economic conditions. The first is the desert nomads (Bedouins); they live in tents and move from place to place looking for grazing land for their animals. The second group is the population that lives in villages; the major occupation of these individuals is farming. The third group lives in the cities. The social differences among classes are clearer in the cities than in other communities. This urban population presents a more complex social and economic structure than either the nomadic or village group.

The Political System

Abdulaziz Al-Saud, who began his campaign with the taking of Riyadh from the representative, founded Saudi Arabia. In 1927, after taking Makkah, Abdulaziz proclaimed his title to be “The King of Al-Hijaz and Sultan of Najd and its Dependencies”. In 1932, he declared the unified Kingdom to be “The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia”. King Abdulaziz died in 1953. Major events that took place during his reign were the unification of the country and the discovery of oil in 1938. After his death, his sons took over. At present, the King of Saudi Arabia is King Fahad.

The King and close members of the royal family occupy key positions and are heads of various departments in the government. All positions are filled by appointment, there is no vote. Recently a Shura Majlis (Consultative Council) was established to give consultancy on issues facing the country to the Council of Ministers.

The Saudi Economy

The economy of Saudi Arabia is dominated by four main characteristics: its dependence on oil; its commitment to a free economy; its manpower problems; and its rapid progress in all sectors (First Development Plan, 1970: 21).

The commitment of Saudi Arabia to a free economy derives from the teachings of the nation’s religious code and its long-standing social traditions. Rapid growth has brought with it a growing demand for manpower at all levels. This demand has inevitably out-paced the supply. As a result, large numbers of foreign personnel are employed in many important areas of the economy, particularly in technical and vocational fields.

Before the discovery of oil in 1938, Saudi Arabia was one of the poorest countries in the world, with a harsh climate and mainly desert land. The country depended on an agricultural and pastoral economy, based on cultivating crops such as dates, wheat and barley, and on raising sheep and camels. Trade was the most important activity in the major towns. In general, agriculture, animal husbandry, and limited commercial activities formed the backbone of the economy in the Saudi pre-oil era.

Since the discovery of oil, many changes have taken place in a short time. Oil has been imperative to the development of Saudi Arabia despite of the country’s successes in expanding the industrial and agricultural sectors of the economy.

The industrial development in Saudi Arabia has concentrated on the petrochemical industry at new industrial sites in Jubail and Yanbu. Other industries include the production of cement, steel, fertilisers, building materials, food, etc.

In Saudi Arabia the structure of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is very much influenced by both volume and price changes in the international oil market. However, the over all trend since 1970 has been of an increasing contribution by the non-oil sector, such that by 1996 the oil sector contributed around 40% of GDP and the non-oil sector contributed around 60%. This is in contrast with, for example, 1984 when the oil sector still provided 64% of total output values, with 36% attributable to the non-oil sector (Presley, 1997: 8).

Features of the Saudi economy

To highlight the labour market in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), it is necessary to display the essential features which affect the economy with concern to demand and supply. This may be an approach to the study of the labour market.

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is characterised by certain social, economic and population features which make it different from other developed and developing countries.

The economy of Saudi Arabia is included within the group of developing economies. Although it has relatively high mean individual income, due to the volatile petroleum market, it is a retarded economy.

The economy of Saudi Arabia is limited by its narrow production base. The industrial sector is still relatively small, with limited capacity, and consists of the petrochemical industries, medium industries and industries concerned with materials of construction. Therefore, the oil sector is the principal field of economic activity in Saudi Arabia. Petroleum and by-products continue to be the backbone of the economy and the main source of wealth and income in Saudi Arabia.

The income of the petroleum sector determines the movement and the capacity of social and economic development. Hence, it is the most powerful and influential factor in the social and economic fields in the country. The petroleum cycle continues as the principal resource in the process of development. Efforts spent during the past years to develop other industries have led to an increase in the total production for Saudi Arabia.

The experience of the last few years has illustrated that the social cost of

development is very high in Saudi Arabia in comparison to other countries. This is due to its dependence upon importing manpower, which exceeded the actual requirements of development. This led to the presence of what is called the 'surplus of foreign manpower'. This is due to the types of production of dense areas of manpower in various sectors; this leads to concealed unemployment.

The increase of foreign manpower during previous years was due to the unsuitability of national manpower for development and the volume of national manpower in aspects of quality and quantity. In addition to this expansion in employment, in some fields machines can replace human actions. Therefore, an increase has been seen in the relative importance of skilled foreign manpower. Hence the relative importance of foreign inhabitants is compared to the decline in the relative importance of native inhabitants during the last development plan (2000-2005). Their relative significance in influencing the various economic activities and sectors has also declined.

APPENDIX 2

1. Questionnaires to business managers (in English)
2. Questionnaires to employed and unemployed qualified women (in English)
3. Questionnaires to Saudi business managers (in Arabic)
4. Questionnaires to employed and unemployed Saudi qualified women (in Arabic)
5. Questionnaires to Iranian business managers (in Farsi)
6. Questionnaires to employed and unemployed Iranian qualified women (in Farsi)

Questionnaire for Business Managers

Dear Business Manager

This questionnaire focuses on women's employment in the private sector from the viewpoint of business managers in the private sector.

This study attempts to investigate factor affecting the under utilisation qualified women in the private sector and to suggest alternative recommendations for development of women's employment in private sector in Saudi Arabia using Iran as benchmark.

In order to complete the study we are asking for your opinions and suggestions. We appreciate your co-operation.

Researcher

Abdullah. S. Al- Shetaiwi

Loughborough University

Business School

UK

First: Public Information

1. Type of company? Please tick one.

<input type="checkbox"/> Sole proprietorship	<input type="checkbox"/> Public (stock company)	<input type="checkbox"/> Others
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2. Age. Please specify

Under 5 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
5 to less 10 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
10 years and over	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Company main activities. Please specify

Agriculture	<input type="checkbox"/>	Commerce	<input type="checkbox"/>
Industry	<input type="checkbox"/>	Services	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. Capital of The company (please specify if possible Saudi Riyal)

(.....) <input type="checkbox"/> SR

5. How many people are employed in your company? Please specific

<i>Employees</i>	<i>National</i>	<i>Non- national</i>
Men		
Women		

6. What kind of work do women do? Please give number

<i>Type of job</i>	National	Non- national
<i>Supervision</i>		
<i>Administration</i>		
<i>Technology</i>		
<i>Technical</i>		
<i>Vocational</i>		
<i>Unqualified</i>		
<i>Professional</i>		

7. How are woman employed in your company? Please tick one.

<input type="checkbox"/> Full time	<input type="checkbox"/> Part time	Both <input type="checkbox"/>
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8. Does your company provide separate places for women from men?

Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
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9. Do you provide the following facilities for women?

<i>Facilities</i>	Yes	No
Childcare centre	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Free transport	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

15. Do you prefer male employees to female employees in the same field?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	<input type="checkbox"/> I don't know
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16. Do you think your company needs woman employees?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	<input type="checkbox"/> I don't know
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17. If your answer to question 16 was yes please indicate your opinion on the following: The company needs women employees because:

	<i>Reasons</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Don't know</i>
1	Women have the skills for a specific task or work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Women are disciplined and work seriously.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Women understand the value of work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Women accept instructions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Women accept a lower salary than the average male workers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	There are shortages of qualified national males	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Other reason _____ _____			

Third : Women's field of work and Job Opportunities

18. What do you think is the most important field of production for women to contribute in the private sector? Please specify one or more if applicable

<i>Field</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>
Agriculture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Industry	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Commerce	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Services	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Craft	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Technology	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

19. Which 10 jobs in the private sector do you think are currently needed to occupy by women? Please select from the following:

Job	Yes	Job	Yes	Job	Yes
Computing services	<input type="checkbox"/>	Selling	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agriculture	<input type="checkbox"/>
Business	<input type="checkbox"/>	Carpentry	<input type="checkbox"/>	Machine maintenance	<input type="checkbox"/>
Accountancy	<input type="checkbox"/>	Hairdressing & beauty	<input type="checkbox"/>	Journalism	<input type="checkbox"/>
Economic	<input type="checkbox"/>	Interior decorators	<input type="checkbox"/>	Security	<input type="checkbox"/>
Electronics	<input type="checkbox"/>	Secretarial affairs	<input type="checkbox"/>	Education	<input type="checkbox"/>
Electrical services	<input type="checkbox"/>	Craft	<input type="checkbox"/>	Hotel services	<input type="checkbox"/>
Textiles	<input type="checkbox"/>	Child care	<input type="checkbox"/>	Food preparation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sewing	<input type="checkbox"/>	Social services	<input type="checkbox"/>	Retailing	<input type="checkbox"/>
Banking	<input type="checkbox"/>	Medicine	<input type="checkbox"/>	Others -----	<input type="checkbox"/>
Marketing	<input type="checkbox"/>	Reception duties	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>

Fourth: Women in Technical and Vocational area

20. Do you think women's participation in technical and vocational fields in the private sector is satisfactory ?

Yes No I don't know

21. Do you have knowledge about technical education and vocational training for women?

Yes No

22. If your answer to question 21 was yes do you think technical and vocational education institutions are able to graduate qualified women to the private sector?

Yes No I do not know

23. If your answer to question 22 was no please give your opinion on the following: the reason may be because:

Reasons	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
A lack of co-operation between the TEVT institutions and the private sector	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
There is a shortage of facilities in TEVT institutions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A lack of administration and planning in TEVT policies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A mismatch between TEVT output and private sector needs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A lack of qualified women staff in TEVT institutions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Fifth: Factors affecting women's employment in the private sector

24. Please indicate your opinion on the following: factors preventing women's employment in the private sector are:

	<i>Reasons</i>	Agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1	Society has a negative attitude toward women working outside the home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Women face difficulties moving from one job to another	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Some available jobs in mixing environment with men	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Women face difficulties moving from one city to another	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	There are shortages of trained and skilled women in comparison with private sector needs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Women require extended holidays according to their status in the family.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Women accept higher salaries than the average male workers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

25. Please indicate your opinion the following factors would encourage women's employment in the private sector

	<i>Reasons</i>	Agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1	Increase job salaries and rewards	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Reduce working hours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Practise part-time working systems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Change society's attitudes towards women working outside the home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Increase childcare facilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Provide free transport	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Improve the relationship between public and private sectors in women's education and training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Give TEVT more importance	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Improve and update labour legislation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Sixth; Open questions

26. Do you think there is a lack of research on women's employment in the private sector?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No s	<input type="checkbox"/> I don't know
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27. If your answer to Question 26 was yes what future research or studies do you think are needed to develop women's employment in the private sector?

Any suggestions you want to add related to this research

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

Questionnaire to woman employees and unemployed women

Dear Respondent

This questionnaire focuses on women's employment in the private sector from the viewpoint of women employees in the private sector and unemployed qualified women.

This study attempts to investigate factor affecting the under utilisation qualified women in the private sector and to suggest alternative recommendations for development of women's employment in private sector in Saudi Arabia using Iran as bench mark.

In order to complete the study we are asking for your opinions and suggestions. We appreciate your co-operation.

Researcher

Abdullah. S. Al- Shetaiwi
Loughborough University
Business School
UK

First: General information

a. Personal Information

1. Marital Status. Please specify

<input type="checkbox"/> Single	<input type="checkbox"/> Married	<input type="checkbox"/> Divorce	Widow <input type="checkbox"/>
---------------------------------	----------------------------------	----------------------------------	--------------------------------

2. Age. Please specify

Under 20 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	From 35 to less than 45 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
20 to less than 25 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	45 years and over	<input type="checkbox"/>
25 to less than 35 years	<input type="checkbox"/>		

3. If you are not single, how many children do you have? Please specify

There are no children	<input type="checkbox"/>	3 to 5 children	<input type="checkbox"/>
1 or 2 children	<input type="checkbox"/>	More than 5 children	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. If you have children how many are under school age? Please specify —

b. Family Information

5. Family house. Please specify

1. Owner	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Tenant	<input type="checkbox"/>
3 Share	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. Father's job status? Please specify

Employed in public sector	<input type="checkbox"/>	Retired	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employed in private sector	<input type="checkbox"/>	Unemployed or disabled	<input type="checkbox"/>
Self employed	<input type="checkbox"/>		

7. Family monthly income. Please specify

Less than 3000 *SR	(1,000,000 IR)	<input type="checkbox"/>
3000 to less than 5000 SR	(1,000,000 to less 3,000,000 IR)	<input type="checkbox"/>
5000 to less than 10,000 SR	(3,000,000 to less 5,000,000 IR)	<input type="checkbox"/>
10,000 SR and over	(5,000,000 IR and over)	<input type="checkbox"/>

1\$ = 3.75 SR

1\$ = 8000 IR

8. In your family do you have any of the following services? If yes Please specify

1. Personal driver <input type="checkbox"/>	2. Female servant <input type="checkbox"/>
---	--

c. Education and Training

9. What is your highest qualification? Please specify

PhD or MSc certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>
University certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>
Diploma under university	<input type="checkbox"/>
Secondary certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>
Technical and vocational education certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>

10. What is your subject? Please specify (questions 10, 11 exclude women who have a general school certificate):

1. Business	<input type="checkbox"/>	6. Education	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Home economic	<input type="checkbox"/>	7. Computer Science	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Humanities	<input type="checkbox"/>	8. Culture and religion	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Medicine	<input type="checkbox"/>	9. Engineering	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Math and physics	<input type="checkbox"/>	10. Others specify ----- -----	

11. What was the reason for choosing your field of study? Please specify from the following reasons:

	<i>Reasons</i>	Yes	No
1	Personal interest	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Market need in the public sector	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	No option for other subjects	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Market need in the private sector	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Good social status after graduation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Nature of work after graduation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Other reason please specify..... -----		

<i>d. Women's choosing work</i>

12. What are the reasons behind you working or looking for work? Please specify from the following reasons:

	<i>Reasons</i>	Yes	No
1	To support the family's income	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	For personal financial needs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	For social and cultural needs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	To be independent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	To support the national economy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Other reason please specify		

13. What sort of work do you prefer? Please specify

	<i>Sort of work</i>	Yes	No
1	Full time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Part time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

14. Do you prefer working in the private sector than public sector?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
------------------------------	-----------------------------

15. Today, more qualified women are employed in the public sector than private sector. Please give three important reasons why you think that is

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

***This Page (5) related to Unemployed women
If you are woman employee please go to question 22***

***e. Unemployed women and private
sector***

16. If you are an unemployed woman did you attend any training courses after your studies?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
------------------------------	-----------------------------

17. If your answer to Question 16 was yes please specify the course you attended?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

18. If you are an unemployed woman how long have you been looking for a job? Please specify

Less than 1 year	<input type="checkbox"/>
1 to less than 3 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
3 years and over	<input type="checkbox"/>

19. If you are an unemployed woman have you been trying to get a job in the private sector?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
------------------------------	-----------------------------

20. If you are an unemployed woman would you accept work in the private sector if you found a job?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
------------------------------	-----------------------------

21. if your answer was yes. Please specify four preferred jobs would you occupied one of them in the private sector?

- 1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4 _____

This page related to women employees if you are unemployed woman please go to question 28 next page

F. Woman employees and private sector environment

22. Which of the following occupations are you currently employed in your company? Please specify

Supervision	<input type="checkbox"/>	Vocational	<input type="checkbox"/>
Administration	<input type="checkbox"/>	Professional	<input type="checkbox"/>
Technical	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other	<input type="checkbox"/>

23. How long have you been engaged in this profession? Please specify

Less than 2 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
2 to less than 5 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
5 to less than 10 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
10 years and over	<input type="checkbox"/>

24. What is your current salary (monthly)? Please specify one (by IR)

Less than 1000 *SR	(1,000,000 IR)	<input type="checkbox"/>
1000 to less than 3000 SR	(1,000,000 to less than 3,000,000 IR)	<input type="checkbox"/>
3000 to less than 5,000 SR	(3,000,000 to less than 5,000,000 IR)	<input type="checkbox"/>
5,000 SR and over	(5,000,000 IR and over)	<input type="checkbox"/>

1\$ = 3.75 SR

1\$ = 8000 IR

25. How is your working schedule in the company? Please specify

Full time Part time Other

26. In your company do you work separately from men?

Yes No

27. Does your company provide the following facilities?

Facilities	Yes	No
Childcare centre	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Free transport	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Training centre	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

All the following questions for both woman employees and unemployed women. please answer all of them

Second: Women attitudes towards employment in the private sector.

28. Do you think it is difficult for women to get information about available jobs in the private sector?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
------------------------------	-----------------------------

29. Women use different methods to look for a job in the private sector. What difficult methods did you use?

	<i>Methods</i>	Agree	Disagree	Did not use
1	Newspapers or magazines	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Educational institutions for women	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Government labour offices	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Private advertising agencies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Personal contact with companies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Others please specify-----			

30. Do you think there is a need for women's participation in the labour market?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	<input type="checkbox"/> I don't know
------------------------------	-----------------------------	---------------------------------------

31. Do you think the employment system in the private sector helps and encourages women's employment?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	<input type="checkbox"/> I don't know
------------------------------	-----------------------------	---------------------------------------

32. Do you think private sector legislation gives equal opportunity conditions to both male and female employees?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	<input type="checkbox"/> I don't know
------------------------------	-----------------------------	---------------------------------------

33. Do you think the private sector prefer male employees to female employees in the same field?

<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	<input type="checkbox"/> I don't know
------------------------------	-----------------------------	---------------------------------------

34. Please indicate your opinion on the following: The private sector companies employ women because:

	<i>Reasons</i>	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
1	Women have the skills for a specific task or work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Women are disciplined and work seriously.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Women understand the value of work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Women accept instructions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Women accept lower salaries than the average male workers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	There are shortages of national qualified males	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Third: Women and job opportunities in the private sector

35. What do you think is the most important field of production for women to contribute to the private sector? Please specify one or more if applicable

<i>Field</i>	Yes	No
Agriculture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Industry	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Commerce	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Services	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Craft	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Technology	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

36. Which 10 jobs in the private sector do you prefer to work? Please select from the following:

Job	Yes	Job	Yes	Job	Yes
Computing services	<input type="checkbox"/>	Selling	<input type="checkbox"/>	Agriculture	<input type="checkbox"/>
Business	<input type="checkbox"/>	Carpentry	<input type="checkbox"/>	Machine maintenance	<input type="checkbox"/>
Accountancy	<input type="checkbox"/>	Hairdressing & beauty	<input type="checkbox"/>	Journalism	<input type="checkbox"/>
Economic	<input type="checkbox"/>	Interior decorators	<input type="checkbox"/>	Security	<input type="checkbox"/>
Electronics	<input type="checkbox"/>	Secretarial affairs	<input type="checkbox"/>	Education	<input type="checkbox"/>
Electrical services	<input type="checkbox"/>	Craft	<input type="checkbox"/>	Hotel services	<input type="checkbox"/>
Textiles	<input type="checkbox"/>	Child care	<input type="checkbox"/>	Food preparation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sewing	<input type="checkbox"/>	Social services	<input type="checkbox"/>	Retailing	<input type="checkbox"/>
Banking	<input type="checkbox"/>	Medicine	<input type="checkbox"/>		
Marketing	<input type="checkbox"/>	Reception duties	<input type="checkbox"/>		

Forth: Women in technical and vocational area

37. Do you think women's participation in technical and vocational fields in the private sector is satisfactory ?

Yes No I don't know

38. Do you have knowledge about technical and vocational education for women?

Yes No

39. If your answer to question 38 was yes do you think technical and vocational education for women are able to graduate qualified women to the private sector?

Yes No I do not know

40. If your answer to question 39 was no please give your opinion on the following: the reason may be because:

Reasons	Agree	Disagree	Don't know
A lack of co-operation between the TEVT institutions and the private sector	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
There is a shortage of facilities in TEVT institutions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A lack of administration and planning in TEVT policies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A mismatch between TEVT output and private sector needs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
A lack of qualified women staff in TEVT institutions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Fifth: factors affecting women's employment in the private sector

41. Please indicate your opinion on the following: Women face difficulty-getting jobs in the private sector because;

	<i>Reasons</i>	Agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1	Society has a negative attitude toward women working outside the home	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Women face difficulties moving from one job to another	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Some available jobs in mixing environment with men	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Women face difficulties moving from one city to another	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	There are shortages of trained and skilled women in comparison with private sector needs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Women require extended holidays according to their status in the family.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Women accept higher salaries than the average male workers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

42. Please indicate your opinion the following factors would encourage women's employment in the private sector

	<i>Reasons</i>	Agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1	Increase job salaries and rewards-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Reduce working hours	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Practise part-time working systems	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Change society's attitudes towards women working outside the home.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Increase childcare facilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Provide free transport	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Improve the relationship between public and private sectors in women's education and training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Give TEVT more importance	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Improve and update labour legislation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Sixth: Open questions

43. Do you think there is a lack of research on women's employment in the private sector?

Yes No s I don't know

44. If your answer to Question 43 was yes what further research or studies do you think are needed?

45. What are the mains reasons behind the demand on non-national workers for women's jobs in the Saudi private sector?

Anything you want to add or any suggestions related to this study?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

رأي مدراء القطاع الخاص حول معوقات توظيف المرأة السعودية بالقطاع الخاص
بصفة عامة وفي المجالين الفني والمهني على وجه الخصوص

المحترم

سعادة مدير عام

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

الاستبيان الذي بين يديك عبارة عن جزء من رسالة دكتوراه في مجال إدارة الأعمال والتي تهدف إلى معرفة " أهم المعوقات التي أنت إلى ضعف توظيف المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص بصفة عامة وفي المجالين الفني والمهني على وجه الخصوص والتي أنت إلى استمرار الطلب على العمالة الأجنبية النسائية أو الرجال الأجانب الذين يمارس أعمالاً هي في الأصل من خصوصية المرأة". كما سوف تحاول الدراسة وضع الحلول المناسبة في حل مثل هذه المشكلة من خلال الدراسة الميدانية وتجارب الدول الأخرى بما يتوافق مع الشريعة الإسلامية. لهذا فقد تم اختيار منشآتكم كواحدة من الشركات والمؤسسات السعودية العاملة في القطاع الخاص للإجابة على هذا الاستبيان المرفق والذي سوف يستخدم لإغراض البحث إضافة إلى أن الإجابة سوف تأخذ السرية التامة علماً بان ذكر الاسم ليس ضرورياً إن أردتم ذلك.

الإجابة على الأسئلة والعبارات المرفقة سوف يكون لها قيمة علمية وتأثير على نتائج البحث. لذا أرجوا من سعادتكم التكرم بالإجابة بواقعية وصدق حتى تكون النتائج ممثلة للواقع.

شاكراً ومقدراً تعاونكم مع إخوانكم الباحثين

الباحث

عبد الله بن صالح الشثوي
جامعة لغيرا - قسم إدارة الأعمال
بريطانيا

أولاً: معلومات عامة

١ نوع المنشأة:

<input type="checkbox"/> فردية	<input type="checkbox"/> مساهمة	<input type="checkbox"/> أخرى
--------------------------------	---------------------------------	-------------------------------

٢ عمر المنشأة

<input type="checkbox"/> أقل من ٥ سنوات	<input type="checkbox"/> أكثر من ١٠ سنوات
<input type="checkbox"/> من ٥ سنوات إلى ١٠ سنوات	

٣ نشاط المنشأة الرئيسي:

<input type="checkbox"/> زراعي	<input type="checkbox"/> تجاري
<input type="checkbox"/> صناعي	<input type="checkbox"/> خدمي

٤ رأس مال المنشأة الحالي، من فضلك حدد الرقم إن أمكن ذلك بالريال السعودي
() ريال سعودي

٥ كم عدد العاملين لديكم؟ من فضلك حدد العدد وفقاً للآتي:

إجمالي الأجانب	إجمالي السعوديون	العمالة
		ذكور
		إناث

إذا كان لا يوجد لديكم عمالة نسائية من فضلك انتقل إلى السؤال رقم (١٢)

٦ من فضلك حدد أعداد العمالات لديكم وفقاً للوظائف التالية

نوع الوظيفة	سعودية	أجنبية	نوع الوظيفة	سعودية	أجنبية
إشرافية			مهنية		
إدارية			بدون مؤهل		
تقنية			أخرى		
فنية					

٧ ما طبيعة دوام النساء لديكم؟

نوع العمل	نعم	لا
١ دوام كامل	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢ دوام جزئي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣ الجمع بين الاثنین	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

٨ هل توفرون بيئة عمل مناسبة للمرأة بعيدا عن مزاحمة الرجال؟

نعم لا

٩ هل توفرون الخدمات التالية للنساء العاملات؟

خدمات	نعم	لا
تدريب	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
وسيلة نقل مجانية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
أماكن حضانة للأطفال	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

ثانيا: قبول المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص

١٠ هل تواجهون صعوبة في الحصول على معلومات واقية عن النساء الباحثات عن عمل عند الرغبة في توظيفهن؟

نعم لا

١١ إذا كانت الإجابة في السؤال ١٠ بنعم ماهي وسيلة الاتصال المستخدمة من قبلكم للإعلان عن الوظائف النسائية الشاغرة؟ من فضلك حدد من الوسائل التالية :

نوع الوسيلة	موافق	غير موافق
١ الصحف أو المجلات المحلية		
٢ المؤسسات التعليمية أو التدريبية النسائية		
٣ مكاتب العمل الحكومية		
٤ مكاتب التوظيف الأهلية		
٥ الاتصال مباشرة بالنساء الباحثات عن عمل		
أخرى حدد -----		

١٢ هل تعتقدون أن هناك حاجة لمشاركة المرأة السعودية في سوق العمل في المملكة؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

١٣ هل تعتقدون أن نظام التوظيف بالقطاع الخاص يساعد ويشجع توظيف المرأة السعودية؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

١٤ هل تعتقدون أن نظام العمل والعمل في المملكة يمنح مميزات متكافئة بين العاملين والعملات في القطاع الخاص؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

١٥ هل تعتقدون أن منشآت القطاع الخاص تفضل توظيف الرجل على المرأة في نفس المجال والمؤهل؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

١٦ هل منشآتكم بحاجة لعمالة نسائية سعودية في الوقت الحالي؟

نعم لا

١٧ إذا كانت الإجابة في السؤال ١٦ بنعم اجب على الفقرة التالية:
هناك عدة عوامل تجعل القطاع الخاص يقبل على توظيف المرأة السعودية أهمها: من فضلك حدد وفقاً لوجهة نظرك من الآتي:

	موافق	غير موافق	لا اعرف
١	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٤	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٦	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٧	أخرى حدد: -----		

ثالثاً: المرأة السعودية والفرص الوظيفية في القطاع الخاص

١٨- ما هي من وجهة نظرك أهم المجالات المناسبة للمرأة السعودية للمساهمة في عملية الإحلال والسعودة في قطاع المرأة في القطاع الخاص؟ يمكن اختيار أكثر من مجال من المجالات التالية :

المجال		المجال		المجال	
المجال التجاري	<input type="checkbox"/>	المجال الخدمي	<input type="checkbox"/>	المجال التقني	<input type="checkbox"/>
المجال الصناعي	<input type="checkbox"/>	المجال الزراعي	<input type="checkbox"/>	المجال الحرفي	<input type="checkbox"/>

١٩- من فضلك حدد أهم (١٠) وظائف مازال هناك حاجة لشغلها بعمالة نسائية وطنية بالقطاع الخاص السعودي مع مراعاة عدم الاختلاط مع الرجال؟

الوظيفة		الوظيفة		الوظيفة	
حاسب آلي	<input type="checkbox"/>	بيع بالتجزئة	<input type="checkbox"/>	زراعة	<input type="checkbox"/>
إدارة أعمال	<input type="checkbox"/>	تجارة	<input type="checkbox"/>	صيانة الآلات والمعدات	<input type="checkbox"/>
عماسية	<input type="checkbox"/>	تجميل نسائي	<input type="checkbox"/>	صحافة	<input type="checkbox"/>
اقتصاد	<input type="checkbox"/>	ديكور وزخرفة	<input type="checkbox"/>	أمن صناعي	<input type="checkbox"/>
إلكترونيات	<input type="checkbox"/>	أعمال سكرتارية	<input type="checkbox"/>	تربية وتعليم	<input type="checkbox"/>
صيانة كهربائية	<input type="checkbox"/>	حرف يدوية	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات فندقية	<input type="checkbox"/>
تطريز و أعمال نسج	<input type="checkbox"/>	رعاية أطفال	<input type="checkbox"/>	صناعة أطعمة	<input type="checkbox"/>
تفصيل وخياطة	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات اجتماعية	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات البيع	<input type="checkbox"/>
خدمات بنكية	<input type="checkbox"/>	طب وخدمات طبية مساعدة	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>
تسويق	<input type="checkbox"/>	وظائف استقبال	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>

رابعاً: المرأة السعودية في العمل الفني و المهني في القطاع الخاص

٢٠ هل تعتقدون أن مشاركة المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص في المجالين الفني و المهني ضعيفة؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

٢١ هل يوجد لديكم خلفية عن برامج التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني التي تقدم للمرأة السعودية من قبل الجهات الحكومية؟

نعم لا

٢٢ إذا كانت الإجابة في السؤال رقم (٢١) بنعم ، هل تعتقدون أن المؤسسات التعليمية النسائية الحكومية في المملكة قادرة على تخريج فتاة سعودية مؤهلة للعمل في القطاع الخاص في المجالين الفني والمهني في المجالات التي تتناسب مع ظروف المرأة؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

٢٣ إذا كانت الإجابة في السؤال (٢٢) بلا ، فعلاذة يكون السبب راجع إلى

العوامل	موافق	غير موافق	لا اعرف
١ ضعف العلاقة بين القطاعين العام والخاص في مجال التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢ نقص التجهيزات التي توفرها مؤسسات التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني الحكومية للمرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣ ضعف التخطيط والإدارة في المجالين الفني والمهني للمرأة .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٤ عدم توافق مخرجات التعليم الفني و التدريب المهني للمرأة مع حاجة القطاع الخاص.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥ نقص الكفاءات البشرية النسائية في التعليم الفني و التدريب المهني	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

خامساً: : العوامل المؤثرة بتوظيف المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص

٢٤ فضلك ما هو رأيك بالآتي:
هناك صعوبة في توظيف المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص السعودي على الوظائف التي يمكن للمرأة السعودية ممارستها بعيدا عن مزاحمة الرجال بسبب ...

