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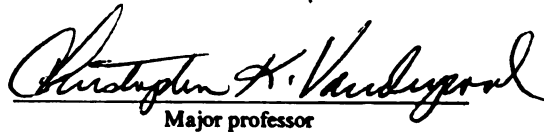
Attitudes on the Impact of Foreign
Labor Force in Saudi Society:
The Case of Jeddah City

presented by

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has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Doctoral degree in Sociology


Major professor

Date September 16, 1985

ATTITUDES ON THE IMPACT OF FOREIGN
LABOR FORCE IN SAUDI SOCIETY:
THE CASE OF JEDDAH CITY

By

Ali Sagr Al-Ghamdi

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Sociology

1985

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1985

ABSTRACT

ATTITUDES ON THE IMPACT OF FOREIGN LABOR FORCE IN SAUDI SOCIETY: THE CASE OF JEDDAH CITY

By

Ali Sagr Al-Ghamdi

This study was primarily designed to examine Saudi citizens' attitudes toward foreign workers and the impact of labor migration on Saudi society. Aspects related to the country's influx of expatriate workers, such as demand and ethnic composition, are examined. The forms of the society's dependence on foreign labor are discussed.

A survey was conducted of 508 subjects to obtain specific information on attitudes toward the impact of foreign labor. The subjects were from three occupational categories: businessmen, government employees, and Social Security recipients, so that low, medium and high income groups were represented. Seven hypotheses, and a simple paradigm to help explain the hypotheses, were employed to guide the research. Data were analyzed using frequency analysis, correlation coefficients, and cross-tabulation techniques. The attitudes of the Jeddah citizens in the

sample toward the foreign workers, who comprise half the country's workforce were examined.

The major findings dealt with (a) respondents' socioeconomic status and relationships among background variables; (b) frequency distributions and intercorrelations among attitude variables; and (c) relationships between background variables and attitudes toward expatriate labor. Generally, it was found that foreign labor has had a negative impact on the society, with strong agreement among the respondents on the problems associated with the presence of foreign workers. Of the background variables hypothesized to affect the attitudes of Saudi citizens toward foreign labor: age, income, education, occupation, family size, cross-societal exposure, and contact with foreign workers, only occupation had a significant effect. More positive attitudes were expressed by businessmen than those in the other occupational groups. Among the various types of cross-societal exposure, frequency of watching foreign television broadcasts had a significant effect on attitude, but neither exposure to foreign radio programs nor travel outside the country had similar effects.

The determination, across socioeconomic groups, that the presence of a large foreign labor force has a negative impact on Saudi society, is in conflict with findings that show a continuing need for expatriate labor in Saudi Arabia in coming years. Some policy recommendations for dealing

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with this dichotomy are made and suggestions are provided
for further research.

Dedication

**To my dearest father
Othman Bin Abdullaziz Bin Sagr...
I dedicate this humble work!**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

At the outset of these acknowledgements I would like to thank God, who gave me the strength, patience and endurance to enable me to accomplish this simple manuscript. Sincere gratitude and appreciation are expressed to my friend, academic advisor and committee chairman, Professor Christopher K. Vanderpool for his valuable comments, encouragement, and helpful suggestions. It was an honor for me to have Professor Vanderpool as my major advisor. He is one of the most knowledgeable and distinguished professors at Michigan State University with a broad and open-minded view of the world.

I would like to express my thanks to Professor Harry Schwarzweller who worked with me very closely during the analysis phase of this manuscript. Thanks is also extended to the other committee members, Professor Allen Beegle and Professor John Gullahorn for their comments and encouragement. I would also like to thank Mr. Ahmad Al-Yahya, Deputy Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs for Saudi Arabia who provided me with a great deal of information without any reservations during the data collection phase.

I would also like to thank the people in the Arab Planning Institute in Kuwait, who provided me with valuable information with regard to the labor situation in the Gulf States. Last, but not least, special thanks goes to my parents and relatives for their patience, endurance and financial support. Appreciation goes to my wife, my daughters, Huda, Hind, Hanna and my lovely son, Hani, who added so much to my life when he was born during the final stages of my graduate work.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

Saudi Arabia is one of the most powerful countries in the Middle East with vast amounts of wealth generated primarily from oil revenues. This wealth has clearly contributed to the rapid social change and the development which is currently visible. During the past decade, more sectors of the Saudi economy have been transformed, guided mainly by a series of Five Year Plans. Consistent with these plans there has been an increasing demand for foreign labor to fulfill the social and developmental requirements of the development plan objectives. Consequently, the country has been inundated with foreign workers coming from diverse cultural backgrounds.

The focus of this research is primarily to determine Saudi citizens' attitudes toward foreign labor and other aspects of labor migration into Saudi Arabia, including the demand for foreign labor. Most importantly, the impact of foreign labor on the Saudi society is also an integral part of this research.

Saudi Arabia has been importing labor since the 1950s when the government embarked on its ambitious development

plans. The Kingdom has a relatively small indigenous workforce of 1.5 million, out of a population of approximately 7 million. This distribution of the workforce is due to a rather young demographic structure, moreover, the country's customs and policies have restricted women's participation in the economy to a limited number of occupations. Hence the country remains one of the largest employers of foreign labor in the Arab World (U.N., 1982).

The presence of two or three million foreign workers in Saudi Arabia has had tremendous impact on Saudi society, positively as well as negatively. Some of the positive effects include resolving indigenous labor shortages in almost all economic sectors, such as road construction, agriculture, and industry. On the other hand, the negative effects have been felt in an increased crime rate, greater pressure on public services such as education and health care, inflation and limited involvement of the local population in the economy.

This study examines the Saudi citizens' attitude toward these impacts of the foreign labor force on Saudi society and more specifically in the city of Jeddah. Jeddah is a cosmopolitan city which attracts people from many parts of the world. In addition, this study will attempt to trace the forms of the Saudi society's dependence on foreign workers.

Sociological Relevance of the Study

The sociological importance of this study lies in its effort to probe the attitudes of groups of Saudi citizens (government employees, private businessmen and social security beneficiaries) toward the impact of foreign labor. The findings of the study isolate existing sentiments from a diverse Saudi population about their perceptions of the role which foreign labor plays in the Saudi economy and society. To the researcher's knowledge, this is the first such study conducted in Saudi Arabia, therefore, its findings may have important sociological implications.

The importation of foreign labor was considered economically justifiable when development of the indigenous labor force was in its infancy and lagging behind societal demand. This situation has changed as a result of the government's five-year plan to develop Saudi human resources. Substantial changes may be observed, for example, in the field of higher education. Such changes mean an increasing general awareness among Saudi citizens' that they should determine the country's economic destiny. However, it should not be assumed that this attitude prevails. This study, therefore, was designed to investigate whether or not Saudis' prevailing attitudes toward the continued presence and impacts of a large foreign labor force are variable in nature.

Sociologically, this study is intended to identify similarities and/or differences in attitudes between the different Saudi groups. While the focus here is to find out whether or not there are different reactions to the impact of foreign labor, the findings from this study may contribute to and generate further inquiry into foreign labor migration into societies similar to Saudi Arabia.

The Structure of the Saudi
Labor Force:

Population

There is no reliable estimate of the actual size of the Kingdom's population. Different sources indicate various estimates (See Table 1.1). For example, Birks and Sinclair estimated there were 4,592,500 in 1975; the United Nations Demographic Yearbook, estimated the Saudi population at about 9.68 in 1982. The World Bank Report estimated the population of Saudi Arabia at about 10 million. The Saudi government claims that the total population of the country as of the 1974 Census was 7,012,642 including non-Saudis and Saudi natives who were living within the country's boundaries, as well as Saudi citizens who were living outside the country (Gadi, 1979:63).

It seems to me that the United Nations' and the World Banks' estimates are highly inflated, and a more reasonable estimate is 7 million.

TABLE 1.1: Saudi Population Estimates (in Millions)

Year	S.A. Census	IMF/ILO	UN	Japan Center	U.S. Census	Birks- Sinclair	World Bank
1960		5.98					
1961		6.12	1962	6.26		3.31	
1963		6.42					
1964		6.58					
1965		6.75					
1966		6.93					
1967		7.12					
1968		7.33	5.89				
1969		7.53	6.07			3.88	
1970		7.74	6.25				
1971		7.97	6.43				
1972		8.21	6.62				
1973		8.45	6.81			4.33	
1974	7.01	8.71	7.01			4.56	
1975		8.97	7.21	3.90	6.2	4.59	
1976		9.24	7.43				
1977		9.52					
1978							7.6
1979							
1980							
1981							
1982		9.68					
1983							
1984							10.0

SOURCE: Adapted from Robert Looney, 1982:122

Awwad (1979) provides a breakdown of the population by age and sex for Saudis and non-Saudis (Table 1.2). Of his 6,726,466 total, 5,935,361 were Saudis (excluding those living outside the country); non-Saudis accounted for 791,105 (or 11.3 percent) of the total population (Awwad, 1979:25). It should be noted that the country's official population census, which was taken in 1974 does not include all the vital statistics.

Table 1.3 shows an international comparison of vital statistics of several countries including Saudi Arabia. It is clear from the table that Saudi Arabia's vital statistics (as of 1979) were among the worst in the oil producing countries. The death rate in Saudi Arabia was 20.2 per 1,000 of the population, while in Kuwait it was 5.3. Life expectancy in Saudi Arabia was 45 years, while in Kuwait it was 71.5 years. Inhabitants per hospital bed and per physician in Saudi Arabia were respectively 897 and 4,995, while in Kuwait they were 150 and 800, respectively. Infant mortality in Saudi Arabia was over 110 per 1,000 births, while in Kuwait it was 44.3. Seventy percent of Saudis are illiterate while Kuwait had only a 20 percent illiteracy rate (Gadi, 1979:29).

Labor Force Structure

The total labor force of an economy is composed of the civilian labor force and non-civilian labor force who are either working or seeking jobs. The labor force is a

TABLE 1.2: Saudi Population by Age and Sex

Age	Saudi		Non-Saudi		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Less Than One Year	87,148	82,826	9,914	9,225	97,062	92,051
1-4	438,206	441,592	41,342	39,613	479,548	481,205
5-9	529,451	519,954	43,739	41,035	573,190	560,989
10-14	409,349	381,811	36,307	26,526	445,656	408,337
15-19	305,458	285,995	57,788	20,566	363,246	306,561
20-24	211,081	190,771	77,759	23,081	288,840	213,852
25-29	160,744	175,369	75,655	26,168	236,399	201,537
30-34	145,260	157,651	57,817	20,807	203,077	178,458
35-39	143,764	140,791	44,030	14,600	187,794	155,391
40-44	130,091	127,051	30,338	11,455	160,429	138,506
45-49	104,148	80,412	18,079	6,222	122,227	87,034
50-54	99,783	88,922	14,577	7,603	114,360	96,525
55-59	60,851	38,881	6,095	3,039	66,946	41,920
60-64	90,155	66,679	6,941	5,249	97,096	71,928
65+	132,157	108,368	7,674	7,674	139,831	115,106
N.S.*	456	206	616	107	1,072	313
Total	3,048,082	2,887,279	528,671	262,434	3,576,753	3,149,713
						6,726,466

SOURCE: Awwad, 1979:26

*Not Specified

TABLE 1.3 International Comparison of Vital Statistics for Selected Nations in the Middle East, North America, and Europe.

Country	Population (1,000 1978 estimate)	Per Capita Income (\$ 1976)	G.N.P. (\$ Billion 1976)	Labor Force 1,000	Birthrate per 1,000 (1975)	Death Rate (1975)	Life Expectancy (Years)	Inhabitants Per Hospital Physician Bed(1974) (1974)	Infant Mor- tality (Per 1,000 birth) %		
Saudi Arabia	7,900	8,430	49	1,600	49.5	20.2	45	897 (1973)	4,995 (1973)	over 100	70
Kuwait	1,000	11,455 (estimate)	12.6 (est.)	300	47.1	5.3	71.5*	150 (1975)	800 (1975)	44.3	20
Qatar	180	42,000 (estimate)	4.2 (est.)	85	50 (1974)	19.	47	96	938	42 (1972)	75
United Arab Emirates	760	9,571	6.7	420 (1976)	50 (1974)	18	N.A.	...	995 (1973)	...	75
Libya	2,600	5,583 (est.)	14	691 (1975)	45	14.7	53	240	1,139	N.A.	64
Yemen	7,080	119	800 (million)	800	49.6	20.6	38	1,443	26,449	N.A.	90
United States	217,871	7,933	1,890.1 (1977)	99,534 (1977)	14.6 (1976)	8.9	73	130 (1976)	621 (1976)	15.2 (1976)	Negligible
Denmark	5,120	6,461	32.8 (est.)	2,500 (1974)	12.8 (1976)	9.4	73.6 (1973)	103 (1972)	624 (1972)	11.5 (1973)	Negligible

SOURCE: Gadi, 1979:31

function of an economy's population, labor demand, labor supply, wages, etc. (Jakubauskas and Palomba, 1973:7). Saudi labor law does not clearly specify a certain age for employment, but Article 163 of the law specifies that "a juvenile who has not completed thirteen years of age shall not be employed, nor shall he or she be allowed to enter places of work." (Awwad, 1979:32) The Saudi labor force thus consists of those individuals who are twelve years and over and either employed or seeking employment, including those serving in the armed forces. The Saudi population census classifies the country's population of twelve years of age and over as either: (a) employed, (b) unemployed, (c) students, (d) housewives, (e) retired, (f) individual income, (g) disabled (invalid) or (h) not specified (Ibid:32).

Labor Force Participation Rates

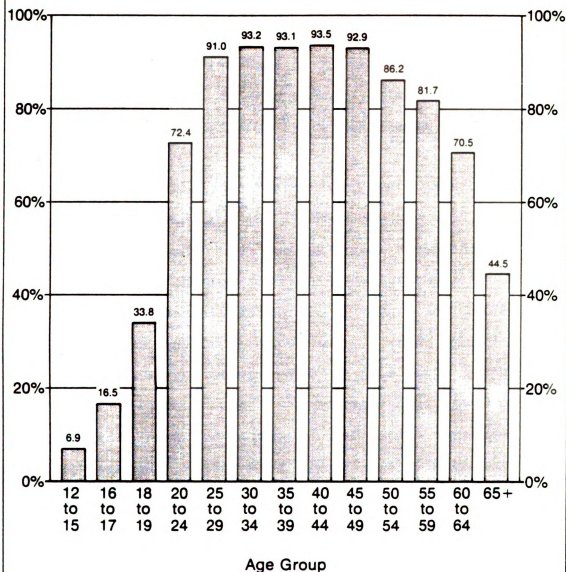
According to Jakubauskas and Palomba, the labor force participation rate is that percentage of the population which is in the labor force (either employed or unemployed) at a given period of time (1973:8).

Participation by Age and Sex

The data in Figure 1.1 show the Saudi Arabian male labor force participation rates are highest for the group 40

Saudi Male Labor Force Participation Rates by Age Group

April, 1977



Source: Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Finance and National Economy, Central Department of Statistics, *Labor Force Statistics in Saudi Arabia 1397 A.H. - 1977 A.D.*, n.p.

Figure 1.1: Saudi Male Labor Force Participation Rates by Age Group, April, 1977

to 44 years of age, but are close to the peak for the 30 to 34 year old group. The 25 to 29 year-age group rates are relatively low because a large number of these males are still enrolled in higher education. The data in Table 1.4 showing labor force participation rates by sex and age group, make it clear that participation in the labor force is highest among males aged 30 to 50 years and is over 75 percent for males of all ages. In contrast, the participation rate of females of all ages is only 5.4 percent.

Awad (1979:37,38) points out that the low female participation rate in the labor force may be attributed to several factors: (1) socioeconomic circumstances have not yet been structured in a way to allow women to work in conditions that do not conflict with the values, traditions, and religion of the Saudi culture; (2) women who are not in the labor force are either full-time housewives or full-time students; (3) the span of occupations open to women is limited to teaching, nursing, and social services; (4) although economic forces have emerged with modernization and the nuclear family which motivate women's participation in the labor force, facilities, like day care centers, are not available to help mothers with young children to enter the labor force; (5) although female labor force participation has not been studied, it is anticipated that there is a high correlation between females, marital status and labor force

TABLE 1.4 Population, Labor Force, and Participation Rate by Age and Sex for Saudis and Non-Saudis (12 years and over) 1974

Age	Population		Labor Force		Participation Rate	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
12-14	259,195	237,903	86,109	25,146	33.22	10.57
15-19	363,246	306,561	193,941	23,347	53.39	7.62
20-24	288,840	213,852	243,961	14,074	84.46	6.58
25-34	439,476	379,995	426,641	16,726	97.08	4.40
35-44	348,223	293,897	340,011	10,100	97.42	3.44
45-54	236,567	183,559	223,091	6,274	94.30	3.42
55-64	164,042	113,848	129,688	2,970	79.06	2.61
65+	139,831	115,106	61,377	1,763	43.89	1.53
N.S.*	1,071	311	637	22	59.48	7.07
Total	2,240,491	1,845,032	1,705,456	100,422	76.12	5.44
					1,805,878	

SOURCE: Awwad, 1979:38

*Not Specified

participation and educational status and labor force participation in Saudi Arabia; (6) another factor that might contribute to the low participation rate of women is that some of the occupations are carried out within the home by unpaid family workers. Many of the women performing this type of work do not appear to have been enumerated in the census as workers.

Participation by Educational Attainment

Generally speaking, the educational status of the labor force is low; illiteracy continues to be a major problem among the Saudi population. The data presented in Table 1.5 show that in 1974 about 66.2 percent of the native population ten years old and over were illiterate, another 3.2 percent of the population read only, while 16.7 percent were considered literate. The illiteracy rate in Saudi Arabia is still considered higher than the illiteracy rate in some other Arab countries (Awwad, 1979:32). The high rate of illiteracy in Saudi Arabia translates into a greater number of people in the unskilled labor force, which poses a serious constraint on economic productivity.

Women in the Labor Force

Saudi women represent a large pool of human resources that have been largely underutilized. Their low

TABLE 1.5: Saudi Population Ten Years and Over by Educational Attainment, 1974 A.D., (1394 A.H.)

Education Level	M	F	Total	Percent of the Total
Illiterate	1,043,711	1,496,788	2,540,499	66.2
Reading Only	75,075	46,431	121,506	3.2
Literate	461,829	177,474	639,303	16.7
Education N.S.*	4,548	11,237	15,785	0.4
Elementary School	223,301	70,836	294,137	7.7
Intermediate School	89,875	20,962	110,837	2.9
Intermediate Institute	9,208	6,489	15,697	0.4
Secondary School	41,733	5,772	47,505	1.2
Secondary Institute	8,748	3,012	11,760	0.3
Diploma	5,862	128	5,990	0.2
Institute (Voc., Tech., etc)	4,593	550	5,143	0.1
University Degree	16,616	795	17,411	0.5
Certificate N.S.*	8,178	2,433	10,611	0.2
Total	1,993,277	1,842,907	3,836,184	100.0

SOURCE: Awwad, 1979:31

*Not Specified

participation in the labor force has contributed to an increased demand for imported foreign labor. Saudi women did not enter the public sector until the beginning of the 1960s because of the previously cited economic, social and cultural factors. These factors still limit their full participation in the labor force.

The data presented in Table 1.6 show that the total female population of Saudi Arabia, Saudi Arabian and non-Saudi Arabian, was 2,174,926. The percentage of the female labor force relative to the female population was 5.94 percent; 4.32 percent were Saudi Arabian and 1.62 percent were non-Saudis. Also, there were 93,960 Saudi Arabian working women of the 1,940,007 women in the Saudi population, or 4.84 percent, and 35,258 non-Saudi Arabian working women of the total 234,919 non-Saudi women in Saudi Arabia or 15 percent (Gadi, 1979:117).

According to the Third Development Plan, the rate of women's employment in Saudi Arabia is expected to reach six percent between 1980 and 1985. This rate of participation is still very low, and unless government policies change, women will still be restricted to certain occupational categories. The government of Saudi Arabia, however, pledges to increase employment opportunities for women because some Saudi officials believe that the huge influx of foreign labor has serious socio-cultural implications. These officials are convinced that one solution to the

TABLE 1.6: Employment Status of the Saudi Population Twelve Years of Age and Over by Sex and Nationality, April 1977

Nationality	Total Population	Not in Labor Force				Labor Force		
		House-keepers	Go to School	Unable to work	Other Reasons	Total	Percent of Population	Number
Male								
Total	2,822,538	68,889	715,846	54,807	118,604	958,146	37.31	1,864,392
Saudi	1,966,858	53,007	598,510	48,844	100,707	801,128	23.33	1,165,730
Non-Saudi	855,680	15,882	117,336	5,963	17,897	157,018	13.98	698,662
Female								
Total	2,174,926	1,544,069	415,531	59,288	26,820	2,045,708	2.59	129,218
Saudi	1,940,007	1,380,829	386,462	54,060	24,696	1,946,047	1.88	93,960
Non-Saudi	24,919	163,240	29,069	5,228	2,124	199,661	0.71	35,258
Total	4,997,464	1,612,958	1,131,377	114,095	145,424	3,003,854	39.89	1,993,610

SOURCE: Gadi, 1979:81

country's dependency on foreign workers is to find ways of effectively utilizing the other half of society--women--according to the best standards of economic efficiency.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation is divided into eight chapters including the first chapter. Chapter Two gives a brief explanation of the expatriate labor situation in Saudi Arabia. Theoretical discussion and a review of literature on labor migration are presented in Chapter Three. Chapter Four provides a discussion of labor migration in the Arab World. Chapter Five includes the study of research design and methodology. The analysis and the findings of the study are presented in Chapter Six. The need for manpower planning in Saudi Arabia and the Gulf States is outlined in Chapter Seven. A final chapter comprises the major findings, policy recommendations and avenues for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

EXPATRIATE LABOR SITUATION IN SAUDI ARABIA

As a result of rapid changes in its economy, Saudi Arabia simply cannot accomplish all the development projects which its financial resources have enabled it to afford without extensive imports of foreign labor and expertise.

Long (1976:50) has argued that the manpower problem is more complex than just a shortage in numbers. Among the Saudis, particularly those of nomadic tribal origin, we find manual labor, and even some skilled occupations perceived as socially demeaning. For example, plumbing and construction jobs are almost impossible to fill with Saudis. As a result of these prevailing attitudes, most of the manual labor in Saudi Arabia is performed by foreigners, notably Yemenis.

It is estimated that over one million Yemenis are currently employed in Saudi Arabia, predominantly as unskilled and semi-skilled workers. Many other nationalities are also represented in the labor force. These include Palestinians, Jordanians, Syrians, Pakistanis and Egyptians who are employed mainly as white collar workers, clerks, and school teachers. A large number of physicians are Pakistanis. Many technical-professional workers come from the West, particularly the U.S. (Ibid).

Another cultural constraint on manpower resources is the prescribed role of the Saudi women. A large proportion of women are not effectively utilized in the workforce because of customs and traditional prohibitions about women working outside the home or associating with men outside the family. However, some of these attitudes that interfere with the employment of Saudi women are changing as a result of education and increasing labor demand.

Types of Labor Migration

According to Siryani (1980:8,9), labor migration to Saudi Arabia can be divided into two types: individual migration and sponsored migration.

Individual Labor Migration: This labor migration is comprised of voluntary, unskilled individuals ready to work in any type of employment who come to Saudi Arabia on their own initiative, as is the case with most Yemenis. Some of these migrants even illegally enter the country by crossing the political boundaries of countries that border Saudi Arabia, especially Jordan, Iraq, and Yemen, without passing through immigration channels. In addition, pilgrimages to Mecca are used for illegal entry. The existence of the Holy Mosque in Saudi Arabia provides a legitimate reason for Muslims from all over the world to travel into the country during the pilgrimages. The government cannot refuse anyone who wants to enter the country for this purpose. Some

people, however, abuse this privilege and remain in the country illegally.

Sponsored Labor Migration: This type of migration is based on the labor needs of the Saudi government and those of private companies. Most sponsored immigrants are skilled professionals who enter the country through contracts between the sending countries and the government of Saudi Arabia, and remain as long as the country continues to need their services. Labor migration of this type depends on the country's specific needs for various types of skilled or professional labor and each contract is limited to a specified period of time.

Volume and Source of Expatriate Labor

Estimates vary as to the approximate size of the foreign labor force in Saudi Arabia. For example, the Statistical Yearbook for 1975 indicates that there were about 800,000 foreigners. Another data source, Birks and Sinclair (1980), indicated that there were 1,562,400 foreigners in 1979. Sherbiny (1981) indicated that by 1974-75 expatriates reached about 773,000 representing 51 percent of total employment. To trace foreign labor trends, Table 2.1 shows estimates of the expatriate population and their ratio to total population in recent years, based on rising crude participation rates. It is estimated that in 1963 the total number of expatriates was 250,000. Their number grew to about 680,000 by 1970. It is estimated that the expatriate

TABLE 2.1: Estimates of Population and Work Force in Saudi Arabia

Item	Estimates (thousands of persons)				Implied Growth Rate (%)		
	1963	1970	1975	1980	1963-70	1970-75	1975-80
<u>Population</u>							
Total	3,600	4,770	6,080	7,940	4.1	5.0	5.5
Saudi	3,350	4,090	4,740	5,490	2.9	3.0	3.0
Nomads	478	495	422	302	0.5	-6.3	-6.5
Expatriate	250	680	1,340	2,450	15.4	14.5	12.8
<u>Workforce</u>							
Total	815	1,187	1,679	2,525	5.5	7.2	8.5
Saudi	700	867	1,010	1,178	3.1	3.1	3.1
Expatriate	115	320	668	1,347	15.7	15.9	15.0
<u>Crude Participation Rate</u>							
Saudi	0.209	0.212	0.213	0.215			
Expatriate	0.450	0.470	0.500	0.550			
<u>Expatriate Ratios</u>							
In Population	0.690	0.143	0.220	0.309			
In Workforce	0.141	0.270	0.398	0.533			

Source: Sirageldin and others, 1984:32

population may have exceeded 1.3 million in 1975 and over two million in 1980 (Sirageldin, 1984:33). Estimates of expatriate population have been difficult and susceptible to error, even in some of the highly advanced countries, because of their politically sensitive and controversial nature. Discrepancies in the volume of the expatriate labor in Saudi Arabia may also occur because some estimates may include only workers, while other estimates include both the worker and his family.

Table 2.2 and Figure 2.1 show the main sources of foreign labor in Saudi Arabia, with a substantial proportion of the labor force originating from Asia and Africa. The two continents contributed slightly over 97 percent of expatriate workers, while the balance of less than 3 percent originated from Europe and North and South America.

TABLE 2.2: Sources of Foreign Labor in Saudi Arabia

Continent	Percent
Asia	80.5
Africa	16.6
Europe	1.4
North and South America	1.3
Others	0.2
Total	100.0

Source: Siryani, 1980:13

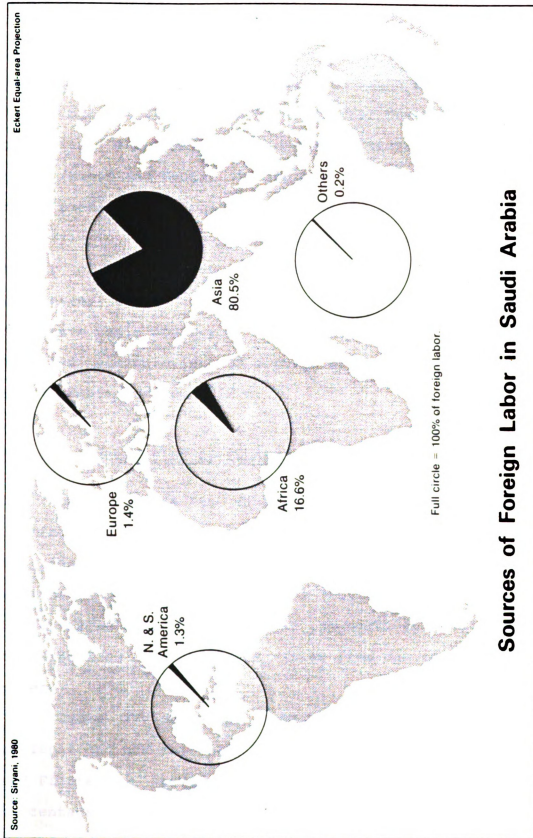


Figure 2.1: Sources of Foreign Labor in Saudi Arabia

Tables 2.3 and 2.4 provide a more detailed breakdown of the volume and nationalities of the foreign labor force. Major sources of labor migration to Saudi Arabia are the following: first, other Arab countries; then, other Islamic countries; and finally, Islamic minorities. In the case of Yemen (North and South) difficult economic circumstances and high rates of unemployment encourage them to leave their country. In Jordan, on the other hand, because of the great number of Palestinian refugees coming into the country, Jordanians and Palestinians carrying Jordanian passports to leave their country seek jobs elsewhere. For a more detailed presentation of foreigners entering and leaving Saudi Arabia See Appendix A.