العوامل	موافق	غير موافق	لا اعرف
١ عدم تقبل المجتمع عمل المرأة خارج البيت .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢ عدم ملاءمة بيئة القطاع الخاص للمرأة السعودية (اغلب الوظائف تتطلب الاختلاط مع الرجال	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣ صعوبة انتقال المرأة من وظيفة إلى أخرى .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٤ صعوبة انتقال المرأة من مدينة إلى أخرى .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥ تعدد الإجازات التي تحتاجها المرأة وفقاً لظروفها العائلية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٦ عدم توافق تأهيل وتدريب المرأة السعودية مقارنة مع حاجة القطاع الخاص.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٧ ارتفاع أجر توظيف المرأة مقارنة بالرجل	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

٢٥ هل تعتقدون أن العوامل التالية سوف تساهم في تشجيع المرأة السعودية للعمل في القطاع الخاص في المجالات المتاحة للمرأة: من فضلك حدد من الآتي:

العوامل	موافق	غير موافق	لا اعرف
١ زيادة الرواتب والمكافآت	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢ تخفيض ساعات الدوام الرسمي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣ تطبيق نظام الدوام الجزئي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٤ تغيير نظرة المجتمع تجاه عمل المرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥ توفير مراكز حضانة للأطفال	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٦ توفير وسائل نقل مجانية للعاملات	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٧ إعطاء أهمية أكثر للتعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٨ تقوية العلاقة بين القطاعين العام والخاص فيما يخص تعليم وتدريب المرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٩ تطوير وتحديث نظام العمل والعمال ليتوافق مع ظروف المرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

سادساً: الدراسات المستقبلية

٢٦ هل تعتقدون أن هناك نقص في الدراسات أو الأبحاث التي تهتم في توظيف المرأة في القطاع الخاص؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

٢٧ إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم من فضلك حدد أهم الدراسات المطلوب بحثها مستقبلاً في هذا المجال؟

١ -----

٢ -----

٣ -----

أية معلومات تقترحون إضافتها لها علاقة بالموضوع

رأي النساء السعوديات العاملات في القطاع الخاص والباحثات عن عمل حول معوقات توظيف المرأة
السعودية بالقطاع الخاص بصفة عامة وفي المجالين الفني والمهني على وجه الخصوص

المكرمة المرأة السعودية العاملة في القطاع الخاص
المحترمة
المكرمة المرأة السعودية الباحثة عن عمل
المحترمة

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

الاستبيان الذي بين يديك عبارة عن جزء من رسالة دكتوراه في مجال إدارة الأعمال والتي تهدف إلى معرفة أهم المعوقات التي أدت إلى ضعف توظيف المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص بصفة عامة وفي المجالين الفني والمهني على وجه الخصوص والتي أدت إلى استمرار الطلب على العمالة الأجنبية النسائية أو الرجالية الأجنبية الذين يمارس أعمالا هي في الأصل من خصوصية المرأة". كما سوف تحاول الدراسة وضع الحلول المناسبة لحل مثل هذه المشكلة من خلال الدراسة الميدانية وتجارب الدول الأخرى بما يتوافق مع الشريعة الإسلامية. لهذا فقد تم اختيارك كواحدة من عينة الدراسة للإجابة على هذا الاستبيان المرفق والذي سوف يستخدم لإغراض البحث إضافة إلى أن الإجابة سوف تأخذ السرية التامة علما بان ذكر الاسم ليس ضروريا

الإجابة على الأسئلة والعبارات المرفقة سوف يكون لها قيمة علمية وتأثير على نتائج البحث. لذا ارجوا التكرم بالإجابة بواقعية وصدق حتى تكون النتائج ممثلة للواقع.

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

الباحث

عبدالله بن صالح الشتيوي

جامعة لفبر - قسم إدارة الأعمال

بريطانيا

أولاً: المعلومات الأولية عن عينة البحث

معلومات شخصية

١ الحالة الاجتماعية:

<input type="checkbox"/>	متزوجة	<input type="checkbox"/>	غير متزوجة	<input type="checkbox"/>	مطلقة	<input type="checkbox"/>	أرملة
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٢ العمر:

<input type="checkbox"/>	من ٢٠ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/>	من ٢٥ إلى أقل من ٤٥ سنة
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ٢٠ إلى أقل من ٢٥ سنة	<input type="checkbox"/>	أكبر من ٤٥ سنة
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ٢٥ إلى أقل من ٣٥ سنة		

٣ عدد الأطفال:

<input type="checkbox"/>	لا يوجد أطفال	<input type="checkbox"/>	من ٣ إلى ٥ أطفال
<input type="checkbox"/>	طفل أو طفلين	<input type="checkbox"/>	أكثر من ٥ أطفال

٤ عدد الأطفال تحت سن الدراسة:

<input type="checkbox"/>	لا يوجد أطفال
<input type="checkbox"/>	طفل واحد
<input type="checkbox"/>	طفلين أو ثلاثة أطفال
<input type="checkbox"/>	أكثر من ثلاثة أطفال

معلومات عن العائلة

٥ سكن العائلة:

<input type="checkbox"/>	١- ملك
<input type="checkbox"/>	٢- إيجار

٦ جهة عمل ولي الأمر:

<input type="checkbox"/>	القطاع العام	<input type="checkbox"/>	متقاعد
<input type="checkbox"/>	القطاع الخاص	<input type="checkbox"/>	لا يعمل أو غير قادر علي العمل
<input type="checkbox"/>	رجل أعمال		

٧ الدخل الشهري لولي الأمر:

<input type="checkbox"/>	أقل من ٣٠٠٠ ريال
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ٣٠٠٠ إلى أقل ٥٠٠٠ ريال
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ٥٠٠٠ إلى أقل من ١٠٠٠٠ ريال
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ١٠٠٠٠ ريال فأكثر

٨ هل يوجد لديكم الآتي:

<input type="checkbox"/>	١- خادمة	<input type="checkbox"/>	٢- سائق
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الحالة التعليمية

٩ آخر مؤهل حصلت عليه

<input type="checkbox"/>	دكتوراه أو ماجستير
<input type="checkbox"/>	الشهادة الجامعية
<input type="checkbox"/>	دبلوم تحت الجامعة
<input type="checkbox"/>	ثانوية عامة
<input type="checkbox"/>	دبلوم التعليم الفني والمهني

١٠ ملاحظة السؤال ١٠, ١١ لا يخضن حاملات مؤهل الثانوية العامة
ما هو تخصصك الدراسي؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	١- علوم إدارية	<input type="checkbox"/>	٦- علوم شرعية
<input type="checkbox"/>	٢- اقتصاد منزلي	<input type="checkbox"/>	٧- حاسب آلي
<input type="checkbox"/>	٣- علوم إنسانية	<input type="checkbox"/>	٨- طب أو طب مساعد
<input type="checkbox"/>	٤- تربية وتعليم	<input type="checkbox"/>	٩- هندسة
<input type="checkbox"/>	٥- علوم طبيعية	<input type="checkbox"/>	١٠- أخرى حدي -----

١١ - أسباب اختيار التخصص. من فضلك حدي أهم الدوافع التي كان لها تأثير على اختيارك التخصص من الآتي:

	دوافع اختيار التخصص	نعم	لا
١	رغبة أو دافع شخصي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢	الرغبة في الحصول على وظيفة في القطاع الحكومي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣	الرغبة في الحصول على وظيفة في القطاع الخاص	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٤	إجباري لعدم وجود بديل آخر	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥	الرغبة في الحصول على وضع اجتماعي جيد بعد التخرج	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٦	طبيعة العمل بعد التخرج تناسب ظروف	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٧	دوافع أخرى يرجى ذكرها: -----		

دوافع العمل لدى المرأة السعودية

١٢ أهم الدوافع وراء عملك أو بحثك عن عمل خارج البيت هي: من فضلك حددي أهم الدوافع من الآتي:

	دوافع العمل	نعم	لا
١	الحاجة المادية الشخصية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢	الحاجة المادية العائلية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣	للمساهمة في خدمة المجتمع في المجال الثقافي أو الاجتماعي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٤	لشغل الوقت والقضاء على الفراغ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥	للمساهمة في الاقتصاد الوطني والإحلال	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥	أخرى يرجى ذكرها -----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

١٣- ما هو العمل المفضل لديك؟

	نوع العمل	نعم	لا
١	دوام كامل	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢	دوام جزئي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

١٤- في أي القطاعين تفضلين العمل؟

	نوع القطاع	نعم	لا
١	قطاع حكومي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢	قطاع خاص	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

١٥- أكثر المواطنات السعوديات يعملن أو يفضلن العمل في القطاع الحكومي عن القطاع الخاص (الشركات أو المؤسسات) ماهي من وجهة نظرك أهم الأسباب وراء هذا الاتجاه:

- ١-----
- ٢-----
- ٣-----
- ٤-----

الأسئلة من ١٦ حتى ٢١ خاصة فقط في النساء الباحثات عن عمل إذا كنت ضمن العاملات من فضلك انتقلي إلى السؤال رقم ٢٢

معلومات عن النساء الباحثات عن عمل

١٦- هل سبق أن حصلت على دورات بعد التخرج؟

نعم لا

١٧- إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم اذكرى عدد ونوع الدورات:

- ١
- ٢
- ٣

١٨- ما المدة التي أمضيتها في البحث عن عمل؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	أقل من سنة
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ١ إلى أقل من ٣ سنوات
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ٣ سنوات فأكثر

١٩- هل سبق أن حاولت البحث عن وظيفة في القطاع الخاص؟

نعم لا

٢٠- هل تقبلين العمل في القطاع الخاص لو عرض عليك وظيفة؟

نعم لا

٢١- إذا كانت الإجابة نعم حددي أربع وظائف مفضلة لديك بحيث لا تتعارض مع مبادئ الشريعة الإسلامية؟

١ ----- ٢ ----- ٣ ----- ٤ -----

الأسئلة من ٢٢ إلى ٢٧ خاصة فقط بالنساء العاملات إذا كنت ضمن الباحثات عن عمل من فضلك انتقلي إلى السؤال ٢٨

معلومات عن النساء العاملات في القطاع الخاص

٢٢- ما طبيعة العمل الذي تؤديه في المنشأة؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	إشرافي
<input type="checkbox"/>	إداري
<input type="checkbox"/>	فني
<input type="checkbox"/>	مهني
<input type="checkbox"/>	تخصصي

٢٣- الخبرة الوظيفية في القطاع الخاص

<input type="checkbox"/>	أقل من سنتين
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ٢ إلى أقل من ٥ سنوات
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ٥ إلى أقل من ١٠ سنوات
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ١٠ سنوات فأكثر

٢٤- الراتب الشهري

<input type="checkbox"/>	أقل من ١٠٠٠ ريال
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ١٠٠٠ إلى أقل من ٣٠٠٠ ريال
<input type="checkbox"/>	من ٣٠٠٠ إلى أقل من ٥٠٠٠ ريال
<input type="checkbox"/>	٥٠٠٠ ريال فأكثر

٢٥- ما طبيعة دوامك في المنشأة؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	دوام كامل	<input type="checkbox"/>	دوام جزئي	<input type="checkbox"/>	أخرى -----
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٢٦- هل توفر منشاتكم بيئة عمل مناسبة للمرأة بعيدا عن مزاحمة الرجال؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	نعم	<input type="checkbox"/>	لا
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٢٧- هل توفر منشاتكم الخدمات التالية:

خدمات	نعم	لا
تدريب	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
وسيلة نقل مجانية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
أماكن حضانة للأطفال	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

الأسئلة من ٢٨ حتى نهاية الاستبيان تشمل الجميع العاملات والباحثات عن عمل

ثانياً: اتجاهات المرأة السعودية نحو التوظيف في القطاع الخاص

٢٨- هل واجهتي / تواجهين صعوبة في معرفة الوظائف النسائية الشاغرة التي طرحها او يطرحها القطاع الخاص للمرأة؟

نعم لا

٢٩ ماهي اسهل وايسر وسيلة اتصال من وجهة نظرك للتعرف على الفرص الوظيفية النسائية المطروحة بالسوق من قبل القطاع الخاص؟ من فضلك حددي واحدة أو اكثر من الوسائل التالية :

نوع الوسيلة	موافقة	غير موافقة	لم استخدمها
١ الصحف أو المجلات المحلية			
٢ المؤسسات التعليمية والتدريبية النسائية			
٣ مكاتب العمل الحكومية			
٤ مكاتب التوظيف الأهلية			
٥ الاتصال مباشرة بمنشآت القطاع الخاص			
أخرى حددي -----			

٣٠ هل تعتقدين أن هناك حاجة لمشاركة المرأة السعودية في سوق العمل في المملكة؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

٣١ هل تعتقد ين أن نظام التوظيف بالقطاع الخاص يساعد ويشجع توظيف المرأة السعودية؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

٣٢ هل تعتقد ين أن نظام العمل والعمال في المملكة يمنح مميزات متكافئة بين العاملين والعاملات في القطاع الخاص؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

٣٣ هل تعتقد ين أن منشآت القطاع الخاص تفضل توظيف الرجل على المرأة في نفس المجال والمؤهل؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

٣٤ هناك عدة عوامل تشجع القطاع الخاص في توظيف المرأة السعودية أهمها: من فضلك حددي وفقا لوجهة نظرك من الآتي:

لا اعرف	غير موافقة	موافقة	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	١ إن المرأة لديها مهارة جيدة لأداء المهمة أو العمل
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	٢ إن المرأة لديها انضباط بمواعيد العمل
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	٣ إن المرأة تقدر قيمة وأهمية العمل
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	٤ إن المرأة تتقيد بالتعليمات والأوامر التي تصدر لها
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	٥ إن المرأة تقبل العمل بأجر أقل مما يقبله الرجل العادي
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	٦ إن هناك عجز في عدد المؤهلين السعوديين الرجال لأداء بعض الوظائف
			٧ أخرى حددي:

ثالثاً: المرأة السعودية والفرص الوظيفية في القطاع الخاص

٣٥ ما هي من وجهة نظرك أهم المجالات المناسبة للمرأة السعودية للمساهمة في عملية الإحتلال والسعودة في قطاع للمرأة في القطاع الخاص؟ يمكن اختيار أكثر من مجال من المجالات التالية:

المجال		المجال		المجال
المجال التجاري	<input type="checkbox"/>	المجال الخدمي	<input type="checkbox"/>	المجال التقني
المجال الصناعي	<input type="checkbox"/>	المجال الزراعي	<input type="checkbox"/>	المجال الحرفي

٣٦ من فضلك لختاري أهم (١٠) وظائف مفضلة من قبلك للعمل بالقطاع الخاص في مواقع لا تتعارض مع المبادئ الإسلامية لعمل المرأة

الوظيفة		الوظيفة		الوظيفة
حاسب آلي	<input type="checkbox"/>	بيع بالتجزئة	<input type="checkbox"/>	زراعة
إدارة أعمال	<input type="checkbox"/>	تجارة	<input type="checkbox"/>	صيانة الآلات والمعدات
حاسبة	<input type="checkbox"/>	تجميل نسائي	<input type="checkbox"/>	صحافة
اقتصاد	<input type="checkbox"/>	ديكور وزخرفة	<input type="checkbox"/>	أمن صناعي
إلكترونيات	<input type="checkbox"/>	أعمال سكرتارية	<input type="checkbox"/>	تربية وتعليم
صيانة كهربائية	<input type="checkbox"/>	حرف يدوية	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات فندقية
تطريز وأعمال نسيج	<input type="checkbox"/>	رعاية أطفال	<input type="checkbox"/>	صناعة أطعمة
تفصيل وخياطة	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات اجتماعية	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات البيع
خدمات بنكية	<input type="checkbox"/>	طب وخدمات طبية مساعدة	<input type="checkbox"/>	
تسويق	<input type="checkbox"/>	وظائف استقبال	<input type="checkbox"/>	

رابعاً : المرأة السعودية في العمل الفني و المهني في القطاع الخاص

٣٧ هل تعتقد ين أن مشاركة المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص في المجالين الفني و المهني ضعيفة؟

نعم لا لا اعرف

٣٨ هل يوجد لديك خلفية عن برامج التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني التي تقدم للمرأة السعودية من قبل الجهات الحكومية؟

نعم لا

٣٩ إذا كانت الإجابة في السؤال رقم (٣٨) بنعم ، هل تعتقد أن المؤسسات التعليمية النسائية الحكومية في المملكة قادرة على تخريج فتاة سعودية مؤهلة للعمل في القطاع الخاص في المجالين الفني و المهني في المجالات التي تتناسب مع ظروف المرأة؟

نعم لا

؛ إذا كانت الإجابة في السؤال (٣٩) بـ لا ، فعلاة يكون السبب راجع إلى .

العوامل	موافقة	غير موافقة	لا اعرف
١ ضعف العلاقة بين القطاعين العام والخاص في مجال التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢ نقص التجهيزات التي توفرها مؤسسات التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني الحكومية للمرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣ ضعف التخطيط والإدارة في المجالين الفني والمهني للمرأة .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٤ عدم توافق مخرجات التعليم الفني و التدريب المهني للمرأة مع حاجة القطاع الخاص.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥ نقص الكفاءات البشرية النسائية في التعليم الفني و التدريب المهني	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

خامساً: العوامل المؤثرة بتوظيف المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص

٤١ من فضلك ما هو رأيك بالآتي:
هناك صعوبة في توظيف المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص السعودي على الوظائف التي يمكن للمرأة السعودية ممارستها بعيدا عن مزاحمة الرجال بسبب ...

العوامل	موافقة	غير موافقة	لا اعرف
١ عدم تقبل المجتمع عمل المرأة خارج البيت .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢ عدم ملاءمة بيئة القطاع الخاص للمرأة (اغلب الوظائف تتطلب الاختلاط مع الرجال	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣ صعوبة انتقال المرأة من وظيفة إلى أخرى .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٤ صعوبة انتقال المرأة من مدينة إلى أخرى .	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥ تعدد الإجازات التي تحتاجها المرأة وفقا لظروفها العائلية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٦ عدم توافق تأهيل وتدريب المرأة مقارنة مع حاجة القطاع الخاص.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٧ ارتفاع أجر توظيف المرأة مقارنة بالرجل	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

٤٢ هل تعتقد أن العوامل التالية سوف تساهم في تشجيع المرأة السعودية للعمل في القطاع الخاص في المجالات المتاحة للمرأة: من فضلك حددي من الآتي:

العوامل	موافقة	غير موافقة	لا اعرف
١ زيادة الرواتب والمكافآت	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢ تخفيض ساعات الدوام الرسمي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣ تطبيق نظام الدوام الجزئي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٤ تغيير نظرة المجتمع - تجاه عمل المرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥ توفير مراكز حضانة للأطفال	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٦ توفير وسائل نقل مجانية للعاملات	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٧ إعطاء أهمية أكثر للتعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٨ تقوية العلاقة بين القطاعين العام والخاص فيما يخص تعليم وتدريب المرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٩ تطوير وتحديث نظام العمل والعمال ليتوافق مع ظروف المرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

سادساً: الدراسات المستقبلية والسعودة

٤٣ هل تعتقد ين أن هناك نقص في الدراسات أو الأبحاث التي تهتم في توظيف المرأة في القطاع الخاص؟

<input type="checkbox"/> نعم	<input type="checkbox"/> لا	<input type="checkbox"/> لا اعرف
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٤٤ - إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم من فضلك حددي أهم الدراسات المطلوب بحثها مستقبلا في هذا المجال؟

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٤٥ - ماهي من وجهة نظرك أهم العوامل التي أدت إلى استمرار الطلب على العمالة النسائية أو الرجالية الأجنبية في القطاع الخاص السعودي على الوظائف التي هي في الأصل من طبيعة عمل المرأة ويمكن للمرأة السعودية شغلها بعيدا عن مزاحمة الرجال؟

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أية معلومات تقترحين إضافتها لها علاقة بالموضوع

مدیر محترم

این پرسشنامه بر اشتغال زنان در بخش خصوصی از دیدگاه مدیران شاغل در بخش خصوصی متمرکز میباشد. در این تحقیق سعی بر این است تا عوامل موثر بر کمتر بکارگرفته شدن زنان واجد شرایط کاری در بخش خصوصی بررسی شده و پیشنهادات ممکن برای توسعه اشتغال زنان در بخش خصوصی عربستان سعودی، با استفاده از الگوی ایران ارائه شود.

با تشکر از همکاری شما لطفاً به منظور تکمیل مطالعات، نظرات و پیشنهادات خود را مرقوم فرمایید.

عقق

عبداله س. الشتاوي
دانشگاه لافرو
دانشکده اقتصاد و بازرگانی
انگلستان

اطلاعات کلی

۱- نوع شرکت

<input type="checkbox"/> شرکت خصوصی	<input type="checkbox"/> شرکت عمومی	<input type="checkbox"/> غراز موارد فوق
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۲- عمر شرکت

<input type="checkbox"/>	زیر ۵ سال
<input type="checkbox"/>	بین ۵-۱۰ سال
<input type="checkbox"/>	بالای ۱۰ سال

۳- فعالیت عمده شرکت شماییت

<input type="checkbox"/>	صنعتی	<input type="checkbox"/>	کسب و کاری
<input type="checkbox"/>	تجارتی	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدماتی

۴- سرمایه شرکت (لطفا در صورت امکان میزان سرمایه بر حسب ریال سعودی بیان شود) ()

زنان شاغل و محیط کار در بخش خصوصی

۵- چند نفر در شرکت شما کار میکنند؟ لطفا به صورت عددی مشخص فرمایید

۵- تعداد کارمندان در شرکت شما کار می کنند

کارمند زن ایرانی ()	کارمند مرد ایرانی ()
کارمند زن خارجی ()	کارمند مرد خارجی ()

۶- نوع کارآزماییت. لطفا بر حسب تعداد زنان

انواع مشاغل	تعداد ایرانی	تعداد خارجی
۱ نظارتی		
۲ اداری		
۳ تکنولوژی		
۴ تکنیکی		
۵ نیمه ماهر		
۶ غیر ماهر		
۷ سایر		

۷- زنان شاغل در شرکت خود را چگونه ارزیابی میکنید؟

<input type="checkbox"/> تمام وقت	<input type="checkbox"/> نیمه وقت	<input type="checkbox"/> هردو
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۸- آیا در شرکت شما محل کار زنان از مردان جدا است؟

عمل کار/آموزش	بله	خیر
در محل کار	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

۹- آیا تسهیلات زیر را برای زنان فراهم میکنید؟

تسهیلات	بله	خیر
مهد کودک	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
سرویس ایاب و ذهاب	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
مرکز آموزش	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

۱۰- آیا به نظر شما دریافت تقاضای کار از طرف زنان مشکل است؟

<input type="checkbox"/> بله	<input type="checkbox"/> خیر
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۱۱- اگر جواب شما به سوال ۱۰ بله است، معمولاً از چه نوع روشی برای آگهی فرصتهای شغلی برای زنان استفاده میکنید؟ لطفاً از بین روشهای زیر مشخص فرمایید:

روشها	موافق	مخالف
۱ روزنامه ها و مجلات	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۲ موسسات فنی حرفه ای	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۳ دفاتر و مراکز دولتی	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۴ مراکز تبلیغاتی	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۵ تماس مستقیم با شرکتها و عملهای کار	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
سایر لطفاً ذکر فرمایید -----		

زنان و سیستم استخدامی در بخش خصوصی

۱۲- آیا فکر می‌کنید نیاز به مشارکت زنان در بازار کار وجود دارد؟

بله خیر نمی‌دانم

۱۳- آیا فکر می‌کنید سیستم استخدامی در بخش خصوصی به استخدام زنان کمک می‌کند و یا به عبارت دیگر آنها را تشویق به استخدام شدن می‌کند؟

بله خیر نمی‌دانم

۱۴- آیا فکر می‌کنید قوانین مربوط به استخدام در بخش خصوصی شرایط برابر و منصفانه‌ای را برای هر دو طرف یعنی کارفرمایان و کارکنان زن قائل می‌شود؟

بله خیر نمی‌دانم

۱۵- آیا در موارد یکسان، مردان را به زنان ترجیح می‌دهید؟

بله خیر نمی‌دانم

۱۶- آیا فکر می‌کنید شرکت شما به کارکنان زن نیاز دارد؟

بله خیر

۱۷- اگر جواب شما به سوال ۱۶ بله است، لطفاً نظر خود را نسبت به این مطلب بیان کنید: شرکت به کارکنان زن نیاز دارد چون که:

	دلایل	موافق	مخالف	نمی‌دانم
۱	زنان دارای مهارتهایی خاص هستند که برای بعضی از مشاغل مناسبتر هستند	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۲	زنان منظم و در کار جدی تر از مردان هستند	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۳	زنان نیاز به سرعت در کار را درک می‌کنند	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۴	زنان راهنمایی‌ها و آموزشهای حین کار را راحتتر می‌پذیرند	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۵	زنان توقع دستمزد کمتری نسبت به متوسط دستمزد شاغلین مرد دارند	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۶	در دسترسی به مردان کارآمد برای احراز تمامی مشاغل کمبود وجود دارد	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۷	سایر (ذکر فرمایید) ...			

۱۸- لطفاً نظر خود را نسبت به این مطلب بفرمایید:
عوامل مانع از اشتغال زنان در بخش خصوصی عبارتند از:

نمیدانم	مخالف	موافق	دلایل
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۱ جامعه نسبت به اشتغال زنان در خارج از خانه دید منفی دارد
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۲ زنان در تغییر شغل از یک شغل به شغل دیگر با مشکلات مواجهند
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۳ زنان در کار کردن با مردان در یک محیط کاری مشترک با مشکلات مواجهند
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۴ زنان در تغییر محل کار خود از یک شهر به شهر دیگر با مشکلات مواجه اند
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۵ نسبت به زنان کارآمد و با مهارت کاری کافی کمبود وجود دارد
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۶ زنان نسبت به مردان به تعطیلات بیشتری نیاز دارند
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۷ زنان توقع دستمزد بیشتری نسبت به متوسط دستمزد مردان دارند

۱۹- لطفاً نظر خود را نسبت به این مطلب بفرمایید:
عوامل تشویق کننده اشتغال زنان در بخش خصوصی عبارتند از:

نمیدانم	مخالف	موافق	دلایل
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۱ افزایش حقوق و مزایای شغلی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۲ کاهش ساعات کاری
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۳ بکارگیری سیستم کاری نیمه وقت
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۴ تغییر دید جامعه نسبت به اشتغال زنان در خارج از خانه
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۵ افزایش تسهیلات مراقبت از فرزندان (مثلاً مهد کودکها)
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۶ فراهم کردن سرویس ایاب و ذهاب جمعی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۷ بهبود ارتباط بین بخشهای دولتی و خصوصی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۸ اهمیت بیشتر دادن به موسسات آموزش فنی حرفه ای
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۹ بهبود و به روز کردن وضع قوانین کار ایران به نحوی که برای آموزشهای فنی و حرفه ای و هنری جذابتر باشد

بخش خصوصی و فرصتهای شغلی برای زنان

۲۰- به نظر شما مهمترین زمینه اشتغال برای مشارکت زنان در اقتصاد ملی چیست؟ لطفاً يك مورد و در صورت لزوم تعداد بیشتری را علامت بزنید.