Spatial Distribution Of Expatriate Labor

Saudi Arabia is divided geographically into five distinct provinces or regions (See Map on Page 28). These are Hijaz, or the Western Province; Asir, or the Southern Province; Najd, or the Central Province; Alhasa, or the Eastern Province; and Hail, or the Northern Province. The distribution of expatriates varies from one region to the other.

Table 2.5 shows the distribution of the population, national and non-national, in the five geographical regions. and Figure 2.2 provides a more detailed breakdown of the percentage of expatriate labor to total population in all

Table 2.3: Saudi Arabia: Migrant Workers by Country or Areas of Origin, Ranked by Size for 1975

Country or Area of Origin	Number	Percent
Yemen	280,400	36.3
Jordan and Palestine	175,000	22.7
Egypt	95,000	12.3
Democratic Yemen	55,000	7.1
Sudan	35,000	4.5
Lebanon	20,000	2.6
Oman	17,500	2.3
Syrian Arab Republic	15,000	1.9
Somalia	5,000	0.6
Iraq	2,000	0.3
Total Arab Migrant Workers	669,900	90.6
Pakistan	15,000	1.9
India	15,000	1.9
Other Asian	8,000	1.0
Total Asian Migrant Workers	38,800	4.8
Europe and America	15,000	1.9
Africa	10,000	1.3
Iran	10,000	1.3
Turkey	500	0.1
Total Migrant Workers	773,400	100.0

Source: Birks and Sinclair, 1980:159

TABLE 2.4: Summary of Foreign Nationalities in Saudi Arabia

Origin	Approximate Number (Including Dependents)	Predominant Occupation
Hadhramut	120,000 to 150,000 (many with Saudi citizenship)	Mostly in trade
Yemen	80,000 to 100,000 (relatively few with dependents)	Manual laborers, domestics
Jordan	50,000	School teachers, journalists, translators, a few businessmen
Syria	30,000 to 40,000	Professions, skilled and semi-skilled employment
Lebanon	10,000 to 20,000	Professions and commerce
Sudan	14,000	In trade; clerks, bankers, teachers, domestics
United States	6,500 plus	Mainly employed by U.S. Government Agencies and U.S. firms (e.g. Aramco, TWA, Raytheon)
Europe	2,500 plus (of which 850 Italians and about 500 each from Britain, Germany & France)	Managers and technicians with firms and governmental agencies of their own nationality, occasional independent tradesmen.
Pakistan	2,000 to 3,000	Doctors and health technicians, electricians, technicians, mechanics, gardeners
India	1,500 plus	Skilled laborers, a few manual laborers
Ethiopia (mostly Eritrea)	1,500 to 2,000	drivers, domestics (especially for Europeans)
Somalia	1,000 to 1,500 (many with Saudi citizenship)	Skilled laborers, manual laborers (a few); drivers; domestics
Japan	100 plus	Oil workers and employees of various surveying and construction enterprises
Philippines	100 plus	Skilled laborers, technicians, civil engineers (some with private firms; others hired by Saudi Government agencies)
Indonesia	100 plus	Skilled laborers and technicians
Bahrain, Oman & Trucial States	n.a.	Petroleum workers, laborers, etc.

Source: Ward, 1970:153

Table 2.5: Regional Distribution of the National and Expatriate Worker Population in Saudi Arabia

Population	Eastern	Central	Northern	Western	Southern	Total
Saudi	537	1,140	528	1,494	1,041	4,740
Expatriate	151	266	43	688	129	1,340
Total	688	1,406	571	2,182	1,233	6,080

Source: Sirageldin and others, 1984:39.

the administrative regions in Saudi Arabia. Clearly, the Western region has the largest population base. Increased commercial activities have attracted Saudis from other regions and the boom of the 1970s generated such a great demand for labor that it caused enormous expatriate inflows. By 1975 more than half the expatriates were living in the Western region. The Northern region, with its low level of economic activity has attracted the smallest number of both Saudis and expatriates. The Central region has the second largest population of both Saudis and expatriates in an area where government, finance and related functions are the main activities. The Southern region ranks next, where the main activity of the population is agriculture. The Eastern region contains the second smallest national population, but a relatively larger expatriate population, probably because it is the center of the most important industry in the

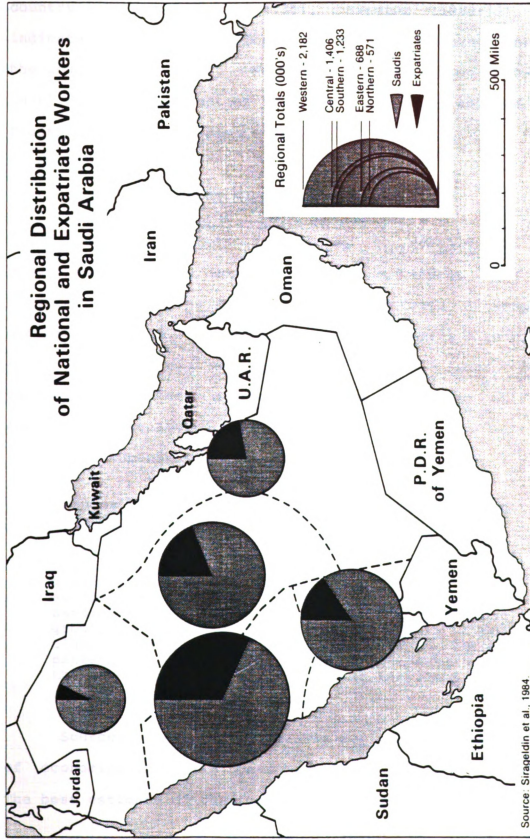


Figure 2.2: Regional Distribution of National and Expatriate Workers in Saudi Arabia

country (Sirageldin, 1984:39). Siryani (1980:12) has indicated that a large proportion of these migrants entered the country after 1964. However, it was between 1970-1975 that about 60 percent of the total migrants entered the country during the economic boom.

Labor Supply And Demand

Labor supply in an economy is related to its population and the population's choice between work and leisure, as well as workers' choices between alternative occupations (Gadi, 1979:6). The relatively small size of the Saudi population, and its low rate of labor force participation has severely limited the size of the country's indigenous labor force.

As Jakubauskas and Palomba (1973:64) explain:

Changes in the size and nature of population can have far-reaching effects on the welfare of an economy. Population quality and quantity can affect the quality and quantity of the labor supply; population growth can exert an influence on the quantity and composition of savings and investment; and population changes can affect a nation's standard of living. The whole question of population growth is a relative question. The burden of population must be considered in terms of the resource patterns of the region; the level of technology and the educational and skill level of the labor force.

Sources outside Saudi Arabia suggest that the number of economically active non-nationals was 773,400 in 1975. The best estimate of the total population of Saudi Arabia in

1974/75 was 6.1 million persons, with some 4.59 million or 74.6 percent of these being Saudi Arabian nationals and 1.56 million or 25.4 percent non-nationals. Workforce estimates were 1.8 million, of whom 1.03 million or 57.0 percent were nationals and 773.400 or 43.0 percent were migrants (Birks and Sinclair, 1980:97).

As previously noted, this large proportion of foreign workers is a relatively recent phenomenon. The non-Saudi population during the 1950s and 1960s was increasing but remained rather small, until the great expansion in the 1970s. It will most likely continue to grow both in absolute and relative terms through the mid-1980s. Future changes in labor supply will arise from both sources: Saudi population and expatriate population (Sirageldin and Others, 1984:29).

The Saudi economy has grown rapidly as a result of oil production and oil revenue increases over the past three decades. During the 1950s, the growth rate of gross domestic product (GDP) was estimated at a little under 6 percent per annum, almost identical to the rate of growth of oil production. During the 1960s, growth of GDP increased to 8 percent per annum in association with an acceleration of oil production at 11.5 percent per annum. Beginning in the 1970s a distinction was made between oil GDP and non-oil GDP. While growth in oil production continued at the same rate as in the 1960s, non-oil GDP

accelerated to over 10 percent in the first half of the decade, and still further to about 16 percent in the second half of the decade (Sherbiny and Serageldin, 1983:228). Table 2.6 shows these economic activities and the share of GDP for which they account.

As a result of improvements in the Saudi economy, there have been changes in the country's demand for labor. Table 2.7 shows that growth of non-oil GDP from 1962 to 1975 accelerated from 8.1 percent to 10.4 percent and then to 15.8 percent. The growth in non-oil GDP can be attributed to the expansion in the economy caused by the increases in oil revenue. With increased revenues, the other sectors in the society were also experiencing growth and expansion.

Structure Of The Saudi Labor Market

The labor market in Saudi Arabia can be distinguished by characteristics relative to the country's economic position and population. According to Jakubuskas and Palomba (1973:97), labor market structure is:

a set of established practices which are applied consistently in carrying out the various employment functions, such as recruitment, selection, assignment to jobs, wage payment, and separation. These established practices create a 'rule of law' in employment matters and their main effect is to limit managerial discretion in the solution of employment problems.

Table 2.6: Saudi Arabia: Gross Domestic Product by Economic Activity (at Current Prices) for 1975/76

Economic Activity	GDP (\$Million)	Percent
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	488	1.0
Mining and quarrying	33,888	72.0
Manufacturing	2,201	4.7
Electricity, gas and water	105	0.2
Construction	3,545	7.5
Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and hotels	1,428	3.0
Transport, storage and communication	1,777	3.8
Finance, insurance, real estate and business services	923	2.0
Community, social and personal services	219	0.5
Public administration and defence	1,151	2.4
Other Services	1,358	2.9
GDP (producer values)	47,083	100.0

Source: Birks and Sinclair, 1980:103

Table 2.7: Estimates of the Labor Elasticity of Output

Period	Growth of Non Oil GDP (dx/x)	Growth of Labor (dL/L)	
1962/63- 1969/70	8.1%	7.4%	.91
1969/70- 1974/75	10.4%	7.2%	.69
1974/75- 1978/79	15.8%	10.0%	.63

dx/x = relative change in output

dL/L = the relative change in labor input

SOURCE: Sherbiny and Serageldin (1982:23).

Saudi Arabia shares several labor market characteristics with other capital-rich states in the Arab world. Some features they have in common are large inflows of expatriate labor, massive training programs, and minimal institutional rigidities in the functioning of the market.

The national work force is relatively small, the participation rate is very low as few women are employed outside their homes, and the majority of the local population is illiterate. The economy depends heavily on expatriate labor both quantitatively and qualitatively. Expatriates make up an increasingly large portion of the employed workforce, from about 27 percent in 1970 to 40

percent in 1975 and about 53 percent in 1980. Workers have crossed international borders to the Saudi labor market in response to the country's large demand for labor which far exceeded local supply (Sirageldin, 1984:22).

In some sectors non-national employment has been particularly high. Table 2.8 shows that expatriates comprised more than 50 percent of the workforce in five economic sectors: manufacturing, electricity, construction, trade, and finance. The table also shows that more than half of the Saudi labor force is engaged in agriculture and related activities (Ibrahim, 1982:97). Sirageldin and others (1984:22) explain what this means:

this massive inflow of foreign labor has important conceptual implications both for the functioning of the market and for the development of Saudi labor. Expatriate labor is expected to reduce imbalances in supply and demand in the various segments of the market, this may tend to speed the adjustment mechanism. It may reduce the mobility of the Saudi workers since the incentives, in terms of wage benefit differential are being reduced.

Demographic Characteristics Of Expatriate Labor

Choaci (1977:422) has indicated that the Arab Middle East in general represents a demographically closed system, in that its demographic characteristics have not been influenced by large scale out-migration. Almost all movement across national boundaries is within the region itself and is temporary in nature. In this context, four

TABLE 2.8: Saudi Arabian Employment by Economic Sector and Nationality, 1975

Sector	<u>Saudi Arabian</u>		<u>Non-National</u>		Total	Saudi Arabians' share of all employment (%)
	No.	%	No.	%		
Agriculture & Fishing	530,700	51.7	54,900	7.1	585,600	90.6
Mining & Petroleum	15,400	1.5	11,600	1.5	27,000	57.0
Manufacturing	21,550	2.1	94,350	12.2	115,900	18.6
Electricity, Gas & Water	7,200	0.7	13,150	1.7	20,350	35.4
Construction	35,900	3.5	203,400	26.3	239,300	15.0
Whole & Retail Trade	60,600	5.9	131,500	17.0	192,100	31.5
Transport, Storage & Communication	72,900	7.1	30,950	4.0	103,850	70.2
Finance & Insurance	5,150	0.5	6,950	0.9	12,100	42.6
Community & Personal Services	277,100	27.0	226,600	29.3	503,700	55.0
Total	1,026,500	100.0	773,400	100.0	1,799,900	57.0

SOURCE: Birks and Sinclair, 1980:160

types of migratory situations can be delineated, each differing according to manpower composition and attendant implications: (1) countries that export largely skilled or professional labor (most notably Egypt, but also Lebanon and Jordan); (2) countries that import a large or critical portion of their labor force, particularly skilled workers (Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Libya, and the Arab States in the Gulf region); (3) countries that export relatively unskilled workers (predominantly Algeria); and (4) countries that are relatively "self-sufficient" and neither export nor import labor extensively (Tunisia, Morocco, Syria and Iraq).

The demographic characteristics of the expatriate labor force in Saudi Arabia according to sex and age are indicated in Table 2.9. One can clearly see from Table 2.9 that a large proportion of the expatriate labor falls in the working age group, between 15-64 years for both males and females. Expatriates come to Saudi Arabia mainly to work and benefit from the wealth generated by oil revenues. Those groups under fifteen and above sixty-five, both considered "dependent" populations, constitute a small percentage of the expatriate labor force.

Figure 2.3 shows that the age distribution of the expatriate population is skewed in favor of the economically active age group. Nearly three-fourths of expatriate males and more than half of expatriate females are in the age range of 15-59 years. Sirageldin (1984:35) notes that since

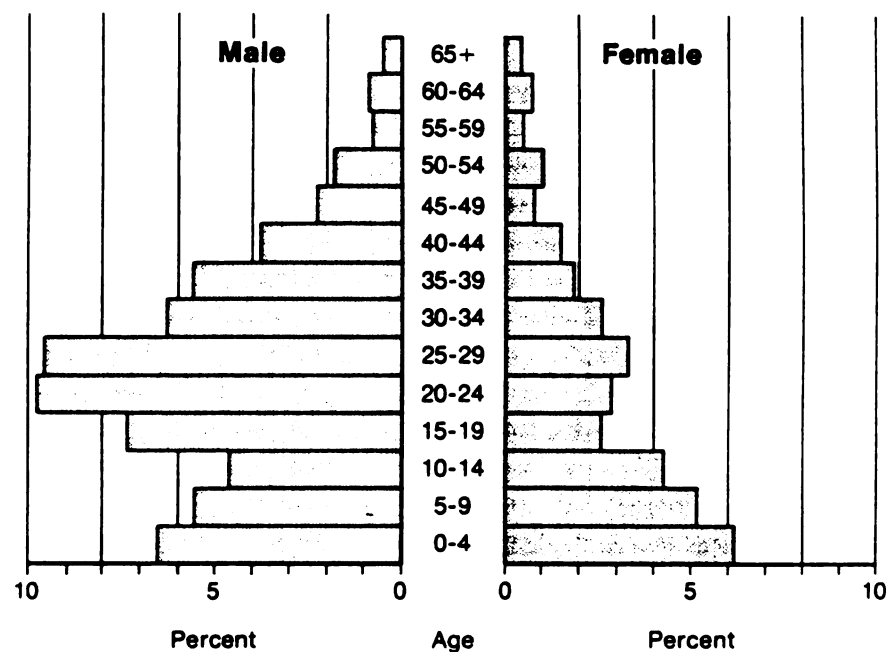
Table 2.9: Expatriate Labor According to Sex and Age
(Includes Families)

Age	Male	Female
Less than 15 years	24.9	44.3
15-64 years	73.6	53.2
More than 65	1.4	2.4
Unknown	0.1	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Siryani, 1980:25

the only reason for expatriates to be in Saudi Arabia is to benefit from employment, the labor force participation rate of expatriates not only was much higher than that for the Saudis, but in all (likelihood, will) stay the same in the foreseeable future. Not only do we find most expatriate labor to be disproportionately males, but one can surmise from Figure 2.3 that they are also single or unaccompanied by their spouses if they are married. This may be the case because the difficulties for families migrating are greater than for single individuals.

Age-Sex Pyramid of the Non-National Population, Saudi Arabia, 1974



Source: Sirageldin et al., 1984.

Figure 2.3: Age-Sex Pyramid of the Non-National Population,
Saudi Arabia, 1974

The Impact Of Foreign Labor On Saudi Society

Saudi Arabia has been able to realize the potential of its natural endowments, and its growth and development have been unprecedented. Thompson (1966:21) has noted that even in the 1960s Saudi Arabia had developed in such a way that it could no longer be properly described as "an island." Now its external communications reach out in every direction, providing avenues for the improved ideas and technical devices from the United States, Western Europe, and Japan, as well as from the Arab and Islamic world.

As a result of its ambitious development plans, Saudi Arabia has experienced phenomenal growth. Expatriate labor has contributed immensely to this growth and expatriates have also been key beneficiaries of this growth in the economy. In the last decade alone, electricity has been provided to 2,000 villages, 15,000 kilometers of paved roads have been built, 700,000 telephones have been installed, and 300,000 housing units constructed. Health facilities have quadrupled, and the number of doctors has grown from fewer than 1,000 to 4,600. Two huge industrial complexes are underway (Ibrahim, 1982:105). It is no doubt the case that without the role which foreign labor has played, such significant changes would not have taken place. When the Second Five-Year Plan (1975-1980) was formally put together, it predicted that 812,600 foreign workers would be needed by

1980, an increase of 494.6 percent over 1975 (Table 2.10). Semi-skilled, service, and clerical workers were also expected to show increases of 99.7 percent, 98.1 percent, and 90.4 percent, respectively. As Ibrahim argues, Saudi Arabia's impressive growth could not have taken place without three necessary conditions:

Table 2.10: Estimated Non-Saudi Arabian Manpower by Occupational Group, 1975 and 1980 (Thousands)

Occupational Group	1975	1980	Increase 1975-80
Managers	6.3	12.4	6.1
Professionals	15.7	23.5	7.8
Technicians and sub-professionals	31.4	81.3	49.9
Clerical workers	31.4	121.8	90.4
Sales workers	47.1	112.8	65.5
Service workers	47.1	145.2	98.1
Operatives	25.1	51.4	26.3
Skilled workers	47.1	101.9	54.9
Semi-skilled workers	62.8	162.5	99.7
TOTAL	314.0	812.6	498.6

Source: Ministry of Planning, Second Plan, p.217.

- (1) the oil revenues
- (2) foreign labor
- (3) the leadership decision to plunge the full weight of the state into a deliberate growth process.

The presence of one to two million foreign workers in Saudi Arabia has also had a role in energizing the business sector of the economy. Consumers' purchasing power has greatly expanded the domestic market and accelerated the circulation of money. Additionally, the mere presence of many foreigners and interaction between foreign workers and the indigeneous population has added a cosmopolitan dimension to many Saudi communities (Ibid:106).

All of this clearly indicates that Saudi Arabia, along with many other Arab Gulf oil states, has been undergoing a rapid social transformation much of which is being carried out by increased foreign labor participation. The economic development that is underway has had and is having a great impact on individuals, families, villages and cities. At the same time, it has been a great challenge for the government to accommodate the influx of foreign labor so that it can continue to exploit the advantages derived from their presence.

The negative social impacts resulting from foreign labor migration to Saudi Arabia are those that have to do with the stress and strain on the local culture and population due to sharply increased cross-cultural contact over a relatively short period of time. Because Saudi Arabia

is one of only two Arab countries without direct colonial experience, most of its population had remained, until mid-century, virtually locked up in the hinterland of the Arabian peninsula and removed from foreign influences (Ibrahim, 1982:106).

The influence of hundreds of millions of dollars annually in oil revenues and development based on labor importation has also had negative economic and infrastructure impacts on both foreign and domestic populations in the country. Some of these negative impacts, according to Ibrahim, (1982) are inflation, mounting pressure on public services and urban sprawl.

Inflation is known and feared by governments all over the world for its politically destabilizing consequences. In Saudi Arabia, inflation has remained fairly high during the last ten years (See Table 2.11). Part of this inflationary pressure stems from vast improvements in the availability of goods brought about by the increased integration of the country into the world capitalist-based market economy.

The huge influx of expatriates has primarily been felt in the major urban areas of Saudi Arabia. Along with an increased trend of internal rural-urban migration, this influx has more than doubled city population in the kingdom. In the last decade, the urban population has risen from one million to approximately two and a half million. The result

TABLE 2.11: Cost of Living Index (CLI) and Rates of Inflation (RI) in Saudi Arabia 1964-78
(1963=100)

	Food		Housing		Clothing		General	
	Index	RI	Index	RI	Index	RI	Index	RI
1964	103.9	3.9	103.6	3.6	102.0	2.0	102.8	2.8
1965	104.2	0.3	106.7	3.0	96.2	-5.7	103.2	0.4
1966	106.0	1.7	109.7	2.8	97.9	1.8	104.8	1.6
1967	111.4	4.8	112.1	2.2	96.2	-1.7	107.0	2.1
1968	110.0	-1.3	118.2	5.4	89.2	-6.9	108.7	1.6
1969	116.0	5.5	120.7	2.1	96.7	7.9	112.5	3.5
1970	114.6	-1.2	122.2	1.2	96.1	-0.6	112.7	0.2
1971	117.7	2.7	136.2	11.5	102.9	7.1	118.2	4.9
1972	119.7	1.7	148.5	9.0	113.2	10.0	123.2	4.2
1973	137.7	15.9	166.4	12.1	129.7	14.6	143.1	16.0
1974	163.6	18.0	231.2	38.9	146.8	13.2	173.8	21.5
1975	195.9	19.7	406.7	75.9	149.1	1.6	233.9	34.6
1976	241.0	23.0	586.3	44.2	185.0	24.1	307.7	31.6
1977 ^c	292.0	21.2	599.6	2.3	202.7	9.6	342.8	11.4
1978	285.0	-2.4	562.6	-6.2	228.1	12.5	337.4	-1.6

SOURCE: El Mallach, 1982:330

is rapid urban sprawl in the desert, which has made motor transportation indispensable (Ibrahim, 1982:117). The presence of a large expatriate labor force has induced serious pressure on public services, such as in education, health care and transportation. Since the huge influx of expatriates has arrived over a relatively short period of time, public services have not been able to expand quickly enough to keep pace with the burgeoning population.

Another problem associated with the importation of labor is the manner in which it has been carried out. The need for labor has set in motion what can be accurately described as a "trade in human beings" that is as close to exploitation and greed as any other type of commerce. In Saudi Arabia, every imported worker needs to have a Saudi sponsor or Kafil, whether it is an individual or a private company, in order to provide legal justification for the workers' stay in the country. Ibrahim (1982:12) explains how this system works:

The institution of the Kafil (sponsor) has several variations. In one activist version, a Kafil may travel around the neighboring countries, recruit people of various skills, and set them up in appropriate enterprises as employees of his or as partners. A Kafil may simply import labor and then retail it out to other local employers for a percentage of their wages. The Kafil often keeps with him the passport and all traveling documents of those individuals whom he sponsors. Thus they cannot travel in or out of the country or work for anyone else without his consent. In other words, the Kafil not only extracts a substantial profit

from the sponsored ones, but he also controls them almost completely while they are in the country. In the least activist version, a Kafil may lend his signature to enable potential workers from other countries to come to Saudi Arabia. They would be on their own until they found employment and would then pay their Kafil a fee.

This human trade has grown over recent years and generated other problems such as crime and unemployment. The Kafil or sponsor is not always obligated to employ or find jobs for the people he sponsors. The sponsored may have to look for jobs by themselves, even though he still takes a percentage of their wages. In many cases, a Kafil may recruit people who are only marginally employable, and cannot find jobs very easily. Failure to gain employment turns these individuals to crime out of a sense of desperation, while others find crime an easier way out than working at a menial job. Thus, the importation of foreign workers has increased the crime rates in the country. Table 2.12 shows the total number of people, by nationality, who committed serious crimes from 1966 to 1975 and from 1977 to 1978. Of the total number of persons who committed crimes in 1978, we find that a total of 5,826 Saudis, out of a population of 8,612,970, had committed crimes, as compared with a total of 2,713 foreigners who committed crimes out of a total foreign population of 859,694 living in Saudi Arabia during that same period (Rajhi, 1981:93).

Table 2.13 shows a one-year breakdown of convicted offenders by nationality and types of crime committed during

TABLE 2.12: Number of People by Nationality (Saudis and Non-Saudis) Who Committed Serious Crimes, 1966-75 and 1977-78^a

Nationality	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1977	1978
Saudis	1830	1728	1177	1067	1232	973	1089	1088	1155	1175	5473	5826
Non-Saudis	791	701	556	527	550	542	637	661	732	632	2513	2713
Total	2621	2429	1733	1594	1782	1515	1726	1749	1887	1807	7986	8539
<u>Percentages</u>												
Saudis	67%	70%	68%	67%	69%	64%	61%	62%	61%	65%	68.5%	68%
Non-Saudis	33%	30%	32%	33%	31%	36%	39%	38%	39%	35%	31.5%	32%

^a Figures for 1976 were not available

SOURCE: Rajhi, 1981:94

1978. While most of those convicted were Saudis, foreigners still accounted for 40 percent of the overall total, a percentage greater than their representation in the population. Foreign workers' greatest concentration was in financial crimes and crimes of fraud (49 percent and 40 percent, respectively) (Ibrahim, 1982:116).

The social-cultural impact of labor importation has not been excessive since a common language and shared cultural affinities unite foreign laborers and the indigenous population, as in the case of laborers coming from other Arabic-speaking, Islamic countries. Some of the expatriate workers, however, speak unfamiliar languages and come from vastly different cultural backgrounds. They come from societies that, in many cases, are more advanced educationally and economically and have more differentiated social structures and more advanced social formations. As Ibrahim (1982:104) concludes: "the migrant labor to Saudi Arabia is virtually shaping the host country's new institutions and forging its modern infrastructure almost from scratch."

Saudi Arabia thus faces a growth versus security dilemma. It has called for reducing dependence on expatriate labor, but dependence on foreign labor has become an inevitable aspect of the current Saudi economy. One reason the government desires to reduce its dependence on foreign workers is because the Kingdom perceives a threat to

Table 2.13: Convicted Offenders by Types of Crime and Nationality in Saudi Arabia, 1978

Nationality/ Type of Crime	Murder	Financial	Moral	Fraud	Other Crimes	Total
Saudis	86.7	50.8	70.4	57.6	63.4	59.9
Non-Saudis	13.3	49.2	29.5	42.4	36.6	40.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Ibrahim, 1982:111

its most cherished spiritual and cultural values which may be eroded by the presence of many non-Muslims in the labor force. As one Saudi official stated:

We welcome the foreigners, we need them, their technology and their labor. We do not, however, need their social and cultural input into our society. They are a threat to our morals and traditions (From Naff, 1981:188).

Future Expectations For Expatriate Labor

Predictions of future patterns of migrant labor in Saudi Arabia are difficult because the migration process depends on many variables. Some variables tend to increase the volume of migration. Some variables decrease it. Siryani (1980:2) has argued that in order to accomplish its five-year plan, the government will need to continue to recruit skilled and unskilled labor. Looking at the domestic labor force Siryani has found three primary factors which cause Saudi Arabia's current dependence on a foreign workforce, and, he argues, these factors will continue to determine this dependence in the foreseeable future. These factors are:

1. labor shortages;
2. the unskilled nature of the labor force and the social attitudes which exist;
3. the low level of participation of Saudi women and their confinement at home.

As long as these factors continue, Saudi Arabia's requirements for imported labor will continue to generate social, cultural and economic tension throughout the society. In this connection, a new trend in segregating imported Asian laborers from the Saudi population has come about as a result of a new development strategy involving enclave development projects and enclave labor camps.

Increased importation of Asian workers is (and is likely to continue) due to political and economic conditions in their home countries and to the increased activity by multinational corporations in Saudi Arabia as a result of the increases in oil prices. [On a national level, Asian labor is less costly than Arab labor and, with enclave labor camps and development projects, interaction between the indigenous population and the imported labor is minimized (Al-Tarrah, 1983:168). Weiner (1982:12) has noted that Asian migrants do not bear the baggage of political ideologies and make few demands. They do not interact with the local Arab population, do not make claims upon the Saudi state for benefits, and do not desire or expect to live in the country on a permanent basis. Moreover, Asian migrants often have skills that are not so easily provided by migrants from Arab countries, and they are willing to engage in jobs that Arabs often will not accept.]

Table 2.14 shows the number of expatriate laborers employed or needed in Saudi Arabia in 1975 and 1985 at both

TABLE 2.14: Saudi Arabian: Non-National Population in 1975 Projected For 1985 (at High and Low Growth Rates)

	1975		High Growth Rate		Annual Increase 1975-1985		Low Growth Rate 1985		Annual Increase 1975-1875	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number	Percent	Percent	Percent
Egypt	154,700	11.1	873,500	18.0	18.9	17.9	798,400	17.9	17.8	17.8
India	15,200	1.1	222,700	4.6	30.8	4.2	187,700	4.2	28.6	28.6
Iran	25,000	1.8	83,500	1.7	12.8	1.5	68,900	1.5	10.7	10.7
Jordan	186,600	13.3	473,000	9.8	9.7	10.8	481,700	10.8	9.9	9.9
Lebanon	9,600	0.7	67,100	1.4	21.5	1.5	67,600	1.5	21.6	21.6
Morocco	1,400	0.1	5,300	0.1	14.2	0.1	5,300	0.1	14.2	14.2
Oman	19,000	1.3	71,000	1.5	14.1	1.6	70,600	1.6	14.0	14.0
Pakistan	111,800	8.0	620,900	12.8	18.7	12.6	563,500	12.6	17.6	17.6
South East Asia	18,300	1.3	213,400	4.4	27.8	5.3	239,200	5.3	29.3	29.3
Sudan	41,500	3.0	272,200	5.6	20.7	5.9	261,500	5.9	20.2	20.2
Syria	55,100	3.9	241,800	5.0	15.9	5.1	225,200	5.1	15.1	15.1
Tunisia	2,200	0.1	10,100	0.2	16.5	0.2	10,000	0.2	16.3	16.3
Yemen (YAR)	586,700	42.0	844,200	17.4	3.7	16.3	726,900	16.3	2.2	2.2
Yemen (PDY)	86,500	6.2	296,000	6.1	13.1	6.5	290,000	6.5	12.9	12.9
Rest of World	84,700	6.1	554,300	11.4	20.7	10.5	468,800	10.5	18.7	18.7
Total Non-Nations	1,398,300	100.00	4,849,700	100.0	13.2	100.0	4,465,300	100.0	12.3	12.3
Total Nationals	5,935,900	80.9	5,757,100	64.4	4.0	66.2	8,757,100	66.2	4.0	4.0
Total Population	7,334,200	100.0	13,606,900	100.0	6.4	100.0	13,222,400	100.0	6.1	6.1

Source: Ibrahim, 1982:101

high and low growth rates. It is clear from the table that there is a growing expatriate population in the country, and that Saudi Arabia will rely on foreign labor for at least the next few years. Birks and Sinclair (1979:135) have predicted that it is most likely that future migration to oil surplus countries will become increasingly formalized, with a larger percentage of migrants coming from the Orient. Future patterns of labor migration to Saudi Arabia are expected to continue to increase as the country undergoes rapid social and developmental change. Birks and Sinclair estimate that by 1985 the employment of foreign workers in Saudi Arabia will reach 1,314,400 migrants.

It should be noted, however, there is a serious objective in the current five-year plan to increase the participation rate of Saudi Arabians in the labor force, with the aim of eventually replacing foreign with indigenous labor. In order to decrease dependency on foreign labor, Gadi (1979:100) suggests that the government of Saudi Arabia move toward the following alternatives:

- (1) Train Saudi citizens in skilled and professional jobs;
- (2) Make work and production a part of Saudi Arabia's values and character by creating economic incentives to reward workers and producers;
- (3) Integrate the second half of the society, "the women", under the best economic efficiency.

To sum up what the present trends of expatriate labor in Saudi Arabia foreshadow for the future, it is likely the number of foreign workers will continue to increase but at a decreasing rate as the country approaches its capacity to absorb added amounts of labor. This immigration will become increasingly Asian and increasingly segregated from the native Saudi population. Finally, unless Saudi society accepts and meets the difficult tasks of revising some traditional practices rooted in cultural attitudes, most Saudi women will remain excluded from the work force and most Saudi workers will continue to reject manual work, thereby institutionalizing a permanent dependence on imported labor.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL DISCUSSION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

International labor migration is a worldwide phenomenon that has existed throughout history in various parts of the world. Its aspects have been studied by many scholars, including ILO (1973, 1975, 1976), OECD (1974, 1975, 1977), Bohning (1974, 1975, 1976), Adler (1977), Greenwood (1969, 1975), Schwarzweller (1977), Todaro (1969, 1976), Rist (1978), Sassen-Koob (1978), Powers (1979), Krane (1979), Birks and Sinclair (1975, 1979, 1980), Sherbiny (1981), the U.N. (1982), Papademetrious (1983), and Shaw (1981, 1984). However, many of these studies have approached international labor migration from the perspective of demography rather than as empirical research which sees the entire process as a circulation of human resources, similar to the circulation of capital and goods. According to Sassen-Koob (1978:509), several reasons account for this.

First, as a proportion of total labor, the internationally mobile segment constitutes a minor fraction. Hence, the study of labor as a resource appears irrelevant and of little value to either countries of emigration or

immigration. Second, emigrating or sending countries are generally seen as benefitting from labor emigration as they are generally poor with abundant labor and high unemployment. According to Sassen-Koob (1978), these factors contribute to the devaluation of labor as a resource and thus exacerbate developmental inequalities between countries.

Despite past tendencies to ignore this phenomena, international labor migration can be viewed as one interdependent element in an increasingly complex set of exchanges (trade, technology, capital, culture) between countries that possess differential power (economic, military, political). This growing interdependence is associated with expansion of the international economic system, growing populations, growing economic disparities both within and between countries, and improved communication and transportation systems (Kritz, 1981:xiv). International trade theory argues that two nations with unequal resource endowments and/or resource productivities can enjoy mutual increases in economic well-being by trading capital and goods or permitting migration or any combination of the two, which will expand the output available to both nations (Martin and Houstoun, 1979:323).

As an enduring aspect of the global economic, social, and political landscape, massive population movements were particularly evident in the post-World War I and World War

II periods (Papademetrious, 1983:469). The sources of international migration were then the countries surrounding the Mediterranean littoral whose citizens responded to the labor shortages in Western European countries. By the end of the 1960s, migration sources had expanded considerably. Workers from Latin America and the Caribbean had begun to appear in large numbers, not only in the United States but also in Venezuela, Argentina and Brazil. Southeast Asian countries initially fed the bullish Middle East labor market and soon spread to such other economically attractive destinations as Malaysia, the United States and Canada (Ibid:470). The large-scale manpower emigration from the Mediterranean basin to the countries of Northwest Europe began in the 1950s, accelerated all through the 1960s, and began to stabilize in the mid-1970s. Owing to the vast concentration of international capital in the countries of Northwest Europe and a severe shortage of manpower, growth was thought possible only with the large scale importation of labor (Rist, 1979:201).

Grigis (1981:42) opines that labor outflow has been the result of such push factors as low per capita income, lack of job opportunities, low wage rates and/or the prospect of slow growth in per capita income and wages. It has also been motivated by such pull factors as substantially higher wage rates, a large ethnic community overseas, ethnic origin and favorable contractual agreements between governments.

Hiemenz and Schatz in "Trade in Place of Migration" (1979:3) find that currently most international migration of labor takes place between less developed and highly developed countries and argue that recent international integration of national labor markets can be viewed "as a counterpart of inadequate integration of product and capital markets between industrial and developing countries." They cite that the international division of labor operates mainly in the field of manufactured goods, and is dominated by a relatively small number of highly developed countries among which most international capital movement occurs.

All Third World countries face labor problems of one sort or another. One of the worst being unemployment and underemployment, often considered a consequence of inadequate development. In much of the Middle East, the need for manpower resources has been felt primarily because labor shortages represent a major constraint to economic growth and change (Birks and Sinclair, 1974:301). Grubel (1966:270) in "The International Flow of Human Capital" argues that if a country wishes to maximize the income available to all its people, then emigration should be welcomed. He stipulates that two conditions should be met. First, that the migrant improve his own income (in the process of migrating) and second, that the migrant's departure should not reduce the income of those remaining behind. Under such conditions, no international economic

order should proscribe migration. Rather, it should be welcomed while ensuring unconditional equality of opportunity, and treatment in matters of economic and social rights for all who choose to migrate (Bohning, 1979:200).

The Impact Of Foreign Labor On The
Process Of Social Change In Host Countries

Modernization and development theories have discussed the importance of the flow of ideas, capital, transfer of advanced technology and movement of people in producing change in developing countries. The flow of foreign labor to a developing country acts as a pathway for change as new ideas, traditions, and patterns of social organization are carried by the migrant laborer to a host country. Additionally, modernization theorists emphasize modern attitudes toward the self, the family and the society which facilitate economic development. Some of these modernization theorists are: Moore and Feldman (Labor Commitment & Social Change, 1960); Doob (Becoming More Civilized, 1960); Rogers (Diffusion of Innovation, 1962); McClelland (The Achieving Society, 1961); Smith and Inkels (Becoming Modern, 1974); and Lerner (The Passing of Traditional Society, 1958).

These theorists have examined the nature of modernity as a goal of social change which seems always in progress in

spite of the constant desire for stability voiced by most of humankind. Moore and Feldman (1960:348) have explained that:

The world is currently undergoing great economic and social transformation. In essence, this transformation is in the commitment of man to a new way of life. Throughout history most of mankind has strived for stability though particular ways have varied from place to place and from one time to another. Commitment to stability appears to be the natural state of man.

Human resources play a significant role in the process of economic development. People, as agents of change, are essential elements in the process of social change. As Sherbiny (1981:vx) argued:

The role of human resources in the process of social-economic development is one of the most important and sensitive issues facing development planners and policy makers in recent years. It is becoming apparent that for many countries, the availability of human capital in the desired amount and mix could be the major constraint in achieving growth targets. The human resource picture in developing countries naturally varies from country to country.

Manpower problems vary between countries, but there are certain elements which are common to many developing countries (Gandim, 1982:26):

1. A shortage of adequately trained professional and technical personnel, particularly scientists, engineers, teachers and health service personnel;
2. A surplus of persons educated in Law and Liberal Arts;

3. A shortage of sub-professional technical personnel and skilled craftsmen;
4. A large number of unemployed, unskilled and semi-skilled workers in the cities, often migrant from rural areas; and
5. Widespread rural underemployment.

In a number of places around the world (e.g. Western Europe, Arab OPEC countries) immigrant labor provides a valuable resource in the on-going process of social change and development. One must not ignore, too, that there are patterns of migrant labor which contribute to inequalities, as is true in South Africa. African migrant laborers in South Africa have very limited political rights and remain economically underprivileged, compared to their white migrant counterparts who have more civil rights and permanent status. Therefore, with the exception of such countries as South Africa, which tend to unduly discriminate against their black migrant laborers because of a system of beliefs called apartheid, other countries both in Western Europe and Arab OPEC states are fully aware of the important contributions which foreign laborers make to the survival of their economies (Sasson-Koob, 1978:509).

The existence of more than twenty million expatriate laborers, currently living and working in different parts of the world, could not but have a significant impact on the countries who receive them. Newland (1979:19) points out that immigration contributes to economic growth in

receiving countries by increasing the flexibility of their labor markets, generating demands for goods and services, and preventing bottlenecks from developing in the production process. Moreover, because incoming migrations are usually more mobile than citizens, they can help reduce regional disparities by allowing countries a greater ability to respond to labor needs in particular regions.

This is certainly the case in Saudi Arabia, and in the other Arab Gulf Oil States whose social and economic transformation has been a result of increased foreign labor participation in response to these countries' needs. The economic development that is underway is having a great impact on individuals, families, communities and villages.

As one begins to assess the impact of foreign labor in host countries, it is self-evident that foreign laborers in Western Europe, the Middle East, East and West Africa, and throughout the world, have greatly contributed to the social and material development of their host countries. In this connection, it is quite appropriate to note Power's (1972:242) comments that, "immigrants are now so rooted in the Western economy that it is almost impossible to conceive of situations short of war or economic catastrophe that would lower their number to any great extent."

Wherever we look, foreign workers have served to build and strengthen a country's economic and social infrastructure. The capital-rich countries of the Middle East, such as Saudi Arabia, would not have been able to

achieve rapid development on a massive scale if it were not for the assistance of huge numbers of foreign workers who left their countries to derive economic benefit for themselves and the families they left behind.

Nagi (1982:5,6) points out, however, that a development process highly dependent on imported labor can have both positive and negative consequences. His argument is based on the example of the Arab Gulf states. On the positive side, the services of skilled foreign labor meant for those countries not having to train such personnel themselves. However, Nagi points out that many of the Gulf States are beginning to experience problems with respect to the flow of imported labor due to a variety of factors:

1. An increase in the demand for labor by states that previously exported labor, such as Iraq and Iran.
2. Clear competition between the Gulf states in luring high level personnel and skilled technicians.
3. Depletion of the labor supply from traditional labor exporting countries, such as Egypt, Yemen and Syria.
4. An increase in the importation of labor from Asian sources, such as Pakistan, India and to a lesser extent, Korea--a trend that is viewed with some alarm in view of its potential effects on the Arab character of the region.
5. An increase in return migration due to improved employment potential and standards of living in the home countries.

Development based on labor importation has also had negative impacts on both the foreign and domestic populations in Saudi Arabia, according to some of Nagi's findings. These impacts include: wage and price inflation, pressure on public services and housing, and pressure on working class people, etc. In Saudi Arabia inflation has been fairly high for the last ten years, growing at 20 percent annually. Similar findings have been made by Krane (1975) in looking at the impact of Turkish labor migration on Germany's wage-price stability. These were, (1) that a growing labor supply holds wages down and increases price stability, and (2) that increasing numbers of workers inflate the demand for goods and services. This tends to raise prices which, in turn, encourages labor unions to demand higher wages. Portes (1981:281) has summarized the findings of other studies dealing with the effects of labor migration on advanced capitalist societies:

1. Labor migration tends to exercise a downward pressure on working-class wages and on the security and job conditions of domestic workers. Migration is frequently promoted by employers, even in the presence of a domestic labor surplus.
2. Labor migration tends to upgrade the health and work fitness of the labor force. Migrants are selected or self-selected among the younger and healthier in the sending country's population.
3. Dominant classes in receiving regions collectively save the cost of reproducing a sector of its labor force. Rearing and educating migrants is done in places other

than those which employ them. Similarly, unemployment, illness, and old age produce a reserve flow, as migrants seek the support of their primary networks in regions of origin.

4. Labor migration tends to fragment the solidarity of the working class as native workers blame deteriorating economic conditions on the migrants.

Marshall (1973:166,168) attempts to integrate the theory of dependency with labor migration, noting that, from the point of view of labor, the immigration of workers in absolute terms might be regarded as detrimental to the economic and social interests of the working class. She further argues that from the point of view of the less developed countries, both the export of labor and the import of capital creates dependency on the external market. Thus, governments are subject to the mercy of outside forces. In addition, she stresses the danger that immigration might cease to be in the best interests of the developed countries when the necessity for emigration from the developing world comes to an end.

Dependency theory sees labor migration as inequality that at times retards the growth of less developed countries because they are too weak to defend their interests adequately when bargaining with developed countries (Adler, 1977:36). Its theorists claim that international economic dependence produces the "development of underdevelopment" in the periphery. It is this kind of argumentation which has

led to a revision in the theory of capitalist development which, by focusing on the world system, has ignored national states as the relevant unit of analysis (Chase-Dunn, 1975:720).

CHAPTER FOUR

INTERNATIONAL LABOR MIGRATION IN THE ARAB WORLD

International labor migration has a long history in the Arab world. It has been studied by many scholars and investigators in the deliberations and conferences of various international agencies, such as the International Labor Organization (1979, 1980), the World Bank (1980, 1982), the Arab Planning Institute, (1978, 1982, 1983) and the United Nations (1981). Individual scholars, such as Haliday (1977); Shaw (1979, 1981, 1983); Birks and Sinclair (1978, 1979, 1980); Ecevit (1981); Nagi (1982, 1983); Ibrahim (1982, 1983); Swanson (1979); Sherbiny and Serageldin (1982, 1984) have also made outstanding contributions to the study of international labor migration.

The international labor migration, as has already been alluded to, is of great importance in the development of the Arab World. In 1975, there were over 2.5 million Arab workers and dependents as well as 500,000 non-Arabs who came to work in the Gulf. International labor migration started in the Arabian Peninsula in the 1950s, when economic growth was just beginning in the Arab World and the surrounding

nation states (Birks and Sinclair, 1980:1). Because of the oil boom and increases in the world price of oil in 1973, the oil exporting countries of the Middle East and North Africa suddenly witnessed a dramatic increase in their foreign exchange earnings and with this, the pattern of labor migration changed dramatically. During the 1950s and 1960s, inter-Arab labor migration of long-term and permanent nature was by and large the most common. Since the 1970s, however, migration has taken a different form and pattern and has consisted largely of temporary flows (U.N., 1981:40). Birks and Sinclair (1980:2) have made the following observation:

The direction, volume and pattern of international labor migration have been determined by the uneven distribution of oil wealth in the Middle East and the uses to which it has been put. The exploitation of oil resources and the investment of royalties in the development of the economies of the oil-rich states have led to wide disparities of per head income between the Arab states.

In discussing international labor migration to the Arab world, a distinction should be made between the capital-rich states and the capital-poor states. Capital-rich states refer to the oil-exporting countries whereas capital-poor states are those which are not endowed with oil resources and, therefore, are not engaged in oil exports. This distinction between the two groups of countries has been made on the basis of per capita Gross National Product

(GNP). Table 4.1 shows the per capita GNP for some Arab countries in 1976, ranging from a high of almost \$16,000 in Kuwait down to \$250 for the Yemen Arab Republic. The countries in Table 4.1 also divide into two clusters of states according to GNP per head. Capital-rich states enjoy per capita incomes in excess of \$1,000 while the capital-poor states range from \$840 to \$250 (Birks and Sinclair, 1980:11).

According to Yahya (1980:60,61), Arab states can be classified into two distinct groups on the basis of their resource endowment or income. On the basis of resource endowment alone, two groups can be delineated: the first is the labor-rich Arab states (LRAS), which include Jordan, Egypt, Lebanon, Sudan, Syria, and the two Yemens. The second group is the oil-rich Arab states (ORAS) and it consists of such countries as Algeria, Bahrain, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. On the basis of per capita income, the labor-rich group is classified as belonging to a low-income group, and the oil rich countries as a high-income group. It is very important to understand these delineations on the basis of resource endowment and income so that the flow of migration and the impact of migration can be better understood.

TABLE 4.1: Selected Arab States, Ranked by GNP Per Capita,
1976

State	GNP Per Capita(\$)
Kuwait	15,840
United Arab Emirates	13,990
Qatar	11,400
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	6,310
Saudi Arabia	4,480
Oman	2,680
Bahrain	2,140
Iraq	1,390
Tunisia	840
Syrian Arab Republic	780
Jordan	611
Sudan	290
Democratic Yemen	280
Egypt	280
Yemen	250

Source: Birks and Sinclair (1980:128)

Volume Of Arab Labor Migration

Estimates of the volume and magnitude of the Arab labor migration vary from one source to another (See Table 4.2). The best estimate was given by ILO and Durham University in a comprehensive study carried out by Birks and Sinclair, even though these estimates were considered to be too low. Table 4.3 shows the origins and destinations of Arab migrant workers by nationality. It is clear from this table that Saudi Arabia attracts the majority of Arab migrant workers. The 700,000 economically active expatriate Arabs in Saudi Arabia in 1975 amounted to well over half of the expatriate Arab population. The Libyan Arab Jamahiriya is the next most important destination for Arab migrants, employing between one-fifth and one-quarter of them. Libya is the leading employer of Egyptians, taking almost 58 percent of migrant laborers. Another one-quarter of the Egyptians working abroad are employed in Saudi Arabia. Virtually all Yemenites (over 96 percent) who are working outside their home country are employed in Saudi Arabia (Birks and Sinclair, 1980:27-28).

In some of the oil-exporting countries of the Arab world, expatriate workers exceed the number of the indigenous population. Figure 4.1 provides some comparisons of expatriate labor to indigenous population in six Arab countries. It shows that expatriate labor forces exceed the indigenous population in the United Arab Emirates, Qatar,

TABLE 4.2: Comparison of Various Estimates of Arab Labor Migration (1975-1977)

	A	B	C	
Estimates By	ILO-Durnam Univ. International (Birks & Sinclair) Arab Monetary (1975) Fund (1977)	Arab Monetary (1977)	Arab Sources (M.A. Fadil) (1977)	
Countries				
A. Major Arab Labor Exporters				
Egypt	398,000	350,000	600,000	
Arab Yemen	290,000	500,000	600,000	
Democratic Yemen	70,000	300,000	300,000	
Jordan/Palestine	265,000	150,000	225,000	
Sudan	46,000	50,000	174,000	
Syria	70,000	u.a.	70,000	(1975)
Lebanon	50,000	u.a.	50,000	(1975)
Tunisia	39,000	u.a.	39,000	(1975)
Others	68,000	u.a.	68,000	(1975)
TOTAL	1,296,000	1,350,000	2,126,000	
B. Major Arab Labor Importers				
		(our estimates)		
Saudi Arabi	700,000	900,000	1,170,000	
Libya	310,000	325,000	420,000	
Kuwait	143,000	276,000	350,000	
U.A.E.	62,000	96,000	115,000	
Qatar	15,000	19,000	26,000	
Oman	9,000	12,000	16,000	
Bahrain	6,000	7,000	9,000	
Iraq	15,000	u.a.	100,000	
TOTAL	1,260,000	1,635,000	2,206,000	

u.a. = unavailable

SOURCE: Ibrahim, 1982:36

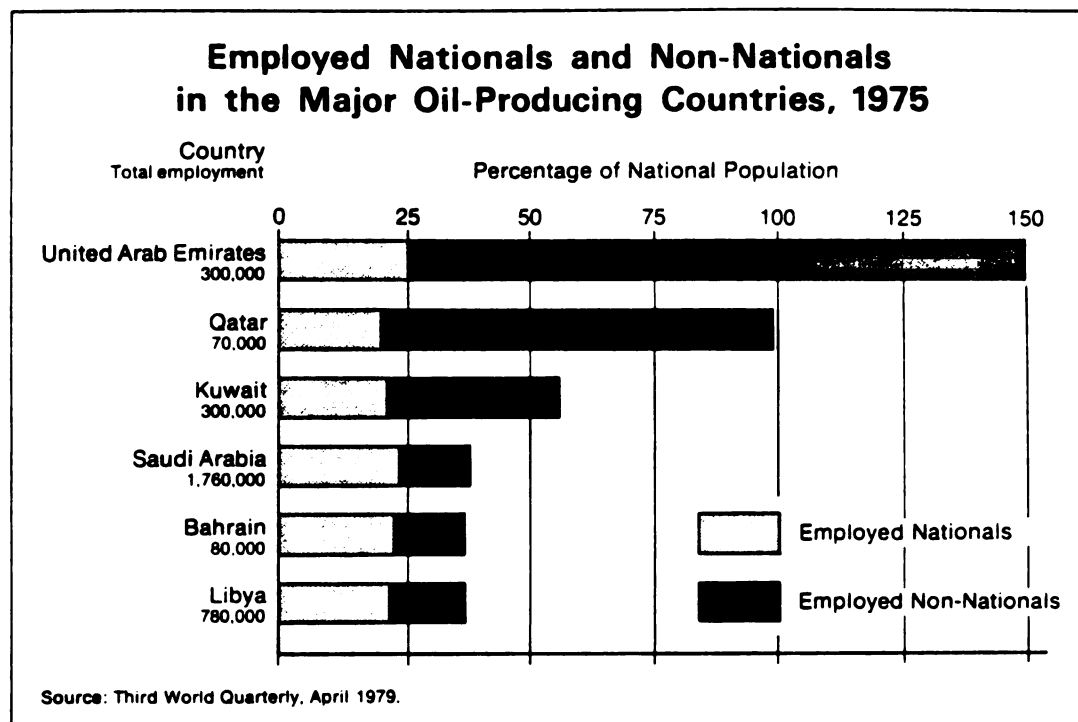


Figure 4.1: Employed Nationals and Non-Nationals in the Major Oil-Producing Countries, 1975

TABLE 4.3A: Arab Migrant Workers in the Arab Region, 1975

Country of employment	Country or area of origin and percentage between countries of employment											
	Egypt		Yemen		Jordan/Palestine		Democratic Yemen		Syrian Arab Rep.		Lebanon	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Saudi Arabia	95,000	23.9	280,400	96.0	175,000	66.1	55,000	77.9	15,000	21.3	20,000	40.3
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	229,500	57.8	---	---	14,150	5.3	--	--	13,000	18.5	5,700	11.5
Kuwait	37,558	9.4	2,757	1.0	47,653	18.0	8,658	12.2	16,547	23.4	7,232	14.6
United Arab Emirates	12,500	3.1	4,500	1.6	14,500	5.5	4,500	6.4	4,500	6.4	4,500	9.0
Jordan (East Bank)	5,300	1.3	--	--	--	--	---	---	20,000	28.4	7,500	15.1
Iraq	7,000	1.8			5,000	1.9	---	---	---		3,000	6.0
Qatar	2,850	0.7	1,250	0.4	6,000	2.3	1,250	1.8	750	1.1	500	1.0
Oman	4,600	1.2	100	0.0	1,600	0.6	100	0.1	400	0.6	1,100	2.2
Bahrain	1,237	0.3	1,121	0.4	614	0.2	1,122	1.6	68	0.1	129	0.3
Yemen	2,000	0.5	---	---	200	0.1	---	---	150	0.2	---	---
Total	397,545	100.0	290,128	100.0	264,717	100.0	70,630	100.0	70,415	100.0	49,661	100.0
Percentage Distribution of migrants by country of origin	30.7		22.4		20.4		5.5		5.4		3.8	

SOURCE: Birks & Sinclair, 1980:134,135

TABLE 4.3B: Arab Migrant Workers in the Arab Region, 1975

Country of Employment	Country or area of origin and percentage between countries of employment									
	Sudan	Tunisia	Oman	Iraq	Somalia	Algeria, Morocco	Total			
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	%	%	%
Saudi Arabia	35,000	---	17,500	2,000	5,000	---	---	76.4	---	699,900
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	7,000	38,500	---	---	---	2,500	---	---	98.2	310,350
Kuwait	873	49	3,660	17,999	247	47	---	3.8	1.8	143,280
United Arab Emirates	1,500	---	14,000	500	1,000	---	---	15.2	---	62,000
Jordan (East Bank)	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	32,800
Iraq	200	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	15,200
Qatar	400	---	1,870	---	---	---	---	---	---	14,870
Oman	500	100	---	---	300	---	---	4.6	---	8,800
Bahrain	400	---	1,383	126	---	---	---	---	---	6,200
Yemen	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	2,350
TOTAL	45,873	38,649	38,413	20,625	6,547	2,547	---	100.0	---	100,01,295,750
Percentage distribution of migrants by country of origin	3.5	3.0	3.0	1.6	0.5	0.2	---	---	---	100.0

SOURCE: Birks and Sinclair, 1980:134,135

and Kuwait, while the foreign workers of Saudi Arabia, Bahrain and Libya comprise 30 percent to 40 percent of the host country's total population. In 1975, the share of foreign labor in the total work force was 89 percent in the United Arab Emirates, 83 percent in Qatar, 71 percent in Kuwait, and 39 percent in Saudi Arabia (Ecevit, 1981:260).

It is clear that the United Arab Emirates consistently has the highest foreign labor dependency ratio. The high dependence on immigrant labor in countries like Qatar, Kuwait, and United Arab Emirates can be attributed primarily to their small indigenous populations; low labor force participation rates, especially among women; and the underdeveloped nature of education and training, which further restrict the manpower stock available for rapid expansion in these economies (Ecevit, 1981:260). Table 4.4 shows the crude participation rates, national population and work force for both the capital-rich and capital-poor Arab states. By 1975 some 550,000 non-Arab workers had migrated to the Middle East. Although this stock of migrant workers was smaller than those in Europe, as a proportion of the workforce of both the labor importing and exporting countries of the Arab world, these movements were much greater than in the European case (Birks and Sinclair, 1979:286).