	بله	خیر	زمینه اشتغال
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	کشاورزی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	صنعتی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	تجارت و بازرگانی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	صنایع دستی (هنری)
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	تکنولوژی

۲۱- به نظر شما در حال حاضر کدام ۱۰ شغل بخش خصوصی نیاز به استخدام زنان دارند؟ لطفاً شغلهاي مذکور را از لیست زیر انتخاب کنید:

شغل	بله	شغل	بله	شغل	بله
خدمات کامپیوتری	<input type="checkbox"/>	فروش	<input type="checkbox"/>	کشاورزی	<input type="checkbox"/>
بازرگانی	<input type="checkbox"/>	درودگری (نجاری)	<input type="checkbox"/>	نگهداری و تعمیرات ماشین آلات	<input type="checkbox"/>
حسابداری	<input type="checkbox"/>	آرایشگری	<input type="checkbox"/>	روزنامه نگاری (خبرنگاری)	<input type="checkbox"/>
اقتصادی	<input type="checkbox"/>	دکوراسیون داخلی	<input type="checkbox"/>	امنیتی (نگهبانی و...)	<input type="checkbox"/>
الکترونیکی	<input type="checkbox"/>	منشیگری	<input type="checkbox"/>	آموزش و پرورش	<input type="checkbox"/>
خدمات الکتریکی	<input type="checkbox"/>	صنایع دستی (هنری)	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات هتلداری	<input type="checkbox"/>
نساجی	<input type="checkbox"/>	مراقبت از کودکان	<input type="checkbox"/>	صنایع غذایی	<input type="checkbox"/>
خیاطی	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات اجتماعی	<input type="checkbox"/>	فروشنده (خرده فروش)	<input type="checkbox"/>
بانکداری	<input type="checkbox"/>	پزشکی	<input type="checkbox"/>	سایر....	<input type="checkbox"/>
بازاریابی	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات پذیرش	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>

بخش خصوصی و زنان در زمینه های فنی و حرفه ای

۲۲- آیا فکر می کنید مشارکت زنان در زمینه های فنی و حرفه ای در بخش خصوصی رضایتبخش بوده و عبارتی جوابگوی نیاز بخش خصوصی می باشد؟

بله خیر نمی دانم

۲۳- آیا شما در رابطه با آموزشهای فنی حرفه ای برای زنان فرد مطلعی میباشید؟

<input type="checkbox"/> بله	<input type="checkbox"/> خیر
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۲۴- اگر جواب شما به سوال ۲۲ بله بوده است آیا فکر می کنید آموزشهای فنی حرفه ای برای زنان قادر به تربیت زنان کارآمد برای بازار کار می باشد؟

<input type="checkbox"/> بله	<input type="checkbox"/> خیر	<input type="checkbox"/> نمی دانم
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۲۵- اگر جواب شما به سوال ۲۴ خیر بوده است نظر خود را ذیلا انتخاب فرمایید:

نمدها	موافق	مخالف	دلایل
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۱ در زمینه همکاری بین موسسات آموزش فنی و حرفه ای (شامل موسسات هنری) و بخش خصوصی ضعف وجود دارد
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۲ نسبت به امکانات موجود در موسسات آموزش فنی و حرفه ای کمبود وجود دارد
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۳ در اداره کردن و برنامه ریزی سیاستهای آموزشها و حرفه ای و ضعف وجود دارد
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۴ عدم تطابق بین خروجی موسسات آموزش فنی و حرفه ای و نیاز بازار کار
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۵ کمبود مربیان و کارکنان کارآمد (برای آموزش) در موسسات آموزش فنی و حرفه ای
			۶ سایر (ذکر فرمایند) ...

۲۶- آیا به نظر شما از جهت تحقیق بر روی اشتغال زنان

در بخش خصوصی ایران، نارسایی و ضعف وجود دارد؟

۲۷- اگر جواب شما به سوال ۲۶ بله است، به نظر شما چه

نوع تحقیق بیشتری نیاز است؟

لطفاً هرگونه نظر یا پیشنهاد دیگری که در رابطه با این تحقیق دارید مرقوم فرمایید.

با تشکر از همکاری شما

به نام خدا

پاسخ دهنده محترم :

این پرسشنامه بر روی اشتغال زنان در بخش خصوصی ایران متمرکز بوده و آن را از دیدگاه زنان شاغل و غیر شاغل در بخش خصوصی مورد بررسی قرار می دهد.

در این تحقیق تلاش بر این است که مسایل موجود در رابطه با اشتغال زنان در بخش خصوصی و نحوه برطرف کردن این مسایل بررسی گردد. همچنین سعی بر این خواهد بود تا راهکارهای مناسب برای توسعه اشتغال زنان در بخش خصوصی ایران پیشنهاد داده شود.

در جهت تکمیل مطالعات بعمل آمده؛ ضمن قدردانی از همکاری شما خواهشمند است پرسشنامه را تکمیل فرمایید.

محقق

عبداله س. الشتاوی

دانشگاه لافرو

دانشکده اقتصاد و بازرگانی

انگلستان

اطلاعات
فردی

لطفاً برای پاسخ به سئوالات زیر گزینه صحیح را علامت بزنید.
۱- وضعیت تاهل:

<input type="checkbox"/> مجرد	<input type="checkbox"/> متاهل	<input type="checkbox"/> طلاق گرفته	<input type="checkbox"/> بیوه
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۲- سن

<input type="checkbox"/> زیر ۲۰ سال	<input type="checkbox"/> بین ۳۰ تا کمتر از ۴۰ سال
<input type="checkbox"/> بین ۲۰ تا کمتر از ۲۵ سال	<input type="checkbox"/> بالای ۴۰ سال
<input type="checkbox"/> بین ۲۵ تا کمتر از ۳۰ سال	

۳- اگر متاهل هستید تعداد فرزندان شما چند تا است؟

<input type="checkbox"/> بدون فرزند	<input type="checkbox"/> ۳ تا ۵ فرزند
<input type="checkbox"/> ۱ یا ۲ فرزند	<input type="checkbox"/> بیش از ۵ فرزند

۴- چنانچه دارای فرزند هستید چند تای آنها زیر سن مدرسه رفتن هستند؟ لطفاً مشخص فرمایید...

اطلاعات
خانوادگی

۵- نوع محل سکونت سرپرست خانواده شما از چه نوع است؟

<input type="checkbox"/> ۱- ملك شخصی	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/> ۲- اجاره ای	<input type="checkbox"/>

۶- وضعیت شغلی سرپرست خانواده شما چیست؟

<input type="checkbox"/> شاغل در بخش دولتی	<input type="checkbox"/> بازنشسته
<input type="checkbox"/> شاغل در بخش خصوصی	<input type="checkbox"/> غیر شاغل یا از کار افتاده
<input type="checkbox"/> شغل آزاد	<input type="checkbox"/> سایر (لطفاً مشخص فرمایید) ...

۷- میزان درآمد ماهیانه سرپرست خانواده شما چقدر است؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	کمتر از ۱۰۰۰۰۰۰ ریال
<input type="checkbox"/>	بین ۱۰۰۰۰۰۰ تا کمتر از ۳۰۰۰۰۰۰
<input type="checkbox"/>	بین ۳۰۰۰۰۰۰ تا کمتر از ۵۰۰۰۰۰۰ ریال
<input type="checkbox"/>	۵۰۰۰۰۰۰ ریال یا بیشتر

۸- در خانواده خود آیا از خدمات زیر برخوردار هستید؟ در صورت مثبت بودن هر یک از عوامل علامت بزنید.

<input type="checkbox"/> ۱- راننده شخصی	<input type="checkbox"/> ۲- خدمتکار زن
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۹- بالاترین مدرک تحصیلی شما چیست؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	گواهینامه فنی یا هنری	<input type="checkbox"/>	فوق لیسانس یا دکترا
<input type="checkbox"/>	مدرک دبیرستان	<input type="checkbox"/>	مدرک دانشگاهی در حد لیسانس
		<input type="checkbox"/>	هر نوع دیپلم کمتر از مدرک دانشگاهی

۱۰- دلیل یا دلایل انتخاب رشته تحصیلی شما چه بوده است؟ لطفا در مقابل هر دلیل گزینه مناسب را علامت بزنید.

دلیل	بله	خیر
۱- علاقه شخصی	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۲- نیاز بازار کار در بخش دولتی	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۳- انتخاب دیگری نداشتم	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۴- نیاز بازار کار در بخش خصوصی	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۵- موقعیت اجتماعی خوب بعد از فارغ التحصیل شدن	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۶- ماهیت شغل مرتبط بعد از فارغ التحصیل شدن	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۷- دلایل دیگر (لطفا مشخص فرمایید)...		

۱۱- اگر مدرک شما تا سطح دوره دبیرستان است موضوع رشته تحصیلی شما چیست؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	۱- بازرگانی	<input type="checkbox"/>	۶- علوم آموزشی
<input type="checkbox"/>	۲- اقتصاد	<input type="checkbox"/>	۷- کامپیوتر
<input type="checkbox"/>	۳- مردم شناسی	<input type="checkbox"/>	۸- فرهنگ و علوم دینی
<input type="checkbox"/>	۴- زمینه های مربوط به علوم پزشکی	<input type="checkbox"/>	۹- زمینه های مربوط به علوم مهندسی
<input type="checkbox"/>	۵- ریاضی و فیزیک	<input type="checkbox"/>	۱۰- سایر (لطفا مشخص فرمایید)...

دیدگاه زنان نسبت
به کار

۱۲- دلایل شما برای کار کردن و یا بدنبال یافتن کار بودن چیست؟
مقابل هر یک از دلایل گزینه مناسب را علامت بزنید.

	دلایل	بله	خیر
۱	تقویت درآمد خانواده	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۲	برطرف کردن احتیاجات مالی شخصی	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۳	دلایل اجتماعی و فرهنگی	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۴	بخاطر مستقل بودن	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۵	حمایت اقتصاد ملی	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۵	سایر دلایل (لطفا مشخص فرمایید) ...	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

۱۳- شما چه نوع شغلی را ترجیح می دهید؟

	نوع شغل	بله	خیر
۱	تمام وقت	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۲	نیمه وقت	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

۱۴- آیا کار در بخش خصوصی را به کار در بخش دولتی ترجیح
میدهید؟

	<input type="checkbox"/>	بله
	<input type="checkbox"/>	خیر

۱۵- امروزه اکثر زنان کارآمد (qualified) بیشتر در بخش دولتی شاغل
هستند تا بخش خصوصی. لطفا سه دلیل را از نقطه نظر خودتان
برای این موضوع بیان کنید.

-۱

-۲

-۳

سئوالات این صفحه فقط مربوط به زنان غیر شاغل است .
چنانچه شما شاغل می باشید لطفاً از پاسخگویی به سئوالات
این صفحه خودداری کرده و به سئوال ۲۲ به بعد پاسخ دهید.

۱۶- اگر شما غیر شاغل می باشید آیا بعد از اتمام تحصیل در
هیچگونه دوره آموزشی شرکت کرده اید؟

بله	<input type="checkbox"/>	خیر	<input type="checkbox"/>
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۱۷- چنانچه پاسخ شما به سئوال ۱۶ بله بوده است دوره (هایی)
را که شرکت کرده اید ذکر فرمایید:

-۱
-۲
-۳

۱۸- اگر غیر شاغل می باشید چه مدت به دنبال یافتن کار بوده
اید؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	کمتر از یکسال
<input type="checkbox"/>	بین ۱ تا ۳ سال
<input type="checkbox"/>	بین ۳ تا ۵ سال
<input type="checkbox"/>	بیش از ۵ سال

۱۹- اگر غیر شاغل هستید آیا تا کنون سعی کرده اید کاری در بخش
خصوصی پیدا کنید؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	بله
<input type="checkbox"/>	خیر

۲۰- اگر غیر شاغل هستید آیا مایل هستید در بخش خصوصی کار
کنید؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	بله
<input type="checkbox"/>	خیر

۲۱- اگر جواب شما به سئوال ۲۰ مثبت بوده است ۴ نوع شغل را که
شما ترجیح می دهید داشته باشید نام ببرید:

-۱
-۲
-۳
-۴

سئوالات (۲۲ تا ۲۷) فقط مربوط به زنان شاغل است. چنانچه شما غیر شاغل می باشید از صفحه بعد ادامه دهید.

زنان شاغل و محیط کار در بخش
خصوصی

۲۲- کدامیک از انواع مشاغل زیر بیشتر نشاندهنده نوع شغل شما در حال حاضر می باشد؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	نظارتی
<input type="checkbox"/>	اداری
<input type="checkbox"/>	تکنیکی
<input type="checkbox"/>	نیمة ماهر
<input type="checkbox"/>	تخصصی
<input type="checkbox"/>	سایر

۲۳- چه مدت در شغل خود مشغول بوده اید؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	کمتر از ۲ سال
<input type="checkbox"/>	بین ۲ تا ۵ سال
<input type="checkbox"/>	بین ۵ تا ۱۰ سال
<input type="checkbox"/>	بیش از ۱۰ سال

۲۴- درآمد ماهیانه شما چقدر است؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	کمتر از ۱۰۰۰۰۰۰ ریال
<input type="checkbox"/>	بین ۱۰۰۰۰۰۰ ریال تا کمتر از ۳۰۰۰۰۰۰ ریال
<input type="checkbox"/>	بین ۳۰۰۰۰۰۰ ریال تا کمتر از ۵۰۰۰۰۰۰ ریال
<input type="checkbox"/>	۵۰۰۰۰۰۰ ریال یا بیشتر

۲۵- زمان کاری شما به چه صورت است؟

<input type="checkbox"/>	تمام وقت	<input type="checkbox"/>	نیمه وقت	<input type="checkbox"/>	هر دو
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۲۶- در محل کار آیا شما جدا از مردان کار می کنید / یا آموزش می بینید؟

عمل کار/آموزش	بله	خیر
در محل کار	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

۲۷- آیا در محل کار شما تسهیلات زیر وجود دارد؟

تسهیلات	بله	خیر
مهد کودک	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
سرویس ایاب و ذهاب	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
مرکز آموزش	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

سئوالات ۲۸ تا ۴۵ برای همگی (زنان شاغل و غیر شاغل)
لطفاً به سئوالات زیر پاسخ دهید.

۲۸- آیا فکر میکنید دسترسی به اطلاعات مربوط به فرصتهای شغلی در بخش خصوصی برای خانم ها مشکل است؟

بله خیر

۲۹- خانم ها از روشهای مختلفی برای پیدا کردن کار در بازار کار استفاده می کنند. نظر شما در رابطه با استفاده از روشهای زیر چیست؟

روشها	موافق	مخالف	استفاده نکرده ام
۱ روزنامه ها و مجلات	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۲ موسسات فنی حرفه ای	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۳ دفاتر و مراکز دولتی	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۴ مراکز تبلیغاتی	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
۵ تماس مستقیم با شرکتها و عملهای کار	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
سایر (لطفاً ذکر فرمایید)			
۶			

زنان و سیستم استخدامی در بخش خصوصی

۳۰- آیا فکر می کنید نیاز به مشارکت زنان در بازار کار وجود دارد؟

بله خیر نمی دانم

۳۱- آیا فکر میکنید سیستم استخدامی در بخش خصوصی به استخدام زنان کمک میکند و یا به عبارت دیگر آنها را تشویق به استخدام شدن می کند؟

بله خیر نمی دانم

۳۲- آیا فکر می کنید قوانین مربوط به استخدام در بخش خصوصی شرایط برابر و منصفانه ای را برای هر دو طرف یعنی کارفرمایان و کارکنان زن قائل می شود؟

بله خیر نمی دانم

۳۳- لطفا نظر خود را در مورد این مطلب بفرمایید: 'بخش خصوصی به اشتغال زنان نیاز دارد' چون:

نمیدانم	مخالف	موافق	دلایل	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	زنان دارای مهارتهایی خاص هستند که برای بعضی از مشاغل مناسبتر هستند	۱
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	زنان منظم و در کار جدی تر از مردان هستند	۲
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	زنان نیاز به سرعت در کار را درک می کنند	۳
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	زنان راهنمایی ها و آموزشهای حین کار را راحتتر می پذیرند	۴
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	زنان توقع دستمزد کمتری نسبت به متوسط دستمزد شاغلین مرد دارند	۵
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	در دسترسی به مردان کارآمد برای احراز تمامی مشاغل کمبود وجود دارد	۶
			سایر (ذکر فرمایید)...	۷

۳۴ - لطفا نظر خود را در مورد این مطلب بفرمایید: 'زنان در یافتن کار در بخش خصوصی مشکل دارند' چون:

نمیدانم	مخالف	موافق	دلایل	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	جامعه نسبت به اشتغال زنان در خارج از خانه دید منفی دارد	۱
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	زنان در تغییر شغل از یک شغل به شغل دیگر با مشکلات مواجهند	۲
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	زنان در کار کردن با مردن در یک محیط کاری مشترک با مشکلات مواجهند	۳
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	زنان در تغییر محل کار خود از یک شهر به شهر دیگر با مشکلات مواجهند	۴
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	نسبت به زنان کارآمد و با مهارت کاری گاهی کمبود وجود دارد	۵
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	زنان نسبت به مردن به تعطیلات بیشتری نیاز دارند	۶
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	زنان توقع دستمزد بیشتری نسبت به متوسط دستمزد مردن دارند	۷

۳۵- نظر خود را در مورد دلایل زیر به عنوان عواملی برای تشویق استخدام زنان در بخش خصوصی بفرمایید.

نمیدانم	مخالف	موافق	دلایل
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۱ افزایش حقوق و مزایای شغلی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۲ کاهش ساعات کاری
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۳ بکارگیری سیستم کاری نیمه وقت
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۴ تغییر دید جامعه نسبت به اشتغال زنان در خارج از خانه
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۵ افزایش تسهیلات مراقبت از فرزندان (مثلا مهد کودکها)
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۶ فراهم کردن سرویس ایاب و ذهاب مجانی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۷ بهبود ارتباط بین بخشهای دولتی و خصوصی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۸ اهمیت بیشتر دادن به موسسات آموزش فنی حرفه ای
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۹ بهبود و به روز کردن وضع قوانین کار ایران به نحوی که برای آموزشهای فنی و حرفه ای و هنری جذابتر باشد

بخش خصوصی و فرصتهای شغلی برای زنان

۳۶- آیا فکر میکنید در شرایط کاری یکسان بخش خصوصی شاغلین مرد را به شاغلین زن ترجیح می دهد؟

بله خیر نمی دانم

۳۷- به نظر شما مهمترین زمینه اشتغال برای مشارکت زنان در اقتصاد ملی چیست؟ لطفا یک مورد و در صورت لزوم تعداد بیشتری را علامت بزنید.

بله	خیر	زمینه اشتغال
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	کشاورزی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	صنعتی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	تجارت و بازرگانی
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	صنایع دستی (هنری)
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	زمینه های فن آوری یا تکنولوژیک (الکترونیک ، کامپیوتر و...)

۳۸- به نظر شما کدام ۱۰ زمینه شغلی از بین زمینه های شغلی زیر در بخش خصوصی بیشتر مورد علاقه خانها می باشد؟ آنها را علامت بزنید.

شغل	بله	شغل	بله	شغل	بله
خدمات کامپیوتری	<input type="checkbox"/>	فروش	<input type="checkbox"/>	کشاورزی	<input type="checkbox"/>
بازرگانی	<input type="checkbox"/>	دروگری (نجاری)	<input type="checkbox"/>	نگهداری و تعمیرات ماشین آلات	<input type="checkbox"/>
حسابداری	<input type="checkbox"/>	آرایشگری	<input type="checkbox"/>	روزنامه نگاری (خبرنگاری)	<input type="checkbox"/>
اقتصادی	<input type="checkbox"/>	دکوراسیون داخلی	<input type="checkbox"/>	امنیتی (نگهبانی و...)	<input type="checkbox"/>
الکترونیکی	<input type="checkbox"/>	منشیگری	<input type="checkbox"/>	آموزش و پرورش	<input type="checkbox"/>
خدمات الکتریکی	<input type="checkbox"/>	صنایع دستی (هنری)	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات هتلداری	<input type="checkbox"/>
نساجی	<input type="checkbox"/>	مراقبت از کودکان	<input type="checkbox"/>	صنایع غذایی	<input type="checkbox"/>
خیاطی	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات اجتماعی	<input type="checkbox"/>	فروشنده (فروشی)	<input type="checkbox"/>
بانکداری	<input type="checkbox"/>	پزشکی	<input type="checkbox"/>	سایر....	<input type="checkbox"/>
بازاریابی	<input type="checkbox"/>	خدمات پذیرش	<input type="checkbox"/>		<input type="checkbox"/>

بخش خصوصی و زنان در زمینه های فنی و حرفه ای

۳۹- آیا فکر می کنید مشارکت زنان در زمینه های فنی و حرفه ای در بخش خصوصی رضایتبخش بوده و بعبارتی جوابگوی نیاز بخش خصوصی می باشد؟

بله خیر نمی دانم

۴۰- آیا شما در رابطه با آموزشهای فنی حرفه ای برای زنان فرد مطلع میباشید؟

بله خیر

۴۱- اگر جواب شما به سوال ۴۰ بله بوده است آیا فکر می کنید آموزشهای فنی حرفه ای برای زنان قادر به تربیت زنان کارآمد برای بازار کار می باشد؟

بله خیر نمی دانم

۴۲- اگر جواب شما به سؤال ۴۱ خیر بوده است نظر خود را ذیلا انتخاب فرمایید:

نمیدانم	مخالف	موافق	دلایل
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۱ در زمینه همکاری بین موسسات آموزش فنی و حرفه ای (شامل موسسات هنری) و بخش خصوصی ضعف وجود دارد
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۲ نسبت به امکانات موجود در موسسات آموزش فنی و حرفه ای کمبود وجود دارد
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۳ در اداره کردن و برنامه ریزی سیاستهای آموزشهای فنی و حرفه ای ضعف وجود دارد
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۴ عدم تطابق بین خروجی موسسات آموزش فنی و حرفه ای و نیاز بازار کار
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	۵ کمبود مربیان و کارکنان کارآمد (برای آموزش) در موسسات آموزش فنی و حرفه ای
			۶ سایر (ذکر فرمایید) ...

۴۳- آیا فکر می کنید در رابطه با اطلاعات و مطالعات مربوط به زنان در بازار کار کمبود وجود دارد؟

بله خیر نمی دانم

۴۴ اگر جواب شما به سؤال ۴۳ بله بوده است به نظر شما چه نوع تحقیقات یا مطالعاتی در رابطه با بازار کار مورد نیاز می باشد؟

۴۵- لطفا هر نقطه نظر یا پیشنهادی دارید مرقوم فرمایید.

APPENDIX 3

List of Authorities Interviewed (Saudi Arabia and Iran)
Interview Questions to Saudi and Iranian Authorities

APPENDIX 3

1. Iranian Authorities

1. Prof. Ali Eftekhary: Faculty of Azad Private Open University, Tehran, and Member of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Iran.
2. Dr. Mohammed Sehlawi: Director of Iranian Industrial Production Centre in Iranian Exposition, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.
3. Dr. Ali Sanaie: Director of Middle East Export and Marketing Research Institution, Iran, Faculty of Economics, Isfhan University.
4. Dr. Mrs. Shahireh Bahri: Director of General International Relations Academy of Art Ministry of Research, Science and Technology, Tehran.
5. Dr. Ali Khodai General Director of Iranian Students in the UK and Ireland, Iranian Embassy.
6. Dr. Behrooz Karimi: Assistant Professor at Amirkabir University of Technology, Tehran.
7. Mrs. Mitra Zand: Accounting Supervision, Fairoz Private Company, Tehran.

2. Saudi Authorities interviews

1. Dr Ali Al-Muhaimeed: General Director of Planning and Development in the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training, Saudi Arabia
2. Dr. Khalid Ben Doheash: Vice Assistant of General Presidency of Girls' Education for Planning and Development, Saudi Arabia.
3. Dr. Abdulrhman Al-Mushaighah: General Presidency of the Council of Qassim Industrial and Commercial Chamber.
4. Dr. Hussain Al-Hazmi: Previous General Secretary of the Saudi Manpower Council.
5. Mr. Sulaiman Al-Rumaih: Director Manager of Al-Rumaih Private Company, Member of the Riyadh Chamber of Commerce and Industry.
6. Mrs Nesrin Al-Ayoubi: Assistant Head of Department of Technical and Vocational Education for Girls, GPGE.
7. Mrs. Zainab Al-Rukaibeh: Students' Guide, General Presidency for Girls' Education,
8. Mrs Norah Al-Merdasi: General Director of the Department of Women's Employment, Ministry of Civil Service.

Interviews carried out with Saudi and Iranian officials (males & females) in the public and private sector

- 1. How can you see women's participation in the private sector in Saudi Arabia / Iran?*
- 2. What is the main factors preventing women's employment in the private sector in Saudi / Iran?*
- 3. What are the most important fields of work in the private sector for women in Saudi / Iran?*
- 4. What are the most current jobs needed by the private sector for women in Saudi / Iran?*
- 5. What are the main factors developing women's employment in private sector in Saudi/ Iran?*
- 6. How can you see the labour market information in Saudi / Iran?*
- 7. Justifications of increasing women in the public sector rather than private sector in Saudi / Iran?*
- 8. Does the private sector in Saudi /Iran prefers men rather than women in the same field? Why?*
- 9. Do you think there is a shortage in women's participation in the technical and vocational field in the private sector in Saudi / Iran? How?*
- 10. How can you see Technical and vocational education for women in Saudi / Iran in comparison with the private sector needs?*

12. *Does the private sector employment system encourage women's employment in Saudi / Iran?*

13. *Does labour legislation in private sector encourage women's employment in Saudi / Iran?*

14. *Do you think there is a shortage in research on women's employment in the private sector in Saudi / Iran?*

15. *If your answer was yes, what research or study do you suggest for further study?*

16. *The following factors would prevent women's employment in the private sector in Saudi / Iran. Please give your opinion about the following [Agree/Disagree]:*

- a) Women find it difficult to move from one city to another.*
- b) There are shortages in women's skills compared to the private sector needs.*
- c) Some available jobs are in mixed environment with men in the private sector*
- d) Women require extended holidays according to their status and family*
- e) Women accept higher salary than the average of males*
- f) Negative attitudes from society towards working women outside the home*

17) *The following factors would encourage and develop women's employment in the private sector in Saudi / Iran. please give your opinion about the following [Agree/Disagree]:*

- a) Offering part-time employment systems*
- b) Reducing working hours*
- c) Providing child-care facilities*
- d) Providing free transport*
- e) Give importance to technical and education*
- f) Improve the relationship between the private and public sectors towards women's education and training*

(18) why do you think Saudi private sector still demand on non-national women workers? (this question for Saudi Authorities only)

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

مقابلات مع بعض المسؤولين السعوديين في القطاعين العام و الخاص (رجال- نساء) حول توظيف المرأة السعودية بالقطاع الخاص

- ١- كيف يرى/ ترى سعادتكُم مساهمة المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص؟
- ٢- ما هي من وجهة نظر سعادتكُم أبرز المعوقات التي تقف أمام مساهمة المرأة السعودية للعمل في الوظائف النسائية المتاحة في القطاع الخاص ؟
- ٣- ما هي من وجهة نظر سعادتكُم مجالات العمل النسائية التي يمكن للمرأة السعودية أن تساهم من خلالها في النشاط الاقتصادي السعودي؟
- ٤- ما هي من وجهة نظر سعادتكُم أهم الوظائف التي يرى/ ترى سعادتكُم أن هناك حاجة لشغلها بعمالة نسائية في القطاع الخاص طبقاً لحاجة السوق في الفترة الحالية ؟
- ٥- ما هي من وجهة نظر سعادتكُم أهم العوامل التي تساهم في تشجيع المرأة السعودية للعمل في القطاع الخاص في المجالات المتاحة للمرأة؟
- ٦- كيف يرى/ ترى سعادتكُم نظام المعلومات في سوق العمل في القطاع الخاص السعودي؟ وهل هو قادر على توفير معلومات كافية عن العرض والطلب للعمالة؟
- ٧- كيف يرى/ ترى سعادتكُم المبررات التي أدت إلى تركيز المرأة السعودية في القطاع الحكومي عن القطاع الخاص؟
- ٨- هل يعتقد/ تعتقد سعادتكُم أن منشآت القطاع الخاص تفضل توظيف الرجل على المرأة في نفس المجال والمؤهل؟
- ٩- هل يعتقد/ تعتقد سعادتكُم أن مشاركة المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص في المجالين الفني و المهني ضعيفة؟
- ١٠- كيف يرى/ ترى سعادتكُم مخرجات التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني التي تقدم للمرأة السعودية من قبل مؤسسات التعليم والتدريب بالمملكة مقارنة مع حاجة القطاع الخاص؟
- ١١- كيف يرى/ ترى سعادتكُم نظرة المجتمع السعودي لعمل المرأة خارج البيت ؟
- ١٢- هل يعتقد/ تعتقد سعادتكُم أن نظام التوظيف بالقطاع الخاص يساعد ويشجع توظيف المرأة السعودية ؟
- ١٣- هل يعتقد/ تعتقد سعادتكُم أن نظام العمل والعمال في المملكة يمنح مميزات متكافئة بين العاملين والعاملات في القطاع الخاص؟
- ١٤- ما هي من وجهة نظر سعادتكُم مبررات زيادة الطلب على العمالة الأجنبية النسائية في القطاع الخاص السعودي؟
- ١٥- هل تعتقدون أن هناك نقص في الدراسات أو الأبحاث التي تهتم في توظيف المرأة في القطاع الخاص؟
- ١٦- إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم من فضلك حدد أهم الدراسات المطلوب بحثها مستقبلاً في هذا المجال؟

١٧-العوامل التالية من أهم العوامل التي أدت إلى صعوبة توظيف المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص: هل يتفق/ تتفق سعادتك مع هذه العوامل؟ من فضلك أعط رأيك :
هناك صعوبة في توظيف المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص السعودي بسبب ...