We also note that among the Asian migrants, there is disproportional representation. Table 4.5 shows that in

TABLE 4.4: National Populations and Workforces Ranked by Size
for Capital-Rich and Capital-Poor States, 1975

State	Population (thousands)	Workforce (thousands)	Crude Parti- cipation rate (Percent)
<u>Capital-Rich</u>			
Saudi Arabia	4,592.5	1,026.5	22.4
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	2,223.7	449.2	20.2
Kuwait	550.0	137.0	24.9
Bahrain	472.1	91.8	19.4
United Arab Emirates	214.0	45.8	21.4
Qatar	67.9	12.5	18.4
TOTAL	8,320.2	1,807.8	21.7
<u>Capital-Poor</u>			
Egypt	37,364.9	12,522.2	33.5
Sudan	15,031.3	3,700.0	24.6
Syrian Arab Republic	7,335.0	1,838.9	25.1
Yemen	5,037.0	1,425.8	28.3
Jordan (East Bank)	2,616.7	532.8	20.4
Democratic Yemen	1,660.0	430.5	25.9
TOTAL	69,044.9	20,450.2	29.6

SOURCE: Birks and Sinclair, 1980:131,132

TABLE 4.5: Migrant Workers in the Arab Region by Country of Employment and Region of Origin, 1975

Country of Employment	ARAB				ASIAN				EUROPE & AMERICA				OTHER				Total			
	Pakistan		India		Other Asian		All Asian		America		Africa & other		Turkey		Iran		Total			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Saudi Arabia	699,900	90.5	15,000	1.9	15,000	1.9	8,000	1.0	38,000	4.9	15,000	1.9	10,000	1.3	500	0.6	10,000	1.3	773,400	100.0
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	310,350	93.4	4,500	1.4	500	0.2	5,500	1.7	7,000	2.1	500	0.2	9,000	2.7	---	---	---	---	332,350	100.0
U.A.E.	62,000	24.7	100,000	39.8	61,500	24.5	2,000	0.8	163,500	65.0	5,000	2.0	---	---	21,000	8.3	251,500	100.0	---	---
Kuwait	143,280	68.9	11,038	5.3	21,475	10.3	1,103	0.5	33,616	16.2	2,028	1.0	107	0.1	37	0.0	28,933	14.0	208,001	100.0
Qatar	14,870	27.7	16,000	29.8	16,000	29.8	2,000	3.7	34,000	63.3	846	1.6	---	---	4,000	7.4	53,716	100.0	---	---
Bahrain	6,200	21.2	6,680	22.8	8,943	30.5	981	3.3	16,604	56.7	4,442	15.2	57	0.2	1,982	6.8	29,285	100.0	---	---
Jordan (E. Bank)	32,800	99.7	---	---	---	---	---	---	100	0.3	---	---	---	---	---	---	32,900	100.0	---	---
Oman	8,800	12.4	32,500	36.8	26,000	36.8	200	0.3	58,700	83.0	2,800	4.0	---	---	400	0.6	70,700	100.0	---	---
Yemen	2,350	95.9	---	---	---	---	---	---	100	4.1	---	---	---	---	---	---	2,450	100.0	---	---
Iraq	15,200	23.1	5,000	7.6	5,000	7.6	---	---	10,000	12.5	500	0.8	---	---	40,000	60.9	65,700	100.0	---	---
Total	1,295,750	100.0	190,718	100	154,418	8.5	14,784	0.8	359,920	19.8	37,816	2.1	10,664	0.6	9,537	0.5	106,315	5.81	820,002	100.0

--- = no migrants recorded for this country or origin

SOURCE: Birks and Sinclair, 1980:137

1975, the Asians in the Arab labor force were almost exclusively either Indians or Pakistanis. Other Asians accounted for only four percent of the "All Asian" total. The nationalities covered by the term "Other Asian" include Malaysians, Nepalese, Filipinos, Thais and nationals of the Republic of Korea, all of whom were working in the capital-rich states in 1975, but only in small numbers (Birks and Sinclair, 1980:32).

Demographic Characteristics

The indigenous populations of the Arab world have in common a high rate of population increase. Few states have natural growth rates lower than 2.5 percent, while most states are growing at 3.5 percent per annum (Birks and Sinclair, 1980:12,13). Azzam (1979:39) has summarized the demographic profile of the Arab world and provides the following comparative analysis:

The Arab countries as a group have certain economic and demographic characteristics that are different from other less developed countries. The rich oil countries have the wealth and material resources but are still in the early stages of development and demographic transition. Large families are the norm rather than the exception, and there are several restrictions on female participation in all aspects of society. While the less affluent Arab countries are short of capital but have abundant labor, they are more liberal concerning female labor force participation and some have introduced family planning programmes to check the increase in population. The two groups of countries complement each other in several ways and the

considerable flow of capital and human resources across boundaries, together with geographic proximity, common language, religion and historical and cultural heritage would render the Arab world an interesting case study on its own.

Figure 4.2 depicts the major movements of migrant workers in the Middle East. According to Choucrist (1980:45), the distinctive features of this movement of migrants are the following:

First, it is a pattern of flow among developing countries; labor remains within the region, rather than migrating externally.

Second, it is composed neither of skilled nor unskilled labor alone; the entire structure of the labor force is involved in and, in turn, affected by this movement.

Third, no one "flow" is permanent in nature, but temporary, generally from one to four years.

Fourth, it is generated and maintained by underlying economic and political forces that create the incentives for movements and the regulations for sustaining the flows.

Fifth, it is recognized by both sending and receiving countries as an explicit feature of the political economy of the region whereby both political and the economic dimensions are given equal weight.

Sixth, these perceptions in policymaking circles are maintained by economic imperatives; the supply and demand for labor generate an underlying rationale that places pressure on policy responses to regulate and facilitate the movement of labor.

Table 4.6 shows the basic demographic characteristics of the Arab world. The migrant workers are predominantly male and either unskilled or semi-skilled. There are differences

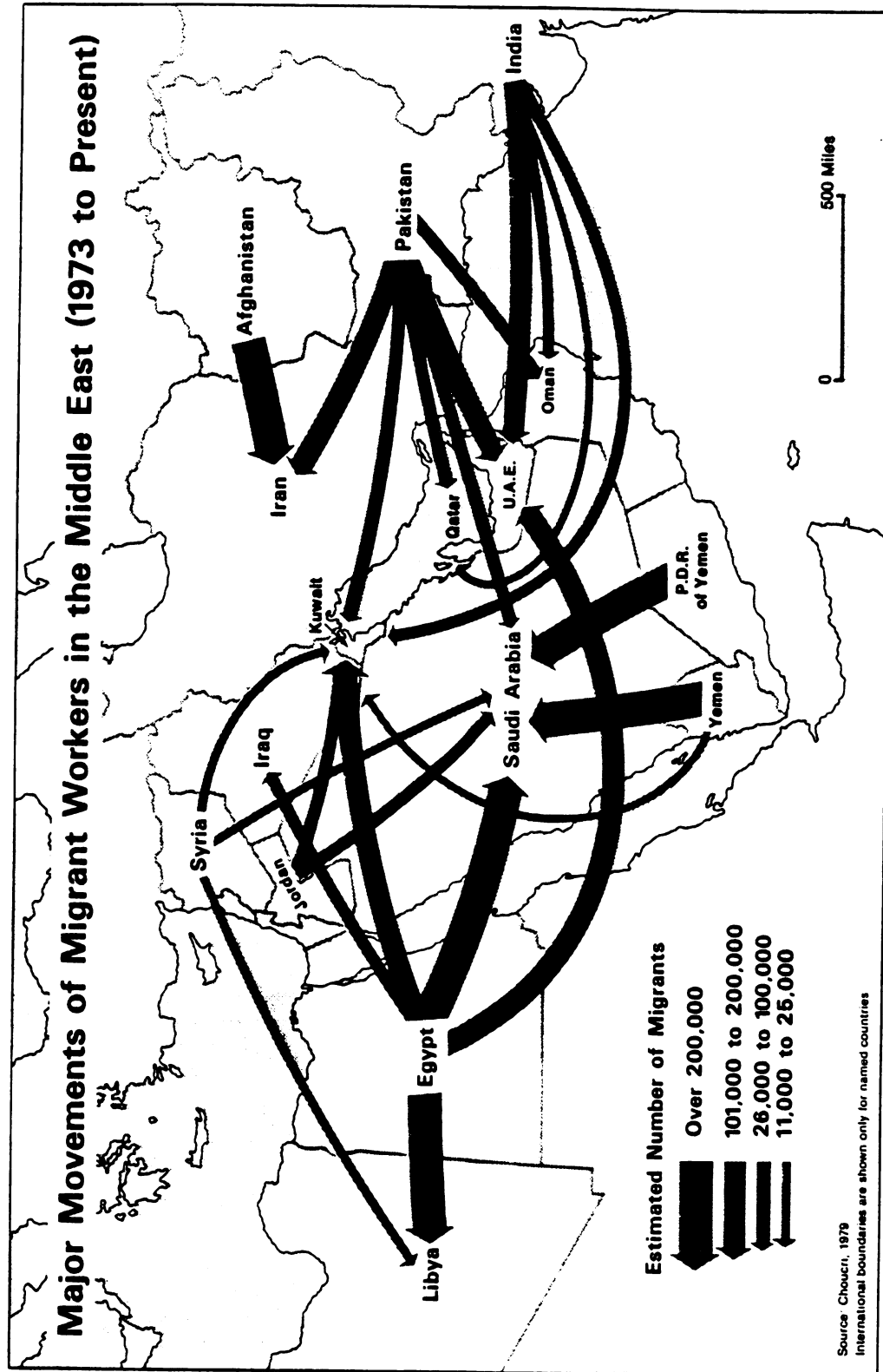


Figure 4.2: Major Movements of Migrant Workers in the Middle East (1973 to Present)

in the kinds of immigrant workers going to individual countries, depending on the nature of the demand for labor. Algeria and Iraq recruit skilled professional workers, while the Gulf States demand labor at all skill levels with higher proportions of unskilled workers (Ecevit, 1981:265).

Sectoral distribution patterns among oil-rich countries also indicate considerable differences. Table 4.7 shows the sectoral distribution of local and migrant labor in Saudi Arabia, Libya, Kuwait, and Oman, where migrant laborers dominate the construction and services sectors. The only exception is Libya which has a smaller percentage in the services sector. Expatriate labor makes up more than 60 percent of the construction labor force in most of these countries: 65 percent in Libya, 67 percent in Oman and 95 percent in Kuwait. In the manufacturing sector, the percentage of expatriate labor is 89 percent in Kuwait and 62 percent in Saudi Arabia (Ibrahim, 1982:39). It is perhaps for this reason that Birks and Sinclair (1980:13) suggest that there is no need for capital-rich states to limit the growth of their own indigenous national populations and that rapid population growth may in fact, be beneficial rather than detrimental to their development efforts. This is so because development generates domestic demand both for consumption and the labor-input requirements.

TABLE 4.6: Demographic Characteristics, Arab Countries, 1978

Countries	Estimated Population (1) (millions)	Crude birth rate per thousand (2)	Crude death rate per thousand (3)	Crude rate of natural increase (%) (4)	No. of years to double population (5)	Population Projection to year 2000 (6) (millions)	Infant Mortality Rate per thousand (7)	Total Fertility rate (8)	% Population Aged Less than 15 years (9)
Arab World	152.5	43	14	3.0	24	291.0	127	6.7	44.5
Oil-Rich	26.7	45	13	3.2	22	52.4	112	7.0	46.7
Oil-Poor	125.8	43	14	2.9	24	238.6	130	6.7	44.0
Oil-Rich									
Bahrain	0.3	43	7	3.6	20	0.7	44	6.7	46.9
Iraq	12.2	42	10	3.2	22	24.4	86	7.2	48.9
Kuwait	1.1	49	5	3.4	21	2.3	44	7.2	44.3
Libya	2.8	48	9	2.9	24	5.3	130	6.8	49.0
Oman	1.5	49	19	3.0	24	2.9	138	7.3	46.2
Qatar	0.2	49	16	3.3	22	0.4	135	7.2	44.4
Saudi Arabia	7.8	49	19	3.0	24	14.9	152	7.1	44.7
UAE	0.8	44	14	3.0	24	1.5	135	5.9	28.2
Oil-Poor									
Algeria	18.4	48	14	3.4	21	38.5	145	7.2	44.0
Egypt	39.6	38	11	2.7	29	71.2	108	5.0	40.7
Jordan	2.9	48	13	3.5	20	6.2	89	6.5	49.9
Lebanon	2.9	33	8	2.5	28	5.0	59	4.6	41.6
Mauritania	1.5	45	24	2.1	33	2.4	187	5.9	42.0
Morocco	18.9	45	14	3.1	23	36.9	133	6.8	46.0
Somalia	3.4	48	21	2.7	26	6.1	177	6.1	45.0
Sudan	17.1	48	16	3.2	22	34.1	144	7.0	45.0
Syria	8.2	45	14	3.1	23	16.0	114	7.6	49.3
Tunisia	6.0	36	13	2.3	31	9.9	135	7.0	45.0
Yemen AR	5.0	49	22	2.7	26	9.0	210	6.8	46.8
Yemen PDR	1.9	45	20	2.5	28	3.3	170	6.1	42.5

SOURCE: Shaw, 1983:101

TABLE 4.7: Sectoral Distribution of Local and Imported Labor Force in Selected Oil-Rich Countries (1973-1975)

Economic Sector	S. Arabia (1973)		Libya (1973)		Kuwait (1975)		Oman (1975)	
	Local	Migrant	Local	Migrant	Local	Migrant	Local	Migrant
Agriculture	37.1	62.9	89.5	10.5	53.0	47.0	n.a	n.a.
Manufacturing & Processing	38.2	61.8	54.5	34.5	13.6	86.4	64.1	35.9
Construction	52.4	47.6	35.4	64.6	5.5	94.5	33.4	66.6
Gas, Water & Electricity	78.3	21.7	84.3	15.7	28.0	72.0	80.5	19.5
Commerce	47.2	52.8	90.3	9.7	16.0	84.0	54.0	46.0
Transport & Communication	53.9	46.1	95.6	4.4	29.1	70.9	81.4	18.6
Civil Service & Defense	n.a	n.a	96.1	3.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Services (education, health, banking, etc.)	43.7	56.3	81.3	18.7	38.5	61.5	36.0	64.0
TOTAL	57.0	43.0	78.0	22.0	29.1	70.9	66.0	34.0

n.a. Not available

SOURCE: Ibrahim, 1982:40

Implications For Labor Importing
And Exporting Countries

The sheer volume of migration for employment, its relative importance in the labor markets of the Middle East, the impact which migration has upon economic development, and the mutual interdependence between labor exporting and labor importing nations has made expatriate labor movements a critical issue in the contemporary Middle East (Birks and Sinclair, 1980:135). The desire of the oil-exporting countries to develop rapidly has overshadowed other long term considerations of economic and social planning. As a result, the flows of expatriate labor have a determining role to play both in the economic development of the labor-supply and the labor-absorbing states (Ibid:136). As Ecevit (1981:267) argued:

The growing demand for expatriate labor in the oil exporting countries has led to the emergence of a viable international labor market for the developing countries of the region. In several countries (Egypt, Jordan, Yemen Arab Republic) the relative shares of foreign exchange earnings from nationals employed outside have surpassed the earnings from both the commodities and manufacturer's markets, thereby affecting aggregate demand, investment, inflation, balance of payments, wage levels--in fact the whole range of macroeconomic interrelationships.

Labor export can be mutually beneficial for both the labor-exporting and importing countries. In the case of the former, the flow of labor constitutes an opportunity to export excess workers, thereby reducing the numbers of

unemployed. Laborers overseas are seen as gaining valuable experience during the period of their sojourn which can later be applied to the national development of their own countries upon their return. Remittances from migrant workers to their respective countries constitute one obvious benefit: they increase foreign currency reserves, they help in the balance of payments, and they provide investment capital for development with a concomitant increase in jobs (Keely, 1981:141). The flow of remittances is an immediate benefit for the labor-exporting countries. The data presented in Table 4.8 show that the flow of remittances to Egypt, Jordan, Syria, the Yemen Arab Republic and the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen was about 3.1 million dollars in 1977, a dramatic increase from the 1974 figure of 526 million dollars. It would be safe to conclude from this table (Table 4.8) that such an increase in the percentage of remittances has no doubt augmented the balance of payment positions to these labor-exporting countries, if not directly, at least, indirectly. As far as the labor-importing countries are concerned, their development plans have led to a great demand for expatriate labor which would have been impossible to achieve without the unmitigated flow of human skills and resources.

Against the wishes of their host governments, Arab foreign workers present a problem because they are most likely to settle, to be joined by family, and perhaps to

TABLE 4.4: Flow of Workers' Remittances and Its Share in Total Imports and Exports of Goods in Selected Labor Exporting Countries

Country	1974			1975			1976			1977		
	Remit- tances	As percent of Exports	Imports	Remit- tances	As percent of Exports	Imports	Remit- tances	As percent of Exports	Imports	Remit- tances	As percent of Exports	Imports
Algeria	390	9	9	466	11	7	245	5	4	246	4	3
Bangladesh ^c	36	13	2	35	9	1	36	10	1	83	18	9
Egypt	189	11	5	367	23	7	754	47	18	1,425	66	27
India ^c	276	8	5	490	12	8	750 ^b	17	12	1,400 ^b	22	20
Jordan	75	48	12	167	109	18	396	198	34	425	186	38
Morocco	356	21	17	533	35	18	548	43	16	577	44	18
Pakistan ^c	151	15	6	230	22	8	353	31	12	1,118	88	40
Syrian Arab Republic	62	8	4	55	6	3	51	5	2	91	9	7
Tunisia	118	13	9	146	17	8	135	17	8	142	16	8
Turkey	1,425	93	33	1,312	94	25	982	50	17	982	56	17
Yemen Arab Republic ^c	159	1,325	69	221	1,556	72	535	4,269	137	1,013	5,449	139
Yemen P.D.R.	41	410	23	56	373	32	115	261	40	179 ^d	352	49

a=in current prices, million U.S. dollars, gross figures

b=estimates

c=fiscal year

d=preliminary

SOURCE: Ecevit, 1981:270,71

make economic and social demands (Keely, 1981:145). Even though it is unlikely that foreign workers will be a major destabilizing factor in the near future, a large foreign population could no doubt exacerbate economic and political problems should they arise (Ibid:147). Keely (1981:149) makes the following observations and predictions:

International labor migration involves contradictions and tensions for sending and receiving countries. That these contradictions and tensions are manageable in the short term, especially given the individual and societal advantages that result from labor flows, has been demonstrated in the Middle East, in Europe, in North America, in Southern Africa and elsewhere. Labor migration and the presence of foreign populations seem unlikely to trigger instability in the Middle East in the next five years. However, they can fuel the flames if instability arises from other sources in the near future, and therefore, the horizon of twenty years hence is another question.

With regards to policy implications, it is necessary to point out at the outset that the nature of demand for migrant labor in the Middle East has been quite different from that in Europe and other economically developed countries. First of all, the demand for labor in the Middle East has been limited to specific skill groups, even though some skills are more highly valued than others. Instead, workers at all skill levels, including large numbers of highly skilled professionals, technicians and managers as well as unskilled labor, have been in demand. On the other hand, labor demands in Europe were more

selective. As an example, the demand structure in Germany has been one which depends only minimally on the importation of highly skilled manpower, because the country has almost enough of its own. Rist (1978:11) concludes:

The fact that foreign workers are in Germany is not the consequence of random events and their own strictly private decisions. They are in Germany as the result of policies made at the highest levels of the German government.

In the Middle East, foreign labor was expected to play a critical role in running and managing the productive sector of the economy. In Europe, the role of foreign labor has been to facilitate the already existing industrial infrastructure of the national economy. Motives for labor imports have also been different. In Europe, selective temporary labor imports, at least initially, were envisaged as a tool for short-term cyclical adjustment, for achieving full employment, price stability, and a favorable balance of payments. Moreover, in the industrial countries of Western Europe such as in West Germany, there were other viable alternatives to reach an equilibrium in the labor market, finding the labor necessary for socially undesirable jobs (Ecevit, 1981:273).

In the Middle East there was certainly no short-term cyclical adjustment, nor was there really any viable alternative to large scale labor imports in the short run. The Middle East, in this sense, is far from reaching self-

sufficiency in its labor demands, which are therefore, a major immediate concern of the governments.

In contrast to Western Europe, cultural constraints have also generally caused the employment of less educated women to be limited to family agricultural work and the traditional sector. In Saudi Arabia, one of the major constraints on manpower resources is the fact that women's economic roles are very limited and prescribed by society to be so. This, of course, means foreign labor will have to make up for the shortage of women in the labor force. In the West, a greater proportion of women have been employed and engaged in productive activity because the cultural and institutional biases against the participation of women were challenged and, therefore, change was imminent.

Finally, in the Middle East, the ratio of demand for expatriate labor to indigenous labor is very large, thus creating a greater dependence on labor imports. Moreover, the governments of most industrially advanced countries have had more leeway in determining whether or not foreign labor would make up for indigenous manpower shortages. In the Arab world, there are economic imperatives which make similar decisions unlikely and impossible. Therefore, they must rely inevitably on foreign labor in order to achieve their developmental objectives.

Due to these and other oil-exporting countries, the consequences on society are expected to be vastly different.

Labor-importing countries generally suffer from social tensions due to a huge influx of foreign workers, but it has been more of an issue to Arab Middle Eastern societies. Ecevit (1981:273) provides the following advice:

Future policies directed towards decreased dependence on expatriate labor or increased investment beyond current levels would have to aim at more effective use of local labor supplies. In most countries, there is certainly room for increasing local labor supplies both through increased labor participation rates and improved educational output.

However, in spite of an urgent need for policy formulations by labor-importing countries in the Middle East and North Africa to effectively manage and regulate the huge influx of foreign labor, there is no indication that any government has such a concrete policy yet. There is, therefore, a greater necessity now to work out a clear-cut policy that addresses the problems generated by dependence on expatriate labor and, most importantly, the challenges of effective utilization of the indigenous human resources in the future development of the region.

Prospects for the Future

In the future, patterns of labor migration to the oil-rich countries in the Middle East and North Africa are expected to become more formalized. The World Bank study on future manpower needs in the Middle East estimated that

under high growth rates, labor demand will rise from its 1975 level of 9.7 million to about 15.3 million in 1985, a net increase of 5.6 million and a relative growth of 58 percent. At low growth rates, the net increase in manpower requirements in these countries would still be 4.3 million is shown in Table 4.9 (Ibrahim, 1982:49).

The sectoral composition of total manpower requirements is shown in Table 4.10. It indicates that for the eight labor-importing countries, agricultural employment is projected by 1985 to have increased only by about 20 percent. Manufacturing is projected to experience a greater relative growth (1975 Index of 100.0; 1985 = 230.7) followed by utilities (1985=206.8), trade and finance (1985=197.3) and services (1985:195.4) (Birks and Sinclair, 1981:123).

The occupational composition of manpower requirements is projected to change rapidly over the 1975-1985 period. Weiner (1982:28) indicated that the demand for professional and paraprofessional workers "will more than quadruple over the ten-year period (from 1975 to 1985) and that the proportion of professional and paraprofessionals among the migrants are likely to increase from 17 percent in 1975 to 27 percent by 1985." According to Weiner this upward trend in skill requirements is combined with an overall increase in the flow of migrants demanded by the oil-exporting countries. Table 4.11 shows that the unskilled share of employment is projected to fall from 44 percent in 1975 to

TABLE 4.9: Major Labor Countries: Total Labor Requirements 1975 and 1985, by Country (High and Low Growth Rates)

Countries	1975			1985			1985		
	Manpower Requirement	Percent Shares		High Economic Growth Rates			Low Economic Growth Rates		
				Manpower Requirement	Percent Shares		Manpower Requirement	Percent Shares	
Algeria	3,083,000	31.7		4,511,000	29.4	46.3	3,954,000	28.1	28.3
Bahrain	79,000	0.8		151,000	1.0	89.9	129,000	0.9	63.3
Iraq	3,008,000	30.9		4,566,000	29.8	40.2	4,302,000	30.7	32.3
Kuwait	297,000	3.1		414,000	2.7	39.4	393,000	2.8	32.3
Libya	735,000	7.6		1,414,000	9.2	92.4	1,260,000	9.0	71.4
Oman	192,000	2.0		257,000	1.7	33.9	257,000	1.8	33.9
Qatar	74,000	0.7		136,000	0.9	83.8	133,000	0.9	79.7
Saudi Arabia	1,968,000	20.2		3,245,000	32.2	64.9	3,055,000	21.7	55.2
United Arab Emirates	292,000	3.0		632,000	4.1	116.4	570,000	4.1	95.2
TOTAL	9,728,000	100.0		15,326,000	100.0	57.5	14,053,000	100.0	44.5

SOURCE: Ibrahim, 1982:50

TABLE 4.10: Sectoral Composition and Growth of Total Manpower Requirements in the Eight Major Labor-Importing Countries, 1975, 1980 and 1985

	1975		1980		1985		Net Growth 1975-1985	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Agriculture Index	2,297,900	37.0	2,411,900	29.2	2,760,200	26.8	462,300	11.3
Mining and Quarrying Index	100.0		105.0		120.1			
	115,100	1.9	179,200	2.2	211,300	2.1	96,200	2.3
Manufacturing Index	100.0		155.6		183.6			
	399,200	6.4	612,200	7.4	920,800	8.9	521,600	12.7
Utilities Index	100.0		153.4		206.8			
	62,700	1.0	92,300	1.1	129,700	1.3	67,000	1.6
Construction Index	100.0		147.1		206.8			
	946,100	15.2	1,463,600	17.7	1,633,500	15.8	687,400	16.8
Trade & Finance Index	100.0		154.7		172.7			
	613,500	9.9	937,200	11.4	1,210,600	11.7	597,100	14.6
Transport & Communi- cations Index	100.0		152.8		197.3			
	312,300	5.0	505,800	6.1	579,200	5.6	266,800	6.5
Services Index	100.0		161.9		185.4			
	1,464,000	23.6	2,049,900	24.8	2,861,300	27.8	1,397,300	34.1
Total	100.0		140.0		195.4			
	6,210,800	100.0	8,251,900	100.0	10,306,600	100.0	4,095,700	100.0

SOURCE Birks and others, 1981:124

39 percent in 1985. Semi-skilled occupations are projected to decline from 28 percent in 1975 to 26 percent in 1985. All other occupations show a steadily increasing share over the projected period (Birks and others, 1981:125).

Increased formalization of international labor migration to the oil-rich countries indicates a rapid expansion in the share of expatriate workers from Southeast Asia. With the oil boom of the 1970s, a tendency developed which favored the importation of Asian workers to Arabs or other non-Arabs. This was the first time when the oil-rich states initiated a more selective approach in the employment of migrants. This is consistent with Birks and Sinclair's "second scenario"--A Selective Labor Market in the Capital-Rich States, Less Open to Arab Labour. This scenario projected that due to certain market trends, the number of Arabs working in the capital-rich states would remain constant and would not rise between 1975 and 1985 (Birks and Sinclair, 1980:157). In fact, the Arab expatriate's share of the labor market would fall from 75 percent in 1975 to 41 percent in 1985. On the other hand, Asian and oriental migrants were expected to increase in number from 292,000 in 1975 to 1,679,400 in 1985 (See Table 4.12). Birks and Sinclair believed that by 1985 the labor market of the Arab world would have dramatically changed from what it looked like in 1975 (Ibid:157).

TABLE 4.11: Occupational Composition and Growth of Total Manpower Requirements in the Eight Major Labor-Importing Countries, 1975, 1980 and 1985

	1975		1980		1985		Net Growth 1975-1985	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
A-1: Professional- Technical Occupa- tions Index	110,000 100.0	1.8	202,600 184.1	2.5	297,300 270.0	2.9	187,200	4.6
A-2: Other Profes- sional Occupations Index	250,100 100.0	4.0	399,600 159.7	4.8	563,400 225.2	5.5	313,300	7.6
B-1: Technician Occu- pations Index	190,400 100.0	3.1	334,300 175.6	4.1	476,700 250.4	4.6	286,300	7.0
B-2: Other Subprofes- sional Occupations Index	249,700 100.0	4.0	361,500 144.8	4.4	490,100 196.3	4.8	240,400	5.9
C-1: Skilled Office & Manual Occupations Index	923,400 100.0	14.9	1,353,100 146.5	16.4	1,750,220 189.5	17.0	826,800	20.2
C-2: Semiskilled Office & Manual Occupations Index	1,752,100 100.0	28.2	2,077,600 118.6	25.2	2,685,900 153.3	26.1	933,800	22.8
D: Unskilled Occupa- tions Index	2,735,000 100.0	44.0	3,523,300 128.8	42.7	4,043,000 147.8	39.2	1,307,900	31.9
Total	6,210,800	100.0	8,251,900	100.0	10,306,600	100.0	4,095,700	100.0

SOURCE: Birks and Others, 1981:126

Table 4.12: Resolution of Labor Demand and Supply: 1975 and 1985.
A More Selective Labor Market in the Capital-Rich
States, Less Open to Arab Labor

	1975	%	1985	%
Total Labor Demand	3,319,900	100.0	5,212,500	100.0
Of Which Nationals	1,670,800	50.3	2,156,500	41.4
Residual Demand for Migrants	1,649,100	100.0	3,056,000	100.0
Of Which Arabs	1,236,600	75.0	1,236,600	40.5
Asians	277,500	16.8	500,000	16.3
Orientals	14,600	0.9	1,179,400	38.6
Europeans and Americans	34,300	2.1	70,000	2.3
Iranians	86,100	5.2	70,000	2.3

SOURCE: Birks and Sinclair, 1980:158.