العوامل	موافق	غير موافق
١ صعوبة انتقال المرأة السعودية من مدينة إلى أخرى	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢ . عدم ملاءمة بيئة القطاع الخاص للمرأة السعودية (اغلب الوظائف تتطلب الاختلاط مع الرجال	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣ عدم توافق تأهيل وتدريب المرأة السعودية مقارنة مع حاجة القطاع الخاص.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٤ تعدد الإجازات التي تحتاجها المرأة السعودية وفقاً لظروفها العائلية	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥ عدم تأييد المجتمع لعمل المرأة خارج البيت	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٦ توظيف المرأة يتطلب مصاريف ورواتب أعلى من الرجل	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

١٨- العوامل التالية من أهم العوامل التي تساهم في تشجيع توظيف المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص. من فضلك أعط رأيك
من العوامل التي تساهم في تطوير مشاركة المرأة السعودية للعمل في القطاع الخاص في المجالات المتاحة للمرأة:

العوامل	موافق	غير موافق
١ تخفيض ساعات الدوام الرسمي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٢ تطبيق نظام الدوام الجزئي	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٣ توفير مراكز حضانة للأطفال	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٤ توفير وسائل نقل مجانية للعاملات	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٥ إعطاء أهمية أكثر للتعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
٦ تقوية العلاقة بين القطاعين العام والخاص فيما يخص تعليم وتدريب المرأة	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

الباحث

عبدالله بن صالح الشتيوي

جامعة لغيرا- بريطانيا قسم إدارة الأعمال

APPENDIX 4

1. Exploring the Mismatch Between Skills and Jobs for Women In Saudi Arabia in Technical and Vocational Areas: The Views of Saudi Arabia Private Sector Managers
Article Published in International Journal of Training and Development, 6(2), June 2002
2. How are Qualified Saudi Females Employed in the Saudi Private Sector
Paper Submitted to International Conference in Technology and Vocational – Technical Education (TVTE): Globalisation and Future Trend, Malaysia November 12-13 2001
3. New Technical Jobs for Women in the Saudi Private Sector
Paper Submitted to IVETA, Annual Conference 2001 Improving VET System, Montego Bay Jamaica W.1 July 31–August 2, 2001
4. Technical Education and Vocational Training for Women in Saudi Arabia and the Private Sector Needs for Women (Evidence from Saudi Women Employees in the Private Sector)
Paper Submitted to the Seminar Organised by the King Fahed College of Military, 7-8 Shapan 1423 (October 2002) in Arabic

Exploring the mismatch between skills and jobs for women in Saudi Arabia in technical and vocational areas: the views of Saudi Arabian private sector business managers

John R. Calvert and A. S. Al-Shetaiwi

Saudi Arabia's rapid development has highlighted the shortage of national technical manpower and the subsequent need to recruit non-Saudi technical workers, on the one hand, and the difficulty of replacing these workers with qualified Saudis, on the other. Therefore successive Development Plans have tried to raise the quality and quantity of technical and vocational education for both men and women. In 1995/96 only 5 per cent of Technical and Vocational Education (TEVT) enrolled students were female. This compares with an average of 29 per cent in other Islamic countries and 45 per cent in Japan (UNESCO, 1997, 1999). Part of this may be due to the preferences of female students in education, part due to the structure of TEVT in Saudi Arabia, part due to the availability of technical and vocational jobs available for women after completing their training and part due to the natural place of women in Saudi society. The Seventh Development Plan (2000–2004) assumes that the private sector will play a very significant role in employing a Saudi labour force including both men and women.

As part of a comprehensive study concerning the factors affecting women's employment in the Saudi private sector private sector business managers in four large cities were

□ John R Calvert is Senior Lecturer in Management Science, Loughborough University Business School, UK. AS Al-Shetaiwi is a Lecturer, Buraydah College of Technology, Saudi Arabia.

surveyed to see what factors they felt were important. The main factors affecting employment of women in technical and vocational education were seen by the managers as those relating to the structure of TEVT education in Saudi Arabia rather than preferences of women or pressures from society.

Introduction

Changing technology has enabled technical and vocational education systems to improve methods and approaches in order to prepare students, male and female, not only with current necessary skills but also for new occupations. In the past a number of countries have followed policies that did not particularly appreciate the private sector as an important part of society but now as some governments downsize their organisations, they look more and more to the private sector to provide growth in employment and to be good 'corporate citizens' (IAEVG, 1999).

In Saudi Arabia the latest Development Plan (Seventh, 2000–2004) expects 95 per cent of new jobs for Saudi nationals to come in the private sector and only 5 per cent in the public sector. Saudi Arabia's rapid development has highlighted the shortage of Saudi national technical manpower and the subsequent need to recruit non-Saudi technical workers, both male and female. In particular, the proportion of Saudi women employed in technical and vocational areas is very low (26 per cent of female workers in that area) (UNESCO, 1999). However, replacing these workers with qualified Saudis requires continuing development in technical and vocational education alongside examination of the factors that influence the employment of women in technical and vocational education.

This article sets out the development of technical and vocational education for women in Saudi Arabia and other countries, and the current situation for women employed in technical and vocational jobs particularly in Islamic countries. Finally, it analyses the results from a survey of business managers in Saudi Arabia of the factors affecting the employment of women in technical and vocational areas in the private sector. These included factors relating to the preferences of female students in education, the structure of TEVT in Saudi Arabia, the availability of technical and vocational jobs available for women after completing their training and factors relating to the natural place of women in Saudi society.

The development of education for women in Saudi Arabia

In Saudi Arabia it is difficult to trace the beginnings of national education for women before the unification of the Kingdom in 1930. Prior to that date most education for women was basically at home with the help of a female teacher and concerned the Holy Quran and understanding the Islamic Law. Modern education for women started formally in 1960, thirty years after that for men. This followed a recognition that official government schools were also needed for female students and as a consequence there was a need for proper administration of education for women to ensure it was carried out according to the Islamic Law. The government then established the General Presidency for Girls' Education (GPGE) in 1959 to take responsibility and they opened 15 girls schools in the following year, 1960 (GPGE, 1992:32). Education in Saudi Arabia is not compulsory but it is open to anyone who wishes to join the official government schools hence student preferences play a part in the output from the educational system. The government does, however, provide free general, technical, vocational and higher education with financial incentives for students (male and female) in some areas of general education and in all vocational, technical, technological and higher education with free transportation for all females. The number of

women in education in Saudi Arabia has increased sharply from 5,200 in 1960 to more than two million female students in 1999 (GPGE, 2000).

Unfortunately, large numbers of females in higher education join education or humanities courses (Ministry of Higher Education, 1998). This has led to a surplus of humanities graduates in particular, many of them unemployed, and to a serious shortage of graduates coming out of technical and vocational education. This could be due to student preference, it could be due to the structure of TEVT or it could be due to the jobs available in education in particular. Paradoxically, to improve technical and vocational education for women will require more female teachers before there can be more graduates going into employment.

Planning technical and vocational education

Technical and vocational education can only be planned with reference to the labour market. The Seventh Development plan wants 95 per cent of jobs for Saudis to be created by the private sector. Therefore, the officials responsible for planning education face the challenge that graduates must be qualified in fields required by the private sector, particularly female graduates who currently study subjects more suitable for the public sector. This requires continuing development of technical and vocational education particularly for women.

Gray emphasises the importance of links between TEVT and the labour market by arguing that:

Technical and Vocational Education needs to have close links with local industries and employers and to make full use of the cost economies possible in working with them. Just as important, however, are systems for collecting and analysing information about future manpower needs which can be used in good time in order to produce employees with the necessary skills at times and locations where those skills are required. (1993: 252)

The concept of necessary skills at times and locations where those skills are required is particularly relevant to women in the Saudi context. Thompson defined TEVT as:

Preparing future citizens for a useful and productive life through the acquisition of appropriate knowledge, skills, work and attitudes, usually with particular emphasis on preparation for employment to meet the manpower needs of industrialisation and modernisation in their societies.(1992: 7)

This definition is very helpful as it starts from the basis of what is appropriate, useful and needed in a particular society and is not limited to any particular culture.

Al-Muslemanni (1996: 8–9) stated that any TEVT can be assessed by investigating the relationship between TEVT output and the labour market needs in three areas:

1. The ability to provide skilled human resources for all technical and vocational fields.
2. The ability to provide skilled human resources for all levels in each occupation.
3. The need for all labour forces to have enough knowledge and skill to practise their qualification.

In summary, there is a need for breadth of disciplines, depth of study and applicability of the skills learnt in any TEVT scheme.

Kazis and Roched (1991) argue that in the USA, because of a rapid technological change, companies started to focus on the need to increase the supply and quality of entry level workers. There was a need for a skilled workforce to work in industry as technicians. New programmes have to be developed to provide accelerated learning for new employment prospects (ibid: 5). This suggests that Saudi Arabia could concentrate on getting more people into technical and vocational areas and should develop a more skilled workforce from entry level upwards. In particular, more women should be encouraged to join TEVT schemes. Indeed, UNESCO recommended that:

Countries should develop national policies with special Technical, Vocational and Educational programs to accommodate the training needs of women wanting to work in non-traditional occupations. Countries will also need to ensure that support mechanisms and appropriate facilities are made available for women undertaking TEVT programs. (1994: 22)

TEVT for women in industrial countries

Many of the industrialised and semi-industrialised countries have attempted to bridge the gap between educational output and the needs of the labour market by reducing the availability of those theoretical subjects which are not required by the market and increasing those areas in vocational fields which are in demand. This depends on a willingness for female students to move into the needed areas. The European Commission has demanded that women in EU countries be given the same opportunities as men with regard to access to employment, training and career development (European Commission, Directorate of Education and Culture, 2000: 25). In the UK the government is committed to encouraging greater participation by girls and young women in traditionally male-dominated disciplines such as science, engineering and technology (HMSO, 1996). Wallaby in 1999 calculated that Britain had the highest rates in the EU for women's participation in employment. He suggested that the rise from 34.1 per cent in 1959 to 49.6 per cent in 1996 was due to educational reform. In Germany, the government offers all kinds of education and training for women. As a result less than 13 per cent are without some form of qualification (Foster and Puhmann, 1996).

In Australia, the government has concentrated on ensuring women are qualified in technical education, placing less emphasis on classical education. As a result, the percentage of women enrolled in computer programming courses increased from 30 per cent in 1986 to 40 per cent in 1995 where the increase in women studying humanities increased by less than 0.5 per cent between 1986 and 1990. The Australian Government has made encouraging women to enter the labour market a central policy. By doing this, women's participation in paid work increased from 48 per cent of the total workforce in 1986 to 52 per cent in 1992 (Daley, 1996: 74-77).

In Japan the government encourages women to join the labour force by providing support and incentives for women to gain qualifications and then to use these in the labour market. Technical and vocational courses are offered to women after secondary school and women are free to make their own choices (Oki, 1996: 124). This is confirmed by the fact that in 1993 women enrolled in TEVT in Japan represented 45 per cent of the total number of students enrolled in TEVT in Japan (UNESCO, 1999: 167).

In developing countries the picture is similar in that there are policies to encourage women to train for work. In China, universities and technical colleges have been opened to provide for the needs of the labour market. Some 1679 secondary schools specialising in vocational education and 83 universities catering for courses in the technical and vocational areas existed by 1996. These provide a majority of long-term programmes for women. The government also provides short courses for women for which they have freedom of choice (Mirian, 1996: 72). In Malaysia, the government has concentrated on technical education. The number of women enrolled in TEVT increased from 4.3 per cent in 1970 to 36 per cent in 1990 as a percentage of total enrolments. This resulted in an increase in the participation of women in the labour market from 16.3 per cent in 1980 to 31 per cent in 1992. In the private sector in 1992 women's participation in accountancy-related jobs reached 55.6 per cent of the total labour force while they accounted for 76.2 per cent in medicine and 30 per cent in engineering (Ismael, 1996: 140-143).

Thus a variety of successful policies have been implemented in these countries, the only common denominator is the determination of each government to increase the participation of women in the labour force.

TEVT for women in Islamic countries

Islamic countries plan their education of women with regard to Islamic Law and the Quran, hence the policies that are appropriate may differ from the ones described above. However, if the numbers of girls enrolled in second level and in particular in technical and vocational education are compared, the results of the Islamic countries educational policies differ from those in Saudi Arabia. Table 1 shows that the rate of Saudi girls entering second-level education is comparable with women in other Islamic countries at 46 per cent of all students enrolled in second-level education. But only 5 per cent of students enrolling in TEVT in Saudi Arabia are female compared with over 25 per cent in all the other 10 Islamic countries. It would seem therefore that the number of women in technical and vocational education can be increased significantly without compromising Islamic principles. The question remains, which policies are appropriate for Saudi Arabia? Is it about incentives for girls in schools, does it require changes in the educational system, or changes in TEVT itself or is it about encouraging women to enter the labour market?

TEVT in Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia's rapid development has highlighted the shortage of national technical manpower and the subsequent need to recruit non-Saudi technical workers, on the one hand, and the difficulty of replacing these workers with qualified Saudis, on the other. Therefore successive Development Plans have tried to raise the quality and quantity of technical and vocational education for both men and women. Several governmental institutions and the private sector in Saudi Arabia provide long and short courses in TEVT for both males and females. However, TEVT is organised by different bodies for males and females. GOTEVT is the government body for TEVT for males and is the largest such organisation in Saudi Arabia whereas TEVT for females falls under the General Presidency for Girls' Education and is delivered through Technical Institutes and Vocational Centres in a parallel structure to that for males. Health education, on the other hand, is organised for both males and females through health institutes and health colleges by the Ministry of Health. Business and management courses for males and for females are provided for the private and public sector by Public Administration Institutes. In addition, there are specialised

Table 1: The number of girls enrolled in the second level, particularly in TEVT

Year	Country	Second level			Technical and vocational education					
		Students enrolled			Staff	Pupils				
		Total	Female	F%	Total	Female	F%	Total	Female	F%
93/94	Pakistan	5022416	1613275	32	6850	2860	42	92000	30000	33
94/95	Turkey	4725551	1842245	39	67791	26265	39	1231698	459195	37
94/95	Indonesia	12223753	5556730	45	117472	33436	28	1591757	675648	42
94/95	Iran	7652829	3402131	44	19880	3312	17	347008	84056	24
94/94	Malaysia	1624568	823178	51	4610	1635	35	32469	8203	25
95/96	Jordan	176123	83058	47	2306	712	31	33109	11078	33
95/96	Kuwait	206934	101588	49	246	67	27	1975	564	29
95/96	Egypt	6142651	2793210	45	133794	50507	38	1900406	835601	44
92/93	Iraq	1144938	433787	38	9318	4837	52	130303	33694	26
95/96	Syria Arab	940982	429953	46	12200	4600	38	94204	48203	51
95/96	Saudi Arabia	142785	652344	46	2991	381	13	24570	1156	5

Source: UNESCO (1997, 1999)

courses run in house or in universities for the government and the private sector. The Ministry of Communications and other ministries have specialised training institutions.

Thus there is a very complex pattern of technical and vocational education and a variety of organisations involved. The government provides incentives for Saudi nationals, both male and female, to study TEVT and it provides incentives and interest free loans for all graduates if they start up their own business after graduation. Thus it has a mixture of policies for TEVT. Can these be improved upon particularly for women?

TEVT in Saudi Arabia for females

Before 1973 TEVT for girls was through the family and aimed at those skills required for being a useful wife and mother. This was seen as compatible with the Islamic tradition and this is still encouraged in that women are expected to have skills in the modern domestic environment such as managing the domestic economy, decorating the house and using new technology within the home. In 1973 TEVT began for women through the establishment of two designing and sewing centres. However, in 1991 the General Presidency for Girls' Education (GPGE) formally became the controller of TEVT for women in both private and public sector. It sets out to ensure that women are qualified to meet the needs of the labour market. At the same time it intends to recognise and value the role of women in society by developing and enhancing their skills continuously and provide them with special skills to enable them to contribute to the female labour market by creating new opportunities. Thus women will be able to support their families by increasing their income and, at the same time, reduce Saudi reliance on non-Saudi labour.

Since 1991 the GPGE has taken certain steps to develop women's TEVT such as changing the name of the Department of Vocational Education to the General Department of Technical and Vocational Education. A high level committee has been set up to design a new strategy for TEVT for women and to emphasise its importance. Other committees have been set up, one of professional women to review TEVT for economic and household management and another to review legislation relating to the structure of TEVT. More recently, the GPGE has been allowed to become responsible for a private institute and offer its own accreditation. The GPGE is now able to nominate representatives to begin a programme of co-operation between those responsible for male and female technical and vocational education.

These policies seem to emphasise the importance the government gives to TEVT for women but how have they worked in practice? Do they deliver Al-Muslemani's three measures previously mentioned, namely, the breadth of TEVT for females, the depth of TEVT for females and the applicability of the skills involved?

Institutions for TVET in Saudi Arabia

These started with the Vocational Training Centres in 1973 to provide practical courses in the sewing field to help Saudi women to help their families, to work with other women or set up their own businesses. The study period is currently two years and assessment is entirely practical and does not involve examinations. The main conditions for acceptance are that candidates are Saudi women between the ages of 16 and 35 with primary school certificates. In 1973 there were two centres but by 1999 there were 40 centres (GPGE, 2000). In 1995 three Technical Institutes for women in Saudi Arabia were established to provide qualified women in home economics, in particular, textiles and home management. Later the GPGE is expecting to add the fields of computing (programming and maintenance), management sciences (statistics, accountancy and secretarial services), light industries (clothes and food preparation), information systems (library and printing) and education (systems and technical tools for teaching). For these courses candidates will have to be Saudi

women between 18 and 20 holding a general secondary school certificate. They will be full-time students and have no qualifications higher than the institute awards. There are now 17 Technical Institutes for Women with a study period of three years. Students have to take at least 30 hours a week including workshops. They also have to pass an examination involving theory and practice.

These Institutes will, if plans come to fruition, provide more breadth of TEVT but the emphasis is still on the entry level for women into the qualified workforce. As was pointed out earlier, this may be the best way for Saudi Arabia to increase the number of women qualified for joining the workforce, rather than trying to increase the depth of TEVT study when the opportunities for highly qualified women may not be widespread.

Saudi women in TEVT

The number of women in TEVT increased sharply between 1973 and 1999 (see Table 2). This was because of direct governmental encouragement and by the government changing, to a small degree, society's attitude towards TEVT for women. The government did this by publicly emphasising the value of TEVT for women in a number of ways. For example, a well-known academic was appointed as the head of the General Presidency for Girls' Education rather than an administrator. There were a number of seminars for the media and education on TEVT for women. This allowed the government to expand TEVT for women. As indicated above, the total number of institutions involved increased from two Vocational Institutes in 1973 to 40 Vocational and 17 Technical Institutes in 1999.

Table 2 shows that the number of women in Technical Institutes exceeded the number in Vocational Institutes only in 1998 and that the number of graduates has yet to exceed those from Vocational Institutes. However, Table 2 also shows that whereas the Vocational Institutes started in 1973 with 137 students and 10 staff, all non-Saudi women, by 1999, there were 630 staff of whom 75 per cent were Saudi women. This suggests that the expansion in TEVT for women is being successfully provided by qualified Saudi women, thus moving towards two targets of government policy.

Table 2 also shows that vocational training is slowing down and that technical training is quickly expanding (up by a factor of 6 times from 1995 to 1999). This reflects the changing attitudes of society with respect to technical education for

Table 2: Women enrolled, graduated and the teaching staff in TEVT provided by GPGE

Year	Institutions	Enrolled students		Graduated students		Teaching staff	
		VT	TE	VT	TE	Saudi	Non-Saudi
1973	2	137	-	-	-	-	10
1975	4	505	-	233	-	-	43
1980	9	860	-	282	-	32	65
1985	19	1199	-	482	-	97	84
1990	22	1522	-	547	-	146	70
1995	28	1541	472	552	-	202	123
1996	30	1528	937	53	-	215	138
1997	34	1514	1269	663	276	223	56
1998	44	1614	2101	659	504	275	113
1999	57	1736	2541	-	-	474	156

Source: GPGE (1999:191-3); GPGE (2000)

women. Graduates can continue their studies in home economics and technical fields and this is an added incentive for students in Technical Institutes whereas graduates from the Vocational Institutes have nowhere further to go. This expansion in TEVT provided by GPGE is only part of the expansion of the numbers of women in secondary and higher education.

Women in education in Saudi Arabia

The numbers of female students approximately balances the number of male students in primary, secondary and in higher education but the number in TEVT is only 9.1 per cent of students enrolled in TEVT in 1999 (see Table 3). In all sectors except TEVT the numbers of girls has started low but caught up with the numbers of boys by about 1997. Thus the educational system is turning out secondary school students and university students but not students who are going into TEVT.

Most female university graduates are in social science, education, humanities and religious studies (see Table 4). As a consequence, they are only employed in occupations that correspond to their education. This reflects the vital role that education plays in determining accessibility to the labour market. Is this pattern due to student preference for the discipline or the perceived lack of jobs in other areas?

The government through the Seventh Development Plan is tackling this by trying to restrict the numbers in the popular subjects and so channel students into disciplines required by the labour market. The government's targets include the following:

- improve efficiency and effectiveness of TEVT and develop pertinent agencies;
- improve the quality of training programmes with due emphasis on advanced technology;
- update the curricula to meet the requirements of the labour market;
- ensure horizontal and vertical expansion of TEVT to cover all regions of the Kingdom;
- expand on the job training in the private and public sectors.

This leaves room for a variety of policies to implement these targets. Table 4 shows that 80 per cent of female students in Higher Education are in Education, Islamic or Humanities subjects and so the percentages in the subjects required by the labour market are negligible, for example 1.8 per cent in medicine, 0.6 per cent in agriculture.

Table 3: Comparison of male and female enrolments in General, Higher, and TEVT

Year	Intermediate school		Secondary school		University and college		Technical and vocational education	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1970	56000	5000	18000	2000	7000		1504	
1975	99000	38000	32000	10000	16000	3000	6570	505
1980	156000	80000	64000	29000	35000	13000	16879	860
1985	232000	141000	93000	65000	58000	36000	22912	1199
1990	304000	210000	142000	110000	69000	53000	28037	1532
1995	443000	372000	245000	202000	87000	83000	38820	2013
1996	447000	395000	220000	232000	99000	87000	38625	2465
1997	493000	436000	276000	276000	109000	113000	36241	2783
1998	516000	444000	299000	309000	134000	138000	36950	3715
1999	538000	472000	334000	337000	147000	174000	37150	4277

Source: Ministry of Planning, Achievements of Development Plans from 1970 to 2000, GPGE (1999) GPGE (2000)

Table 4: Saudi women graduates from Higher Education according to discipline in 1998

Subject	Total graduated	Female	% Female	% Female graduate by subject*
Economics & Admin.	2042	764	37.4	4.0
Education	16197	10894	67.2	57.5
Islamic Studies	4693	1247	26.6	6.6
Social Science	586	176	30.0	1.0
Humanities	5230	3029	58.0	16.0
Agriculture	287	110	38.3	0.6
Medicine	836	339	40.5	1.8
Natural Science	2529	1439	57.0	7.5
Engineering	1269	0	0	0
Others	933	933	100	5.0
Total	34602	18931	54.7	100

Source: Ministry of Higher Education (1998)

Note: * This column is the ratio of female graduates in a subject to the total female graduates expressed as a percentage.

Women's employment in Saudi Arabia

The public sector is the largest employer of women. Today women graduates from universities or training institutes form 96 per cent of the women employed in education (GPGE, 1999). Most women graduates want to work in the public sector but there are not the vacancies to absorb these graduates and the government would like to see them absorbed into the private sector. The public sector women employees are in administrative, academic and medical areas, while the private sector women employees are mainly in the technical and vocational area.

From Table 5 it can be shown that 74.3 per cent of the total women employees in the public sector in 1999 were in education, working as teachers, with 96 per cent of them being Saudi nationals. By contrast, only 15 per cent were working in the technical area, of which only 26 per cent were Saudi nationals. As regards the private sector, the number of women employees has increased from 8,374 in 1989 to 31,052 in 1996. However, the latter figure includes only 12 per cent Saudi nationals (Riyadh Chamber, 1997:19). Thus, there is a large expansion in the employment of women in the private sector but not of Saudi women. Is this due to female preferences in education, the structure of TEVT or the attitudes of the private sector?

There have been limited ventures by women in some of the large cities where

Table 5: Female employees in the public sector in 1999

Type of employment	Saudi females	Non-Saudi female	Total of employees	% Saudi females*
Educational	170992	7195	178187	96.0
Technical	9332	26667	35999	26.0
Administration	12280	1324	13604	90.0
Academic	2983	694	3677	81.0
Unqualified	8292	60	8352	99.0
Total	203879	35940	239819	85.0

Source: Ministry of Civil Service (1999: 18)

Note: * This column is the ratio of Saudi female employees in a subject to the total female employees in the Saudi public sector expressed as a percentage.

shopping centres, craft shops, computing and medical centres have been set up staffed entirely by women. But the latest Census of Population and Housing in 1992 revealed 33 per cent of women graduates were unemployed compared with 3 per cent for male graduates. However, at lower levels of education the position is reversed. This suggests that women who do not achieve high levels of education may find work more easily in more mundane jobs whereas more highly educated women may find difficulty in finding appropriate work.

Government efforts to train and educate Saudi women have been considerable, however, female education has lacked the specialisation required by the private sector. Hence the unemployment of university women graduates. In 2001 there were 54,000 unemployed female graduates looking for work and the General Civil Service Office has not been able to place all of them in employment, due in part to a reluctance to work far from their current area of residence (*Al-Riyadh*, 2001) and in part due to the lack of relevance of their university subjects to the jobs on offer. The Seventh Development Plan involves a switch to employment in the private sector and this will require changes in women's attitudes as well as changes in TEVT. The public sector is seen to have more security but there is a need for qualified women in the private sector. Table 6 shows the most urgently needed jobs for women in the private sector based on demand in the private sector. But earlier the description of the Vocational and Technical Institutes revealed that currently the subjects do not match the needs of the private sector. Also despite most TEVT for women involving textiles and sewing, the 135 textile factories employing 16,800 personnel include more than 95 per cent non-Saudi staff and some small sewing factories are 90 per cent male non-Saudi workers (Ministry of Industry and Electricity, 1999: 141-53).

What factors then affect the recruitment of women into the private sector, is it their attitude, their education or is it the attitudes of managers in the private sector? Educational output has been identified as a problem by many research studies. Al-Bakar (1990), Al-Nimer (1988, 1989), Al-Husaini (1993), Al-Ghaith and Al-Mashoq (1996), Ben-Duheash (1995), Katan (1995), Saudi Civil Office (1996), Al-Nuaim (1997), Al-Hazmi (1997), Al-Ghamdi (1998), Al-Rushaid (1998), Al-Saban (1998), Al-Husaini (1999) and Da-Ghstani (2000) all see it as limiting women's entry into the labour market. We are investigating this problem for women within TEVT.

There is a lack of information about women's employment in the private sector and so we have carried out a questionnaire analysis of Saudi business managers to see what they see as the important factors affecting women's employment in the private sector.

Table 6: The ten most needed jobs in the Saudi Private Sector

Private sector jobs in order of need			
1	Medicine and medical	6	Social services
2	assistants	7	Education
3	Computers	8	Food Preparation
4	Textiles	9	Electronic Services
5	Childcare	10	Accountancy
	Sewing		

Source: Calvert and Al-Shetaiwi (2001)

Method

The sample

Using the Industrial and Commercial Chamber's lists of companies, 800 companies were selected from the four largest cities in Saudi Arabia; namely Riyadh, the capital, Jeddah, the second largest city in land area, Dammam, the centre of many industrial and manufacturing companies and Buraydah, which is the largest agricultural area. These cities also employed about 80 per cent of women in Saudi Arabia (Census of Population and Housing, 1992). Of the randomly selected 800 managers, 220 questionnaires were returned.

The companies surveyed

In the sample Saudi nationals made up 21.5 per cent of the workforce, of which 12 per cent were female. Non-Saudi nationals made up the other 78.5 per cent of the workforce, of which about 12 per cent were female. So about 20 per cent of the female workers were Saudi women. These percentages varied between companies in the different sectors of industry. The largest proportion of women employees was in the service sector (46.7 per cent) and the lowest in the agricultural sector (2.2 per cent). In terms of the type of job, the most popular jobs for Saudi women were administrative and technical (35 per cent and 30 per cent of Saudi women employees) whereas the most popular for non-national women were technical and vocational (63 per cent and 22 per cent of non-Saudi women employees).

Factors affecting women's employment in the private sector

A large majority of the respondents (83 per cent) mentioned that Saudi women's participation in technical and vocational jobs in the private sector is still limited and that they are not able to fill all the available technical and vocational jobs for women in the Saudi private sector. A smaller majority (63 per cent) stated that they had some knowledge of the programmes or courses provided for women in TEVT through GPGE. Of the managers with knowledge of the TEVT programmes, a large majority (63 per cent) suggested that TEVT for women is not orientated towards providing qualified women in technical and vocational fields for the private sector.

When asked why TEVT was not delivering what they wanted, the following reasons were cited:

1. A lack of qualified female staff in TEVT institutions (mentioned by 93.4 per cent).
2. There is a mismatch between TEVT output and private sector needs (80.9 per cent).
3. A lack of co-operation between the public and private sector concerning TEVT programmes and courses (70.8 per cent).
4. A shortage of facilities in the TEVT institutions for women (64.8 per cent).
5. A lack of planning in TEVT policy for women (60.4 per cent).

The attitudes of women towards the private sector or the attitudes of managers or the difficulties for managers of employing Saudi women did not receive majority support.

Conclusion

The earlier discussion revealed that there are several ways to plan and implement a TEVT system for women and that there are several possible factors which may affect success of such a system. It is clear from the questionnaire analysis that the managers see the current TEVT system as not satisfying their needs. They also suggest changes

to that system as the best place to start. If we use Al-Muslemani's criteria mentioned earlier, we can conclude as follows:

1. The current system does not have the breadth of subjects in TEVT for their needs. It is suggested therefore that the expansion of the range of subjects in Technical Institutes in the six areas planned by the government should be implemented as soon as possible to produce women trained in computing, electronics, accountancy and the other subjects needed by the private sector. This will satisfy private sector needs and lead to a replacement of non-Saudi workers.
2. The current system does not have the staff to produce the depth of study so that the demand for well-qualified females in particular subjects cannot be satisfied. It is therefore suggested that the expansion of TEVT is not just at entry level but that the training of staff required in TEVT Institutes be a key element in the development of TEVT. There is a high proportion of Saudi women teachers in TEVT but not at the right level according to the sample managers.
3. The skills provided by the current system are not appropriate to the needs of our sample managers. It is therefore suggested that more co-operation should take place between the public and private sector in the planning of TEVT. Also direct links should be established between women's education and the labour market. Following the survey it is suggested that progress can be made by altering the structure of TEVT in Saudi Arabia directly rather than by trying to change things indirectly by trying to change the attitudes of girls in schools, colleges or universities.

These suggestions all have the advantage that the changes proposed are implementable, measurable and controllable without compromising the Islamic principles underpinning Saudi Arabian society.

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How are qualified Saudi females employed in the Saudi Private sector?

By

**¹Dr. John R. Calvert
Loughborough University (UK)
Business School
Email: j.r.calvert@lboro.ac.uk**

**²Mr. Abdullah S. Al-Shetaiwi
Loughborough University (UK)
Business School
Email: awm64@hotmail.com**

¹ Senior Lecturer in Management Science in Loughborough University at Business School (UK)

² a Ph.D. Student in Loughborough University at Business School and Lecturer in Buraydah College of Technology (Saudi Arabia)

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Executive Summary

Although there is unemployment of qualified women in Saudi Arabia, the private sector still relies mostly on non-national female labour. The Saudi government has tried, and is still trying to reach a turning point in providing qualified women for the private sector. The main reason for this is to replace non-national employees with national employees and thus reduce unemployment for qualified females.

In this paper the authors will investigate the problem of unemployed qualified Saudi females in two ways:

1. An assessment of job opportunities for women in the private sector in relation to their qualifications and their opinions of such available jobs.
2. A comparison of the perceived factors preventing Saudi female's employment in the private sector with private sector views of the limiting factors.

This has been achieved by field research, including the use of a semi-structured questionnaire including 220 men and 145 women.

This report will concentrate mostly on background research but will present some conclusions, which have been derived from the data collected so far.

1. Introduction

Saudi Arabia is an example of an Islamic country governed by the teachings of the Holy Quran and Sunnah. The Saudi people have quite a different culture from the Western world. Islam is the country's official culture.

Saudi Arabia is located on the extreme Southwest of Asia. It is the largest country in the Middle East, with a land area of approximately 2.25 million square kilometres (Ministry of Planning, 1996, p15). The population of Saudi Arabia totalled 19.9 million at the end of February 1999. The average growth per annum over the period 1992-1999 amounted to 2.9 percent. Saudis accounted for 14.9 million or 74.8 percent of the total population, while non-Saudis accounted for 5.0 million or 25.2 percent of the total. Persons whose ages ranged between one year and 29 years constituted 73.0 percent of total Saudi population, while those ages ranged between 20 years and 60 years accounted for 70.2 percent of the total non-Saudi population (Monetary Agency, 2000, p249).

Saudi Arabia has been undergoing changes in all aspects of its social life, especially after the discovery of oil in 1938 when changes occurred to the structure of the economy. Although these changes have occurred it still retains an essentially traditional character. The family is the main unit of the social organisation in the country. Kinship ties and recognition of mutual obligation within the family group are principal norms in Saudi's social organisation. Therefore, the family is the centre of the social structure and loyalty to the family overshadows all other obligations. Within the family all individual members participate in major family decisions, but the final decision is under the father's control. Women are increasingly being consulted in the decision-making process.

According to Al-Bakar (1990), Saudi Arabia officially and socially listens to the Ulama: the religious leaders. Although they were the first to appoint women as teachers upon the formation of the General Presidency of Girls' Education, the Ulama questions other work outside the home. Their argument focuses on the reproductive capacity of women and they look upon motherhood as a woman's major role in life.

Traditional roles of Saudi women have been defined and developed by society. By virtue of their biological difference, men and women occupy different social roles with different areas of work. Whereas men are seen as the 'breadwinners' of the family, women are considered to be responsible for the home, assuming the domestic role of wife and mother. Conservative and traditionalist elements argue that Islamic laws, social norms and local traditions have praised and defined the natural role of women as mothers and housewives.

2. Basic facts about the Saudi economy and workforce

The economy of Saudi Arabia is dominated by four main characteristics: its dependence on oil; its commitment to a free economy; its manpower problems; and its rapid progress in all sectors (Seventh Development Plan, 1999-2004).

Since the discovery of oil, many changes have taken place in a short time. Oil has been imperative to the development of Saudi Arabia despite the country's successes in expanding the industrial and agricultural sectors of the economy. As a result, large numbers of foreign workers are employed in many important areas of the economy, particularly in women's sectors such as education, training, health, textiles and sewing.

The oil sector is the principal field of economic activity in Saudi Arabia. Oil and its by-products continue to be the backbone of the economy and the main source of wealth and income in Saudi Arabia.

The income of the oil sector determines the movement and the capacity of the social and economic development. Hence, it is the most powerful and influential driving force in the social and economic fields in the country. The petroleum cycle continues as the principal resource in the process of development. The efforts spent during the past years to develop other industries have led to an increase in the roles of these in the total production for Saudi Arabia.

The experiment of the last years has illustrated that the social cost of development is very high in Saudi Arabia in comparison to other countries, this is due to *its dependence upon* importing manpower, which exceeded the actual requirements of development. This led to the presence of what is called the 'surplus of foreign manpower'. This is due to the types of production of dense areas of manpower in various sectors; this leads to concealed unemployment.

The increase of foreign manpower during previous years was due to the unsuitability of national manpower for development and the volume of national manpower in aspects, quality and quantity. In addition to this expansion in employment in some fields machines can replace human actions. Therefore, an increase is seen in the relative importance of skilled foreign manpower. Hence the relative importance of foreign inhabitants is compared to the decline in relative importance of native inhabitants during the last development plan (2000-2005). Their relative significance in influencing the various economic activities and sectors has also declined.

The specific focus, targets and priorities of the five development plans (from the Fourth plan 1985 to the Seventh plan 2000) have been established in the context of the Kingdom's long-term goals and strategic objectives. These were maintained consistently over the past 30 years, although their emphasis on economic, social and institutional aspects, have varied in each plan. Table 1 shows the percentage of spending on human resources compared to other activities. It is clearly seen from the fourth plan (1985) to the seventh plan (2004), the government concentrated mostly on human resources development.

Table 1: Spending (%) on economic activities during the development plans (1970-2004)

Activities	First Plan 1970-1975	Second Plan 1975-1980	Third Plan 1980-1985	Fourth plan 1985-1990	Fifth Plan 1990-1995	Sixth plan 1995-2000	Seventh plan 2000-2004
Economic Resources	27.7	28.0	30.7	20.4	10.0	11.5	8.5
<i>Human Resources</i>	20.6	14.7	18.4	33.0	48.0	51.5	56.7
Social & Sanitary Resources	10.3	8.0	9.8	17.7	20.0	20.8	19.6
Infrastructure Resources	41.4	49.3	41.1	28.9	22.0	16.2	15.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Ministry of Planning, Seventh Development Plan, 2000, p. 40, 66, 158

3. Women's education in Saudi Arabia

In Saudi Arabia, the government placed great importance on developing human resources through continuous advances in primary, intermediate, secondary and higher education, as well as in technical education and vocational training. The result has been an increase in the productive employment of Saudi citizens and a steady upgrading of skill levels and occupational achievements of the Saudi labour force. The following indicators point to the quality and scale of achievement in developing the Kingdom's human resources. The number of male and female students enrolled at the primary, intermediate and secondary levels of general education rose by 3.4 percent to 3.99 million in the academic year 1419/20 (1999). The number of students in institutions of the General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVT) increased by 21.3 percent to 46,058 at the end of 1419/20 (1999). The number of male and female students in higher education went up by 25.3 percent to 371,522 (SAMA, 2000, P. 235-245).

The total number of both male and female students enrolled in government and private schools at the primary, intermediate and secondary levels of general education exceeded 3.99 million during the academic year 1419/20 (1999), as compared with 3.87 million during the preceding academic year, increasing by 3.4 percent.

Although modern education for women in Saudi Arabia began formally thirty years after the education system for men, the number of women recently enrolled in secondary school and higher education has increased more sharply than for men.

It is interesting to find, however, that the number of women enrolled in technical and vocational education in 1999 was only 9.13% of the number of students (males and females) enrolled in TEVT in 1999. This low figure is due to technical education for women only starting formally in 1995 (Table 2).

Table 2: Development of Saudi education (Male and Female) during the five development plans (1970 to 1999)

Year	Intermediate School		Secondary School		University and College		Technical and Vocational Education	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1970	56000	5000	18000	2000	7000		1504	
1975	99000	38000	32000	10000	16000	3000	6570	505
1980	156000	80000	64000	29000	35000	13000	16879	860
1985	232000	141000	93000	65000	58000	36000	22912	1199
1990	304000	210000	142000	110000	69000	53000	28037	1532
1995	443000	372000	245000	202000	87000	83000	38820	2013
1996	447000	395000	220000	232000	99000	87000	38625	2465
1997	493000	436000	276000	276000	109000	113000	36241	2783
1998	516000	444000	299000	309000	134000	138000	36950	3715
1999	538000	472000	334000	337000	147000	174000	37150	4277

Source: Ministry of Planning, Achievements of Development Plans from 1970 to 2000, GPGE, 1999, Girls' Education over thirty-nine Years.
GPGE, 2000, Girls' Education, Statistical report.

In higher education most females are graduates of social science, education, humanities and religious studies. As a consequence, female graduates are only employed in occupations that correspond to the type of schooling available to them in the educational institutions. This, indeed, reflects the vital role education, which under its present objectives and philosophy, plays in determining the accessibility to, and distribution of, females among jobs available to them in the labour market. Table 3 shows women in higher education according to subject. The figure clearly shows that most females are in the education, Islamic and humanities subjects, representing 80% of all female graduate students in universities in 1998. Their percentage is almost negligible in other subjects. This problem has been recognised by the Seventh Development Plan (2000–2004, pp293-294) as one of the

challenges to be addressed by channelling students into disciplines required by the labour market rather than to keep accepting more and more students into education and humanities.

Table 3: Saudi women graduated from universities according to their subject in comparison with men in 1998

Subject	Total graduated	Female	% Female	% Female graduated by subject*
Economics & Admin.	2042	764	37.4	4.0
Education	16197	10894	67.2	57.5
Islamic Studies	4693	1247	26.6	6.6
Social Science	586	176	30.0	1.0
Humanities	5230	3029	58.0	16.0
Agriculture	287	110	38.3	0.6
Medicine	836	339	40.5	1.8
Natural Science	2529	1439	57.0	7.5
Engineering	1269	0	0	0
Others	933	933	100	5.0
Total	34602	18931	54.7	100

Source: Ministry of Higher Education, Statistical Report, 1998.

* This column is the ratio of female graduates in a subject to the total female graduates expressed as a percentage.

4. Women's employment in Saudi Arabia

Before 1959, Saudi people never thought that women would work officially outside the home. Their cultural values (which marked the traditional role of women as wife and mother etc.) made it difficult for them to consider women in the work force.

The first consideration by the Saudi government for women was to create facilities to educate and qualify them as teachers. In providing these educational facilities, the negative attitude of their families had to be overcome. This negative attitude resulted from the feeling that if women were educated they would want to go to work and this would bring attendant problems. The government initiated a programme for scholars and the media to give the correct picture of the values of education for women. A result of this thinking was that the Director of the General Presidency of Women's Education had to be a scholar. With the government supporting and encouraging the education of women, the result is that in some areas, for example, university and high school, women's enrolment and graduates are the same or higher than for men.

Today on a national scale women graduates from universities or training colleges form 96% of women employed in education (General Presidency of Girl's Education Report, 1999).

In Saudi Arabia most women graduates want to work in the public sector. However, there simply are not the vacancies to absorb these graduates and the government would like to see them absorbed into the private sector, as most of the available jobs are being provided by the private sector. The public sector includes women with administrative, academic and medical qualifications, while the private sector includes women with technical and vocational qualifications (Table 5).

Table 5: Female employees in the public sector according to type of jobs in 1999

Type of employment	Saudi females	Non-Saudi Female	Total of Employees	% Saudi Females*
Educational	170992	7195	178187	96.0
Technical	9332	26667	35999	26.0
Administration	12280	1324	13604	90.0
Academic	2983	694	3677	81.0
Unqualified	8292	60	8352	99.0
Total	203,879	35,940	239819	85.0

Ministry of Civil Service (1999) "Statistical Year Report", p18

*This column is the ratio of Saudi female employees in a subject to the total female employees in the Saudi public sector expressed as a percentage.

The educational field is the most popular type of job recognised and accepted by women, as well as society. In 1998 there were 162,974 women working as teachers (Saudi Civil Service Bureau, 1998, p6), this number increased to 178,187 in 1999 (Ministry of Civil Service, 200, p18). The 1999 figure showed 74.30% of the total number of women employees in the public sector are in education working as teachers, 96% of them are Saudi.

Women employees in technical jobs represent 15% of total working women in the public sector (Saudi 26% and non-Saudi 74%). This is followed by administration with a rate of 5.7% of total woman employees in the public sector and finally the universities where the staff rate was 1.5% (Saudi 81%) (see Table 5).

In the past few decades, Saudi women have not had any apparent formal participation in the activities of the private sector with the exception of small, family-run businesses. The private sector establishments and companies do not have any enthusiasm for employing women; this is due to the costly expenditure of providing suitable situations for women in employment. However, women's participation in the private sector in recent years has been more directed and operated by women, some of whom have already started up in some cities, for example, a shopping centre, craft shops, textile and sewing factories, property, hairdressing, computing and medical centres. All these fields are suggested as a way of ensuring the seclusion of women, where all the salespersons, employees and managers are women and no men are allowed to enter.

Therefore, statistics show that the number of women employees in the private sector has risen from 8,374 in 1989 (Ben-Duhaish, 1995) to 31,052 employees in 1996 (12% national and 82% non-national). Most non-national women work in technical and vocational jobs (Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber, 1997, p19).

In the past, the agriculture sector was considered one of the most important activities of the indigenous population. Before the discovery of oil in 1973, agriculture constituted one of the primary work activities for women in the Saudi Arabian society. Women in herding communities were responsible for dairy products, care of the animals and assisting their husbands in farm management.

After the discovery of oil, people shifted their activities from producing their own food and farming their own land to importing food products and hiring foreign workers to farm their lands. In 1973-74 the number of paid women agricultural workers was 9,176 representing 4.4% of the total Saudi workforce in agriculture. Of the total paid women farmers only 2,254 were permanent workers (54.5%) while the rest were temporary or seasonal workers (Kattan, 1991, p119).

Recently Saudi women have lost interest in working in the agricultural field because of society's change and development on the one hand, while on other, the government encouraged women's education and training to work in girls institutions as teachers, administrators, doctors and nurses.

In 1996 women employees in the agricultural sector was no more than five employees and only one of them was a Saudi woman, (Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber, 1997). There are still some Saudi women in unpaid work in this field, especially in the Aseer and Qassem regions.

In the industrial sector, ARAMCO (an oil company) and LAZORDY a factory for jewellery design, are the major companies in Saudi Arabia employing women in the private sector. ARAMCO was the first company in the private sector to begin recruiting women and offering scholarships for girls to study, while LAZORDY was the first private Saudi factory to design gold and jewellery, the majority of these women performed clerical and technical jobs and few held professional posts.

In 1980, the number of women employees in ARAMCO was 2,973, 6% were Saudi women (Kattan, 1991, p116) and this number increased to 3,000 women employees in 1989 (Al-Munajjed, 1997, p92). The number of women employees in the LAZORDY factory in 1999 is 146, 60% are Saudis (Unpublished Data collected by authors' questionnaire, May 1999).

The Al Rajhi Company opened the first bank for women in Riyadh in January 1990 – for currency, exchange and commerce. It offers limited banking services and all current

accounts are held by Saudi women (Al-Munajjed, 1997, p91). In the past Saudi Arabia provided banking services indirectly for women. This is due to the separation of the sexes, but to remedy this situation and to provide banking services directly to women, several banks opened women's branches to help and encourage women to invest and manage their own money. This step, which the banks in the country have taken recently in operating female departments, provided some employment opportunities for many female Saudi citizens to work. In the Saudi British bank there are 185 woman employees, all are Saudis (Unpublished data collected from author's questionnaire, March, 1999).

Saudi women began to accept work in private schools and hospitals but are still relatively small in number and dependency on expatriates remains high because these schools and hospitals require higher qualifications and their salaries are less than those in the government. The number of Saudi female teacher's working in general private schools was 67 in 1982, this may be explained by the decreased opportunities of employment in public schools, now Saudi woman teachers accept lower salaries for jobs in private schools.

In the scope of private education, which followed and is supervised by the General Presidency of Girl's Education, female Saudi working personnel participates in activities of these private schools in all stages, in all possible positions, such as an administrator, a supervisor, a teacher or a user. According to the rules and instructions the manager of the private school must be a Saudi.

"The total count of the female Saudi working personnel who fill the administrative occupations in the private education is 1,904. The total count of those working in the educational occupations in the private sector in the Kingdom in 1997 was 4,100 Saudis and more than 8,000 non-Saudis." (Al-Hazmy, 1997, p8)

5. Unemployment in the Saudi labour market

Table 6: Distribution of labour force in Saudi Arabia (National and Non-national) in 1992

Labour force	Employees	Unemployed	Total
National labour	1,975,222	306611	2,281,833
°°	86.56°°	13.44%	100%
Non- national labour	2,939,186	89,531	3028717
°°	97.04	2.96%	100°°
Total	4,914,408	396,142	5,307,550

Table 7: Distribution of unemployment within national manpower in Saudi Arabia in 1992

Unemployment	Males %	Females %	Total
Unemployed (working)	19.96	5.13	57787
Unemployed (never working)	80.04	94.87	248824
Total	283,605	23,005	306,611
°°	100°°	100°°	

It can be seen from Tables 6 and 7 that the number of unemployed national women in 1992 were 23,005 women out of 306,611, which represents 7.5% of the total while unemployed males represent 92.5% of the total of unemployment.

The rate of unemployment among the non-national labour is 2.96%. The reason behind the large differences between nationals and non-nationals is that foreigner recruitment is only for employment according to the Saudi law, which states that non-national labour recruitment is done only for the necessitating requirements. These requirements, which Saudi citizens cannot fill, must be performed by foreign labour.

The percentage of unemployment of national women represents 12% of the total number of Saudi women citizens, of this percentage 33% are university graduates. Indeed, at

all levels of education in Saudi Arabia (from secondary level and above), the rates of unemployment are higher for females than for males, while at lower levels of education the rate differences reverse and unemployment is higher for men than for women.

According to the last census (1992) women employed in educational fields represented 80% of the total of employed women, more than 90% of these are in the public sector. In the health sector, public and private, for example, 138,861 personnel were employed of which 80% were non-nationals (Ministry of Planning, 2001, p331). However, in the Seventh Development Plan (2000-2004) 95% of the total job opportunities for nationals will be provided by the private sector, while the remaining 5% will be absorbed by the public sector. Pressure is on the private sector to absorb almost the total of the available national labour force. This requires the Saudi woman to change her attitude to employment in the private sector. In addition, Saudi women believe that working for the public sector provides job security, which is lacking in the private sector. This requires plans and programmes specifically for women according to Islamic law, Sharia'a, to enable them to play their role in the socio-economic development of the Kingdom in women's environment as highlighted in the Seventh Development Plan (2000-2004).

At present (2001) there are 54,000 female university graduates unemployed and looking for work. The Ministry of Civil Service has only been able to place 10% of them in employment in the public sector. This is due to the lack of qualified women in some subjects on one hand, and because most women applicants do not accept jobs far from their place of residence (Al-Riyadh Newspaper, 2001).

6.0 Empirical analysis

This section concentrates on the questionnaire responses from Saudi business managers and unemployed Saudi women.

The questionnaire attempts to reveal information that could help in understanding the current situation of unemployed qualified Saudi women compared to private sector needs and to investigate the main factors preventing the employment of qualified women in this sector.

The main objective of this section is to analyse the data concerning issues of women's employment in the Saudi private sector, which has resulted from the responses of business managers and unemployed qualified women in Saudi Arabia.

In this paper the authors will investigate two areas:

1. An assessment of job opportunities for females in the private sector in relation to their qualifications and their opinions regarding such available jobs.
2. A comparison of the perceived factors preventing the employment of females in the private sector with private sector views on the limiting factors.

Questionnaire structure

The questionnaire attempts to reveal information that could help in understanding the current situation of unemployed Saudi women in comparison with private sector needs.

The questionnaire covers the main aims of this study which are:

Section 1: General information

In this section the authors provide background information about 145 unemployed qualified women in Saudi Arabia, while background information about 220 Saudi companies was published by the authors in the Annual Conference 2001: *Improving VET Systems*, Jamaica. July 31-August 2, 2001 under a paper entitled "New Technical Jobs for Women in the Saudi Private Sector".

The information about women includes: marital status, age, children and education.

Section 2: Women's field of work and job opportunities

The aim of this section is to investigate the link between job opportunities provided for women in the private sector and women's qualifications, subjects of study and women's attitudes towards certain jobs.

Section 3: Factors preventing women's employment in the Private Sector

The aim of this section is to explore the main factors preventing women's employment in the Saudi private sector and to identify the commonalties and/or differences between the view of business managers and unemployed women.

Questionnaire distributed and collected data

The sample of unemployed women was chosen from the four largest Saudi cities. These four cities are Riyadh, which is the capital of Saudi Arabia; Jeddah, which is the second largest city in Saudi in terms of land surface area and is a very important commercial centre; Dammam, which is the centre of many industrial and manufacturing companies and which is situated in the most popular area of the petroleum industry; and Buraydah, which is the largest agricultural area in Saudi Arabia. In addition, these cities together employ about 80% of women in Saudi Arabia (Saudi Population Census, 1992). This was done in order to discover the opinions of 300 unemployed qualified women who are currently seeking jobs. They were chosen randomly through employment offices in the Ministry of Civil Services and also through labour offices. Officially recorded companies such as banks, hospitals, small factories, and educational institutions that employ women were also used in the selected sample. This was done using the authors' experience.

The response level to the sample was that 145 out of the 300 submitted questionnaires (i.e. 48%) were returned.

Characteristics of the sample

Personal information

The section looks into the general socio-economic characteristics of unemployed women. From a data analysis of the questionnaires of the unemployed women more than half the respondents (54.5%) are single and the rate of married women was 37.9%, while the lowest percentages were divorcées and widows with rates of 6.2% and 1.4%, respectively.

The age ranges of 20-34 covers 86% of the sample while women under 20 years and between 35-44 represent 7%. The lowest percentage was those over 45 years of age (1.4%).

Women who were married with one or two children represent 48.5% of the sample while women with 3 to 5 children represent 32.4%; women with no children represent 17.6%,. Finally married women with more than 5 children represent 1.5%.

Unemployed women who have one child under school age represent 46.4%. This is followed by those who have 2 to 3 children (26.8%); then women who have no children under school age (21.4%); the lowest rate are women who have more than 3 children under school age (5.4%).

Educational qualifications and subject

Respondents gave information about their highest qualification. More than half hold university certificates (56.6%), followed by those who hold Secondary School certificates (29%), then diplomas below the level of a university degree (11.7), women who hold PhDs or Masters represent 2.1%, and finally, women who hold TEVT certificates (0.7%).

The academic specialisation of respondents are quite varied with the largest proportion concentrated in humanities, education, culture and religion with a rate of 74% while few women graduate from scientific subjects (26%). It is obvious from Table 8 that there is a higher concentration in theoretical subjects than in scientific subjects as was previously discussed.

Table 8: Women's subjects

Theoretic	Frequency	%	Scientific	Frequency	%
Humanities	34	34%	Home Economic	11	11%
Education	19	19%	Math and Physics	6	6%
Culture and religion	15	15%	Medicine and Medical Assistants	4	4%
Business	6	6%	Computing	4	4%
			Engineering	1	1%
Total	74	74%	Total	26	26%

Women's attitudes to work in the private sector

When asked if women prefer working in the private sector rather than public sector the answer was no from the majority (93.8%) while others said yes (6.2 %). When the authors asked the reasons behind the concentration of Saudi women in the public rather than the private sector, the results showed that in the private sector there were long of working hours, a lack of holidays, low salaries and rewards, a lack of security, a lack of facilities and the fact that available jobs are in a mixed environment.

In reply to the author's question, have women been trying to get jobs in the private sector, the majority answered yes they have tried (59.3%) while 40.7% said no. However, the majority would accept working in the private sector if they found a job. This was mentioned by 81.4% while the minority said no (18.6%).

Women's fields in the Private Sector

Questions were asked to compare the opinions of 220 business managers and 145 unemployed women about the most important economic fields in which women can participate in support of the labour market. 83.9% of Saudi business managers and 87.6% of women mentioned that the services field is the most suitable field for women in the labour market. Then came the technological field with a rate of 63.6% of business managers and 69.7 of women, followed by crafts with a rate of 39.2% of business managers and 42.1% of women. The commercial and industrial fields came next, while the least popular field in Saudi Arabia for women's participation in economic activities was the agricultural field with a rate of 4.6% of business managers and 4.1% of women. The chi-square result was not significant between both samples of business managers and unemployed women.

Women and job opportunities in the Private Sector

In this section the authors investigate job opportunities for women in the private sector in comparison with women's attitudes towards such jobs.

Table 9 shows the most important jobs the private sector currently needs women to fill in comparison with women's attitudes towards such jobs.

Table 9: The ten most needed jobs in the Saudi private sector

	Type of job	Private sector needs for women (Business managers' opinions towards these jobs) %	Positive attitudes from women towards these jobs %	Chi Square P
1	Medicine and medical assistants	86.4	71.0	.000
2	Computers	85.5	88.3	.439
3	Textiles	82.7	80.0	.510
4	Child care	79.1	82.1	.484
5	Sewing	75.9	64.8	.022
6	Social services	67.7	66.2	.431
7	Education	65.9	87.6	.000
8	Food preparation	49.1	57.9	.098
9	Electronic services	48.6	49.0	.951
10	Accountancy	46.4	60.7	.007

The table shows that there is no significant difference between the result for business managers and unemployed women in most jobs for women available in the private sector. However, there is a significant result between the two groups regarding the jobs of medicine and medical assistants, sewing, education and accountancy.

Although there are jobs strongly needed for women by the private sector such as medicine and sewing, these jobs are not preferred by some Saudi women. Also, there are jobs preferred by women such as education (teaching), food preparation and accountancy but the demands are not urgently needed by the private sector.

The chi-square result was significant between both samples regarding most of the jobs but not significant in others.

Table 10 shows the jobs that the private sector currently needs women to do in Saudi Arabia, but not urgently. These needs are compared to women's attitudes towards such jobs.

Table 10: Jobs needed by the Saudi private sector for women but not urgently compared to women's attitudes towards these jobs

	Type of jobs	Private sector needs for women (Business managers' Opinions towards these jobs %)	Positive attitudes from Women towards these jobs %	Chi Square P
1	Banking	40.9	40.0	.863
2	Hairdressing and Beauty	39.5	44.8	.316
3	Journalism	37.3	39.3	.695
4	Crafts	32.2	28.3	.322
5	Secretarial services	29.5	35.9	.206

The table shows a list of jobs needed for women in the private sector but not urgently. It can be seen that there is no significant difference between business managers and women towards such jobs.

Table 11 shows the least-needed jobs in the Saudi private sector

Table 11: Jobs not needed by the Saudi private sector compared to women's attitudes

	Private sector needs women for:	Business managers Opinion towards this jobs	Women attitudes towards this jobs	Chi Square P
1	Reception duties	26.8	25.5	.782
2	Interior decorating	26.8	26.9	.987
3	Economics	25.9	20.7	.252
4	Business	25.5	20.1	.241
5	Marketing	22.7	20.0	.536
6	Retailing	17.3	5.5	.001
7	Machine maintenance	15.0	7.6	.033
8	Electrical services	14.5	5.5	.007
9	Security	13.6	0.0	.000
10	Selling	12.7	11.0	.627
11	Hotel services	11.8	3.4	.005
12	Carpentry	10.9	0.9	.001
13	Agriculture	10.0	5.2	.762

The table shows a list of jobs which are not seriously needed to be done by women in the private sector and also those jobs which are not preferred for Saudi women because they are not traditional women's work.