Based on the previous discussion, it is apparent that dependency on imported labor will, in all likelihood, continue into the foreseeable future. The oil-rich countries in the Arab world are passing through rapid social, economic, and population changes as a result of the oil boom, the government's development, and the need for services, such as education and health. These processes have contributed to a rapid increase in the volume of labor migration to these oil-rich countries. It is true that the discovery of oil has had a tremendous impact on the population structure.

This dependency by the labor-importing countries on expatriate labor raises critical questions and concerns about the future, in lieu of the fact that the high influx of expatriate labor over a short period of time has exceeded the native population in some areas and made the native population a minority in their own countries. Human contact on such a large scale will inevitably have an impact on the local population. Labor migrants bring with them their customs, language and their life styles. The population admixture of people from diverse cultural backgrounds serves to create a number of social problems, a phenomenon which has already occurred. Stress, conflict and tensions between different groups have emerged and the sheer volume of people demanding to be fed and housed, and provided with basic services is a serious challenge to the integrity of these

governments. Failure to meet this challenge successfully would allow inequalities and disparities to surface, a situation deemed highly undesirable.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The central problem, as stated earlier, was to examine Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the impact of foreign labor on Saudi society. In this chapter, seven hypotheses regarding the subject matter are postulated. Field methods, research questions, description of the study area and sampling strategy are explained, as are the methods used to analyze the data. The purpose of this research was to test the relationship, if any, between those variables that are expected to influence Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the presence and importation of foreign workers.

In the process of social change and modernization, attitudes of people are transformed, whether these attitudes pertain to the introduction of family planning, technology or other types of innovations. These attitudes are expected to vary from one category to another and may range from very positive to very negative.

Use of the direct impacts of change and modernization is on the socioeconomic position held by people. This is reflected by indicators such as the level of education, income and occupational achievements. These outcomes of

modernization shape the attitudes of people in a consistent manner. Inkeles (1969:212, 213) has emphasized that education is perhaps the most important of the influences moving men and women away from traditionalism toward modernity in developing countries.

Achievements of high levels of education, high income and high occupational status are associated with privileges in society that are different from those afforded persons with little education, low income, and low occupational status. Persons having the former achievements are concerned with the problems of their society's well-being as it relates to the positions they occupy and the information to which they have access. Such information may be important for their own assessment of their life conditions, but they have limited access to information available from communication networks.

McCanany (1980:19,20) has elaborated on the role of communication in social change by confirming that information made available through television and radio can easily promote development in the Third World countries. Those individuals with a broader view are those who also maintain cross-societal links through communication networks such as radio, television, newspapers, telephone and satellites. Thus, we can expect to find variables such as education, income, occupation and exposure to communication

systems helping to bring about more favorable attitudes toward the role of foreign labor in Saudi Society.

The other variables in this study, such as age, family size, and personal contact with foreign workers are less well grounded in previous theoretical studies. It was, however, one purpose of this study to find out whether they are meaningful variables. For example, it was postulated that at a younger age there is more receptiveness to social change and as a result less young people will have positive attitudes toward foreign workers.

The relationship between family size and attitudes toward foreign workers was approached from two levels. First, large family size may be a reflection of strong traditional values. Second, those with large families may have a vested interest in keeping opportunities open for their own kin and, therefore, the presence of foreign workers may constitute a threat.

Research Paradigm

The paradigm shown in Figure 5.1 portrays the processes which facilitate attitude formation concerning the presence of foreign labor and its societal impact. The effect of socioeconomic status on attitudes has been studied by researchers such as Lerner (1958), Rogers (1969), and others, but few scholars have investigated the impact of these socioeconomic effects on the attitudes toward foreign

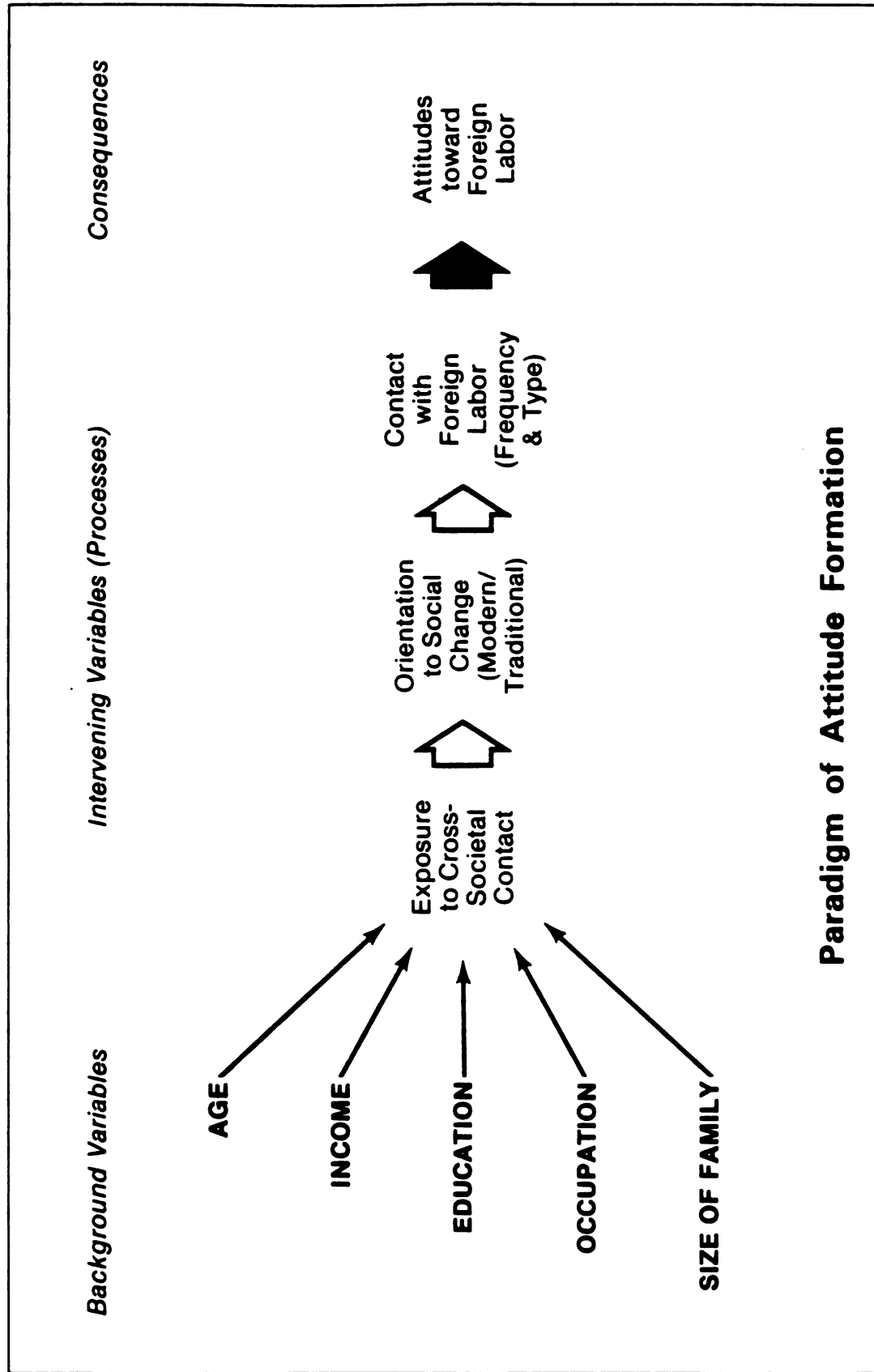


Figure 5.1: Paradigm of Attitude Formation

labor. The paradigm shows a number of factors which affect people's attitudes, including background variables such as age, income, level of education, occupation and family size and other intervening variables, such as exposure to cross-societal contact, orientation to social change, and contact with foreign labor. The consequences are attitudes toward foreign labor, whether positive or negative.

Socioeconomic Status (Background Variables)
and Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor

It is expected that people of high socioeconomic status (SES) are more likely to hold positive attitudes toward expatriate workers than those of lower SES. It is assumed that those of high SES are likely to enjoy advantages consistent with their status (education, travel abroad, the opportunity to employ others, etc.) that will provide them with exposure to cross-societal contacts and thus help to shape their attitudes toward people from other cultures, including foreign workers.

Exposure to Cross-Societal Contact
Contact with Foreign Labor (Intervening
Variables) and Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor

Previous studies have shown that exposure to cross-societal contact through mass media exposure and contact with the outside world are likely to produce receptiveness

to social change. As a consequence, people exposed to such contact will have positive attitudes toward foreign labor.

In order to investigate the Saudis' attitudes toward the impact of foreign labor on Saudi society, research was conducted using a survey questionnaire. The following questions were used to guide construction of the hypotheses and survey instrument:

1. What is the impact of foreign labor on Saudi society?
2. What are the major factors behind this great importation of foreign labor?
3. What is the role of foreign labor in the improvement of the Saudi economy?
4. What are the implications of foreign labor in Saudi Arabia in terms of dependency?
5. What are the Saudi citizens' attitudes towards the presence of huge numbers of imported foreign laborers?
6. What is the significance of differences in attitude toward foreign workers (if any) and Saudi socioeconomic occupational groups?
7. Can improvement of education (formal, vocational, technical) among the indigenous population reduce the dependency on foreign labor?
8. Will increasing the level of citizen participation in the labor force have a positive impact on reducing the need for imported foreign labor?
9. Would increased utilization of a major indigenous human resource, women, reduce reliance on imported foreign labor?
10. What are the consequences of the presence of large numbers of foreign workers for the indigenous Saudi labor force?

11. What types of long-term planning are being developed to train indigenous labor resources?

The answers to these questions were considered essential in evaluating Saudi attitudes toward the impact of foreign labor on Saudi society. Accordingly, the survey was designed to elicit helpful information toward assessing the positive as well as the negative consequences resulting from large numbers of expatriate workers.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses, which were based on a review of the literature on foreign labor and international labor migration, and the paradigm, served to guide the researcher's inquiry into the impact of foreign labor on Saudi society.

Hypothesis I:

The younger their age, the more favorable will be Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the presence of foreign workers in Saudi Arabia.

Hypothesis II:

The higher their level of education, the more favorable will be Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the presence of foreign workers.

Hypothesis III:

The higher their income, the more favorable will be Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the importation of foreign workers.

Hypothesis IV:

Saudi citizens in professional occupations will be found to hold more favorable attitudes than Saudi non-professionals, toward the importation of foreign labor.

Hypothesis V:

The larger their family size, the less favorable will be Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the importation of foreign workers.

Hypothesis VI:

Saudi citizens with more exposure to cross-societal contacts are likely to have more favorable attitudes toward the presence of foreign workers than those with less or no cross-societal exposure.

Hypothesis VII:

Saudi citizens who have more contact with foreign workers are likely to have more favorable attitudes towards the presence of foreign workers than those with little or no contact.

Description of the Study Area

Jeddah city was selected as the study area because it is considered to be one of the cities most absorptive of foreign labor in Saudi Arabia. It has one of the country's largest airports, through which the majority of foreign workers find their way into the country. Its accessible location has contributed positively to its rate of growth, as well as its population size, giving Jeddah a large concentration of foreign labor.

Jeddah is situated in western Saudi Arabia on a coastal plain east of the Red Sea at 21° 30' north and 37° 12' east (See Figure 5.2). Its location enables it to dominate the western region, since it has the major international airport, seaport, and major wholesaling and retailing facilities for the region (Al-Ghamdi, 1981:4). As the main transit point for most travelers making their pilgrimages to the Holy City of Mekkah, it provides comprehensive services not only for the western region, but also for the whole country (Ibid).

Within the last decade, Jeddah has experienced growth that has more than doubled its population. In 1971 the population was estimated at 381,000; it may now exceed 800,000 (Ministry of Interior, 1972). Of the present population, about 47 percent are Saudis and 53 percent non-Saudis (Ministry of Municipality and Rural Affairs, 1980). Table 5.1 shows that between 1978-1983 the percentage of foreign population residing in Jeddah has consistently exceeded 50 percent of the total. The large influx of foreign immigrants has brought the non-Saudi component of the population to over half of Jeddah's total residents, making Saudi citizens a minority in one of their own major cities (Atiyah, 1984:107). Figure 5.3 shows that the trend of high population growth is likely to continue in Jeddah. The growth of Jeddah is related to a variety of job opportunities in the metropolitan area that have led people

TABLE 5.1: Saudi and Non-Saudi Population of Jeddah City
(1978-1983)

Date	Total	Saudi	%	Non-Saudi	%
1978 (Socio-Economic Survey)	916,000	432,000	47.2	484,000	52.8
1980 (Start of first year of Third Development Plan)	1,037,000	479,000	46.2	558,000	52.8
1981 (End of first year of Third Development Plan)	1,118,000	528,000	47.2	590,000	52.8
1982 (End of second year of Third Development Plan)	1,201,000	579,000	48.2	622,000	51.8
1983 (End of third year of Third Development Plan)	1,285,000	631,000	49.1	654,000	50.9

Note: Figures are to nearest 1,000

1980-1983 figures are projections

SOURCE: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs, Deputy Minister for Town Planning.

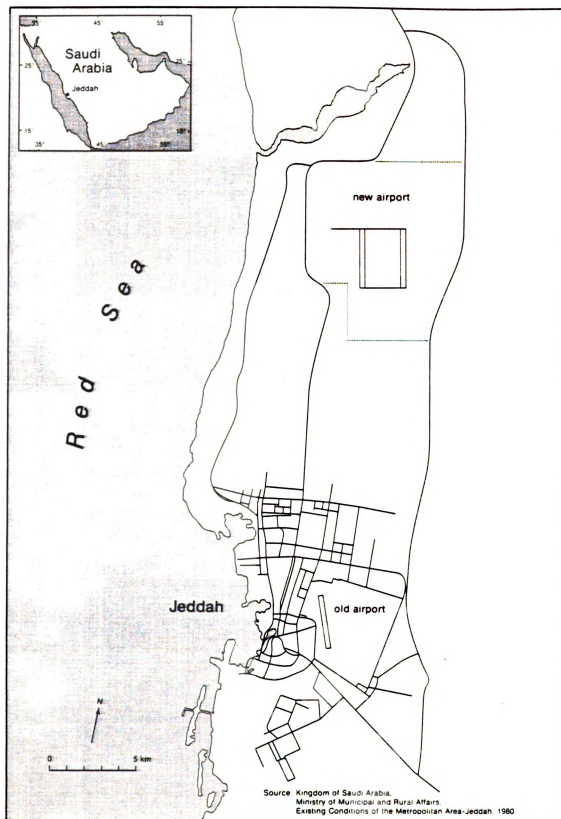


Figure 5.2: The Study Area - Jeddah City

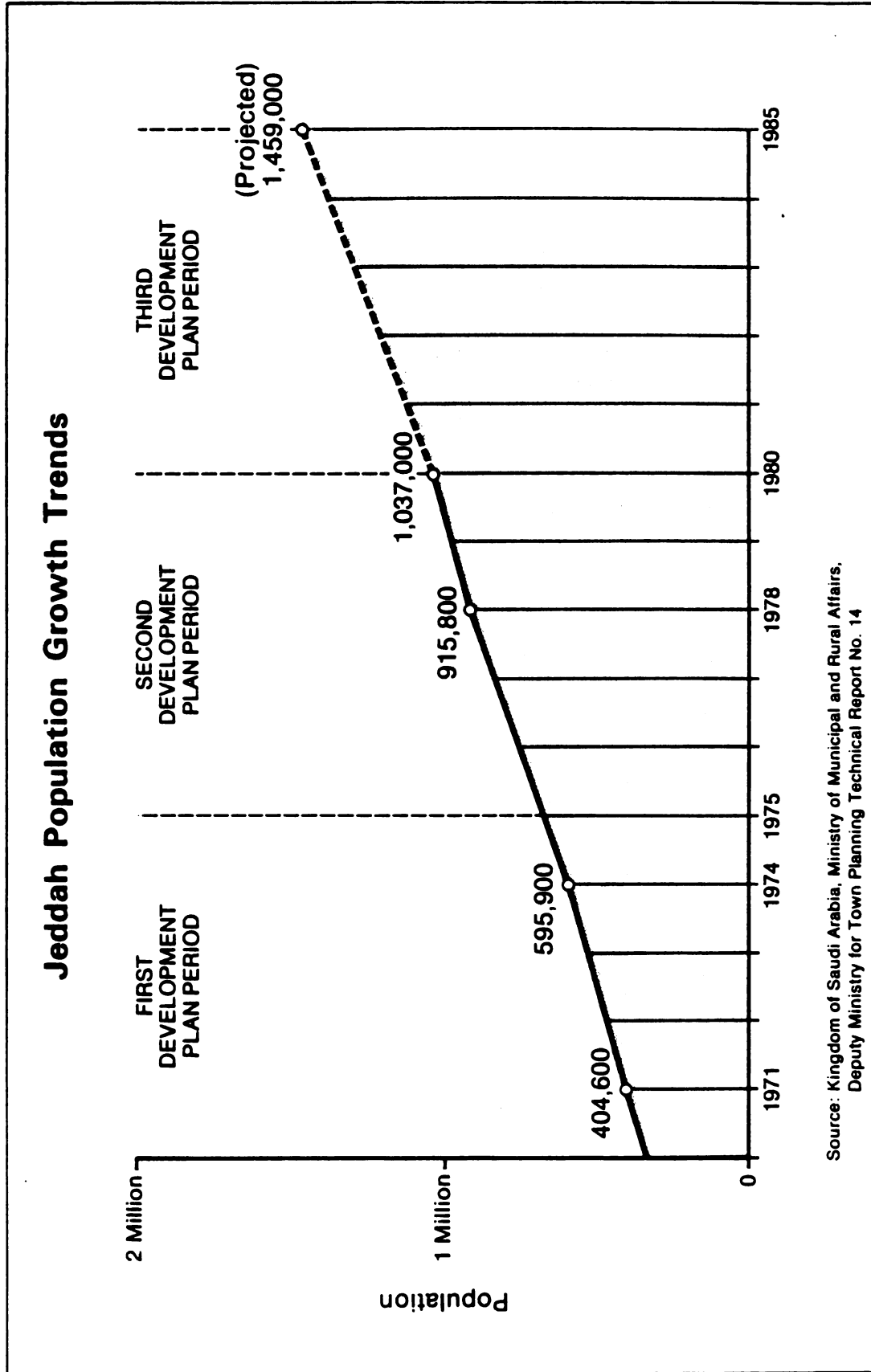


Figure 5.3: Jeddah Population Growth Trends

to migrate to the city from rural areas, from a number of neighboring Arab countries and from other countries such as Africa, India, Pakistan and Southeast Asia.

Population and Sampling Strategy

In order to investigate the impact of foreign labor on Saudi society, a field survey in Jeddah was conducted sponsored by the Ministry of Higher Education in Saudi Arabia. Appropriate questionnaires were prepared to elicit the necessary data (See Appendix A) and distributed to sample subjects. In order to obtain representative opinion data on the subjects of the study, the research population comprised three segments of Jeddah's population: private businessmen, government employees, and Social Security recipients. These groups were selected to represent three socioeconomic levels in Saudi society, the upper, middle, and lower income classes, respectively. The lower income group consisted of those with incomes less than 40,000 SR*, the middle group consisted of those with incomes about 40,000 and less than 60,000 SR and the upper income group comprised those with incomes of 60,000 SR and over.

*One United States dollar equals 3.5 Saudi Riyals

To get the widest possible diversity within these groups, given the limited time and resources available, a total of 600 sample subjects were selected. The distribution of these sample subjects is shown in Table 5.2. To obtain subjects representative of the upper class group (businessmen), assistance was sought from the branch office of the Ministry of Commerce and Trading located in Jeddah. Their list of all Saudi businessmen holding official certificates (to do business) was used as a sample frame from which the 200 subjects noted in Table 5.2 were drawn at random (using the ten thousand randomly assorted digits table).

TABLE 5.2: Distribution of Sample Subjects

Classification	Number to be Randomly Selected
Businessmen (upper class)	200
Government Employees (middle class)	300
Social Security Beneficiaries (lower class)	100
Total	600

Sample government employees, representing the middle income group, were selected from 20 government ministries in Saudi Arabia, which have offices in each major city (outside the political capital). Each of the ministry offices in Jeddah was contacted and lists of all Saudi employees in the branches were obtained with the help of the branch managers. Since some agencies had more employees than others, the total number selected from each ministry's branch office was calculated proportionately and the 300 sample subjects representing this socioeconomic group (middle class) were drawn on a proportionate and random basis. The emphasis on selecting a proportionate percentage from each branch was to assume, as much as possible, a fair and equal representation so that no government branch was under- or over-represented. Specific sample subjects from each agency were then drawn randomly (using the ten thousand randomly assorted digits table).

Finally, for the lower class group (Social Security beneficiaries) the Social Security office located in Jeddah city was contacted. The Social Security office handles assistance to all low income individuals needing government financial aid, including the aged, the unemployed, the handicapped and those who may be employed but unable to earn enough to sustain their families. A list which included the number of all Social Security beneficiaries was used as a

sample frame from which 100 sample subjects were drawn at random (using the ten thousand randomly assorted digits table).

Definition and Measurement of Variables

The term "attitude," as it is used in this study, refers to the stands people take on controversial issues. Upshaw (1969:60) points out that, whether implicitly or explicitly, discussion of social attitudes usually focuses on three classes of phenomena. One of these is cognitive in nature and refers to an individual's information regarding an issue. Another is behavioral and refers to the acts which an individual performs, advocates or facilitates with regard to an issue. The third phenomenon is affective and refers to the individual's valuations. The dependent variable in this study was attitude toward the impact of foreign labor on Saudi society. Of the measurement techniques used to measure social attitudes, the Guttman Scalogram was chosen to measure attitudes toward foreign labor. The results of the scalogram analysis will be discussed in the following chapter.

The socioeconomic characteristics employed as independent variables were: age, level of education, level of income, type of occupation, and size of family. The survey questionnaire completed by sample subjects included questions to elicit information about these variables among

the target population. Possible responses to the questions about individuals ranged from 1 to 6, with 1 corresponding to earnings of less than 30,000 SR and 6 corresponding to earnings over 70,000 SR. For individual educational attainment, possible responses ranged from 1 (no formal education) to 6 (college education or higher). Responses to family size ranged from 1 (one person) to 6 (twelve or more persons). Individual age groups ranged from 1 (less than 24 years) to 8 (50 years and above). Occupational responses included businessmen (a), government employees (b), and Social Security beneficiaries (c).

For ease of cross-tabulation analysis, potential response to all these independent variables was combined to reduce them to three response categories for each variable. The eight age groups, for example, were reduced to three age categories of (a) 28 years and under, (b) 29-39 years and (c) over 40 years. Education responses were divided into three levels: low (no formal education or elementary school only), average (middle or high school) and high (college or higher). Income responses were reduced to three categories of low (30,000 to 40,000 SR), medium (41,000 to 70,000 SR), and high (70,000 SR or more) annual income. Family sizes included small (2 people or less), medium (3-5 people), and large (more than 5 people).

Instrumentation

Through careful review of the literature, it was determined that there were no existing instruments which could appropriately serve the purposes of this study. Although instruments exist to measure the attitudes of different socioeconomic groups toward a wide variety of variables, none seemed to be appropriate to the target population's unique situation in a society undergoing change at an unprecedented speed.

Therefore, in order to examine the attitudes of different Saudi groups toward the impact of foreign labor in their society, a questionnaire containing 51 questions was designed by the researcher for this study. The first seven items asked for information on the socioeconomic status of the three groups under study. Questions 3 through 12 asked about the subjects' exposure to areas outside their city. Questions 13 through 20 asked about direct contact with foreign labor, including frequency of contact, employment of foreign workers and satisfaction with foreign employees' performance. Questions 21 through 23 asked for opinions regarding different nationality groups and nationality groups with which respondents felt most comfortable. Questions 24 through 28 examined their exposure to foreign mass media (frequency with which they watched foreign broadcasts, read foreign newspapers, etc).

The last section of the survey instrument (questions 29 through 51) were designed to elicit respondents' attitudes toward the impact of foreign labor on the Saudi society. Questions in this section dealt with the positive and negative impacts of foreign labor. To measure the respondents' attitudes toward the positive impact of foreign labor, items assessed attitudes toward (a) the salutary effect of the foreign labor force on the Saudi economy, (b) the necessity for foreign workers to overcome local shortages of native workers. Possible responses to these questions ranged from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Other questions were asked to measure the respondents' attitudes toward the negative impact of foreign labor. Three questions covered such issues as (a) the harmful effects the presence of a large foreign work force has had on the society's traditions and customs; (b) the threat to the spiritual values of the Saudi society created by the presence of large numbers of non-Moslem foreign workers; (c) the pressure the large imported labor force has put on local public services, like education, health care and transportation; and (d) the effects of the foreign workers in Saudi Arabia on the availability and costs of housing. The responses to these items ranged from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."

Data Collection

Data collection was accomplished by using the survey questionnaire (Appendix B) which was administered in written form to those whose responses could be obtained in writing. Persons who were illiterate were administered the questionnaire orally. Since the native language of the respondents is Arabic, the questionnaire, which was written in English, was translated into Arabic. The responses were then translated back into English. The back translation procedure is used to insure that words are translated accurately. It is also a way to determine the extent to which words and phrases used as equivalents convey equivalent meanings across two languages and cultures.

Before starting the data collection phase of the study, the researcher secured the permission and support of the Saudi Ministry of Higher Education and an official letter asking appropriate agencies to cooperate in the research. The researcher administered the survey with the help of six senior students from the Sociology Department at King Abdulaziz University. The students were given training in conducting interviews before starting the fieldwork to facilitate the use of standard techniques and make sure they knew the objectives of the survey. The students were also asked to read the questions very carefully and simplify

them, if necessary, for those respondents who needed to have the questionnaire administered orally.

Of 600 questionnaires distributed, 508 were returned and of those 508 were found to be usable (19 were incomplete). Data collection was done between March and June of 1984, which was a period when most employed persons could be found at their work sites.

Some methodological problems were encountered while collecting the data. First, despite preplanning to avoid popular vacation periods and the like, the absence of businessmen from their offices inhibited data collection. It was very difficult to contact some of them who frequently traveled outside the country or ran their businesses entirely by phone or on-site foreign labor. Another problem was due to the respondents' varied levels of understanding. Those in the Social Security group needed more help than others, and some interviewers had difficulty obtaining responsive answers to oral questions even after multiple repetitions and simplifying them as much as possible.

Additional data to supplement the survey results were collected from the following agencies:

- (1) Office of Imported Labor in the Ministry of Interior in Saudi Arabia, which issues visas for imported workers;

(2) Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs in Saudi Arabia, which provided information on labor and employment law; and

(3) The Arab Planning Institute in Kuwait, which collects, analyzes and makes available information about foreign labor in the Gulf states.

The researcher had planned to visit the International Labor Organization (ILO) archives in Geneva, Switzerland, where certain information is made available about foreign labor throughout the world. However, during a research trip to Kuwait, it was found that most of the ILO documents and seminar and conference materials were available at the Arab Planning Institute because of the cooperation between the two organizations.

Statistical Analysis

Following data collection, the answers were tabulated coded. Completeness and reliability were checked and the information was transferred to computer cards. The researcher carried out the tabulation coding procedure with the assistance of colleagues who were experienced in this field.

To examine the attitudes of the three respondent groups toward the impact of foreign labor on their community, frequency analysis, correlation coefficients, and cross-tabulation techniques were used. The Michigan State

University computer was employed to analyze the subjects' responses. The results and findings derived from that analysis are reported in the following chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

Through responses to the survey conducted in Jeddah City to assess the attitudes of the Saudi businessmen, government employees, and Social Security beneficiaries toward the influx of foreign labor on Saudi society, various aspects of the impact of expatriate labor were examined using the statistical techniques detailed in the previous chapter. Discussion in this chapter is focused on (1) the socioeconomic status of the respondents and relationships among the background variables; (2) frequency distribution and intercorrelation of the dependent variables (attitudes); (3) measurement techniques and scale validation; and (4) the relationship between the socioeconomic factors and the attitude variables.

The Socioeconomic Status of Respondents

The first part of the questionnaire was designed to elicit demographic characteristics of the three groups of subjects under study, such as age, income, level of education, occupation, family size and marital status.

The survey results summarized in Table 6.1 reveal that the majority of respondents (51.8 percent) was between the ages of 25 and 39. The next largest group was those aged 40 and over (38.9 percent). These two groups comprised over 90 percent of the respondents, leaving less than 10 percent in the under 25 category.

TABLE 6.1: Distribution of the Respondents by Age

Age Group	Absolute Frequency (N)	Relative Frequency (%)
20-24	48	9.3
25-29	99	19.5
30-34	94	18.5
35-39	70	13.8
40-44	76	15.0
45-49	43	8.5
More than 50	78	15.4
Total	508	100.0

Roughly, 85 percent of the respondents reported that they were married. A high marriage rate is the usual situation in Saudi Arabia as a whole, where people of both sexes tend to marry early. Considering this tendency toward early marriage, it is not surprising that about 70 percent of the sample reported a family size of

three to nine people. Eight percent of the respondents reported a family size larger than nine people.