The chi-square result was not significant for both samples regarding certain jobs though it was significant in others.

Factors preventing women's employment in the private sector

Table 12 shows the problems and obstacles that prevent women's employment in the Saudi private sector.

Table 12: Factors preventing the employment of national women in the Saudi private sector

Variables	Agreed %		Chi Square
	Business managers	Unemployed women	P
Women find it difficult to move from one city to another	91.7	90.1	.833
Some available jobs are in mixing environment	73.7	77.6	.372
There are shortages of capable, trained and skilled women in comparison with private sector need	72.4	72.2	.144
Women require extended holidays according to their status and family	63.5	72.0	.244
Society has a negative attitude toward women working outside the home	43.4	44.1	.970
Women face difficulties in moving from one job to another	38.3	40.7	.625
Women expect higher salaries than the average male worker does.	11.7	10.6	.638

- According to Saudi Law females cannot drive a car. This is due to religious and cultural traditions of society. On the other hand, public transport provided by either the public or private sector is still not effective enough to help and support the transportation and movement of women to and from home. Therefore, female employees rely on parents, close relatives or taxi drivers who can accompany them. Therefore the vast majority of the Saudi samples of business managers (91.7%) and unemployed women (90.1%) agreed that the problem of women moving from one city to another city is the main difficulty in employing women in the private sector. This problem has been mentioned in studies such as Al-Hazmi (1997).

Many job opportunities for women in the private sector are available in the health sector, such as doctors, nurses and medical assistants. These jobs are often not acceptable to Saudi women for social and cultural reasons. As a result, such posts are often occupied by non-nationals or remain unoccupied because Saudi society views them in a negative light because most of them require the sexes to mix and this is not permitted under Sharia law. This is confirmed by (73.7%) of the business managers and (77.6%) of unemployed women. Both samples agreed that it is difficult to employ women in the private sector because women face the difficulty of working with men in the same workplace. This study confirmed studies of Al-Nimar (1988), Al-Haider, Hamdi (1996) and Riyadh Commercial and Industrial Chamber (1997).

- In this study, in response to the author's question about whether a shortage of capable and skilled women was a factor behind the difficulties of employing women in the private sector the answer was that 72.4% of Saudi business managers and 72.2% of women agreed. This factor has been mentioned as problem in some research studies such as Saudi Civil Office (1996), Al-Saban (1998) and Daghestani (1999).
- Saudi society encourages females to marry early; this is due to their religion and culture. Therefore, there are a large number of women with families and commitments. Saudi Arabia is generally lacking in kindergarten facilities throughout the country. The private sector has a lack of facilities to meet the needs of mothers to care for their children. This problem has led woman employees to leave their jobs early after the first child. Therefore 63.5% of Saudi business managers and 77.0% of unemployed women mentioned that it is difficult to employ women in the private sector because women require extended holidays according to their status and their family responsibilities.
- Most of the female unemployed are interested in joining the labour market but there is still some sections of society that believe working women are contrary to culture and tradition. They believe that this will affect her commitment towards her husband and

children-care, along with other family relationships. In this study business managers and unemployed women had positive attitudes towards women working outside the home. Only 43.4% of Saudi business managers and 44.1% of unemployed women agreed that it is difficult to employ women in the private sector because there are negative attitudes in society towards women working outside the home.

- Other reasons, which are less important than cultural, educational and social factors, were given such as economic and psychological factors.

The result of the chi-square test shows that there is no significant difference between the proportions of the two samples, business managers and unemployed women. See Table 12.

7. Conclusions and recommendations

In this paper the authors investigated the problem for unemployed qualified Saudi females in two ways: an assessment of job opportunities for women in the private sector in relation to their qualifications and their opinions of such available jobs; and a comparison of the perceived factors preventing Saudi female's employment in the private sector with business managers views of the limiting factors.

In investigating the job opportunities for women in the private sector in relation to their qualifications and the relevance of their subjects, the authors found that the majority of women (56.6%) hold university degrees (74% with subjects not required by the private sector). Some others (22%) hold secondary school certificates with no relevant experience. While women who hold higher degrees; Masters or Doctorates, or who hold technical education certificates represent 2.1% and 0.7% respectively. The majority of the most urgently needed jobs available for women in the private sector require scientific subjects or practical subjects such as Medicine, IT, Accountancy, Childcare, Social work, Textiles, Sewing, Food preparation and Electronic services. The authors also investigated the job opportunities provided by the private sector and the women's attitude towards these jobs. From the Tables 10, 11 and 12 the job opportunities provided by the private sector cover the fields of Medicine, Social Science, Home Economics, Engineering and technical and vocational positions. There is a positive attitude on the part of the women towards the ten top categories of jobs in these tables. The highest preference for women was education (87.6%). The tables show that while business managers have their priorities the women's attitudes do not match in some significant cases, notably, Education, Medicine and Sewing etc. most women seem to be naturally inclined towards Educational subjects. Medicine does not suit the culture, and sewing is not considered an academic subject. The responses confirm a positive attitude to women working towards specific technical and vocational jobs, whereas previous researchers had encountered negative attitudes.

In investigating factors preventing women's employment in the Saudi private sector, it can be concluded from the business managers and unemployed women that the most important reason given for the lack of women's employment was that it is difficult for women to move from one city to another. This is because in Islam, women follow their family and/or their husbands and have to have permission to travel from one place to another; then they must travel accompanied by a Mohrem (that is, a man who is a close relative, one whom by law they would be unable to marry) for protection reason.

Islam forbids the mixing between a man and a woman in close place without a Mohram, therefore, it is difficult for women to work in mixed sexed jobs in the labour market. In Saudi Arabia most of the available jobs in the private sector are in a mixed environment, therefore, it is not surprising to see non-national workers fulfil the shortage of the labour force in the private sector. This factor was one of main reasons affecting women's employment in the private sector. This was mentioned by both samples, business managers and unemployed women.

The third reason was a shortage of capable trained and skilled women compared to private sector needs. This was seen as a significant problem in Saudi Arabia.

Women needing extra holidays was the fourth reason given. In Saudi Arabia women have domestic responsibilities and will need to take time off to attend to family duties

regarding their role in the society. Therefore to develop women's employment in the Saudi private sector, certain factors must be considered such as:

- Women's role in the family should be addressed according to society needs without conflicting with their family needs.
- Women's transportation and working environment must be provided according to Sharia'a law.
- Women's education and training must be developed according to labour market needs for women.

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**New Technical Jobs for Women in the Saudi
Private Sector**

By

¹Dr. John R. Calvert
Loughborough University (UK)
Business School
Email: j.r.calvert@lboro.ac.uk

²Mr. Abdullah S. Al-Shetaiwi
Loughborough University (UK)
Business School
Email: awm64@hotmail.com

¹ Senior Lecturer in Management Science in Loughborough University at Business School (UK)

² a Ph.D. Student in Loughborough University at Business School and Lecturer in Buraydah College of Technology (Saudi Arabia)

New Technical Jobs for Women in the Saudi Private Sector

1. Abstract

Changing technology has enabled technical and vocational education systems to improve methods and approaches in order to prepare students, male and female, not only with current necessary skills but also for new occupations.

Saudi Arabia has tried, and is still trying, to reach a turning point in providing qualified manpower for the labour market. There are two main reasons why they are aiming for this. Firstly, to replace non-national with national manpower. Secondly, to reduce the level of unemployment within the national manpower in general and in women in particular.

Therefore, Technical Education and Vocational Training (TEVT) should play a major role in education as well as retraining unemployed women to occupy available jobs which are either unoccupied or occupied by non-national workers in the private sector within Islamic Sharia'a.

In this paper two methods have been considered. Firstly by discussing the situation of women's education and employment in Saudi Arabia, and, secondly, by investigating job opportunities in the technical and vocational field for women in the Saudi private sector in comparison with TEVT output. This has been achieved by field research, including the use of a semi-structured questionnaire.

This report will concentrate mostly on background research but will present some conclusions which have been derived from the data collected so far.

2. Introduction

It is difficult to trace the beginnings of education for women in Saudi Arabia before the unification of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1351H (1930). Education for women before unification was basically at home with the help of a female teacher known as a "Karaih" (a lady who is well-versed in religious and general knowledge). Educational subjects were restricted to religion; this was mainly reading the Holy Quran and understanding the Islamic Sharia'a.

However, modern education for women in Saudi Arabia began formally in 1960, thirty years after the education system for men.

In the late 1950s, the authorities in the Kingdom realised the importance of demands to open official governmental schools for girls and the need to find proper administrators responsible for female education in the country, according to the Islamic Sharia'a. The government decided to establish the "General Presidency for Girls' Education" (GPGE) in 1959 to take the responsibility of administrating female education. The first step of GPGE was the opening of fifteen girls' schools in the following year, 1960, (GPGE, 1992, p32).

The number of women in education has sharply increased since the establishment of GPGE, from 5,200 in 1960 to more than two million girl students in 1999 (GPGE, 2000).

Education in Saudi Arabia is not compulsory for either men or women. However, it is open to anyone who wishes to join the official governmental schools. The government provides free general, technical, vocational and higher education, with financial incentives for students (male and female) in some areas of general education and all vocational, technical, technological and higher education with free transportation for all females.

In Saudi Arabian higher education, females prefer to join humanity courses. This has led to a surplus of humanity graduates, whereby some students are unemployed; it has also led to a serious shortage of graduates for technical and vocational jobs.

On this basis, the problem facing the labour market in Saudi Arabia is due to the lack of technically educated national women. According to the Seventh Development Plan (2000-2004), the private sector should play a significant role in employing a national Saudi labour force, it expects to employ 95% while the remaining 5% are employed in the public sector. Therefore, the

private sector faces a challenge in employing the national labour force. Moreover, government officials responsible for planning and education, face the challenge that graduates must be specialised in fields required by the private sector, particularly female graduates who prefer to study subjects for work in the public sector. This has created an imbalance between female graduates and the number of jobs available for women. Therefore, TEVT should play a major role in education as well as retraining unemployed women to occupy available jobs which are either unoccupied or occupied by non-national labour in the private sector

3. TEVT for women in developed countries

Technical and vocational education has close links with the labour market. Therefore, courses and training programmes must coincide with the market needs.

Kazis and Roched (1991, p.5) argue that in USA, because of a rapid technological change, companies started to focus on the need to improve the supply and the quality of entry level workers. There was a need for a skilled labour force to work in the industry as technicians. New programmes have to be developed to provide accelerated learning for new employment prospects.

Women have seen sharp changes in equal opportunities world wide, with the introduction of policies and guidelines by authorities. However, women still suffer from discrimination at work, as UNESCO, (1993, p14) argued:

“Although tremendous efforts have been made to eliminate discrimination in technical and vocational education, many millions of women throughout the world occupy jobs without even a minimum of equality.”

One of the tools, which can be used to involve women in the labour market, is by encouraging them to join the TEVT programmes. This can be achieved by clear national policies. UNESCO (1994, p22) recommends that:

“Countries should develop national policies with special Technical, Vocational and Educational programs to accommodate the training needs of women wanting to work in non-traditional occupations. Countries will also need to ensure that support mechanisms and appropriate facilities are made available for women undertaking TEVT programs.”

It is important to note that industrial countries view women as serious contributors to the national economy. According to EU Communities, women in EU countries must be given the same opportunities as men with regard to access to employment, training and career development (European Commission – Directorate of Education and Culture, 2000, p25).

In the UK, the government is committed to promoting equal opportunities in schools, colleges and universities and to encouraging greater participation by girls and young women in traditionally male-dominated disciplines such as sciences, engineering and technology (HMSO, 1996). Therefore, Britain has one of the highest rates in the European Union for women's participation in employment. Between 1959 and 1996 the percentage of women among employees in employment has risen from 34.1% to 49.6%, one of the underlying reasons for that was educational reform (Wallaby, 1999).

Germany is highly advanced in the area of technical and vocational education. The government offers all kinds of education and training for women. As a result, less than 13% of women in Germany are without some form of qualification (Foster and Puhmann, 1996).

In Australia, the government has concentrated on qualifying women in technical education, placing less emphasis on classical education. Therefore, the percentage of women enrolled on computer programming courses increased from 30% in 1986 to 40% in 1995 while the increase in women studying humanities increased by less than 0.5% between 1986 and 1990. The Australian government has made the encouragement of women in the labour market a central policy. By doing this, women's participation in paid work increased from 48% of the total workforce in 1986 to 52% in 1992 (Daley, 1996, pp74-77).

In Japan, the government encourages women to join the labour force by providing support and incentives for women to gain qualifications and then to use these in the labour market. Technical and vocational courses are offered to women after secondary school and women are free to make their own choices (Oki, 1996, p124). This is confirmed by the fact that in 1993 women enrolled in TEVT in Japan represent 45% of the total of students enrolled in TEVT in Japan (about 650 out of 1,500 million students) (UNESCO, 1999, p167).

In developing countries, we can see that the government of China has attempted to establish incentive schemes to encourage women to train for work. Universities and technical colleges have been opened to provide for the needs of the labour market. 1679 secondary schools specialising in vocational education and 83 universities catering for courses in the technical and vocational areas existed by 1996. These provided a majority of long-term programmes for women. The government also provides short courses for women for which they have freedom of choice (Marian, 1996, p72).

In Malaysia, the government's concentration on technical education led to a number of industrial advances. The number of women enrolled in technical and vocational education increased from 4.3% in 1970 to 36% in 1990, as a percentage of the total number of enrolments. This resulted in a subsequent increase in the participation of women in the labour market from 16.3% in 1980 to 31% in 1992. In the private sector in Malaysia in 1992, women's participation in accountancy-related jobs reached 55.6% of the total labour force while they accounted for 76.2% in medicine and 30% in engineering (Ismael, 1996, pp140-143).

4. TEVT in Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia's rapid development has highlighted the shortage of national technical manpower and the subsequent need to recruit non-Saudi technical workers, on the one hand, and the difficulty of replacing these workers with qualified Saudis on the other. Therefore, efforts were made during the development plans to raise the quantity and quality of the technical education and vocational training system.

Several governmental institutions and the private sector in Saudi Arabia provide long and short-term courses in TEVT for both males and females.

The General Organisation for Technical Education and Vocational Training for males (GOTEVT) is the largest such institution in Saudi Arabia. It provides skilled and semi-skilled students through three levels: Colleges of Technology, Technical Institutes and Vocational Centres.

- (1) General Presidency for Girls Education (GPGE) is responsible for technical education and vocational training for females through two levels: Technical Institutes and Vocational Centres.
- (2) The Ministry of Health is responsible for health education for both males and females through health institutes and health colleges.
- (3) Public administration institutes provide several courses to the public and private sector in the field of business and management for males and females.

In addition, a number of government ministries and agencies operate in-house training institutes or centres to meet their own specialised training needs. The universities provide specialised training courses for professionals on the request from government agencies or the private sector by social service centres. All other ministries have specialised training institutions such as the Ministry of Communication. Also industrial and commercial chambers run several short courses in TEVT for the private sector. Informal training centres give vocational training for men and women under the supervision of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.

In Saudi Arabia, the government helps and encourages national people (male and female) to study in TEVT. At the same time, the government provides incentives and loans without interest for all graduates if they form their own businesses after graduation.

5. TEVT for women in Saudi Arabia

There is very little evidence or information concerning the vocational and technical education of women before 1966 when TEVT for women began in a formal sense through designing and sewing centres. However, women did receive vocational training through the home and private schools in order to make them useful wives and mothers. The family would be largely responsible for teaching the girls within it to become adept at those skills which would be useful in a domestic environment: cooking, sewing, animal husbandry and harvesting in rural areas. All these duties were seen as compatible with the Islamic culture and are still encouraged as women are expected to have skills in the modern domestic environment such as managing the domestic economy, decorating the house and using new technology within the home.

In 1991, GPGE formally became the controller of women's TEVT in public and private sectors.

The GPGE aims, from the establishment of TEVT for women, to qualify women to meet the needs of labour market. At the same time, it intends to recognise and value the role of women in society by developing and enhancing their skills continuously and provide them with special skills to enable them to contribute to the female labour market by creating new opportunities. Thus, women will be able to support their families by increasing their income, and, at the same time, reduce Saudi Arabia's reliance on non-national labour.

From 1991, the GPGE has taken certain steps to develop women's TEVT such as change the name of the Department of Vocational Education to be the General Department of Technical and Vocational Training. A high-level committee was established as part of this endeavour to design a new strategy for TEVT for women and to indicate how important this initiative was felt to be. A new committee of professional women was also set up to study TEVT, especially in the fields of economic and household management and a third committee was established to revise legislation regarding the structure of this kind of education.

Later, the GPGE became responsible for a private institute and was allowed to offer its own accreditation. The GPGE was also able to nominate representatives to begin a programme of co-operation between those responsible for male and female technical and vocational training.

5.1 Institutions of TEVT for women

(1) Vocational Training Centres (VTC)

Two centres were established in 1973, this number increased to forty centres in 1999 (GPGE, 2000). VTC provides basic practical courses to help qualify national women in the sewing field to help their families to work and/or to build their own businesses. The study period in these centres is two years. The main assessment method used in these courses is practical assessment.

The main conditions for acceptance onto these courses were that candidates had to be Saudi women between the ages of 16 and 35 with primary school certificate or literature leavers. They had to be full-time students.

(2) Technical Education Institutes (TEI)

Three technical institutes for women in Saudi Arabia were established in 1995 to provide qualified women for the labour market in the home economic field, namely Textiles and Home Management. This field is one of six expected to be opened later by the GPGE. Others include (a) computing service such as programmes and maintenance; (b) management sciences such as statistics, accountancy, secretarial affairs; (c) light industries such as clothes and food preparation; (d) information systems such as bibliography, printing and binding; and (e) educational mechanisms and technical tools for teaching.

Women accepted onto these courses had to be Saudi nationals aged between 18 and 20 and holding a general secondary school certificate. They had to be full-time enrolments and have no qualifications higher than those awarded by the institution to which they were applying. Finally, they could not apply if they had previously been dismissed by any other institution.

There are now seventeen technical institutes for women in different cities. The studies in these institutes are based on the regulations of the semester systems. The study period is three years (6 semesters). Students have to take at least 30 hours every week including workshops; they also have to pass an examination. The examination is divided between theory and practice.

5.2 The enrolment and graduation of women in TEVT in Saudi Arabia

The number of women in technical education and vocational training increased sharply between 1973 and 1999 (Table 1). This was because of governmental support, by encouraging women to take up this kind of education and by changing, to a small degree, society's attitude towards TEVT. As a result, the number of TEVT institutions increased from two institutions in 1973 to 57 in 1999.

Table 1: Women enrolled, graduated and teaching staff in TEVT provided by GPGE between 1973 and 1999

Year	Institutions	Enrolled Students		Graduated Students		Teaching Staff	
		VT	TE	VT	TE	Saudi	Non-Saudi
1973	2	137	-	-	-	-	10
1975	4	505	-	233	-	-	43
1980	9	860	-	282	-	32	65
1985	19	1199	-	482	-	97	84
1990	22	1532	-	547	-	146	70
1995	28	1541	472	552	-	202	123
1996	30	1528	937	553	-	215	138
1997	34	1514	1269	663	276	223	56
1998	44	1614	2101	659	504	275	113
1999	57	1736	2541	-	-	474	156

Source: GPGE, 1999 women's education through thirty-six years, statistical report, pp191-193
 GPGE, 2000 women's education: statistical report

The table shows that the number of women enrolled in vocational training is greater than in technical education. This is due to the fact that there were no opportunities for women in technical education before 1995.

Therefore, from the table, it is clear that TEVT for women began in 1973 with 137 girl students and ten non-national women teachers. This number increased to 4,277 girl students in 1999, while women teachers in the same year reached 630 (75% of these are national women). It is interesting to note that dependence on non-Saudi teaching staff is decreasing as a proportion of the total teaching staff. The limited programme in Vocational Training and society's negative attitude inhibits the enrolment of students for this programme. This is not true for technical education as the figures in the table from 1995 show. The increasing number of female students going through this educational system reflects the changing attitude of society with respect to the technical and vocational field. Graduates of the technical education stream can continue their education in Higher Studies in Home Economics and technical subjects. This is an added incentive for students of technical education which is not available to students of vocational training.

5.3 Development of woman students in general, higher and technical education in comparison with men

Although modern education for women in Saudi Arabia began formally thirty years after the education system for men, recently the number of women in secondary school and higher education has increased more sharply than for men (Table 2).

It is interesting to find, however, that the number of women enrolled in technical and vocational education in 1999 is only 10.32% of the number of students (males and females) enrolled in TEVT in 1999. This low figure is due to technical education for women only starting in 1995

Table 2: Comparison of Male and Female enrolments in General, Higher, Technical and Vocational Education from 1970 to 1998

Year	Intermediate School		Secondary School		University and College		Technical and Vocational Education	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1970	56000	5000	14000	2000	7000		1504	
1975	99000	38000	32000	10000	16000	3000	6570	505
1980	165000	80000	64000	29000	35000	13000	16879	860
1985	232000	141000	93000	65000	58000	36000	22912	1199
1990	304000	210000	142000	110000	69000	53000	28037	1532
1995	443000	372000	245000	202000	87000	83000	38820	2013
1996	447000	395000	220000	232000	99000	87000	38625	2465
1997	493000	436000	267000	267000	109000	113000	36241	2783
1998	516000	444000	299000	309000	134000	138000	36950	3715
1999	538000	472000	335000	337000	147000	174000	37150	4277

Source: Ministry of Planning, 2001 "Achievements of Development Plans from 1970 to 2000"
 GPGE, 1999, Girls' Education over thirty-nine Years.
 GPGE, 2000, Girls Education, Statistical report.

5.4 Government strategy for developing TEVT

The Seventh Development Plan (2000-2004) addresses continuation of the development of Saudi manpower in technical and vocational fields through the following:

- Improve efficiency and effectiveness of training and to develop various pertinent agencies.
- Improve the quality of training programs with due emphasis on *the use of advanced technology*.
- Update the curricula to meet the requirements of the labour market.
- Ensure horizontal and vertical expansion of technical education and training to cover all regions of the Kingdom.
- Expand on-the-job training programs in the public and private sectors.

6. Saudi women in higher education

Most females are graduates of Social Science, Education, Humanities and Religious Studies. As a consequence, most female graduates are only employed in occupations that correspond to the type of schooling available to them in the educational institutions. This indeed reflects the vital role which education, under its present objectives and philosophy, plays in determining the accessibility to, and distribution of females among jobs available to them in the labour market. The Table 3 shows women in higher education according to subject. The table clearly shows that most of the females are in the Education, Islamic and Humanities subjects, representing 80% of all female graduate students in universities in 1998. Their percentage is almost negligible in other subjects which are the subjects strongly needed by the private sector today.

Table 3: Saudi women graduated from higher education according to subject in comparison with men in 1998

Subject	Total graduated	Female	% Female	% Female graduated by subject*
Economics & Admin.	2042	764	37.4	4.0
Education	16197	10894	67.2	57.5
Islamic Studies	4693	1247	26.6	6.6
Social Science	586	176	30.0	1.0
Humanities	5230	3029	58.0	16.0
Agriculture	287	110	38.3	0.6
Medicine	836	339	40.5	1.8
Natural Science	2529	1439	57.0	7.5
Engineering	1269	0	0	0
Others	933	933	100	5.0
Total	34602	18931	54.7	100

Source: Ministry of Higher Education, Statistical Report, 1998.

* This column is the ratio of female graduates in a subject to the total female graduates expressed as a percentage.

It is clear from the table that most female graduates in Saudi's higher education are from the Education and Humanities disciplines, while there are only a few graduates in the other disciplines required by the labour market. This problem has been recognised by the Seventh Development Plan (2000–2004, pp293-294) as one of the challenges to be addressed by channelling students into disciplines required by the labour market rather than to keep accepting more students into education and humanities.

7. TEVT for women in Islamic countries

Saudi Arabia is an important country among the Islamic countries as well as in the Middle East. Therefore, comparing the level of Saudi women in education with other Islamic countries will help to recognise the level of education for women in Saudi Arabia in general, and in TEVT in particular, within Islamic countries. Table 4 shows the number of girls enrolled in the second level and in TEVT in 15 Islamic countries.

Table 4: The number of girls enrolled in the second level and TEVT in Islamic countries

Year	Country	Second level			Technical and Vocational Education					
		Students enrolled			Staff			Students		
		Total	Female	F%	Total	Female	F%	Total	Female	F%
95/96	Saudi	1424785	652344	46°	2991	381	13°	24570	1156	5°
95/96	Syria Arab	940982	429953	46°	12200	4600	38%	94204	48203	51°
93/94	Oman	162959	76470	47°	350			2305	393	17°
93/94	Pakistan	5022416	1613275	32°	6850	2860	42°	92000	30000	33°
94/95	Qatar	37635	18424	49°	120			671		
94/95	Turkey	4725551	1842245	39°	67791	26265	39°	1231698	459195	37°
95/96	Emirates	123290	63790	52°	229			1554		
95/96	Bahrain	57222	28698	50°				7428	2046	28%
94/95	Indonesia	12223753	5556730	45°	117472	33436	28%	1591757	675648	42°
94/95	Iran	7652829	3402131	44°	19880	3312	17°	347008	84056	24°
92/93	Iraq	1144938	433787	38°	9318	4837	52%	130303	33694	26%
95/96	Jordan	176123	83058	47°	2306	712	31%	33109	11078	33°
95/96	Kuwait	206934	101588	49°	246	67%	27°	1975	564	29°
95/96	Egypt	6142651	2793210	45°	133794	50507	38%	1900406	835601	44°
95/96	Tunisia	849359	400298	47%				54965	25078	46%

Source: UNESCO, Statistical Yearbook, Paris, 1997, 1999

From the table it is clear that the rate of Saudi women entering second level education is comparable with women in other Islamic countries. But, whilst females represent 46% of the total number of students in the second level, only 5% of the total of Saudi students are enrolled in TEVT.

This compares to an average of 30% of females enrolled in TEVT in other Islamic countries. This clearly illustrates that the rate of women in TEVT in Saudi Arabia is very low compared to other disciplines, as well as in relation to the other 15 Islamic countries.

8. Women’s participation in the Saudi labour market

The public sector in Saudi Arabia has been known as the largest employer of women. The educational field is the most popular type of job recognised and accepted by women, as well as society. In 1998 there were 162,974 women working as teachers. This number increased to 188,932 in 1999 (Ministry of Planning, 2001, p311). The 1998 figure shows 72.17% of the total women employees in the public sector are in education working as teachers, more than 92% are Saudi.

Women employees in technical jobs represent 16.45% of the total-working women in the public sector (77.5% non-Saudi). This is followed by administration with a rate of 5.81% of total women employees in the public sector, then unqualified women with a rate 3.80% and finally the universities where the staff rate was 1.68% see Table 5.

Table 5: Female employees in the public sector according to type of jobs in 1998

Type of employment	Saudi females	Non-Saudi Female	Total of Employees	% Saudi Females*
Educational	150,213	12,761	162,974	66.52
Technical	8,355	28,792	37,147	3.70
Administration	11,785	1,337	13,122	5.22
Academic	2,737	1,067	3,804	1.21
Unqualified	8,563	194	8,757	3.80
Total	181,653	44,151	225,804	80.45

Source: Saudi Civil Service Bureau, 1998, p6;

*This column is the ratio of Saudi female employees in a subject to the total female employees in the Saudi public sector expressed as a percentage.

In the past few decades, Saudi women have not had any apparent formal participation in the activities of the private sector with the exception of small, family-run businesses. The private sector establishments and companies do not have any enthusiasm in employing women. This is due to the costly expenditure of providing suitable situations for women in employment. However, women’s participation in the private sector in recent years has become directed and operated by women, some of whom have already started up in some cities, for example, a shopping centre, craft shops, textile and sewing factories, property, hairdressing, computing and medical centres. All these fields are suggested as a way of ensuring the seclusion of women, where all the salespersons, employees and managers are women and no men are allowed to enter.

Therefore, statistics show that the number of women employees in the private sector has risen from 8,374 in 1989 to 31,052 employees in 1997 (12% national and 82% non-national). Most non-national women work in technical and vocational jobs (Riyadh Chamber, 1997, p19).

Accordingly, the latest Saudi census in 1992 revealed 12% of the total Saudi female’s citizens are unemployed, of this percentage 33% were university graduates. This suggests many women in the Kingdom are achieving qualifications but cannot find work. The figure of 33% for females should be compared to a figure of only 3% for male graduates. Indeed, at all levels of education at secondary level and above, the rates of unemployment are higher for women than for men, while at lower levels of education the rate differences reverse and unemployment is higher for men than for women. This suggests that women who do not achieve higher levels of education may find work more easily in more mundane employment or may not even seek work; while, once educated, women may find it very difficult to find suitable jobs.

Although there has been considerable effort for training and educating Saudi women by the General Presidency for Girls Education and by other organisations, these efforts lack the specialisation required by the labour market in general and the private sector in particular.

Therefore, female education has become a matter of quantity rather than quality, as the educational output is not connected to the private sector needs. Such a disconnection has resulted in the unemployment of university graduates most of whom studied social science specialisations, which are not required in the labour market. Thus, in 1997, there are more than 30,000 female graduates' unemployed and looking for work. The general civil service office has not been able to place them in employment due, in part, to the lack of demand to work far from their place of residence (Al Jazerah Newspaper, No. 8863, 1997; p1), and also the relevance of the subjects studied. According to the last census (1992) women employed in educational fields represent 80% of the total of employed women, more than 90% of these are in the public sector. In the health sector, public and private, for example, 138,861 personnel (males and females) are employed of which 80% are non-nationals (Ministry of Planning, 2001, p331). However, in the Seventh Development Plan (2000-2004) 95% of the total job opportunities for nationals will be provided by the private sector, while the remaining 5% will be absorbed by the public sector. Pressure is on the private sector to absorb almost the total of the available national labour force. This requires the Saudi woman to change her attitude to employment in the private sector. In addition, Saudi women believe that working for the public sector provides job security, which is lacking in the private sector. This requires plans and programmes specifically for women according to Islamic law, Sharia'a, to enable them to play their role in the socio-economic development of the Kingdom in women's environment as highlighted in the Seventh Development Plan (2000-2004).

9. Empirical study

The first consideration by the Saudi Government for women was to create facilities to educate them, and to qualify women as teachers. In providing these educational facilities the negative attitude of their families had to be overcome. This negative attitude resulted from the feeling that if women were educated they would want to go to work and this would bring attendant problems. The government initiated a programme for scholars and the media to give the correct picture of the values of education for women. A result of this thinking is that the Director of the General Presidency of Women's Education has to be a scholar. By the government supporting and encouraging education of women the result is that in some areas, for example, university and high school, women's enrolment and graduates are the same or higher than for men.

Today, on a national scale, women graduates from universities or training colleges form 96% of the women employed in education (General Presidency of Girl's Education report dated 1999).

Most of the women graduates want to work in the public sector. There simply are not the vacancies to absorb these graduates and the government would like to see them absorbed into the private sector, as most of the available jobs are being provided by the private sector. The public sector includes women with administrative, academic and medical qualifications, while the private sector includes women with technical and vocational qualifications.

In the Seventh Development Plan, the government wants to increase the capacity for higher education and TEVT in the necessary subjects for the socio-economic development of the Saudi labour market.

According to several studies in Saudi Arabia some problems, which prevent women's participation in the labour market, are:

- The lack of job opportunities for women in the labour market. This problem has been mentioned in the research studies of Husaini and Hasoon (1991), Al-Husseni (1993), Ben Duheash (1995), Riyadh Industrial and Commercial Chamber (1997), Al-Dabak (1997) and Al-Moneaf (1998).
- A mismatch between educational output for women and the labour market needs. This problem has been mentioned in many research studies such as Al-Bakar (1988), Al-Nimer

(1989); Al-Bakar (1990), Al-Hussaini (1993), Al-Qaith and Al-Mashoq (1996), Saudi Civil Office (1996), Al-Naim (1997), Al-Rushed (1998), Al-Saban (1998), Al-Husaini (1999) and Da-Ghstani (2000).

In this paper the authors investigated these two problems in the private sector in the four largest cities in Saudi Arabia. These four cities together employ more than 80% of all woman employees in the private sector. The cities are (Riyadh, Jeddah, Dammam and Buraydah). Also in this paper the authors compared the TEVT output of women provided by the GPGE and the private sector needs.

9.1 Questionnaire's results

The responses to a questionnaire circulated to 220 Business Managers give the actual requirements of the private sector with respect to women's employment. In the questionnaire the authors ask about the main factors affecting the under-utilisation of qualified national women in the private sector. One of the main factors was the lack of women's education and their skills in comparison with the private sector needs for women (72.4%). The impact of social, psychological and economical factors on women's employment in the Saudi private sector can be seen to have less effect than educational factors. This is confirmation of the results of some previous studies mentioned above.

To increase our understanding of business managers' opinions and attitudes towards women's participation in the labour market in Saudi Arabia, the authors requested information from business managers concerning this issue. The vast majority of respondents to the questionnaire (82.6%) mentioned that there is a need for women to participate in the Saudi labour market to fulfil women's jobs, which are either unoccupied or occupied by foreign workers in general, and in technical and vocational jobs in particular.

In reply to the authors questions concerning job opportunities for women which are needed in the private sector, the results are in Table 6 and Figures 1 and 2.

Job opportunities are prioritised according to the percentage of responses received. The first ten jobs in the Table 6 are considered to be the most urgently needed today in the private sector and the others are lower priority.

Table 6: The ten jobs for women urgently needed in the Saudi private sector

N	Jobs	Agree %	N	Jobs	Agree %
1	Medicine and medical assistance	86.4	6	Social services	67.7
2	Computers	85.5	7	Teaching	66.0
3	Textiles	82.7	8	Food preparation	50.0
4	Child care	79.1	9	Electronic services	48.6
5	Sewing	76.0	10	Accountancy	46.4

The table shows the top ten jobs for women that are urgently needed by the Saudi private sector of which medical services and medical assistance are the jobs most needed. Computing is the new world-wide technology area for employment. This may be due to the fact that most traditional jobs involve IT in some form or another. Therefore, computing jobs are the second most needed jobs in the private sector. The table also shows that two thirds of the jobs most needed in the private sector are in technical fields.

The study found other jobs such as childcare, social services and teaching are also strongly needed in the private sector.

Figure 1 shows the jobs receiving a lower rating which are required but as lower priority in the Saudi private sector.

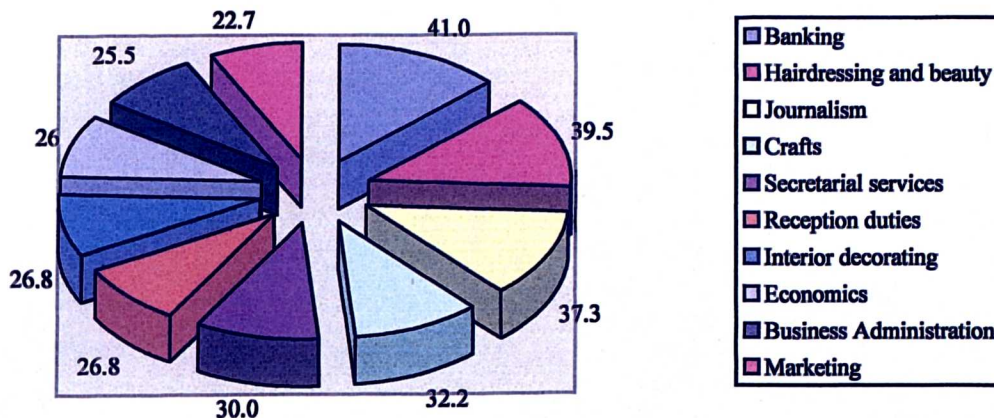


Figure 1: Jobs needed in the private sector but not urgently

Figure 2 shows a list of jobs which are not a high priority nor critically needed to be done by women in the private sector. In general, most of the jobs below are not traditional jobs, and are not accepted by society as suitable jobs for women. At the same time, some of these jobs involve mixing with men.

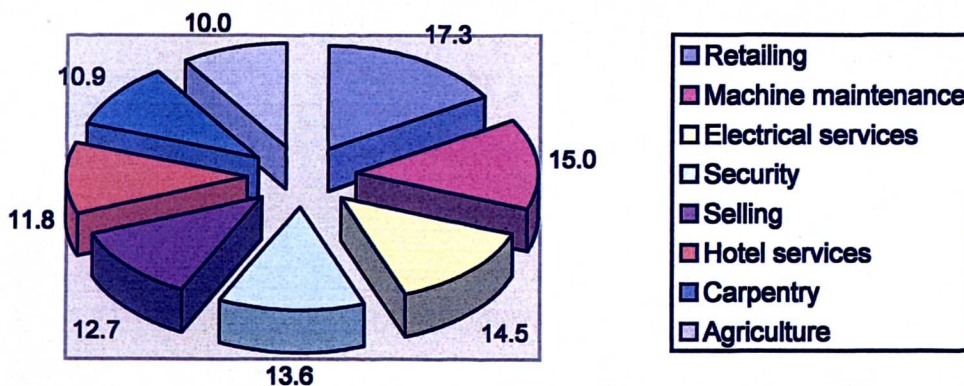


Figure 2: Jobs not needed in the private sector

9.2 Concluding remarks

Although women's education in Saudi Arabia has increased sharply during the development plans (1970-2000), there is still a need for a greater link between women's education and the private sector especially in technical, vocational and scientific subjects.

In TEVT for women there is a shortage of programmes and only a few students graduating from technical and vocational courses, therefore, most job opportunities in the private sector for women are occupied by foreign nationals.

The main courses in TEVT for women are mainly textiles, home management and sewing. For example, there are 135 textile factories in Saudi Arabia employing 16,800 personnel (Ministry of Industry and Electricity, 1999, pp141-153), more than 95% of these are non-nationals. Also, most of the small sewing factories employ non-national labour, however, most of them are males.

In 1991, when the Saudi government decided to appoint GPGE as the controller for women's TEVT, the government defined six categories for women in Technical Education (TE) after secondary school. Today, the field available for women in TE is home economic. The GPGE

has planned to improve this education and expanded the other five categories (see Section 5) to be representative of the needs of the labour market. The authors surveyed the employment opportunities for women in the private sector, within the framework of the Sharia'a, which are either unoccupied or occupied by foreign workers. They found there are several job opportunities available for women in the private sector, most of which would come under TEVT.

Therefore, the authors recommend that:

- 1 An increase in the links between women's education, training and the private sector needs for women. GPGE should give TEVT more importance in educational policy to be more compatible with the private sector needs for women.
- 2 TEVT Centres and Institutions should be enhanced and developed according to the requirements of the Saudi private sector, for example, IT. For short term requirements the GPGE could arrange with higher education to run their programmes in existing facilities in other centres, providing the facilities can be reserved exclusively for women for the time required. GPGE, the primary source for TEVT for women, should endeavour to utilise unemployed women. One possible way, in the opinion of the authors, would be to offer refresher courses for those who have been out of touch for some time, and retrain those who are able. Retraining is necessary where the field is changing very fast as with IT.
- 4 For the long term, according to the six categories defined by the government for women in TEVT, now is an appropriate time to establish training programmes for IT, electronics, food preparation, accountancy and to further develop textile and sewing programmes as evidenced by the answers to the questionnaire. The government should demonstrate their commitment to TEVT by establishing a College of Technology which would show to everyone the level and status of technical education. This on its own would go a long way to change the negative attitude of society towards TEVT. This type of technical education should be upgraded with time so that the student intake would be high school graduates rather than secondary school graduates. This would offer an alternative path for education of girls who are unable to continue with university studies. This will contribute and help women to fulfil many jobs still unoccupied or occupied by foreign workers according to Islamic Sharia'a. This would also follow the government policies with respect to male TEVT.
- 3 More co-operation should exist between higher educational institutions and the private sector in the educational and training policy for women. For example, Medicine, Computer technology, Childcare and social services are required by the private sector and these should be developed within higher education programs for women.

This paper concentrated only on Saudi business managers' opinions towards women's employment in the Saudi private sector'. However women's points of view will be discuss in more detail in the main body of the thesis which concentrates on "factors affecting the under-utilisation of qualified women in the Saudi private sector".

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مدى توافق مخرجات التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة في المملكة

مع حاجة القطاع الخاص

بحث مقدم إلى ندوة سوق العمل في المملكة: الواقع والتحديات

تحت رعاية صاحب السمو الملكي الأمير نايف بن عبد العزيز وزير الداخلية ورئيس مجلس

القوى العاملة

تحت إشراف كلية الملك فهد الأمنية

١٤٢٣

إعداد

د / جون روبرت كالفرت

قسم إدارة الأعمال

جامعة لفبرا - بريطانيا

أ / عبدالله بن صالح الشتيوي

المؤسسة العامة للتعليم الفني والتدريب المهني

طالب دكتوراه جامعة لفبرا - بريطانيا

مدى توافق

مخرجات التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة في المملكة مع حاجة القطاع الخاص

أولا ملخص الدراسة

يعتبر التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني البوابة الرئيسية التي من خلالها يتغذي سوق العمل في أي مجتمع بالعمالة الماهرة وشبه الماهرة فمن خلالة يتم تاهيل وتدريب القوى العاملة فنيا ومهنيًا لتغطية حاجة السوق سواء في قطاع الزراعة، الصناعة، التجارة أو الخدمات ونظرا لكون هذا المجال يعتبر حديث التجربة لدى المرأة السعودية فإن هذه الورقة سوف تكشف واقع هذا النوع من التعليم ومدى تلبية حاجة سوق العمل في القطاع الخاص من وجهة نظر المرأة السعودية العاملة في القطاع الخاص.

ثانيا مقدمة

تعتبر قضية توظيف الموارد البشرية الوطنية من أهم القضايا التي تواجه صناع القرار والمخططين في المملكة اليوم خاصة من جانب المرأة نتيجة الزيادة الكبيرة في أعداد الخريجات مقابل محدودية الفرص الوظيفية. فعلى الرغم من وجود العديد من المجالات الوظيفية التي تناسب المرأة في المجتمع السعودي وتتفق مع المبادئ الإسلامية إلا أن الفرص الوظيفية المطروحة للمرأة تبقى محدودة مقارنة مع النقلة التعليمية الكبيرة للبنات والتي أصبحت تفوق في معظم مراحلها تعليم البنين خاصة التعليم الجامعي والذي وصل فيه عدد الطالبات المقيدات عام ١٤٢٠ إلى ١٨١٠٠٠ طالبة مقابل ١٦٢٠٠٠ طالب كما وصل عدد الخريجات في نفس العام إلى ٢١٢٢١ خريجة مقابل ٢٠٢٢٩ خريج (منجزات خطط التنمية من ١٣٩٠ - ١٤٢٠) بينما لا تمثل نسبة عدد الطالبات المقيدات في التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني عن ١٠٪ من إجمالي أعداد الدارسين والدارسات في هذا المجال على الرغم من وجود أكثر من ٦ مليون أجنبي يعيشون في المملكة من بينهم أكثر من ٤ مليون عامل معظمهم من النساء اللاتي يمارسن مهن فنية ومهنية أو من الرجال الذين يمارسون أيضا مهن هي في الأصل من خصوصية المرأة كإختياطة، التطريز، النسيج وتصميم المجوهرات ... الخ. لهذا يؤكد الوضع الحالي لسوق العمل في المملكة أن هناك مشكلة في سوق عمل المرأة ستصبح أكثر تعقيدا لو استمر السوق غير قادر على استيعاب

الخريجات مع الزيادة العددية المتوقعة سنويا. ولهذا فقد وصل عدد الباحثات عن عمل من الجامعات عام ١٤٢٠ نحو ٥٤٠٠٠ خريجة لم تستطع وزارة الخدمة المدنية توظيف اكثر من ٥٤٠٠ خريجة اي مانسبة ١٠٪ من اعداد المتقدمات (جريدة الرياض، الاثنين، السنة ٣٢، ١٤٢٠) وقد يكون من العوامل التي ادت الى هذا الامر هو عدم توافق مخرجات تعليم المرأة مع حاجة سوق العمل . لذا هذه الورقة سوف تناقش واقع التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة في المملكة ومدى قدرة مخرجاته على تلبية حاجة سوق العمل في القطاع الخاص من وجهة نظر المرأة السعودية العاملة.

ثالثا واقع التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة في المجتمعات الصناعية وشبه الصناعية

تعتبر الدول الصناعية وشبه الصناعية من اكثر دول العالم اهتماما بالتعليم الفني والتدريب المهني سواء من خلال مؤسساتها التعليمية الحكومية او من قبل مؤسسات القطاع الخاص وإذا استعرضنا تأهيل وتدريب المرأة في تلك الدول نجد ان ألمانيا تعتبر من اكثر الدول تأهيلا للمرأة في مستويات التعليم الفني ، التدريب المهني، الكليات والجامعات ولهذا لاتزيد نسبة النساء الغير متعلقات تعليم نظامي (تعليم عام، تعليم فني ومهني وتعليم جامعي) ما بين ١٥-٤٥ سنة عن ١٣٪ ونتيجة لذلك تعتبر مشاركة المرأة الألمانية في سوق العمل الفني والمهني مرتفعة مقارنة مع بعض الدول الصناعية الأخرى حيث نجد ان ١٠٪ من النساء البالغات في ألمانيا يعملن في سوق العمل بما في ذلك الأمهات والمتزوجات وقد ساهم في هذه الزيادة قيام الحكومة الفيدرالية بتوفير جميع أنواع التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني. أما في استراليا فتجدر أن الاهتمام بدأ ينصب في التأهيل الفني والابتعاد نوعا ما عن التعليم التقليدي ولهذا نجد ان نسبة أعداد النساء الملتحقات في برامج الحاسب مقارنة بالرجال قد زادت من ٣٠٪ عام ١٩٨٦ إلى ٤٠٪ في عام ١٩٩٥ بزيادة قدرها ١٠٪ بينما لاتزيد نسبة الزيادة في تخصصات العلوم الإنسانية للمرأة بين عامي ١٩٨٦ و ١٩٩٠ عن ٥٪ ومن السياسات التي اتخذتها الحكومة الأسترالية لرفع مساهمة المرأة في سوق العمل عدة خطوات من أبرزها تطوير وتشجيع التحاق المرأة في التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني ونتيجة لذلك فقد ارتفعت نسبة مشاركة المرأة الأسترالية في سوق العمل من ٤٨٪ عام ١٩٨٦ إلى ٥٢٪ عام

١٩٩٢ (Daley, M, ١٩٩٦. P. ٧٤) أما دول شرق آسيا فقد بدأت اللحاق بالدول المتقدمة من حيث التصنيع والإنتاج بل أصبحت تفوقها في بعض الصناعات التقنية على الرغم من محدودية مصادرها الطبيعية وإمكانياتها المادية ولهذا نجد أن تلك الدول حاولت استغلال مواردها البشرية والاعتماد عليها في عمليات الإنتاج خاصة من جانب المرأة التي أصبحت من أهم سواعد الإنتاج في تلك الدول ولهذا نجد من اهتمامات الصين في رفع مساهمة النساء في سوق العمل اهتمام الحكومة بتأهيل المرأة من خلال تكثيف البرامج الفنية وفتح الجامعات والكليات التطبيقية التي يحتاجها السوق حيث يوجد اكثر من

١٦٧٩ مدرسة ثانوية مهنية للبنات وكذلك اكثر من ٨٢ جامعة مهنية تقدم العديد من البرامج والتخصصات الخاصة بالنساء. كما أوجدت الحكومة برامج مهنية قصيرة الأجل تستطيع من خلالها المرأة الصينية اختيار اكثر من برنامج وفقا لميولها وحاجتها لتلك البرامج. (Marian .D. ١٩٩٦. P ٧٢) أما في اليابان فقد زادت مساهمة المرأة اليابانية في سوق العمل من ٢١ مليون عام ١٩٨٠ إلى ٢٦ مليون في عام ١٩٩٢ وبذلك تصل مساهمتها من قوة العمل الإجمالية في اليابان إلى ٤٣٪ حيث يمثل قطاع الخدمات اكثر القطاعات الاقتصادية جاذبية للمرأة. ومن السياسات التي اتخذتها الحكومة اليابانية في رفع مساهمة المرأة في النشاط الاقتصادي هو الدعم غير المحدود لتأهيل وتعليم المرأة من خلال فتح المجال لها بعد المرحلة الثانوية في اختيار التخصص المناسب وفقا لرغباتها وتطلعاتها نحو العمل (Oki, S. ١٩٩٦, P. ١٢٤) أما في ماليزيا ، سنغافورة وكوريا الجنوبية نجد أن تلك الدول اتجهت في الآونة الأخيرة في التركيز على التخصصات التطبيقية والفنية على حساب التخصصات النظرية نظرا للمشاكل التي واجهتها تلك الدول في الفترة الماضية ولهذا نجد أن تلك الدول سارعت الى تغيير سياستها التعليمية بالحد من التخصصات النظرية والتركيز على التخصصات العلمية والتطبيقية حيث نجحت من رفع نسبة الخريجين والخريجات من التخصصات العلمية والفنية وتخفيض النسبة في التخصصات النظرية فمثلا في كوريا زادت النسبة في التخصصات العلمية من ٤٠٪ إلى ٥٠٪ بينما ارتفعت النسبة في ماليزيا وسنغافورة من ١٢ إلى ٥٤٪ في عام ١٩٨٩ (الرشيد ، ١٤١٨) في ماليزيا مثلا نجد أن الاهتمام الذي صاحب التعليم الفني للمرأة في ماليزيا يعود إلى التغير السريع نحو التصنيع ودخولها عصر التقدم التكنولوجي وهذا التقدم ساهم في التوجه نحو التعليم الفني والمهني ولذا نجد أن نسبة أعداد الطالبات الملتحقات بالتعليم الفني في ماليزيا ارتفعت من ٤٪ عام ١٩٧٠ إلى نحو ٣٦٪ عام ١٩٩٠ وذلك من إجمالي الملتحقين والملتحقات بهذا النوع من التعليم. وهذه القفزة السريعة ساهمت في زيادة مساهمة المرأة الماليزية في قطاع الصناعة حين زادت نسبة مساهمتها من ١٦٪ عام ١٩٨٠ إلى ٣١٪ عام ١٩٩٢ (Asmail ، ١٩٩٦, p١٤٠) أما في بعض الدول الاسلامية نجد ان نسبة النساء المقيدات في التدريب المهني في كل من إيران تصل الى ٢٤٪ ، تركيا ٣٩٪ من الاجمالي اما في ماليزيا فتصل مساهمتها الى ٢٤٪ وذلك عام ١٩٩٨. الجدير التالي يوضح عدد الدارسات والمدرسات بالتدريب المهني من النساء مقارنة بالرجال في عدد من الدول الصناعية وشبه الصناعية عام ١٩٩٨م.

جدول ١: يوضح عدد الدارسات والمدرسات بالتدريب المهني من النساء مقارنة بالرجال في عدد من الدول الصناعية وشبة الصناعية عام ١٩٩٨م.

الدولة		المقيدين في التدريب المهني		المدرسين في التدريب المهني	
الاجمالي	نسبة الاناث	الاجمالي	نسبة الاناث	الاجمالي	نسبة الاناث
بريطانيا	٢٤٢٥٣٢١	٥٧	١٥٢٠٩٨	٥٦	
اليابان	١٤٣٥٧٢٤	٤٥	١٠٨٢٦٢	٢٨	
المانيا	٢٣٢٠٤٦٥	٤٤	١١٤١٣٧	٣٧	
الصين	٩٩٩٨٥٧٧	٤٤	٦٩٠٠٨٨	٣٤	
ماليزيا	٤٥٧٢٣	٢٤	٤٩٨٩	٣٥	
كوريا الجنوبية	٩٤٩٧٥٠	٥٢	٤٢٤٣٩	٢٧	
ايران	٣٤٧٠٠٨	٢٤	١٩٨٨٠	١٧	
تركيا	١٣٣٣١٧٧	٣٩	٧٥٥٠٧	٣٩	

المراجع: اليونسكو ١٩٩٩، الكتاب السنوي

رابعاً واقع التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة في الدول العربية

هناك الكثير من الدراسات التي تعرّضت لتعليم وعمل المرأة في الدول العربية وانخفاض مساهمتها في التنمية الاقتصادية والاجتماعية وتوصلت إلى عدد من العوامل التي أدت إلى انخفاض مشاركتها في التنمية حيث ترى بعض الدراسات كدراسة (الهراس، ١٤٠٠) والتي تطرق بها لتعليم المرأة في المجالين الفني والمهني واثرة على العوامل الاقتصادية والاجتماعية في الوطن العربي وخلص إلى وجود نظرة سلبية للعمل المهني من قبل المجتمع كان لها اثر في انخفاض مساهمة المرأة في النشاط الاقتصادي كما شدت في توصياته على ضرورة الربط بين حاجة السوق والتعليم الفني والمهني واكد على ضرورة توفير التعليم الفني والمهني للمرأة بالمجان في مختلف مستوياته وتشجيع الفتاة على الالتحاق بهذا النوع من التعليم والتدريب من خلال أجهزة الإعلام المسموعة والمرئية والاهتمام بالمناهج وتطويرها بحيث تشمل البرامج العلمية والتكنولوجية.

وفي دراسة أعدتها (منظمة اليونسكو، ١٤١٤) عن أوضاع المرأة العربية في المجال الفني والمهني واستعرضت الدراسة بصورة شاملة المعوقات التي تواجه المرأة العربية في سوق العمل وقضايا التعليم حيث أشارت الدراسة إلى أن مستوى التحاق الفتيات في برامج التعليم التقني والمهني في الدول العربية بصفة

عامة متدنية ودون المستوى المطلوب وكذلك الحال في نسبة المشاركة في سوق العمل واستخلصت الدراسة عدد من المعوقات التي تواجه المرأة العربية في التنمية من أهمها

١- التمايز بين الرجال والنساء وعدم اخذ جانب المرأة في الاعتبار عند التخطيط التنموي إضافة إلى ضعف مخرجات التعليم مقابل الحاجة الاقتصادية والتنموية.

٢- معوقات تتعلق بالتعليم التقني والمهني وبرامج التدريب الخاصة وذلك من خلال عدم تكافؤ الفرص في برامج التعليم والتدريب بين الذكور والإناث كلا حسب طبيعته وظروفه ولهذا فإن أغلب برامج التعليم التقني والمهني صممت لتتلاءم مع ظروف الرجال وبذلك أصبحت النساء أكثر عرضة للبطالة من الرجل.

٣- معوقات تتعلق بضعف العلاقة التي تربط بين التعليم والعمل وعدم ربطهما معا بعلاقة واحدة.

٤- معوقات تتعلق بعدم وجود تنظيمات اجتماعية تتولى شئون الفتيات الخريجات من خلال عقد برامج ودورات تدريبية لإعادة تأهيلهن وفقا لحاجة السوق.

٥- غياب التوعية المهنية للفتيات من قبل الأسر في سن مبكرة لاعطائها فرصة الخيار من بين البرامج المتاحة وفقا للطلب الاجتماعي والاقتصادي لها. (اليونسكو، ص ١٢-١٨)

كما صنفت الدول العربية وفقا لتوصيات ندوة اليونسكو المنعقدة في عمان عام ١٤١٤ حسب ظروفها الاقتصادية والاجتماعية إلى ثلاث مجموعات جاءت دول الخليج العربي في المجموعة الثانية وهي الدول التي تعتمد في اقتصادها على النفط وقد تم التوصية إلى ضرورة التوسع في التعليم التقني والمهني للفتيات الخليجية خاصة في مجالات المعلومات وتكنولوجيا الحاسب الآلي (اليونسكو، ١٤١٤، ص ١٦)

أما (ياس، ١٤٠٥) فقد أوضح أن انخفاض مساهمة المرأة الخليجية في سوق العمل تعكس صورة الواقع الاجتماعي والاقتصادي للمرأة في مجتمعات الخليج كما أن عدم وجود برامج لتدريب المرأة في الخليج في المجال الفني والمهني ساهم في انخفاض مساهمتها في قطاع الصناعة التحويلية. كما أشار الرميحي ١٤١٥ إلى أن التعليم في دول الخليج العربي من أهم العوامل التي أثرت على مشاركة المرأة الخليجية في السوق نتيجة عدم توافق المخرجات مع حاجة السوق إضافة إلى حداثة تعليم المرأة و تدريبها في المجال الفني و المهني (ص ١٠٣).

بالنظر إلى وضع المرأة الخليجية في التدريب الفني و المهني مقارنة مع بعض الدول العربية والإسلامية نجد أن نسبة الفتيات المتحقات بالتدريب المهني منخفضة مقارنة مع تلك الدول فمن خلال المقارنة بين بعض الدول العربية يتضح أن نسبة عدد الطالبات المتحقات بهذا النوع من التعليم في دول مجلس التعاون الخليجي ترتفع لدى المرأة الكويتية حيث تصل نسبة المتحقات بالتدريب المهني في الكويت نحو ١١ من إجمالي المتحقين بهذا النوع بينما تنخفض النسبة لدى المملكة حيث لا تزيد نسبة عدد المتحقات

هذا النوع من التدريب عن ٦٪ بينما نجدها لدى بعض الدول العربية مرتفعة حيث تصل في سوريا ٥١ ومصر ٤٧٪. (اليونسكو، ١٩٩٩)

كذلك الوضع فيما يخص المدرسات اوالمدربات في مؤسسات التدريب المهني نجد ان نسبة المدرسات اوالمدربات الاناث للاجمالي مرتفعة في اغلب الدول العربية ففي العراق مثلا تصل النسبة الى ٥٧٪، سوريا ٣٩٪ ومصر ٣٧٪ بينما تبقى منخفضة في المملكة حيث لاتزيد نسبة الاناث المدرسات اوالمدربات في التدريب المهني من الاجمالي عن ٧٪ (المرجع السابق، ١٩٩٩) والجدول التالي يوضح عدد الدارسات والمدرسات بالتدريب المهني من النساء مقارنة بالرجال في عدد من الدول العربية عام ١٩٩٨م.