Table 6.2 shows that the majority of the respondents (58 percent) had completed high school or a college education, either undergraduate or higher. Roughly 16 percent had completed only a middle school education and 12 percent had not gone beyond elementary school. Only 12.8 percent of the respondents reported that they had no formal education. The percentage of those who had completed high school or college and university programs was high because most of the respondents were working in government agencies and were required to have at least a high school education in order to qualify for employment.

TABLE 6.2: Distribution of the Respondents by Level of Education

Level of Education	Absolute Frequency (N)	Relative Frequency (%)
No formal education	65	12.8
Elementary	62	12.2
Middle School	85	16.7
High School	118	23.2
College	159	31.3
Higher Education	19	3.7
Total	508	100.0

The survey results summarized in Table 6.3 reveal that one-third (33.1 percent) of the respondents earned more than \$70,000 a year, while 18 percent of the subjects made \$61,000 to \$70,000 a year; 13 percent made \$51,000 to \$60,000; 10 percent made \$41,000 to \$50,000; 12 percent made \$30,000 to \$40,000 and only 13 percent of the respondents made less than \$30,000 a year. The majority of the respondents (51.6 percent) fell within the top two income categories because most of the respondents were either government officials (52.4 percent) or businessmen (29.7 percent), so it was not surprising that income levels overall were relatively high. It should be kept in mind, also, that the study site was a major urban locale and these high income levels would not be found in rural villages or among Bedouin tribes.

TABLE 6.3: Distribution of the Respondents by Income Group

Income Group	Absolute Frequency (N)	Relative Frequency (%)
Less than \$30,000	67	13.2
\$30,000 to \$40,000	59	11.6
\$41,000 to \$50,000	52	10.2
\$51,000 to \$60,000	68	13.4
\$61,000 to \$70,000	94	18.5
More than \$70,000	168	33.1
Total	508	100.0

The survey results summarized in Table 6.4 show that the majority of the respondents (54 percent) were government employees working in various official capacities. The next largest occupational group was businessmen, who comprised over 29 percent of the respondents. Only 16.4 percent of the respondents reported that they were Social Security beneficiaries. This occupational group was receiving financial assistance from the government through the Social Security office, which handles functions analogous to both the welfare agencies and the Social Security offices in the U.S.

TABLE 6.4: Distribution of Respondents by Type of Occupation

Type of Occupation	Absolute Frequency (N)	Relative Frequency (%)
Businessmen	149	29.1
Government Employee	275	54.1
Social Security Beneficiaries	84	16.4
Total	508	100.0

Relationships Among Background Variables

Age, Income, Education, Occupation and Family Size

This section will be used to examine the relationships, if any, between the background variables pertinent to this study. As discussed in Chapter Five, these background variables were divided into three categories. Age groups were combined into (a) those 28 years and under, (b) those 29-39 and (c) those 40 years and older. Educational attainment was classified low, average or high. Income included levels of low, medium and high, and family sizes included (a) 2 or less people, (b) 3-5 people, and (c) more than 5 people.

In Table 6.5, a significant negative relationship is shown between age and levels of education, that is, the greater the age, the lower the level of education. This relationship, especially in the 40+ age group, can be expected given the rapid expansion and improvement of the educational system and the emphasis placed on education by the Saudi government in the last two decades.

Table 6.6 shows a significant positive relationship between age and income level. In general, the greater the age, the greater the income. There was a significant variation from expectation in each income category, with a large part of it occurring in the low income category. More

TABLE 6.5: Age of Respondents by Level of Education (in Percents)

Age Group	<u>Level of Education</u>		
	Low (N=127)	Average (N=203)	High (N=178)
28 & under (N=147)	5.5	31.5	42.7
29-39 (N=164)	8.7	38.9	41.6
40+ (N=197)	85.8	29.6	15.7
Totals (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-Squares = 167.00; Degrees of Freedom = 4; Sig.=.05;
Gamma = -.61

of the group aged 40 and over fell into the low income category than was expected, while very few of the 29-39 year olds had low incomes and somewhat fewer than expected of the 28 year olds and under had low incomes. Additionally, fewer of the 40 and over group had higher incomes than expected, more of the 29-39 year olds had medium incomes than expected and fewer of the over 40 age group were at the medium income levels. These variations may be explained by the tendency toward skilled jobs which works to the advantage of the people who were under 40 years old in the job market.

Table 6.7 illustrates the relationship between age and type of occupation. We can see that more of the over 40 and fewer of the under 40 subjects were Social Security

TABLE 6.6: Age of Respondents by Level of Income (in Percents)

Age Group	<u>Level of Income</u>		
	Low (N=126)	Medium (N=214)	High (N=168)
28 & under (N=147)	27.8	39.3	16.7
29-39 (N=164)	9.5	36.4	44.0
40+	62.7	24.3	39.7
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-Square = 75.40; Degrees of Freedom = 4;
Sig.=.05 level

beneficiaries than would be expected by chance. The youngest group tended more heavily toward government employment than expected and the over 40 group had fewer government employees than would be expected. It is obvious that the majority of those on Social Security were 40 or older, while most of the government officials were under 40. This can be explained by the government's policy toward educating more people to fill the requirements of the expanding bureaucratic government structure. It is clear from this table that there was a relationship between age and type of occupation with chi-square 16.59 (4 df, .05).

TABLE 6.7: Age of Respondents by Type of Occupation (in Percent)

Age Group	Type of Occupation		
	Business-men (N=149)	Government Officials (N=275)	Social Security Beneficiaries (N=84)
28 & under (N=147)	14.8	44.7	2.4
29-39 (N=164)	43.6	35.3	2.4
40+ (N=197)	41.6	20.0	95.2
Totals (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 178.83; Degrees of Freedom = 4;
Sig. = .05 level

Table 6.8 shows the relationship between age and size of family. Most of the variation from the expected occurred in the families of two persons or less and those of more than five persons. The over-40 respondents tended to have the largest sized families, while those under 29 tended to have the smallest families. This is the general situation in Saudi Arabia where older people tend to have large sized families. The table shows a relationship between age and family size, with chi-square 100.62 (4 df, x.05).

TABLE 6.8: Age of Respondents by Size of Family (in Percent)

Age Group	Family Size		
	2 or less (N=106)	3-5 (N=205)	More than 5 (N=196)
28 & under (N=146)	56.6	29.3	13.3
29-39 (N=164)	28.3	41.3	25.0
40+ (N=197)	15.1	29.3	61.7
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 100.62; Degrees of Freedom = 4;
Sig. = .05 level; Gamma = .55

Table 6.9 reveals a significant relationship between level of education and level of income, that is, the higher the level of education, the greater the income. Those with a low level education accounted for most of the variation from expectation, with most of them having low incomes and few of them receiving high incomes. The medium income group tended to be made up of average and highly educated respondents. The high income group tended to comprise respondents at an average education level. However, one would expect low education to be associated with low income, etc. Overall, the table shows a clustering at the middle income level with more highly educated and fewer low educated respondents in this income bracket.

TABLE 6.9: Level of Education of Respondents by Level of Income (in Percent)

Level of Education	Level of Income		
	Low (N=126)	Medium (N=214)	High (N=168)
Low (N=127)	69.0	9.3	11.9
Average (N=203)	23.0	42.1	50.0
High (N=178)	7.9	48.6	38.1
Totals (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-Square = 181.90; Degrees of Freedom = 4;
Sig. = .05 level; Gamma = .46

The relationship between level of education and type of occupation is shown in Table 6.10. Most of the variation occurred in the Social Security category, most of whom had only low level education. Most of the government officials tended to have high or average levels of education. This can be explained by the fact that the majority of the Social Security group tend to have only non-formal education, while the government officials tended to have had at least elementary level formal education in order to qualify to work for the government. Most of the business group tended to have an average education which is required to enable them to run their businesses. These variations can be

explained by the fact that some occupations either require or tend to attract people with particular educational attainments. Hence, level of education is related to type of occupation.

TABLE 6.10: Respondents' Level of Education by Type of Occupation (in Percent)

Level of Education	Type of Occupation		
	Business-men (N=149)	Government Officials (N=275)	Social Security Beneficiaries (N=84)
Low (N=127)	20.8	6.9	91.7
Average (N=203)	57.0	40.7	7.1
High (N=178)	22.1	52.4	1.2
Totals (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0
Chi-square = 278.03; Degrees of Freedom = 4; Sig. = .05			

Table 6.11 indicates a significant negative relationship between level of education and size of family, most of the variation occurring in the group with the smallest sized families. In general, the higher the educational level, the smaller the family size. Most small sized families are among the highly educated, while most of

those with the largest families had low or average education. People with smaller families may be able to expend more resources on each of their children to support them in attaining higher levels of education.

TABLE 6.11: Respondents' Level of Education by Family Size
(In percent)

Level of Education	Family Size		
	2 or Less (N=106)	3-5 (N=205)	More than 5 (N=196)
Low (N=127)	9.4	22.0	36.7
Average (N=203)	29.2	42.9	42.9
High (N=177)	61.3	35.1	20.4
Totals (N=507)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 58.67; Degrees of Freedom = 4;
Sig.=.05; Gamma = -.44

Table 6.12 shows the relationship between level of income and type of occupation. Most of the variation occurs in the Social Security and businessmen categories. Businessmen have high incomes while Social Security recipients have low income levels. Government officials tend to have medium income levels. Hence, there is a

significant relationship between level of income and type of occupation.

TABLE 6.12: Level of Income of Respondents by Type of Occupation (In Percent)

Level of Income	Type of Occupation		
	Businessmen (N=149)	Government Officials (N=275)	Social Security Beneficiaries (N=84)
Low (N=126)	0.0	18.2	90.5
Medium (N=214)	20.8	64.0	8.3
High (N=168)	79.2	17.8	1.2
Totals (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 398.97; Degrees of Freedom = 4;
Sig. = .05 level

Table 6.13 shows the distribution of family size by income group. Level of income is not found significantly related to family size. In Saudi Arabia, level of income does not determine the size of family because, traditionally, people in Saudi Arabia tend to marry early and have large families despite their level of income. This situation does not apply in the West.

TABLE 6.13: Respondents' Level of Income by Family Size (in Percent)

Level of Income	2 or Less (N=106)	<u>Family Size</u>	
		3-5 (N=205)	More than 5 (N=196)
Low (N=126)	20.8	38.9	28.1
Medium (N=213)	50.9	43.9	35.2
High (N=168)	28.3	32.2	36.7
Totals (N=507)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 7.52; Degrees of Freedom = 4; Sig. = n.s.

Table 6.14 shows the relationship between type of occupation and family size. Most of the variation from the expected occurs here in the smallest and largest family groups. Government officials tended to have smaller families than the other occupational groups. This may be explained by the fact that most of the government officials are highly educated, knowledgeable about family planning programs, and more likely to adopt such programs. Thus, the table indicates that type of occupation is related to family size.

TABLE 6.14: Respondents' Type of Occupation by Family Size
(in Percent)

Type of Occupation	2 or less (N = 106)	Family Size		More than 5 (N=196)
		3-5 (N=205)		
Businessmen (N=149)	22.6	28.3		34.2
Government Officials (N=274)	67.9	55.6		49.9
Social Security Beneficiaries (N=84)	9.4	16.1		20.9
Totals (N=507)	100.0	100.0		100.0

Chi-square = 15.68; Degrees of Freedom = 4;
Sig. = at .05 level

In examining the relationships between background variables, significant relationships were found between such socioeconomic variables as age and level of education, age and level of income, age and occupation, and age and family size. There were significant positive relationships between level of education and level of income, and level of education and type of occupation. A significant negative relationship was found for level of education and family size. While there was not a significant relationship between income and family size, there was a relationship between type of occupation and both occupation and family size.

Attitude Variables

In order to gain an understanding of the respondents' attitudes toward foreign labor, the attitude variables were classified into three categories or groups to simplify the analysis.

Category 1--Foreign Labor as a Mutual Need and Positive Influence

This category included attitude questions which suggested that the presence of foreign labor in Saudi Arabia was a need of both the sending and receiving countries and had a positive impact on Saudi society. This category included the following items in Section II of the questionnaire: (Q1) Saudi Arabia has foreign labor because it needs it; (Q2) foreign laborers can't earn enough at home; (Q3) foreign labor has helped improve the Saudi economy; (Q4) foreign labor has solved local labor shortages; (Q18) continued need of foreign labor is expected; (Q20) the foreign labor presence has improved Saudi training; (Q21) Saudi Arabia needs all the foreign labor it now has; (Q23) foreign labor does not affect crime rates.

Category 2--Solutions to Foreign Labor Problems

This category dealt with attitude items that suggested solutions for developing and utilizing native human resources and slowing down the influx of foreign labor. It included the following attitude questions: (Q5) increased participation of local people; (Q6) increased participation of women; (Q10) develop local human resources; (Q17) improvement of the educational system; and (Q19) efforts to slow down the influx of foreign labor.

Category 3--Sphere of Negative Influence of Foreign Labor

This category dealt with attitude questions suggesting that the presence of foreign labor has social/economic impacts on Saudi society. This category included the following attitude items: (Q7) impact on traditions and customs; (Q8) impact on family relationships; (Q9) impact on spiritual values; (Q11) pressure on public services, (Q12) crowded traffic conditions; (Q13) increasing inflation; (Q14) increasing rents and shortages of housing; (Q15) declining productivity of Saudi labor force; (Q16) extravagance of Saudis employing foreign servants; (Q22) increased crime rates.

Descriptive Analysis of Attitude Variables

Table 6.15 shows the means and standard deviations of attitude variable response frequencies by type of attitude variable. It is clear from the table that the most agreement and least agreement occurred in the category of variables that provide solutions to foreign labor problems. These responses indicated strong agreement among the respondents that there are problems associated with the presence of foreign labor. Agreement characterized 89.9 percent of the responses on average, while disagreement was only 6.6 percent. There were also very few "don't know" responses (3.6 percent).

The next most popular attitude variable group was that indicating that foreign labor has a negative influence, with averages of 83.6 percent agreement, 11.5 percent disagreement and 4.9 percent "don't know" responses to questions about the negative influence of foreign labor.

The least agreement and most disagreement was expressed toward the group of variables which viewed foreign labor as a mutual need and positive influence, with 59 percent agreeing and 28 percent disagreeing. This group of questions also obtained the largest average of "don't know" responses, nearly 13 percent of the respondents were less sure about positive influences than they were about negative influences.

TABLE 6.15: Means and Standard Deviations (SD) of Attitude Variables

Type of Attitude Variable		Agree	Don't Know	Disagree
1.Foreign labor as a mutual need and positive influence	Mean (S.D.)	300.1 (164.8)	64.5 (34.2)	142.4 (134.4)
2. Solutions to foreign labor problems	Mean (S.D.)	455.6 (65.8)	18.0 (15.4)	33.2 (51.9)
3. Foreign labor as a negative influence	Mean (S.D.)	423.6 (38.6)	24.7 (17.6)	58.2 (28.9)
All Attitude Variables	Mean (S.D.)	387.6 (120.3)	37.1 (31.1)	82.0 (93.3)

Table 6.16 shows the frequency distribution for the first group of attitude questions suggesting that foreign labor is a mutual/dependency need and positive influence. When the respondents were asked to indicate whether the existence of foreign labor in Saudi Arabia was a result of the country's need, about 89 percent of the respondents agreed, with 87 percent also agreeing that it had solved labor shortage problems. Most respondents (83 percent) agreed that foreign labor migrates to Saudi Arabia because

TABLE 6.16: Frequency Distribution to Attitude Questions Suggesting that Foreign Labor is a Mutual/Dependency Need and Positive Influence

Attitude Questions	Agree	Don't Know	Dis-Agree
S.A. has foreign labor because it needs it (Q1)	89.2% (452)	4.1% (21)	6.7% (35)
Foreign laborers can't earn enough at home (Q2)	83.4% (423)	8.7% (44)	7.9% (40)
Foreign labor has helped improve Saudi economy (Q3)	68.6% (348)	15.6% (79)	15.8% (80)
Foreign labor has solved local labor shortages (Q4)	86.8% (440)	4.9% (25)	8.3% (42)
Continued need of foreign labor is expected (Q18)	62.5% (316)	12.8% (65)	24.7% (125)
Foreign labor presence has improved Saudi training (Q20)	63.9% (324)	14.0% (71)	22.1% (112)
S.A. needs all the foreign labor it now has (Q21)	17.6% (89)	17.2% (87)	65.2% (331)
Foreign labor does not affect crime rates (Q23)	1.8% (9)	24.4% (124)	73.8% (374)
Mean	300.1	64.5	142.4
S.D.	164.8	34.2	134.4

of low wages and living conditions in the home countries, but fewer of them (69 percent) were willing to agree that foreign labor had contributed to the improvement of the Saudi economy or contributed positively to effective training of the Saudi labor force (64 percent). Only 63 percent believed that dependence on foreign workers would continue in the coming year. Respondents disagreed (65 percent) with the statement that all foreign labor currently in Saudi Arabia was necessary and 74 percent disagreed that the presence of foreign labor has no effect on the crime rate.

Table 6.17 shows the frequency distribution for responses to the attitude questions incorporating potential solutions to the foreign labor problem. The most popular solutions for curbing the huge influx of foreign labor were through improved education (99 percent), increased participation of local people (79 percent) and government programs to develop human resources (97 percent). Eighty-nine percent of respondents agreed that an effort must be made to slow down the influx of foreign labor. The least popular solution was to increase women's participation in some governmental agencies and the labor market, but even this solution obtained 68 percent agreement--with 24.5 percent of respondents disagreeing and 7.9 percent undecided. It seems that the negative impacts of the foreign work force has led to a change in the traditionally

TABLE 6.17: Frequency Distribution to Attitude Questions Suggesting Solutions to the Problem

Attitude Questions	Agree	Don't Know	Dis-agree
Increased participation of local people (Q5)	96.6% (490)	2.2% (11)	1.2% (6)
Increased participation of women (Q6)	67.7% (343)	7.9% (40)	24.5% (124)
Develop local human resources (Q10)	96.6% (489)	2.6% (13)	0.8% (4)
Improve Education (Q17)	99.4% (504)	0.0% (0)	0.6% (3)
Must slow down influx (Q19)	89.2% (452)	5.1% (26)	5.7% (29)
Mean	455.6	18.0	33.2
Standard Deviation	65.8	15.4	51.9

negative attitudes of Saudis toward women working outside their homes.

In Table 6.18 is the frequency distribution for attitude questions in a third group of questions which suggested that foreign labor had negative social and economic influences. It is clear from the table that the greatest areas of agreement on the types of negative impacts that foreign labor had in Saudi Arabia were in order of highest agreement-negative effects on traffic conditions (94 percent), pressure on public services (92 percent), impact on traditions and customs (90 percent), impact on relationships with the family (89 percent), increasing rents and housing shortages (87 percent), crime rates (82 percent), extravagance of Saudis employing foreign servants (80 percent). Areas of less agreement were concerns of negative impact on inflation (77 percent), declining productivity of the Saudi labor force (74 percent) and spiritual values (73 percent). Areas where respondents were not sure, were the negative influence on declining Saudi labor productivity (12 percent) and spiritual values (9 percent). Disagreement was high on some questions related to the impact on spiritual values (18 percent) and the impact on crime rates (18 percent). There were no respondents who were not sure on the impact of increasing crime rates. It is clear from the analysis that the distribution is skewed in the direction of negative

TABLE 6.18: Frequency Distribution of Responses to Attitude Questions Suggesting Foreign Labor had Negative Social/Economic Influences

Attitude Questions	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree
Traditions and customs (Q7)	89.5% (453)	4.1% (21)	6.3% (32)
Family relationship (Q8)	88.5% (448)	3.0% (15)	8.5% (43)
Spiritual values (Q9)	72.9% (369)	8.7% (44)	18.4% (93)
Pressure on public services (Q11)	92.1% (467)	4.9% (25)	3.0% (15)
Traffic Conditions (Q12)	93.5% (474)	2.0% (10)	4.5% (23)
Inflated prices (Q13)	76.9% (389)	7.1% (36)	16.0% (81)
High Rents & Housing Shortage (Q14)	87.4% (443)	2.4% (12)	10.2% (52)
Declining productivity of Saudi labor force (Q15)	73.7% (373)	11.7% (59)	14.6% (74)
Extravagance of Saudi employer of servants (Q16)	79.7% (404)	4.9% (25)	15.4% (78)
Higher Crime rates (Q22)	82.1% (416)	0.0% (0)	17.9% (91)
Mean	423.6	24.7	58.2
S.D.	38.6	17.6	28.9

attitudes toward foreign labor. The responses to the attitude questions posing solutions to the problem indicated strong attitudes toward solving the problem. This consistent and strong pattern showed that the respondents have unfavorable attitudes toward the presence of foreign laborers now in Saudi Arabia. Appendix A, Table B.1 gives more details on the frequency distribution of all attitude variables.

Intercorrelation Between Attitude Variables

In order to simplify the analysis, the three groups which were used for the descriptive analysis were also used for the intercorrelation among attitude variables.

In Table 6.19 we can see that variable #5 (increase local participation) correlated strongly and positively with other solution questions, especially those which emphasized ways to increase local participation, such as: development of human resources, participation of women, and improving the educational system. It was less strongly, but still significantly correlates with variable #20 (the need to slow down the foreign labor influx to Saudi Arabia). This is to be expected as Solutions Variable #5 correlated positively with all the negative influence variables, except variable #15 (low productivity of Saudi Arabia) and variable

Table 6.19
Significant Correlations Between Attitude Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
1 : Need for foreign labor	X																						
2 : Foreigners low income		X																					
3 : Improving the economy	.24	-.13	X																				
4 : Solve labor shortages	.23		-.34	X																			
5 : Participation of local people	.08	.12			X																		
6 : Participation of women		-.09	.16	.19	X																		
7 : Impact on customs	.10			.15		X																	
8 : Impact on family		.08		.11			.50	X															
9 : Impact on spiritual values	.09	.19	-.17	.12		.42	.41	X															
10 : Developing natl. human resources				.23	.13	.11	.15	.14	X														
11 : Pressure on public services	.13			.12		.20	.24	.32	.17	X													
12 : Pressure on traffic conditions	.09		.09	.10	-.09	.26	.23	.27	.18	.41	X												
13 : Impact on inflation			.10	-.16	.10	.20	.23	.37	.34	.34	.27	X											
14 : Increasing cost of rent			.10	-.07	.14	.16	.25	.30	.08	.25	.26	.53	X										
15 : Declining productivity	-.07				-.08	.11	.09	.19	.16	.28	.24	.23	.23	X									
16 : Extravagance of Saudis		.11		.09	.15	.24	.39	.24	.09	.10	.15	.19	.24	.23	X								
17 : Improving education			.11	.15	.10		.24	.39	.11	.28	.13	.11	.08			X							
18 : Dependency on foreign labor		.07	-.11			.13		.18	.18	.20	.24	.24	.13	.22			X						
19 : Reducing influx of foreign labor			-.08	.09		.23	.29	.31	.20	.23	.21	.20	.23	.18	.24	.14		X					
20 : Pos. impact of foreigners on trng.	.09		-.15	.15		-.13		-.12				-.07	-.08	-.13					X				
21 : Need for all foreign labor	-.21		.14	-.10		.15	.17	.16	.08	.10	.10	.13	.13	.08	.09				.33	-.21	X		
22 : Increasing crime rate		-.07			.10		.25	.22	.27	.21	.23	.23	.26	.08	.16			.12	.26	-.10	.20	X	
23 : No impact on crime rate				.11			.19	.19	.15	.12	.17	.17	.11	.17	.09	.13			.25	-.16	.34	.55	X

* All correlations were significant at .01

#53 (increased crime rate). The significant, but least strong correlation was with the question of extravagance by Saudis who employ foreign servants. The strongest correlation was with negative influence on traditions and customs. Eighty percent of these variables correlated with variable #5. In the positive influence and mutual need group, significant correlations occurred on only 37.5 percent of these variables, with strong correlations between the need of foreign laborers to earn more than they can at home and the lack of impact on the Saudi crime rate. Variable #1 (need for foreign labor) correlated less strongly. As might be expected, variable #7 (negative impact on traditions and customs) was found to correlate most strongly with the other negative impact variables. The strongest of these were negative impacts on: the relationships within the family (.50), spiritual values (.42), traffic problems (.26), and crime rates (.25). Also significant were correlations with: extravagance (.24), pressure on public services (.20) and impact on inflation (.20). Least strong, but still significant, were correlations with low productivity of the Saudi labor force (.11) and the impact on rents and housing (.11).

There were four significant positive correlations with positive influences: lack of impact on crime (.19), need for all foreign labor currently present (.15), continued need expected (.13), and need for foreign labor (.10). The

negative correlation was with the improved training of the Saudi labor force due to the presence of foreign labor. Variable #7 correlated positively with three solution variables: need to slow down foreign labor (.23), need for more local participation (.15), and need to develop local human resources (.15). These results are consistent with expectations. Since the respondents indicated that there were negative impacts and problems resulting from the presence of foreign workers, they agreed with various suggestions to resolve the problem.

As might be expected, variable #8 (negative impact on family) was significantly correlated with all other negative influence variables. The strongest correlations were those related to negative impact on traditions and customs (.50), spiritual values (.41) and the extravagance of employing foreign servants (.39); also, impact on rent (.25), pressure on public services (.24), traffic problems (.23), inflation (.23) and high crime rates (.22). The least strong, but still significant was the correlation with attitudes on lowering the productivity of the Saudi labor force (.09). Variable #8 correlated to three of the positive influence variables: no effect on crime rate (.19), the need for all foreign labor currently in Saudi Arabia (.17) and foreign labor improvement of the Saudi economy (.08).

Significant correlation with solution variables occurred in questions such as, slowing down the influx of

foreign labor (.29), the participation of local people (.11) and development of human resources.

Variable #9 (negative impact on spiritual values) showed significant positive correlation with all other negative influence variables, with the strongest being impact on traditional customs (.42), impact on the family (.41), pressure on public services (.32), and inflated prices (.37). Other significant correlations were with: high rents (.30), high crime rates (.27), and traffic conditions (.27). The weakest correlations in this group were with: extravagance of Saudis employing foreign servants (.24) and low productivity of the Saudi labor force (.19).

Seven out of eight of the positive influences were significantly correlated with variable #9 but two were negative correlations (to the labor shortage solution that foreign labor provided, and to the improved training of the Saudi labor force due to foreign labor presence). Positive correlations were with the influence of an improved economy (.19), continued need expected (.18), need for all foreign labor currently in the country (.16), and lack of crime rate (.15). The smallest correlation was with existence of foreign labor being due to the need for them (.09).

Four of the five solutions correlated significantly with the largest one being the need to slow down the influx of foreign labor (.31). Following that were the need to

develop local resources (.14), participation of local people (.12), and the need to improve the educational system (.11).

As might be expected, variable #12 (negative impact on traffic conditions) showed significant positive correlation with the rest of the negative influence variables. The strongest ones were: pressure on public services (.4), lowered productivity of Saudi labor (.28), spiritual values (.27), inflated prices (.27), high rents (.27), and impact on traditions and customs (.26). Less strong but still significant correlations were to high crime rates (.23), impact on family (.23), and extravagance of Saudis employing foreign servants (.15). All solution variables correlated significantly with one having a negative correlation (women's participation = $-.09$). Positive correlations were found for: the need to slow down the influx of foreign labor (.21), develop local human resources (.18), improve education (.11), and increase participation of local people.

Correlations to positive influence variables were all positive except one (foreign labor presence has improved Saudi training = $.07$). Positive correlations were: foreign labor has no effect on crime rate (.17), continued need of foreign labor expected (.20), Saudi Arabia needs all foreign labor now in the country (.10) and that the foreign labor presence is in the country because it needs them (.09).

Variable #11 (pressure on public services) showed a significant positive correlation with all other negative

influence variables, with strong correlation to traffic conditions (.41), inflated prices (.34), high rents (.25), impact on the family (.24) and the crime rate (.21). Other significant correlations were to traditions and customs (.20), lower productivity of Saudi labor (.16) and extravagance of Saudis employing foreign servants (.17). Variable #11 correlated positively and significantly with four out of five solution variables with the strongest being to the need to slow down foreign labor influx (.23) and the need to develop human resources (.17). Also, significant were correlations to the need to improve the educational system (.13) and the participation of local people (.12).

Half of the positive influence variables were correlated significantly with variable #11, with the strongest one being the continued need expected (.18). Others were: needs foreign workers (.13), lack of effect on crime rate (.12) and current need for all foreign labor in the country (.10).

Variable #19 (need to slow down the influx of of foreign labor) correlated significantly to only three of the four other solution variables. It correlated most strongly to: develop local human resources (.21), improve educational systems (.14) and increase local participation (.09). Variable 19 correlated significantly to all negative influence variables. The strongest ones were to spiritual values (.31), impact on family (.29), extravagance of Saudis

employing foreign servants (.24), impact on traditions and customs (.23), pressure on public services (.23), high rents (.23), traffic conditions (.21), inflated prices (.20), high crime rates (.20), and lower productivity of the Saudi labor force (.18). Variable #19 correlated to half the positive influence variables, with one negative correlation to foreign labor having solved the labor shortage (-0.8). Positive significant correlations were to the need for all foreign labor currently in the country (.33) and the lack of effect on crime rates.