جدول ٢: يوضح عدد الدارسات والمدرسات بالتدريب المهني من النساء مقارنة بالرجال في عدد من الدول العربية عام ١٩٩٨م.

الدولة	المقيدين في التدريب المهني		المدرسين في التدريب المهني	
	الاجمالي	% الاناث	الاجمالي	% الاناث
سوريا	٩٢٦٢٢	٥٢	١٢٤٧٩	٣٩
مصر	١٩١٢٠٤٠	٤٧	١٣٨٢٢٧	٣٧
المغرب	٩٦٤٦٨	٤٦	٥٠٤٨	١٢
الاردن	٣٩٧٠١	٣٦	٢٣٠٨	٣١
الكويت	٢٢١٤	٣٦	٣٢٠	٢٨
العراق	٩٩٤٠٥	١٨	٨٥١١	٥٣
السعودية	٢١٥٥١	٦	٢٥٣٦	٠٧

المرجع: اليونسكو ١٩٩٩، الكتاب السنوي

خامسا تعليم المرأة في المملكة العربية السعودية

اذا القينا لمحة مختصرة على التعليم النظامي الحديث للمرأة في المملكة نجد انه لم يبدأ الا بعد انشاء الرئاسة العامة لتعليم البنات عام ١٣٨٠ / ١٩٦٠ أي بعد تعليم البنين بثلاثين عام فعلى الرغم من بعد المسافة بين التعليمين الا ان تعليم المرأة يسير بخطى ثابتة نتيجة الجهود المذولة من حكومة الملكة العربية السعودية ودعمها المتواصل للتعليم بصفة عامة وتعليم المرأة على وجه الخصوص والذي غطى بخدماته جميع المدن والقرى حتى اصبح اليوم ينافس تعليم الرجل بل يتعداه في بعض مراحلها والجدولين

التاليين يوضحان تطور تعليم المرأة في المملكة سواء المقيدات بمراحل التعليم او الخريجات وذلك من بداية التخطيط التنموي عام ١٣٩٠ حتى نهاية عام ١٤٢٠ مقارنة بتعليم الرجل.

جدول ٣: يوضح أعداد الطالبات المقيدات بالتعليم العام و التعليم الجامعي مقارنة بالطلاب من عام ١٣٩٠ حتى ١٤٢٠ (الأرقام بالألف)

١٤٢٠		١٤١٠		١٤٠٠		١٣٩٠		المرحلة الدراسية
إناث	ذكور	إناث	ذكور	إناث	ذكور	إناث	ذكور	
١٠٩١	١١٧٧	٨٠١	٩٦١	٣٢٥	٥٣٧	١٢٠	٢٧٧	ابتدائي
٤٩٤	٥٦٤	٢١٠	٣٠٤	٨٠	١٦٥	٥	٥٦	متوسط
٣٦٨	٣٦٦	١١٠	١٤٢	٢٩	٦٤	٢	١٨	ثانوي
١٨١	١٦٢	٥٣	٦٩	٣١	٣٥	٠	٧	تعليم عالي

وزارة التخطيط، منجزات خطط التنمية من ١٣٩٠ حتى ١٤٢٠

جدول ٤: يوضح أعداد الخريجات من التعليم العام والتعليم الجامعي مقارنة بالخريجين من عام ١٣٩٠ حتى ١٤٢٠

١٤٢٠		١٤١٠		١٤٠٠		١٣٩٠		المرحلة الدراسية
إناث	ذكور	إناث	ذكور	إناث	ذكور	إناث	ذكور	
١٤١٣٦٩	١٢٩٥٠٨	٥٢٥٦٨	٦٤١٥١	١٧٥٢٧	٢٢٥٦٧	١١٣٢	١١٤٠٦	متوسط
٩٨١٤٥	٦٨٦٤٣	٢٨١٥٨	٢٨٦٠٤	٦٥١١	٩٠٥٧	٣٦٩	٢٤٣٧	ثانوي
٢١٢٢١	٢٠٢٢٩	٦٤٣٤	٨٩٥٥	١١٧٤	٣٤٤٧	١٣	٧٩٥	تعليم عالي

وزارة التخطيط، منجزات خطط التنمية من ١٣٩٠ حتى ١٤٢٠

يتضح من الجدولين السابقين أن هناك تنافس واضح بين تعليم البنين وتعليم البنات سواء من واقع المقيدتين والمقيدات في جميع مراحل التعليم أو من واقع أعداد الخريجين والخريجات خاصة في السنوات الأخيرة وهذا يعطي مؤشر جيد للتقدم الذي وصل إليه تعليم المرأة حتى أصبح اليوم ينافس تعليم المرأة عدد من الدول الصناعية المتقدمة على الرغم من قصر عمرة الزمني مقارنة بتلك الدول.

سادسا: تطور التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة في المملكة العربية السعودية
لقد أولت حكومة المملكة عناية خاصة بالتعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة كونه يسهم في إعداد
الفتاة فنيا ومهنيا لتكون عضوا نافعا وفعالا في المجتمع. لهذا جاءت فكرة افتتاح مراكز التفصيل
والخياطة عام ١٩٩٢ لتلبية الحاجة لإيجاد فرص عمل لمن لا تمكنهن ظروفهن من مواصلة الدراسة
وإكسابهن الخبرة في أعمال تتوافق مع طبيعة المرأة وتساعد في تحسين أوضاعها المادية والحد من
استقدام العمالة الأجنبية من الرجال والنساء العاملين والعاملات في مجال الخياطة وقد توجت هذه
الأهداف بقيام الرئاسة العامة لتعليم البنات بافتتاح أول مركزين في كل من الرياض والاحساء وذلك في
عام ١٣٩٢/٩٢ (تعليم المرأة في مائة عام، ١٤٢٠) ثم توسعت هذه المراكز وأصبح عددها يزيد عن ٤٠
مركزا غطت مدن وقرى المملكة تدرس فيها الطالبة سنتين دراسيتين بعد المرحلة الابتدائية هي ذات
طبيعة عملية مهنية إلى جانب المواد الثقافية. تؤهل المتدربة للعمل في مجالات الخياطة وصناعة الملابس
النسائية وتمنح المتدربة أثناء الدراسة مكافئة شهرية إضافة إلى قروض حكومية ميسرة بعد التخرج
لممارسة المهنة.

بعد صدور قرار رئيس مجلس القوى العاملة بتاريخ ١٤١١/١١/٧ القاضي بإسناد مهمة الإشراف على
التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة للرئاسة العامة لتعليم البنات بعد أن كانت تشرف عليه جهات أخرى
بدأت الرئاسة بتطوير هذا النوع من التعليم سواء من خلال تطوير انظمة الإدارية والتعليمية أو من خلال
التعاون مع القطاعين العام والخاص للنهوض بهذا النوع من التعليم من خلال اللجان المشتركة التي
تشرف على البرامج والمناهج الدراسية ومن هذه الجهود التي بذلت في تطوير هذا النوع من التعليم صدور
الموافقة على افتتاح المعاهد الفنية للفتاة السعودية بعد المرحلة المتوسطة لتساهم من جديد في تقديم برامج
حديثة تساهم في إحلال العمالة النسائية الوطنية في المجال الفني والتقني محل العمالة الأجنبية في
قطاعات المرأة وقد تم تحديد ستة مجالات دراسية جاءت من خلال دراسة موسعة لحاجة سوق العمل
للمرأة من قبل مجلس القوى العاملة بالتعاون مع الرئاسة وقد حددت البرامج المقترحة للمرأة كما يلي:
الاقتصاد المنزلي بفرعه (التدبير المنزلي، التفصيل والخياطة)، الأعمال الإدارية ويشمل (النسخ،
الإحصاء والمحاسبة)، الحاسب الآلي ويشمل (تشغيل وصيانة الحاسب الآلي)، الصناعات الخفيفة
وتشمل (صناعة الملابس، التغذية)، المكتبات والمعلومات ويدخل ضمنها (الفهرسة، تجليد وتغليف
الكتب) و تقنيات التعليم ويدخل ضمنها (عمل النماذج، وسائل الإيضاح) وقد تم تنفيذ أول تلك البرامج
عام ١٤١٥ (الاقتصاد المنزلي بفرعه) كبداية للتجربة من خلال معهدين في كل من الرياض والاحساء،
حيث التحق بهذين المعهدين ٤٧٢ طالبة عام. ونظرا لتطور تلك المعاهد واتجاه المرأة السعودية للانخراط
بها نتيجة تشجيع الدولة لهذا النوع من التعليم حيث تقدم للطالبات مكافئات شهرية وقروض ميسرة

لممارسة المهنة بعد التخرج. وبنظرة سريعة على التطور الكمي الذي صاحب التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة من بداية إنشائها عام ١٣٩٢ حتى عام ١٤١٨ نجد أن أعداد الطالبات الملتحقات في المراكز المهنية قد زادت من ١٣٧ طالبة عام ١٣٩٢ إلى ١٤١٦ طالبة عام ١٤١٨ بينما زادت أعداد الخريجات من تلك المراكز من ٢٣٣ خريجة عام ١٣٩٥ إلى ٦٥٩ خريجة عام ١٤١٨ أما أعداد المقيدات في التعليم الفني فقد زادت من ٤٧٢ عام ١٤١٥ إلى ٢١٠١ عام ١٤١٨ بينما زادت أعداد الخريجات من ٢٧٦ عام ١٤١٧ إلى ٥٠٤ عام ١٤١٨. وفيما يلي بيان بتطور أعداد النساء الدارسات والخريجات من المراكز المهنية والمعاهد الفنية للمرأة في المملكة من بداية إنشائها حتى نهاية عام ١٤١٨

جدول ٥: يوضح أعداد الفتيات المقيدات والخريجات من التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني في المملكة من عام ١٣٩٢ حتى عام ١٤١٨.

السنة	الداخلات		الخريجات	
	تدريب مهني	تعليم فني	تعليم فني	تدريب مهني
١٣٩٢	-	١٣٧	-	-
١٣٩٥	-	٥٠٥	-	٢٣٣
١٤٠٠	-	٨٦٠	-	٢٨٢
١٤٠٥	-	١١٩٩	-	٤٨٢
١٤١٠	-	١٥٣٢	-	٥٤٧
١٤١٥	٤٧٢	١٥٤١	-	٥٥٢
١٤١٦	٩٣٧	١٥٢٨	-	٥٥٣
١٤١٧	١٢٦٩	١٥١٤	٢٧٦	٦٦٣
١٤١٨	٢١٠١	١٦١٤	٥٠٤	٦٥٩

الرئاسة العامة لتعليم البنات، تعليم المرأة في ٢٦ عام، ١٤١٩. تعليم المرأة في ١٠٠ عام، ١٤١٩، الكراسة الإحصائية، ١٤٢٠

جدول ٦: يوضح أعداد الملتحقين والخريجين من الذكور والإناث من التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني بالملكة من بداية التخطيط الترموي عام ١٣٩٠ حتى نهاية عام ١٤١٨

السنة	المدارس		الداخليين		الخريجين	
	ذكور	إناث	ذكور	إناث	ذكور	إناث
١٣٩٠	٧	-	١٤١٨	-	٤٧١	-
١٣٩٥	١٩	٤	٥٣٤٠	٥٠٥	٢٠٣٥	٢٣٣
١٤٠٠	٥٠	٩	١٥٠٩٨	٨٦٠	٧١٤٠	٢٨٢
١٤٠٥	٦١	١٩	٢٢٩١٢	٢٠٠٨	١١٠٨٩	٤٨٢
١٤١٠	٦٢	٢٢	٢٨٨٤٩	١٥٣٢	١٠٩٩٠	٥٤٧
١٤١٥	٦٨	٢٨	٨٣٦٢٥	٢٠٣١	١٣٠٧٩	٥٥٢
١٤١٦	٧٣	٣٠	٣٦٢٤١	٢٤٦٥	١٢٧٣١	٥٥٣
١٤١٧	٧٥	٣٤	٣٦٩٥٠	٢٧٨٣	١٣٢٥٨	٩٣٩
١٤١٨	٧٤	٤٤	٣٧١٥٠	٣٧١٥	١١٨٩١	١١٦٣

وزارة التخطيط، منجزات خطط التنمية من عام ١٣٩٠ حتى ١٤٢٠.

الرئاسة العامة لتعليم البنات، تعليم المرأة في ٢٦ عام، ١٤١٩. تعليم المرأة في ١٠٠ عام، ١٤١٩، الكراسة الإحصائية، ١٤٢٠

سابعاً: المرأة وسوق العمل في المملكة العربية السعودية

لم يكن مفهوم توظيف المرأة في المملكة العربية السعودية موجوداً قبل بدء التعليم النظامي للمرأة عام ١٣٨٠ كون المرأة لها أدوار اسمي وأهم في المجتمع كأم ومربية أطفال وهي مسئوليتها الأولى في الإسلام ولكن هذا المفهوم بدأ يظهر ويتطور وبدأت الدولة تولية الاهتمام نتيجة ظهور الحاجة للمرأة في مجالات التعليم والطب لخدمة بنات جنسها وهذا الاهتمام بدأ واضحاً عند بداية التخطيط الترموي عام ٢١٠ لكن هذا لا يعني أن المرأة السعودية لم يكن لها أدوار في السابق فقد كانت تساهم في خدمة زوجها ومجتمعها في المجالات الفنية والمهنية كالزراعة، رعي الغنم، الخياطة والغزل، التجارة والصناعة التقليدية لكن إذا القينا نظرة سريعة على مساهمة المرأة السعودية في سوق العمل يتضح ذلك من خلال الجدول التالي الذي يوضح تطور توظيفها من ١٤٠٥ حتى نهاية خطة التنمية السادسة ١٤٢٠

جدول ٧: يوضح تطور مساهمة المرأة السعودية في سوق العمل من ١٤٠٥ الى ١٤٢٠

السنة	العمالة المدنية سعودي / غير سعودي	اجمالي العمالة السعودية		مساهمة المرأة في سوق العمل	
		العدد	النسبة من الاجمالي	عدد النساء العاملات	نسبة النساء السعوديات من اجمالي العمالة المدنية
١٤٠٥	٤٤٤٦٠٠٠	١٧٨٦٠٠٠	٤٠ ، ٤	١٣٦٨٠٠	٣،١
١٤١٠	٥٧٧١٨٠٠	١٩٢٣٢٠٠	٣٣،٣	١٦٨٩٠٠	٢،٩
١٤١٥	٦٨٦٧٧٠٠	٢٣٨٤٢٠٠	٣٤،٣	٢١٥٦٠٠	٣،١
١٤٢٠	٧٠٥٩٤٠٠	٢٨٩٥٤٠٠	٤١	٢٧٢٧٠٠	٣،٩

الغرفة التجارية الصناعية بالرياض، ١٤١٨، ص ١٦

من الجدول السابق يتضح ان مساهمة المرأة في سوق العمل السعودي تعد متدنية حيث لاتزيد عن ٢٧٢٧٠٠ عاملة بنسبة ٤٪ من اجمالي العمالة المدنية في المملكة و نحو ١٠٪ من اجمالي العمالة السعودية عام ١٤٢٠ وهذه النسبة تعد منخفضة اذا ما اخذ بالاعتبار التطور السريع في تعليمها وتدريبها وحاجا السوق لها في قطاعات المرأة خاصة في القطاع الخاص والذي يستقطب الجزء الاكبر من العمالة النسائية الاجنبية. فعلى الرغم من الاعداد المتزايدة من الباحثات عن عمل الا ان السوق لم يستطع استقطاب الانسبة ضئيلة من هذه الاعداد نحو ٩٠٪ منهم يعملن في القطاع العام وعلى وجه الخصوص في قطاعي التعليم والصحة مما اوجد بطالة بين النساء خاصة خريجات الجامعة حيث اشارت وزارة الخدمة المدنية الى ان عدد المتقدمات من الجامعيات على الوظائف التعليمية التي طرحتها الوزارة عام ١٤٢٠ وعددها ٥٤٠٠٠ امرأة لم تتمكن الوزارة من تعيين سوى ١٠٪ منهم. (جريدة الرياض، الاثنين، السنة ٣٢)

بالنظر الى وضع المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص نجد ان هناك صعوبة في الحصول على بيانات دقيقة عن اعداد العاملات في القطاع الخاص الا ان الاحصائيات تشير الى ان عددهن ارتفع من ٢٧٩٦٨ عام ١٤١٠ (بن دهيش، ١٤١٦) الى ٣١٠٥٢ عام ١٤١٧ (الغرفة التجارية الصناعية بالرياض، ١٤١٨) لاتزيد نسبة السعوديات منهن عن ١٠٪ وفي احصائية اصدرتها وزارة العمل (قسم الحاسب الالي) عام ١٤٢١ فقد وصل عدد العاملات في القطاع الخاص في اغلب مناطق المملكة نحو ٤٤٨٤١ موظفة تمثل العاملات السعوديات منهن ٢٠٪ بينما ٨٠٪ من الاجمالي تمثل عمالة نسائية اجنبية معظمهن يمارسن اعمالا فنية ومهنية. وفي جزء من دراسة استكشافية اعدتها الباحثين تم نشرها في مؤتمر دولي عام ١٤٢١ ضمت ٢٢٠ منشأة من منشآت القطاع الخاص في كل من الرياض، جدة، الدمام وبيدة تبين

عن اهم الوظائف الفنية والمهنية الشاغرة او المشغولة بعمالة اجنبية والتي مازالت الحاجة ماسة لها في قطاعات المرأة في القطاع الخاص حيث اتضح من الدراسة ان اعداد العاملات في عينة الدراسة يصل ٤٧٨٥ تمثل النساء السعوديات مانسبة ٢٠٪ معظمهن يعملن في وظائف الاشراف والاعمال الادارية بينه ٦٤٪ من النساء الاجنبيات يعملن في وظائف فنية ومهنية اما اهم الوظائف المطلوبة في القطاع الخاص للمرأة هي حسب اهميتها على النحو التالي (الطب والطب المساعد، الحاسب الالي، النسيج والخياطة، صناعة الاطعمة، الالكترونيات والمحاسبة) (الشتيوي وكلفت، ٢٠٠١)

ثامنا: الدراسة الميدانية

هذه الدراسة عبارة عن جزء من نتائج رسالة دكتوراة غير منشورة تبحث عن معوقات توظيف المرأة السعودية في القطاع الخاص السعودي بصفة عامة وفي المجالين الفني والمهني على وجه الخصوص ضمن عينة تشمل ١٥٠٠ فرد (مدراء الشركات، النساء الباحثات عن عمل، العاملات في القطاع الخاص والمسؤولين في القطاعين العام والخاص). ولذا هذه الورقة سوف تستكشف فقط اتجاهات المرأة السعودية العاملة نحو التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة في المملكة ومدى قدرته على تلبية حاجات القطاع الخاص من خلال اخذ رأي عينة من العاملات السعوديات المؤهلات في القطاع الخاص في ارب مدن رئيسية هي: الرياض، جدة، الدمام و بريدة حيث تم اختيار تلك المدن نظرا لكون ٨٠٪ من اجمالي العمالة النسائية في المملكة تعمل بها وفقا لآخر تعداد رسمي صدر عام ١٤١٣.

٤٠٠ استبانة تم توزيعها على النساء السعوديات العاملات في القطاع الخاص في جميع القطاعات التي تعمل بها المرأة كا القطاع الصناعي، التجاري، التقني والخدمي وقد كانت نسبة الردود جيدة ٥٢٪ (٢٠٧ استمارة من اصل ٤٠٠).

بالنظر الى خصائص عينة الدراسة اتضح ان اكثر افراد العينة متزوجات حيث يمثلن ٥٨٪ بينما الغير متزوجات يمثلن ٣٢٪ اما الارامل او المطلقات فكانت نسبتهن ١٠٪ . اكثر افراد العينة تقع اعمارهن ما بين ٢٥ الى اقل من ٣٥ سنة ٦٦٪ اما من تقع اعمارهن فوق ٣٥ فلا تتعدى ٧٪ بينما ٢٧٪ من العينة اعمارهن تقل عن ٢٥ سنة. اكثر العينة يحملن مؤهل جامعي فما فوق ٦٩٪ . بينما من يحملن الثانوية العامة او دبلوم فوق الثانوي فكانت نسبتهن تتراوح ما بين ١٦٪ و ١٥٪ على التوالي بينما لا يوجد في العينة من تحمل الكفاءة او المرحلة الابتدائية. اكثر افراد العينة يحملن تخصصات نظرية حيث يمثلن مانسبة ٧٨٪ . بينما لا تمثل نسبة الحاصلات على مؤهل تطبيقي او فني عن ٢٢٪.

بسؤال العينة عن اتجاهاتهن نحو مساهمة المرأة السعودية في سوق العمل الفني والمهني في القطاع الخاص افادت الاغلبية العظمى انها ضعيفة ٨٩٪ بينما اشار مانسبة ٢١٪ انها جيدة. وعند سؤال العينة هل لديها

معرفة او معلومات عن برامج التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني التي تقدم من قبل وزارة المعارف باعتبارها المسئول الاول عن التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة بالمملكة افادت ٧٣٪ من العينة بوجود معرفة سابقة لديهن عن هذا النوع من التعليم بينما اشار مانسبته ٢٧٪ من العينة بعدم وجود معرفة لديهن وعندما تم سؤال النساء اللاتي لديهن معرفة عن التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة (٧٣٪) عن رايهن هل مخرجات التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة تلبي حاجة القطاع الخاص السعودي؟ افادت اغلبية العينة انها لا تلبي الحاجة وان برامج التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة لا تغطي حاجة القطاع الخاص ٨٣٪ بينما افاد ١٧٪ من العينة بانه قادر على تلبية حاجة القطاع الخاص. بالسؤال عن اهم العوامل التي ساهمت في عدم قدرة التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة لتلبية حاجة القطاع الخاص اشارت العينة الى العوامل التالية وفقا لاهميتها:

١. النقص في عدد المدرسات المؤهلات في مجال التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني ٩١٪
 ٢. عدم وجود تعاون بين القطاعين العام والخاص فيما يتعلق بتطوير وتحديث برامج التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة بالمملكة ٨٢٪
 ٣. عدم تلبية مخرجات التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة لحاجة القطاع الخاص ٨١٪
 ٤. عدم كفاءة سياسة التخطيط والادارة في مجال التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة بالمملكة ٧٠٪
 ٥. عدم كفاية وكفاءة التجهيزات التي توفرها مؤسسات التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة ٦٦٪.
- بالنظر للنتائج الموضحة اعلاه نجد انها تتفق مع نتائج البحث الذي تم نشره للباحثين في شهر يونيو ٢٠٠٢ في المجلة الدولية للتدريب والتنمية الصادرة باللغة الانجليزية من جامعة ليدز في بريطانيا والذي ركز على التعرف على راي مدراء القطاع الخاص في المنشآت السعودية حول مدى توافق مخرجات التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة في المملكة العربية السعودية مع حاجة القطاع الخاص. (انظر مراجع البحث)

تاسعا: النتائج والتوصيات

لقد أكدت خطط التنمية الأخيرة على أن الحمل الأكبر لمسألة توظيف القوى العاملة الوطنية سوف ينصب على القطاع الخاص حيث توقعت أن يقوم بتوظيف نحو ٩٥٪ من السعوديين المتوقع دخولهم سوق العمل مدة تنفيذ الخطة بينما سوف يقتصر دور القطاع العام على توظيف مانسبته (٥ ٪) من إجمالي الداخلين لسوق العمل لتلبية المتطلبات الاجتماعية لقطاعي التعليم والصحة وهذه المؤشرات الرسمية تضع القطاع الخاص أمام تحدي في استيعاب الزيادة في إجمالي العمالة الداخلة لسوق العمل خلال كامل

فترتها. (خطة التنمية السادسة، مرجع سابق، ١٤١٥ - ١٩٩٥م) وفي نفس الوقت يضع المسئولين عن تخطيط القوى العاملة في المملكة وواضعي السياسة التعليمية والتدريبية في تحدي لجعل مخرجات التعليم تتوافق مع متطلبات القطاع الخاص، خاصة تعليم المرأة والذي لا تزال مخرجاته موجهة لخدمة القطاع العام مما احدث عدم وجود توازن بين أعداد الخريجات والفرص الوظيفية النسائية المتاحة في القطاع الخاص.

ونظرا لاعتبار التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني من أهم الوسائل الفعالة في تنمية الموارد البشرية وان القوى الفنية والمهنية المؤهلة هي العامل المؤثر في فشل أو نجاح خطط التنمية في أي دولة (المشيح، ١٤١٠، ص ١٢) لذا فقد أكدت أهداف خطط التنمية من الخامسة حتى السابعة على ضرورة وأهمية التوسع في هذا النوع من التعليم واعتباره من أهم العوامل التي تساهم في دعم وتنمية القوى العاملة الفنية والمهنية مما جعل السياسة التعليمية في المملكة تركز على وتوسع في افتتاح الكثير من المراكز والمعاهد والكليات المهنية، الفنية والتقنية في جميع مناطق المملكة ومنح القطاع الخاص فرصة الاستثمار في هذا المجال. فعلى الرغم من الجهود التي تبذلها الجهة المسئولة عن تعليم وتدريب المرأة في المملكة ممثلة في وزارة المعارف إلا أن هذه الجهود تفتقد إلى التنوع في البرامج والتخصصات التي يحتاجها السوق واصبح تعليم المرأة في المملكة اليوم يميل إلى الكم لا الكيف وذلك لعدم ربط السياسة التعليمية للمرأة بحاجة سوق العمل في القطاع الخاص. ولهذا نخلص من هذه الدراسة إلى أن التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة في المملكة والذي يقدم من قبل وزارة المعارف يعتبر في بدايته مقارنة بالدول الصناعية، الإسلامية والعربية من جهة وبذلك فهو لا يلبي حاجة سوق العمل في القطاع الخاص في الوقت الحالي نظرا لوجود قص في العناصر النسائية المؤهلة والمدربة التي تستطيع أن تساهم في تأهيل خريجات سعوديات في المجال الفني والمهني كون الأعداد الموجودة لاتغطي الحاجة للتوسع الأفقي أو الراسي لهذا النوع من التعليم كما ان مخرجات هذا النوع من التعليم أيضا مازالت غير قادرة على تلبية حاجة القطاع الخاص من لعمالة النسائية الماهرة أو شبه الماهرة نظرا لمحدودية البرامج التي تقدمها للسوق .

على الرغم من اهتمام الدولة في التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني والإنجازات التي تحققت في فترة قصيرة إلا أنه يكاد يكون منصبا على الرجال دون النساء ، في الوقت الذي تشكو فيه المملكة من ندرة العنصر لوطني والاعتماد شبه الكلي على العنصر الأجنبي خاصة في الوظائف الفنية والمهنية التي تتوافق مع ظروف المرأة السعودية خاصة في مجالات الحاسب الآلي، الخياطة والنسيج، الصناعات الخفيفة، الالكترونيات، المحاسبة وتصميم المجوهرات اضافة الى الصيانة الكهربائية الخفيفة للمؤسسات نسائية خاصة بعد الاحاث الاخيرة التي حصلت في احدى المدارس الاهلية في مكة الأمر الذي يؤدي لأهمية تأهيل المرأة لممارسة بعض المهن المطلوبة في سوق العمل في ظل شبه الاكتفاء الذاتي من الوظائف

التعليمية للمرأة إضافة إلى أن تأهيلها فنيا ومهنيا سوف يساهم في سعودة الوظائف النسائية الفنية والمهنية والتي ركزت عليها الدولة في الآونة الأخيرة وجعلتها من أهم القضايا التي تواجه المملكة اليوم وبذلك فإن إغفال دور المرأة وعدم تأهيلها فنيا ومهنيا لتؤدي دورها المطلوب في التنمية لخدمة بنات جنسها يجعل من تحقيق سياسة السعودة في بعض المهن أمرا صعب التحقق ولهذا فمن الأهمية بمكان أن يكون هناك توجة واهتمام أكثر بالتعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة وفقا لما تقره الشريعة الإسلامية وهذا يحتاج الى:

١. اعداد دراسات مسحية واسعة على مستوى مناطق المملكة تغطي جميع شرائح المجتمع الذين لهم علاقة ببرامج التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني للمرأة للتعرف على حاجة السوق في القطاعين العام والخاص من العمالة النسائية الفنية والمهنية على مستوى كل منطقة من مناطق المملكة إضافة الى التعرف على اتجاهات النساء السعوديات نحو البرامج الفنية والمهنية التي تلبى ميولهن واتجاهاتهن حتى يكون هناك توافق بين حاجة السوق واتجاهات المرأة نحو بعض الوظائف.
٢. تاهيل نساء سعوديات على مستوى عالي من المهارة والخبرة في جميع التخصصات التي يحتاجها سوق العمل للمرأة في المجال الفني والمهني.
٣. تعاون وتكاتف أكثر بين الجهات المسؤولة عن تخطيط القوى العاملة النسائية الحكومية مع المسؤولين في القطاع الخاص في اعداد الخطط والبرامج التي تعد للمرأة في مجال التعليم الفني والتدريب المهني كون القطاع الخاص هو الموظف الاول للعمالة الوطنية في الوقت الحالي والمستقبلي.

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