It is clear from the analysis of the correlation matrix that most of the attitude variables were significantly and positively correlated. Eight out of 23 attitude variables included in the construction of the Guttman scale were strongly correlated.

Measurement Techniques and Scale Validation

Attitude is viewed by social scientists as the combination of cognitive, effective and behavioral positions of individuals toward certain issues or social subjects. This behavioral aspect can be measured by Guttman scaling.

Scalogram analysis is an approach to the measurement of cognitive, behavioral and affective-subject variables which, when its conditions are met, yields an ordinal scale (Upshaw, 1968, p. 98). Guttman Scaling is based on the fact that some items under consideration may prove to be harder

indicators of the variables than others. Respondents who accept a given hard item also accept the easier ones (Babbie, 1973, p. 273).

An attempt was made to produce a scale. For the construction of the Guttman Scale, several trials were made on an experimental basis. Eight items were included in the scale and the cumulative percentage for all responses were calculated. Each item was treated as a dichotomy. Different cut off points were used. For all trials, the responses did not form a Guttman scale pattern. The coefficient of reproducibility was below .90, which is one of the criteria for a good Guttman Scale.

Scale Validation

The first step in an index on scale validation is an internal validation which is called Item Analysis. The researcher should examine the extent to which the composite index is related to the questionnaire items included in the index itself (Babbie, 1973, p. 266). Scalogram analysis established that the eight-item scale was not unidimensional. In order to examine the validity of the scale, a number of correlates were used. Table 6.20 presents the result of Yule's Q.

In general, these correlations were strong except for the ones which referred to respondents' attitudes toward inflation and toward increasing crime rates. It is clear that variable #8 (impact of foreign workers on

TABLE 6.20: Biserial Correlation Showing Relationships Between Eight-Item Attitudinal Scale Score and Other Questions, Ranked by Overall Strength of Correlation

Variable	Yule's Q
1. Impact on family	.79
2. Impact on tradition and customs	.73
3. Impact on spiritual values	.70
4. Impact on traffic conditions	.70
5. Reduction of foreign labor influx	.59
6. Pressure on public services	.54
7. Inflation: Goods and services	.43
8. Increasing crime rates	.40

relationships within the family) correlated most strongly with opinions on all the other attitude questions. If we look at Table 7.19, we can see that it was significantly and positively correlated to 15 of the 23 attitude questions. Still, the greatest strength of correlation was found for Variable #7 (concern about the impact of foreigners on traditions and customs). It was positively correlated to 17 of the 23 attitude questions.

To explore the validity of the scale, cross-tabulation analysis was done. Table 6.21 presents the correlation between the scale score and the other attitude variables.

Computation of Scores

Before scores were computed, variables #32 through #54 were recoded so that 1 and 2 equaled 1, while 3, 4 and 5 equaled 2.

Sum Score (Sum)--the sum score was calculated by adding V38, V39, V40, V42, V43, V44, V50 and V53.

Scale Score (Scalesc)--The scalesc was calculated by duplicating the sum score. The scalesc was recorded so that 8=9, 9=8, 10=7, 11=6, 12=5, 13=4, 15=2, 16=1. For further analysis, the scalesc was recorded so that 9=1, 8=2, and 1 through 7=3.

Dependent Variable Score (Depscore)--the depscore was calculated by adding variables 32 through 54. A distribution of the depscore was examined and it was divided

TABLE 6.21: Correlation Between Scale Score and Other Attitude Variables, Showing Chi-Square and Gamma Values

Attitude Variable	Direction	Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom	Significance	Gamma
Increasing Rent Rate	+	59.93	2	.05	.74
Rates of Crime	+	100.60	2	.05	.71
Countries Need of Foreigners	+	45.74	2	.05	.49
Extravagance of Saudis	+	31.18	2	.05	.47
Dependence on foreign labor	+	27.59	2	.05	.38
Declining in productivity	+	19.46	2	.05	.33
Solving Labor Shortages	+	14.16	2	.05	.32
Improving the Economy	+	8.33	2	.05	.26
Foreigners' Low Income at home	+	4.51	2	NS	.16
Developing native human resources	+	2.87	2	NS	.22
Participation of Local People	+	2.51	2	NS	.28
Positive Impact on training	+	2.09	2	NS	.11
Need of foreign labor	+	1.39	2	NS	.14
Participation of women	+	.87	2	NS	.07
Improving educational system	+	.30	2	NS	.18

into three groups, so that scores of 0-25=1, 26-29=2, and 30-45=3. One (1) was considered a negative attitude, two (2) was considered no opinion or neutral, and three (3) was considered a positive attitude.

Due to the uniformity of respondents' attitudes, none of the experimental trials formed a Guttman Scale. It was a cumulative type of scale but not unidimensional.

Expansion of the Findings: Relationships Between Background Variables and Attitude Variables

It was the intent of this research to test the relationship between background variable (age, income, level of education, occupation and family size) that would be expected to influence Saudi citizen's attitudes toward the impact of foreign workers on Saudi society. In this part of the analysis, the relationships between those background variables and the dependent variable (attitudes toward foreign labor) are tested.

Testing the Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: The younger their age, the more favorable will be Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the presence of foreign workers in Saudi Arabia.

Previous studies have indicated that older people are more likely to have low education levels and lower social

status than younger people. Therefore, they are less likely to be receptive to social change.

Table 6.22 shows the relationship between age and attitudes toward foreign labor. The percentages of the age groups holding each type of attitude were relatively consistent, with the largest percent of each age group indicating no opinion or neutrality. The 28 and under age group had the largest percentage of positive attitudes while the group aged 40 years and older had the largest percentage of negative attitudes. Chi-square testing of these results, however, showed that age was not significant as a factor of attitude toward foreign labor.

TABLE 6.22: Age of Respondents and Attitude Toward Foreign Labor (in Percent)

Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor	Age Group		
	Under 29 (N=147)	29-39 (N=164)	Above 40 (N=197)
Negative (N=122)	21.1	23.2	26.9
No Opinion (N=274)	50.3	55.5	55.3
Positive (N=112)	28.6	21.3	17.8
Totals (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 6.26; Degrees of Freedom = 4; Sig.= n.s.

Hypothesis 2: The higher their level of education, the more favorable will be Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the presence of foreign workers.

Literacy and education tend to increase the knowledge and understanding of people. Therefore, people who can read and write will be exposed to the outside world and be more adaptable to change than those who are illiterate.

Table 6.23 shows the relationship between level of education and attitude toward foreign workers. At each educational level, the largest percent of each group indicated no opinion or a neutral attitude toward foreign workers. Of the others, those with average educational levels had equal percentages of negative and positive attitudes (24.6 percent). A slightly larger percent of the low education group had negative attitudes rather than positive attitudes, and the same was true of the high education group. Chi-square values did not show that education was a significant factor in attitudes toward foreign labor.

Hypothesis 3: The higher their income, the more favorable will be Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the importation of foreign workers.

It was assumed that people with high income levels would be able to employ foreign workers and, therefore, would tend to have positive attitudes toward them. Table

TABLE 6.23: Respondents Level of Education and Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor (in Percents)

Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor	Level of Education		High (N=178)
	Low (N=127)	Average (N=203)	
Negative (N=122)	23.6	24.6	23.6
No Opinion (N=274)	54.3	50.7	57.3
Positive (N=112)	22.0	24.6	19.1
Totals (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-Square = 2.13; Degrees of Freedom = 4; Sig. = n.s.

6.24 shows that the largest percent of each income group indicated no opinion or a neutral attitude toward foreign workers. High income respondents did show a positive opinion more often than low and medium income groups, which had relatively the same percentage of negative attitudes on foreign labor. Overall, chi-square results showed that income level was not a significant factor in attitude toward foreign labor.

Hypothesis 4: Saudi citizens in professional occupations will be found to hold more favorable attitudes than Saudi non-professionals, towards the importance of foreign workers.

TABLE 6.24: Level of Income of Respondents and Attitude Toward Foreign Labor (in Percent).

Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor	Level of Income		High (N=168)
	Low (N=126)	Medium (N=214)	
Negative (N=122)	25.4	25.7	20.8
No Opinion (N=274)	54.0	53.3	54.8
Positive (N=112)	20.6	21.0	24.4
Total (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 1.73; Degrees of Freedom = 4; Sig. = n.s.

It was assumed earlier that the achievement of high levels of education, high income levels and high occupational status would be associated with privileges in society that are different from those afforded persons with little education, low income, and low occupational status. That those with high socioeconomic status would be concerned with the problems of their society's well-being as it relates to the positions they occupy. Table 6.25 shows the relationship between type of occupation and attitude toward foreign workers.

The chi-square and gamma values indicate a significant relationship between occupation and attitudes toward foreign labor. Businessmen more often had positive attitudes toward

TABLE 6.25: Type of Occupation of Respondents and Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor (In Percent).

Attitude Toward Foreign Labor	<u>Type of Occupation</u>		Social Security Beneficiaries (N=84)
	Business- men (N=149)	Government Officials (N=275)	
Negative (N=122)	16.1	28.0	25.0
No Opinion (N=274)	54.4	50.9	63.1
Positive (N=112)	29.5	21.1	11.9
Total (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 15.32; Degrees of Freedom = 4;
Sig. = .05

foreign labor than either government officials or social security beneficiaries, and least often had negative attitudes. Government officials had the largest percentage of negative opinions and Social Security recipients had the lowest percentage of positive attitudes. These results showed that occupation was a significant factor in the type of attitude held toward foreign workers which was not unexpected since it was part of the rationale used in selecting these three socioeconomic groups to represent the upper, middle, and lower classes. Businessmen were found to hold favorable attitudes because they tended to employ

foreign workers and eventually benefit from their presence in the country. Government officials tended to hold positive, negative and neutral attitudes because of their share in the workplace, while the Social Security recipients held essentially negative and neutral attitudes. This tendency may be attributed to the fact that the presence of large numbers of foreign workers may affect them by limiting their access to jobs.

Hypothesis 5: The larger their family size, the less favorable will be Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the importation of foreign workers.

The relationship between family size and attitudes toward foreign workers was approached from two angles. First, large family size may be a reflection of strong traditional values. Second, those with large families may have a vested interest in keeping opportunities open for their own kin, and therefore, the presence of foreign workers may constitute a threat to them. Table 6.26 shows the distribution of family size and attitudes. Family size was not found to be a significant factor in the type of attitudes held toward foreign workers. Again, this result can be explained by the fact that people in Saudi Arabia tend to marry early and have large families. Therefore, having a large or small family did not affect their attitudes toward foreign workers.

TABLE 6.26: Family Size of Respondents and Attitudes Toward Foreign Workers (in Percents)

Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor	Family Size		more than 5 (N=196)
	2 or less (N=106)	3-5 (N=205)	
Negative (N=122)	29.2	21.5	24.0
No Opinion (N=274)	45.3	56.1	56.6
Positive (N=111)	25.5	22.4	19.4
Total (N=507)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 4.87; Degrees of Freedom = 4; Sig. = ns

However, as noted earlier, it was found that age was significantly correlated with family size, which was to be expected.

Hypothesis 6: Saudi citizens with more exposure to cross-societal contact are likely to have more favorable attitudes toward the presence of foreign workers than those with less or no cross-societal exposure.

Previous studies (Lerner, 1958; Rogers, 1964) have indicated that people who are exposed to cross-societal contact through mass media exposure and cosmopolitanism are

more likely to be receptive to social change; as a result they have more favorable attitude toward it.

Table 6.27 shows that whether or not the respondents had traveled outside Saudi Arabia had no significant impact on the attitudes toward foreign workers indicated by respondents. Those who had traveled outside the country had slightly more negative opinions but also slightly more positive opinions. The majority of both travelers and non-travelers had no opinion on foreign workers.

TABLE 6.27: Travel Outside Saudi Arabia and Degree of Attitude (in Percents)

Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor	<u>Travel Outside Saudi Arabia</u>	
	Yes (N=379)	No (N=127)
Negative (N=122)	25.1	20.5
No Opinion (N=274)	52.5	59.1
Positive (N=112)	22.4	20.5
Total (N=508)	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 1.75; Degrees of Freedom = 2; Sig. = n.s.

It was also assumed that travel outside the country would affect Saudi citizens' attitudes toward foreign workers. Essentially, it was found that those who travel

very frequently outside of Saudi Arabia are more likely to have positive attitudes toward foreign workers, but Table 6.28 shows that frequency of travel had no significant effect on attitudes toward foreign workers. Those who had never traveled were equally likely to have a positive or negative attitude. Those who had traveled outside Saudi Arabia three or more times were slightly more likely to have a positive attitude.

TABLE 6.28: Frequency of Travel and Respondents' Attitude Toward Foreign Workers (in Percents)

Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor	<u>Frequency of Travel</u>		
	Never (N=129)	1 or 2 times (N=93)	3 or more times (N=286)
Negative (N=122)	20.9	28.0	24.1
No Opinion (N=274)	58.1	46.2	54.5
Positive (N=112)	20.1	25.8	21.3
Total (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 3.31; Degrees of Freedom = 4; Sig. = n.s.

Hypothesis 7: Saudi citizens who have more contact with foreign workers are likely to have more favorable attitudes toward the presence of foreign workers than those with little or no contact.

Personal contact with foreign workers is less grounded on previous theoretical studies, but it was one of the intentions in this research to find out whether those people who have contact with foreign labor (type of contact, frequency of contact) are more or less likely to have positive attitudes toward them.

Table 6.29 shows that contact with foreign labor had no significant impact on the respondents' attitudes with regard to foreign labor. Those having such contacts had slightly more negative attitudes than positive ones, while those without such contacts had equal negative and positive attitudes. The majority of both groups of respondents indicated neutral attitudes toward foreign workers. Furthermore, Table 6.30 indicates that the type of contact with foreign labor did not significantly affect attitudes indicated by respondents. Those with contact in the workplace showed slightly more negative rather than positive attitudes and those with no contact tended to have equal negative and positive attitudes, but overall, the majority of both groups indicated they had no opinion.

Table 6.31 shows that frequency of contact with foreign labor did not significantly affect the respondents' attitudes on foreign labor. Of those with the most frequent contact, a larger percent held negative attitudes than positive ones. A slightly larger percentage of those with moderately frequent contact had positive attitudes than

TABLE 6.29: Respondents' Contact with Foreign Labor and Attitude Toward Foreign Labor (in Percents)

Attitude Toward Foreign Labor	<u>Contact With Foreign Labor</u>	
	Yes (N=361)	No (N=147)
Negative (N=122)	25.8	19.7
No Opinion (N=274)	51.2	60.5
Positive (N=112)	23.0	19.7
Total (N=508)	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 3.76; Degrees of Freedom = 2, Sig. = n.s.

TABLE 6.30: Type of Contact and Respondents' Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor (In Percents)

Attitude Toward Foreign Labor	<u>Type of Contact</u>	
	No Contact (N=148)	Contact at Work (N=360)
Negative (N=122)	19.6	25.8
No Opinion (N=274)	60.8	51.1
Positive (N=112)	19.6	23.1
Total (N=508)	100.0	100.0

Chi-Square = 4.09; Degrees of Freedom = 2; Sig. = n.s.

TABLE 6.31: Frequency of Contact and Degree of Attitude (in Percent)

Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor	Frequency of Contact		
	Everyday (N=210)	Several per Week (N=150)	Once or Less (N=148)
Negative (N=122)	24.8	26.7	20.8
No Opinion (N=274)	56.2	44.7	60.1
Positive (N=112)	19.0	28.7	19.6
Totals (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-Square = 9.23; Degrees of Freedom = 4; Sig. = n.s.

those with negative attitudes. Roughly similar percentages of those with less frequent contact had negative as well as positive attitudes. Generally, however, the largest percentage of each group had no opinion or a neutral attitude.

It was anticipated that people who employ foreign workers, especially those among the business group, would be more likely to have positive attitudes toward them, because they are benefitting from their presence in the country. However, Table 6.32 shows that whether or not the respondents employed foreign workers did not significantly affect the attitudes reported on this survey. A slightly larger percent of those who did not employ foreign workers

TABLE 6.32: Respondents' Attitudes Toward and Employment of Foreign Labor (In Percents)

Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor	Employing Foreign Labor	
	Yes (N=168)	No (N=339)
Negative (N=121)	19.6	26.0
No Opinion (N=274)	56.0	53.1
Positive (N=112)	24.4	20.9
Total (N=507)	100.0	100.0

Chi-Square = 2.65; Degrees of Freedom = 2; Sig. = n.s.

had negative attitudes, while a slightly larger percent of those who employed foreign labor had positive attitudes than those who did not employ foreign workers, but the majority attitude expressed by each group was no opinion or neutral. Also, the length of employment of foreign labor did not significantly affect the respondents' attitudes (Table 6.33). Those employing foreign labor three years or less more often had positive than negative attitudes, while positive and negative attitudes were equal for those employing foreign labor more than three years, but a majority of all three groups again expressed no opinion.

TABLE 6.33: Respondents' Attitudes and Experience Employing Foreign Workers (in Percent)

Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor	<u>Length of Employment</u>		No Employ- ment (N=341)
	3 years or less (N=111)	More than 3 years (N=56)	
Negative (N=122)	18.9	21.4	26.1
No Opinion (N=274)	55.0	57.1	53.1
Positive (N=112)	26.1	21.4	20.8
Total (N=508)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-Square = 3.22; Degrees of Freedom = 4; Sig. = n.s.

Exposure to mass media (radio, television, newspapers, etc.) will tend to facilitate movement from a traditional way of life to a modern one and to make individuals more adaptable to change and to new ideas. Rogers (1964:52) points out that mass media in less developed countries like Colombia carry mainly prodevelopment messages. Thus, it was expected that exposure to these messages would be positively related to innovativeness, political knowledge, and other consequent variables. Therefore, it was assumed that those exposed to mass communication would be more likely to have favorable attitudes toward foreign workers. Additionally, in the survey instrument, certain questions were designed to

find out the extent to which respondents' exposure to foreign mass media would affect their attitudes toward foreign workers. Table 6.34 shows that daily viewing of foreign television programs significantly affected attitudes toward foreign workers. Most of the variations from expectations occurred in the category of persons who never watched foreign TV programs. They tended more often to have no opinion or to report positive responses and less often to have negative opinions. There was a similarity between the groups who watched foreign TV, with more of both groups having negative attitudes than positive.

TABLE 6.34: Frequency of Watching Foreign Broadcasts and Attitudes Toward Foreign Workers

Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor	Frequency of Watching		Do not View (N=171)
	<1 hour (N=233)	> 1 hour (N=103)	
Negative (N=122)	28.3	28.2	15.2
No Opinion (N=274)	51.1	51.5	59.6
Positive (N=112)	20.6	20.4	25.1
Total (N=507)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-Square = 10.70; Degrees of Freedom = 4;
sig. = .05; Gamma = .15

Table 6.35 shows that frequency of listening to foreign radio broadcasts did not significantly affect the attitudes of respondents toward foreign workers. Slightly more of those not listening had positive opinions than those who listened more than one hour daily.

TABLE 6.35: Frequency of Listening to Foreign Radio Broadcasts and Respondents' Attitudes (in Percent)

Attitudes Toward Foreign Labor	<1 hour (N=193)	>1 hour (N=41)	Do Not Listen (N=273)
Negative (N=122)	28.5	29.3	19.8
No Opinion (N=274)	53.9	46.3	55.3
Positive (N=112)	17.6	24.4	24.9
Total (N=507)	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chi-square = 7.50; Degrees of Freedom = 4; Sig. = n.s.

Those listening to foreign broadcasts more often had negative opinions than those who did not.

Discussion and Interpretation

The existence of two to three million foreign workers in Saudi Arabia has generated many problems which have had

considerable impact on Saudi society. In order to gain insights into the problems attributed to the presence of foreign workers in the country, this study examined the attitudes of three segments of the public in Jeddah City, namely businessmen, government officials, and Social Security beneficiaries.

In terms of the relationships among background variables, the data suggest that there was a relationship between several background variables (age, level of education, level of income, and size of family). The frequency distribution of the attitude variables indicated similar patterns and strong agreement among the respondents that there are problems associated with the presence of foreign workers. These findings are consistent, to a large extent, with the findings of Polinard, Wrinkle, and Gavza (1984), from their study of attitudes of Mexican-Americans toward irregular Mexican immigration. They found similar consistency, in the direction and strength of attitudes toward certain immigration issues. For example, all the respondent groups opposed an increased rate of immigration, considered illegal immigration as an important problem, and supported stricter enforcement of immigration laws (p.796).

Investigation of background variables with relation to the respondents' attitudes, did not indicate differences among the three socioeconomic groups. Type of occupation was found to be a strong factor which influenced the

respondents' attitudes toward foreign workers, but this was not unexpected as it was an underlying assumption made in selecting these three groups to represent the upper, middle and lower classes. It was also assumed that businessmen would be more likely to have a favorable attitude toward foreign workers than the other two groups, because the presence of foreign workers in the country is benefitting them.

In examining the relationship between intervening variables (cross-societal contact, contact with foreign workers, exposure to foreign mass media) and respondents' attitudes, the data did not show significant relationships, except for those who viewed foreign television broadcasts on a daily basis.

The generally negative attitude of Saudi citizens toward foreign workers can be attributed to what is called xenophobia*. Their negative experiences with foreign workers in terms of increasing crime rates, pressure on public services, inflation, and social impact on tradition and customs, has led them to be xenophobic.

*According to the American Heritage Dictionary, xenophobe is a person unduly fearful or contemptuous of strangers or foreigners, especially as reflected in his/her political or cultural views.

Saudi citizens have very strong commitments to their culture, traditional family relations and religious values, and customs. Therefore, the presence of many foreign workers from different cultural backgrounds is perceived to be a threat to the society's culture and values.

Previous studies, with regard to the attitudes of Saudi students abroad toward their traditional family relationships and religious values, have shown that neither contact nor length of stay has had an impact on these attitudes. This pattern implies the impact on attitudinal outcomes of a strong commitment to cultural background (Al-Banyan, 1974; Al-Dakerlallah, 1984). In order to determine whether the generally negative attitudes of Saudi citizens toward foreign workers held true for the diverse nationality groups now living in Saudi Arabia, respondents were asked: "Which of the following nationality groups do you feel most comfortable with?

1. Arabs
2. Muslim non-Arabs
3. Southeast Asians
4. Europeans and Americans

The data show that about 49 percent (N=249) of the respondents felt most comfortable with Arabs, while 28 percent (N=142) respond favorably toward Muslims who come from non-Arab countries. Roughly 12 percent (N=63) felt most comfortable with Europeans and Americans. Less than 10

percent (N=53) felt most comfortable with Southeast Asians. The more favorable attitudes toward Arabs and Muslim non-Arabs undoubtedly reflected similar cultural and religious values. Respondents were also asked: "Which nationality groups do you think work for their own interests more than the interests of the Saudi society?" The data show that 36.6 percent (N=186) felt Southeast Asians emphasized their own interests over Saudi interests. Of the rest, 31 percent (N=158) chose European and American, 23.6 percent (N=112) chose Arabs and 8.5 percent (N=43) chose Muslim non-Arabs. We can see that the Southeast Asian workers tend to be more negatively regarded by Saudi citizens than other nationality groups, but negative attitudes prevail toward all foreign worker groups. Even those who indicated they were most comfortable with Arabs of other nationalities were less than a majority. One may conclude from this analysis that the generally negative attitudes of Saudi citizens toward foreign workers hold true to a large extent across the different nationality groups working in the country.

A recent Gallup Polls Opinion Index indicates a majority of Americans oppose immigration increases and seek stricter enforcement of immigration laws (Miller et al., 1984:192). This reflects U.S. attitudes toward Mexican and South American immigrants in spite of the close ties between their countries. Therefore, it is not surprising to find this attitude among Saudi citizens toward foreign workers who come from diverse cultural background.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE NEED FOR MANPOWER PLANNING IN SAUDI ARABIA AND THE GULF STATES

The attitudes of Saudi citizens toward foreign labor, and the continuing necessity for the importation of expatriate labor, reflect the urgent need for manpower planning in Saudi Arabia and the Gulf states; a case in which focusing programs on manpower is neither ideological nor rhetorical, but pragmatic. The labor situation shows that manpower programs must be the target of development plans. Codim (1982:26) notes that any plan to secure the government's political, economic and social objectives should include plans to develop and improve manpower, both as a natural resource and as an objective of development activity. These development plans should be preceded by and based upon a manpower assessment which should include an analysis of the existing situation, an estimation of the manpower required to attain economic goals, and the capacity of educational and training systems to supply such manpower. The aim of manpower assessment is to ensure that human resources programs move in the right direction.

It is quite obvious from the review of the literature (Chapters Two and Four) pertaining to Saudi Arabia and the

Arab World, that there is, and will continue to be, a dependence on expatriate labor (See Table 7.1). As is clearly evident from this table, the expected projection in the number of expatriate laborers is one of slow decline (e.g., Libya and U.A.E.) and increases, as this is the case at least for Kuwait and Saudi Arabia. There is, therefore, an urgent need for an effective manpower planning for all the Gulf countries, and especially in those countries where the indigenous manpower resources still remain undeveloped.

Table 7.1: Incremental Expatriate Labor Flows to Selected Arab Oil Exporting Countries (in Thousands)

Country	1970-75	1975-80	Projections	
			1980-85	1985-95
Kuwait	37	163	124	164
Libya	145	69	90	40
Saudi Arabia	349	679	633	680
U.A.E.	168	251	120	109
Total	699	1,162	967	993

SOURCE: Sherbiny, 1984:37

The Importance of Developing Human Resources

The development of human resources is considered one of the critical factors in the modernization of developing countries. In spite of their enormous wealth, the Gulf countries of the Middle East find themselves in an unenviable position due to their lack of trained manpower resources (Abdullrahman, 1982:2).

Shaw (1983:2) argues that deficiencies in the quantity, quality and distribution of human resources is the single most important bottleneck in the Gulf region. The relative smallness of the population base, coupled with the insufficiency of trained personnel in the face of an enormous expenditure capacity, poses an impediment to development. Abdullrahman suggests that a solution to this predicament rests in the introduction of intensive human development programs that are both reactive and intergradive in nature.

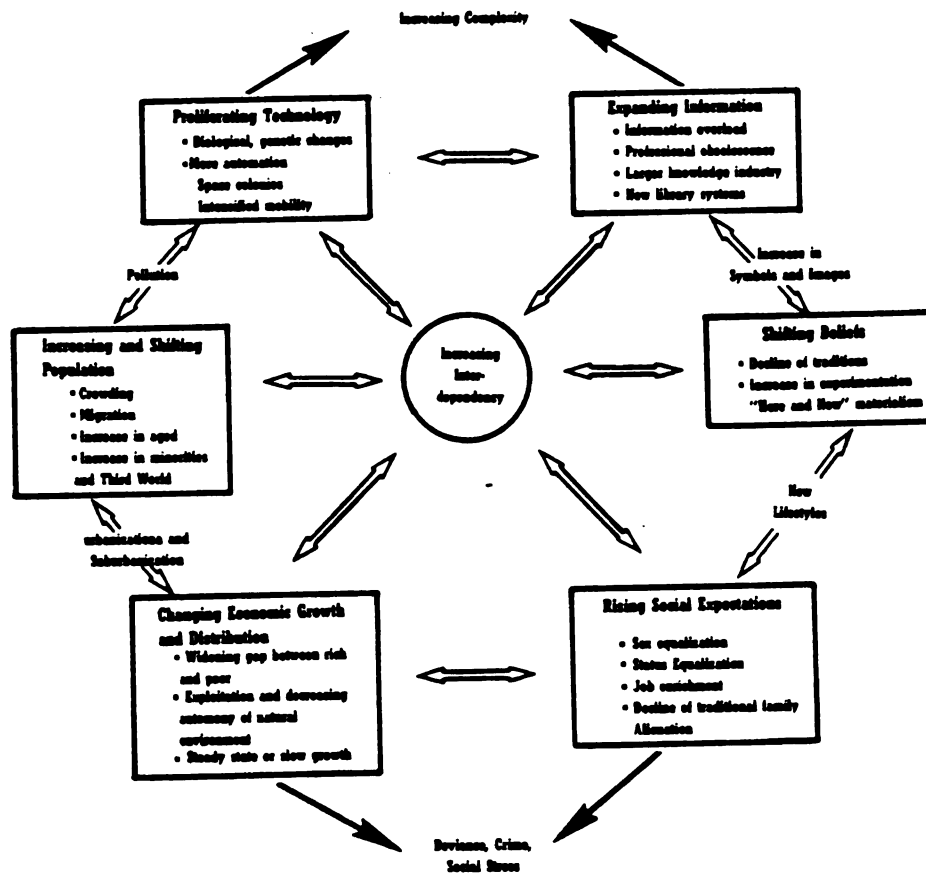
The development of a nation's human resources is challenging and often requires long-range planning. Sundberg and Thurber (1980:245) in their discussion of world trends and future prospects, have identified six major forces influencing the development of human resources. These include: proliferating technology, changing economic growth and distribution, increasing and shifting

populations, expanding information, shifting values and beliefs, and rising social expectations (See Figure 7.1).

However, careful analysis of a nation's manpower situation must begin by examining the types and levels of education--formal education at the primary, secondary, and college levels, as well as, vocational educational programs, training and apprenticeships (Jakubauskas & Polomba, 1973:15). Non-formal educational training has also gained popularity during the last decade. Education is a critical factor in modernization and plays a key role in initiating processes of "development" or "change". The role of education in the economic development of Third World countries is one of uplifting and transforming the skills, aptitudes, and mind-set of the population so they can engage in more productive activities. Kazamias (1965:178) argues that education has an integral role to play in the movement toward modernity and contributes to the creation of better human beings and better societies.

Economists who recognize the importance of education, as a strategy toward effective programs of human resource development include Smith (1973), Marshall (1930), Schultz (1961, 1963), Harbison and Myers (1964), Jakubauskas and Baumel (1967), Harbison (1983) and Shaw (1983). Harbison (1973:i-iii) has explained the function of education as a national investment in human resource development:

Figure 7.1. World Trends and Future Prospects



Frequently Mentioned Forces of the Future and Examples.

Source: Sandberg and Thurber, 1980, p. 249.

Human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations, and carry forward national developments. Clearly, a country which is unable to develop the skills and knowledge of its people and utilize them effectively in the national economy, will be unable to develop anything else.

Extensive work in illuminating the role of education in economic development has been done by Harbison and Myers in Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: Strategies of Human Resources Development. The authors investigate the hypothesis that human capital accumulation (human resources development) is a precondition of economic development in less developed countries. Based on extensive research and data analysis for seventy-five countries, they conclude there is a significant positive correlation between the level of education of a country's manpower resources and its level of economic development.

In conducting their research, Harbison and Myers developed a simple composite index to distinguish between countries that categorically fall under any one of four levels of human resource development. This composite index is the arithmetic total of (1) enrollment at the secondary level of education as a percentage of the 15-19 year old age group adjusted for the length of schooling, and (2) enrollment at the third level of education, as a percentage of the age group multiplied by five. Using this composite

index, they divided the seventy-five countries they examined into four distinctive human resource development levels: less developed (I), partially developed (II), semi-advanced (III), and advanced (IV). (See Table 7.2). Their composite index has a high positive correlation with GNP per capita, number of teachers per population, and number of physicians and dentists per population, but a negative correlation with percentage of population active in agriculture (See Table 7.3).

Harbison and Myers (1964:7) point out that the building of modern nations depends upon the development of people and the organization of human activity. Capital, natural resources, foreign aid, and international trade play important roles in economic growth and development, but none is as important as a country's human resources development.

Human Resources Development in the Gulf States and Saudi Arabia

The Gulf states region is one of the wealthiest in the world, but in spite of its enormous financial capital, the region lags in human resources development and has had to meet manpower shortages by importing foreign labor, both skilled and unskilled. While this has provided a short-term source of development labor, development planners in these countries have recognized that long-term, self-reliant

TABLE 7.2: Countries Grouped by Levels of Human Resource Development According to Composite Index

Level I: Underdeveloped	Level II: Partially Developed	Level III: Semiadvanced	IV: Advanced
0.3 Niger	10.7 Guatemala	33.0 Mexico	77.1 Denmark
0.75 Ethiopia	10.7 Indonesia	35.1 Thailand	79.2 Sweden
1.2 Nyasaland	10.85 Libya	35.2 India	82.0 Argentina
1.55 Somalia	14.2 Burma	35.5 Cuba	84.9 Israel
1.9 Afghanistan	14.5 Dominican Republic	39.6 Spain	85.8 West Germany
1.9 Saudi Arabia	14.8 Bolivia	40.0 South Africa	88.7 Finland
2.2 Tanganyika	15.25 Tunisia	40.1 Egypt	92.9 U.S.S.R.
2.6 Ivory Coast	17.3 Iran	40.8 Portugal	101.6 Canada
2.95 Northern Rhodesia	19.5 China (Mainland)	47.3 Costa Rica	107.8 France
3.55 Congo	20.9 Brazil	47.7 Venezuela	111.4 Japan
4.1 Liberia	22.6 Colombia	48.5 Greece	121.6 United Kingdom
4.75 Kenya	22.7 Paraguay	51.2 Chile	123.6 Belgium
4.95 Nigeria	23.15 Malaya	53.9 Hungary	133.7 Netherlands
5.3 Haiti	24.3 Lebanon	53.9 Taiwan	137.7 Australia
5.45 Senegal	24.4 Ecuador	55.0 South Korea	147.3 New Zealand
5.45 Uganda	25.2 Pakistan	56.8 Italy	261.3 United States
7.55 Sudan	26.8 Jamaica	60.3 Yugoslavia	
	27.2 Turkey	66.5 Poland	
	30.2 Peru	68.9 Czechoslovakia	
	31.2 Iraq	69.8 Uruguay	
		73.8 Norway	

SOURCE: Harbison & Myers, 1964, p. 33.

TABLE 7.3: Correlation Coefficients: Indicators of Human Resource and Economic Development

Indicators	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Composite index.....		.888	-.814	.770	.579	.491	.656	.810	.905	.620	.079	.160	.098	-.522
2. GNP per capita, U.S. dollars.....	.888		-.818	.755	.833	.700	.668	.732	.817	.735	.021	.017	.101	-.515
3. Per cent active population in agriculture.....	-.814	-.818		-.797	-.806	-.826	-.775	-.846	-.835	-.675	-.043	-.073	-.204	.595
4. Teachers per 10,000 population.....	.770	.755	-.797		.373	.339	.739	.870	.671	.392	.609	-.074	.142	-.310
5. Engineers and scientists per 10,000 population.....	.579	.833	-.806	.373		.816	.103	.895	.791	.784	-.303	.043	.462	-.618
6. Physicians and dentists per 10,000 population.....	.492	.700	-.827	.339	.816		.265	.759	.656	.832	-.210	.098	.722	-.661
7. First-level enrollment ratio.....	.656	.668	-.775	.739	.103	.265		.966	.485	.155	.297	-.126	-.401	-.210
8. First- and second-level ratio.....	.810	.732	-.846	.870	.895	.759	.966		.804	.744	.196	-.169	.368	-.564
9. Second-level ratio.....	.905	.817	-.835	.671	.791	.636	.485	.804		.758	-.005	-.120	.376	-.700
10. Third-level ratio.....	.620	.735	-.675	.392	.784	.832	.155	.744	.758		-.246	-.131	.734	-.754
11. Percent in science and technical faculties	.079	.021	-.043	.069	-.303	-.210	.297	.196	.005	-.246		-.234	-.498	.129
12. Percent in humanities, arts, law.....	-.160	-.017	-.073	-.074	.043	.098	-.126	-.169	-.120	-.131	-.234		-.215	.180
13. Public expenditure on education (percent national income).....	.098	.101	-.204	.142	.462	.722	-.401	.378	.376	.734	-.498	-.215		-.720
14. Percent in age group 5-14..	-.522	-.515	.595	-.310	-.612	-.660	-.210	-.564	-.670	-.754	.129	.180	-.720	

SOURCE: Harbison and Myers, 1964:33

development entails the development of their own indigenous populations.

The role of education, as mentioned in earlier sections, is critical in the process of human resources development. But, the educational system in Saudi Arabia and the Gulf States, as pointed out by Birks and Sinclair (1979:305), has failed to serve the interests of the society. They argue that the modern educational system adopted by Saudi Arabia and the Gulf States has not been the type of system most suited to the needs of such rapidly developing economies.

Shaw (1983:182, 183) also reports that for all its remarkable progress, education in most Arab countries, will be incapable of meeting demands for skilled or highly qualified manpower for some time to come. He goes on to say that improvements must await a vastly expanded primary and secondary school system and recommends systematic expansion of vocational and technical institutes, substantial improvements in quality of teacher training, correction of extreme inequalities in the geographical distribution of educational investment, and checks on the ever-present "brain drain."

The widespread introduction and expansion of vocational and technical programs has been inhibited, chiefly, by cultural beliefs and practices. These programs have not been popular because the citizens of the country view manual

work as inferior and socially demanding. As a result, vocational and technical education have suffered from a lack of adequate curriculum, qualified teaching personnel, program facilities, and interested trainees. The type of educational system that has been put in place by the Arab Gulf states, however, has tended to accentuate further the disinclination of the population to undertake jobs other than administrative posts in government service (Birks and Sinclair, 1979:305).

In summary, therefore, the manpower development situation has been gravely affected by the type of educational system existing in the countries of the Gulf. It is only recently that the manpower development problem has begun to receive attention, as the governments of these countries realize the implications of foreign labor dependence, socio-culturally, politically and economically.

In Saudi Arabia, for example, the beginnings of movement toward comprehensive manpower planning are evident in the establishment of a labor force council whose objectives are (1) to study current labor force needs of Saudi society, taking into account both Saudi and non-Saudi workers reflecting the overall development plan; (2) to suggest avenues for coordination between various government agencies involving in manpower training in order to avoid duplications and inconsistencies; (3) to propose policies which would increase Saudi participation in the labor force;

(f) finally, to propose measures that would effectively decrease the quantity of imported labor (Abdullrahman, 1982:208).

Abdullrahman also makes reference to the Bahrain Development Conference, held in 1980, in which participants affirmed the importance of foreign labor, even while they emphasized the need to limit foreign labor importation. The participants stressed: (a) the negative impact associated with the dependence on foreign labor; (b) the obstacles to self-reliant development inherent in increases in importation of foreign labor; (c) the need to promote rational policies of population growth which will avoid foreign labor overemployment at the expense of indigenous labor (p.278).

Strategies in Future Manpower Planning

Abdullrahman, in Oil Bureaucracy and Development Obstacles, emphasizes the primary importance of developing and upgrading human resources, and the various problems related to the development of human resources in the Gulf states. Among the problems he cites are the role of development administrators who fail to underscore the importance of indigenous development, and the problems associated with current education and training programs. It is crucial for the Gulf countries to take an investigative look at the content of their training programs and make sure

that the huge expenditures on schools, training programs and universities reflect actual needs. He notes that one of the major weaknesses in manpower planning has been a lack of coordination between educational and training programs and actual personnel needs.

Based on his study of an assessment of occupational needs and training programs, Awwad has recommended the establishment of an independent manpower planning organization. As far as he is concerned, the establishment of such an organization is crucial in order to implement a comprehensive manpower planning on a national, regional, and local levels. It would fulfill the following tasks: (a) collect data on manpower requirements for each administrative area and identify those areas that have labor market problems to determine if they pertain to a lack of basic training, unemployment, forces which discourage labor force participation or problems of fair compensation for existing employment; (b) periodically analyze the nature and causes of existing manpower problems; (c) establish manpower objectives for local administrative areas; (d) recommend training programs needed for different regions; and (d) conduct follow-up study to make sure manpower programs are meeting their objectives.

The studies and recommendations of scholars like Abdullrahman and Awwad, who are conducting serious research in Saudi Arabia and the Arab Gulf states, need to be taken

seriously. Abdullrahman's critical look at the educational-vocational training system and Awwad's prescription of a manpower planning organization are instructive of how manpower planning strategies should evolve in Saudi Arabia, where there is an urgent need to understand labor force dynamics and the strategies are needed to reverse undue dependence on expatriate labor. By 1980, the ratio of expatriates in the Saudi work force had risen to where one of two workers was nonindigenous (Sherbiny, 1984:35).

A Model for Manpower Planning

Given the urgent need for manpower planning in Saudi Arabia, the model described in the following pages and in Figure 7.2 is suggested as a tool for tackling human resources development problems in Saudi Arabia. It has been adapted from work done by the World Bank Technical Assistance and Special Studies Division for the Europe, Middle East and North Africa Region and may have utility for Arab Gulf countries with similar labor dynamics.

Effective manpower planning policy requires the use of a working model that incorporates all the components necessary to a manpower planning system. In the case of labor dependent countries such as Saudi Arabia, the model should be able to address the role of expatriate labor as a dynamic variable that is affected by and affects all kinds

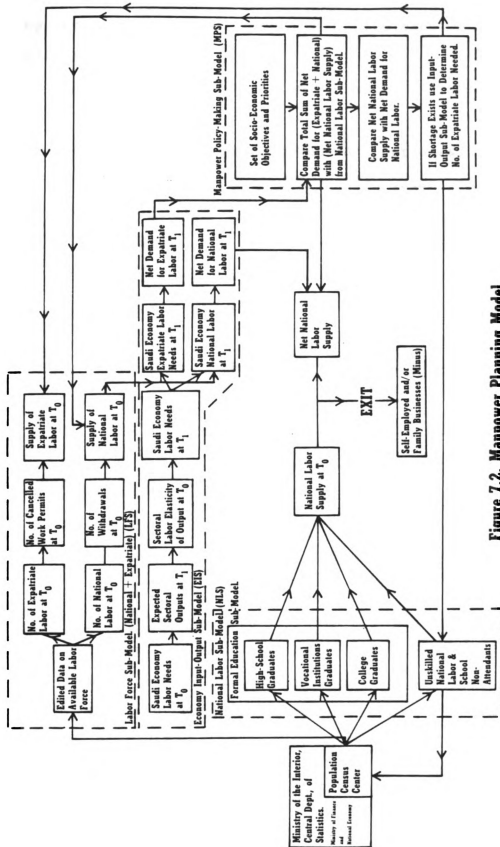


Figure 7.2. Manpower Planning Model

of social and economic variables. The foreign labor component is a critical component in the manpower planning model proposed here.

The objectives of the proposed model, represented in Figure 7.2, are as follows:

- (1) to predict manpower potential shortages, both with respect to national and foreign labor groups;
- (2) to identify, assess, and isolate specific bottlenecks in the supply of manpower by estimating and simulating flows of students and trainees throughout the educational and training systems, keeping in mind such parameters as participation, repetition, dropouts and entrants in other programs;
- (3) to enable decision-makers and planners to set specific manpower targets throughout an allocation submodel within an integrative system (e.g., to maximize the number of nationals or qualified laborers in certain occupational categories or economic sectors);
- (4) to enable decision-makers and planners to incorporate sectional production targets, together with certain assumptions about productivity growth, for the sectors concerns (e.g., to assist in predicting production levels in given sectors with existing endogenous manpower stocks or determining

the need for growth, if any, in foreign manpower required).

The graphic representation of the proposed model shows that it consists of: (a) national labor sub-model (NLS), (b) a labor-force submodel (LFS), (c) economy input-outputs sub-model (EIS), and (d) a manpower policy-making sub-model (MPS).

The national labor sub-model (NLS) is essentially an inter-loop model. The first component of it accounts for the formal educational/training system. This educational submodel is separated from the non-educational submodel (unskilled and non-school attenders). With the use of such a submodel, one can account for areas or regions where the absence of formal education may create a target for the introduction of formal and/or non-formal educational programs. The sum of the two components constitutes the National Labor Model, which serves: (a) to identify available national labor forces and to determine what is required at each simulation year by occupational categories; (b) to account for available new labor force entrants from the educational submodel.

The economy input-output sub-model (EIS) is the second submodel of the overall model. To assess and estimate technical and economic relationships, it requires specification of the various sector production targets as well as calculations of occupational requirements for nationals in light of assumptions about initial productivity

in the base year and expected productivity growth. To operationalize this sub-model, data about gross domestic product (GDP) by sector, annual sector targets for projected years, sector productivity for the base year and sector productivity and growth rates will be needed. Labor-output elasticities can also be used to estimate employment needs. This sub-model's principal outputs are: (a) expected production by sector, (b) related manpower requirements (national and foreign), (c) net labor additional requirements and (d) aggregate manpower by sector.

The third component of the proposed model is the labor force sub-model (LFS) where national plus foreign labor components are aggregated. This representation is but one of many and has the advantages of clearly showing the current labor employment dichotomy and identifying current employment opportunities available to both groups of labor (i.e., national and foreign).

Another advantage of this sub-model is that most of the data needed are relatively easy to obtain. The national labor component here is taken directly from the educational component of the NLS and foreign labor estimates can be obtained directly from government entrance permits (visas and work permits). In essence, the LFS operates as a "filter" for both types of labor. This indicator could be of relevance to long-term planning where policies such as future automation, industry incentives, work place safety

hazards, and the like are considered. Aside from its actual output on labor stock availability, the LFS principal outputs have to be combined with those of the EIS for meaningful interpretation.

Finally, the manpower policy-making sub-model (MPS) constitutes the final component. Its function is to allocate labor supply from the NLS and the LFS to the overall system according to specific objectives. Data requirements are a function of current public policy priorities based on labor market surveys that inventory critical skills shortages of public and private enterprises. Its principal outputs are: (a) sector/occupation requirements, (b) existing national labor force, (c) number of nationals needed, and (d) net additional foreign labor requirements.

Summary

From the discussion of the manpower development challenge in the Arab Gulf states, and, more specifically, in Saudi Arabia, it is clear that the time is overdue for initiating investigative studies on the manpower planning problems of those countries. A critical overhaul of the educational-training system, in light of developmental needs, must receive serious consideration to reduce foreign labor dependency.

In order to accomplish strategic manpower planning in Saudi Arabia, a realistic and pragmatic model is needed. The model proposed will consider all the critical components of an integrated manpower planning system.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS, POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS AND AVENUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The objectives of the present study were to examine the Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the impact of the foreign labor force on Saudi society, in the city of Jeddah. Furthermore, the investigator traced the forms of the Saudi society's dependence on foreign workers. Field work was conducted to collect the data and various quantitative methods were employed to analyze it. The major findings of this study are included in the next section; followed by policy recommendations and suggestions for further reserach.

Summary of the Findings

Findings Regarding the Socioeconomic Status of the Respondents and Relationships Among Background Variables

The majority of respondents were between the ages of 25 and 39. Roughly 85 percent reported that they were married and about 70 percent reported family sizes of three to nine persons. The majority had completed a high school education and about one-third earned more than \$70,000 a year. The majority were government employees.

With regard to the relationships among background variables, most of the relationship between age and level of education occurred in the low education group, especially in the 40 plus age group. Almost 89 percent of the people with low educations were clustered in the 40 plus age category. The relationship between age and level of education showed that there was significant variation from expectation in each income group with a large part of it occurring in the low income category.

There is a relationship between age and type of occupation in that the youngest people tended heavily toward government employment. The relationship between age and family size showed that the largest family sizes tended to be found in the over-40 age group, while the smallest families tended to occur in the under-28 age group. The relationship between education and level of income showed that less educated respondents accounted for most of the variation, with most of them having low incomes and fewer of them receiving high incomes.

In the relationship between level of education and type of occupation, most of the variation occurred among Social Security recipients, most of whom had low educations. Most of the government officials tended to have high or average levels of education. The relationship between level of education and size of family showed that most of the

variation occurred in the smallest family groups and most of those were highly educated.

There is a relationship between level of income and type of occupation, with most of the variation appearing in the Social Security and business categories. Businessmen tended toward high incomes while Social Security recipients tended to have low income levels. The distribution of family size by income group level showed income did not significantly affect family size, but the relationship between type of occupation and family size showed that most of the variation occurred in the smallest and largest family groups. Government officials tended to have smaller families than the other occupational groups.

Findings on Frequency Distribution and Intercorrelation Among Attitude Variables

The most agreement and least agreement occurred in the group of variables that suggested solutions to the foreign labor problems. The responses indicated strong agreement among the respondents that there are problems associated with the presence of foreign labor. Agreement was 89.9 percent of responses on average while disagreement was only 6.6 percent.

The next most favored group was that comprised of variables indicating that foreign labor has a negative influence with an average 84 percent being in agreement, 5

percent that did not know and 11 percent that disagreed that foreign labor was a negative influence. The least agreement and most disagreement, in general, was expressed toward the group of variables which indicated that foreign labor was a mutual need and positive influence, with 59 percent agreeing and 28 percent disagreeing. This group of questions elicited the largest average of "don't know" responses. Nearly 13 percent of the respondents were less sure about positive influence than they were about negative influences.

With regard to the intercorrelation among attitude variables, the correlation matrix showed that most of the attitude variables were found to be significantly and positively correlated. Eight out of 23 variables which were included in the construction of the Guttman scale were found to be strong and highly correlated.

Findings Regarding the Relationship Between Background Variables and Attitude Toward Foreign Labor

In this study, a series of hypotheses were postulated pertaining to the Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the impact of foreign labor on Saudi society. It was hypothesized that young Saudi citizens were more likely to hold favorable attitudes toward the presence of foreign workers than older Saudi citizens. The findings, however, did not reveal a significant relationship between age and

attitude toward foreign workers. Age did not differentiate between younger and older people regarding their attitudes toward foreign workers. Therefore, this hypothesis was rejected.

It was hypothesized that Saudi citizens with higher levels of education would be more likely to have favorable attitudes toward the presence of foreign workers, but data analysis showed no significant differences consistent with level of education. Since the chi-square values did not indicate that education was a significant factor in determining the type of attitude toward foreign labor, this hypothesis was also rejected.

It was also hypothesized that Saudi citizens with higher level incomes would be more likely to have favorable attitudes toward the influx of foreign workers, but the findings did not show that income level was a significant factor in the type of attitude citizens held toward foreign labor. Therefore, this hypothesis was not supported.

Consistent with the education and income hypotheses, it was hypothesized that Saudi citizens in professional occupations would be found to hold more favorable attitudes than non-professionals toward the importation of foreign labor. Results of the data analysis showed a significant relationship between occupation and attitudes toward foreign labor. Businessmen were found to have more positive

attitudes than were government officials or Social Security recipients. Therefore, this hypothesis was accepted.

It was hypothesized that Saudi citizens with larger family sizes would be likely to have less favorable attitudes toward the importation of foreign workers than those with small families, but the analysis showed that family size was not a significant factor in the type of attitudes toward foreign workers. This is explained by the fact that Saudi citizens tend to marry early and have large families. Since this is a long standing traditional custom that is changing among younger Saudis, having a large family does not affect attitudes toward foreign workers. Therefore, this hypothesis was not supported.

It was hypothesized that Saudi citizens with more exposure to cross-societal contact would be more likely to have favorable attitudes toward the presence of foreign workers than those with little or no cross-societal exposure. The findings, however, showed that whether or not the respondents had traveled outside Saudi Arabia had no significant impact on their attitudes toward foreigners in their country. The analysis did show that frequency of exposure to foreign television broadcasts significantly affected attitudes on foreign workers, so this hypothesis was partially supported, even though frequency of listening to foreign radio broadcasts did not have a similar effect.

It was hypothesized that Saudi citizens who have more contact with foreign labor are likely to have more favorable attitudes toward the presence of foreign workers than those with less or no contact. The analysis showed that contact with foreign labor had no significant impact on the type of attitude reported toward foreign labor. Furthermore, neither type of contact nor frequency of contact with foreign labor significantly affected the respondents' attitude toward foreign labor. Therefore, this hypothesis was not supported.

Policy Recommendations

The main objectives of this study were to examine the Saudi citizens' attitudes toward the presence of foreign labor and to trace the forms of dependency on expatriate labor. The theoretical intent was to examine to what extent background variables, such as age, income, level of education, occupation, size of family, treated as independent variables, affected Saudi attitude formation. In addition, a series of intervening variables (cross-societal contact, orientation to social change, contact with foreign labor, and exposure to foreign broadcasts) were included to examine what impact they may have had on people's attitudes toward expatriate labor.

Generally, the attitudes of those citizens willing to express an opinion toward foreign workers were found to be

negative and this was reflected in the findings, but the literature has indicated that there will need to be a continuing dependence on foreign workers in coming years. To help resolve the conflict inherent in these dichotomous positions, the researcher would recommend efforts on the part of the people and the government. An effort should be made to change Saudi citizens' attitudes toward expatriate labor by showing them that foreigners' presence in the country is a necessary result of the country's need for them, because there are severe labor shortages at almost all levels. The series of five-year plans have required and still require additional labor to accomplish their objectives. Furthermore, the existence of foreign expertise in Saudi Arabia has helped improve the infrastructure of the country. Therefore, foreign workers' presence in the country has had beneficial and positive impacts for the society.

On the other hand, efforts must be made at the government level to encourage coordination between different governmental agencies, such as the Ministry of Interior and Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, to curb the huge influx of expatriate labor as much as possible in the coming years. This should be done by determining the actual numbers needed to fulfill the requirements of the Five Year Plan and by greater selectivity in choosing highly skilled people who can be of greatest benefit to the country.

To facilitate any significant overall reduction in expatriate labor will require some far-reaching societal changes to achieve the optimum use of native human resources. First, an increase in women's participation in the labor force probably has the greatest potential for reducing expatriate labor needs, because Saudi women represent an almost entirely untapped reservoir of human resources. The findings of this study showed that about 68 percent of the respondents supported the idea of increasing the participation of women in the work force. About 96 percent of the respondents encouraged the participation of local population in local projects. Development projects in many Third World countries have failed because the people who were supposed to benefit from these projects were not actively involved in them. Therefore, increasing the participation of women and local residents, and utilizing those who are unemployed in public administration or the business sector will enable them to play a larger role in the development process and eventually lead to a decline in the need for importation of foreign workers.

Second, there is a need to improve the educational system at all levels (formal, vocational, technical, etc.) so that the country can produce an adequate number of educated and qualified people to fill vacancies and new occupations in the labor force created by the development of the Saudi economy.

Relatedly, high status and sufficient rewards should be provided to citizens who enroll in technical and vocational programs. We have seen at the outset the part of the labor shortage problem is created by a lack of enrollments in vocational and technical education, which is not popular in Saudi Arabia, because people view this type of employment as "blue collar" work. However, giving the citizens appropriate incentives and rewards will help change their attitudes toward these educational and training programs, and eventually reduce the country's dependence on foreign workers.

There is an imperative need for manpower planning in Saudi Arabia. If the country is to decrease its need for expatriate labor in coming years, effective manpower planning to develop native human resources, involving cooperation and coordination between different governmental agencies and the private sector, is essential. This is likely to require a manpower planning organization to establish objectives, priorities, and utilize effectively the available stock of labor. The model adapted from the work of the World Bank group could be useful in developing a manpower planning program for the future.

Finally, accurate population assessment and national immigration policies are needed to slow the influx of expatriate labor and determine realistic supply and demand of the labor market.

Avenues for Further Research

International labor migration has not received as much empirical and theoretical study as the international circulation of capital and goods. Many of the previous studies have approached international labor migration from demographic perspectives rather than examining it from an empirical perspective which views the entire process as a circulation of human resources, similar to the circulation of capital and goods. Empirical studies such as this one add to the total sum of knowledge about rapidly developing countries and expand the sociological literature on the international circulation of labor.

The researcher recommends further, more detailed, survey research with regard to attitudes among Saudi citizens toward foreign workers. The findings of this study showed strong and consistent patterns of attitudes among three socioeconomic groups in one city in Saudi Arabia. Further studies in Riyadh, the capital city, or in the Eastern region where ARAMCO is located and Saudi citizens have more interaction with foreigners, may produce different results.

The findings of this study have indicated the general impact of foreign workers on the relationships within the Saudi family. About 88 percent of the respondents believed that having a foreign driver, nurse, or servant within the Saudi family was likely to produce harmful effects on

relationships within the family. Further field research to investigate, in depth, the social impact on the spiritual values and the traditions and customs of Saudi society is recommended. Such indepth research might profitably utilize ethnographic methods to examine the relationships within several nuclear and extended families that do and do not depend on foreign domestics to care for children and assist in running the households.

In general, the findings of this study showed negative attitudes on the part of Saudi citizens toward foreign workers, a phenomenon attributed to xenophobia. Saudi citizens have very strong commitments to their culture, traditional family relations and religious values and customs. An important question Saudi society will have to face in the near future is: How long will these kinds of commitments to culture and cohesiveness and the system of extended family last in a relatively open society undergoing rapid modernization and development?

Previously, a geographical study examined the distribution of one foreign population (the Americans) in Jeddah City, Saudi Arabia to determine the factors which affected their decision in selecting residential areas (Atiyah, 1984). Similar cross-cultural comparative research which deals with the attitudes of foreign workers in terms of their adaptation, social interaction and acculturation to Saudi society is needed. Foreign workers in Saudi Arabia

are from diverse cultural backgrounds. Therefore, it would be interesting to study the attitudes of various ethnic groups in an alien society. This was one of the initial objectives of this research, but time constraints as well as the volume of material to be researched, limited this investigator to Saudi attitudes.

Further research which focuses on the impact of out-migration on the national economies of the sending countries is also needed. Out-migration from the Yemen Arab Republic to Saudi Arabia and the other oil-producing countries in the region has led to a decline in agricultural production, and a corresponding increase in food importation. Such negative consequences of extensive out-migration not only provide an area for fruitful future research, but are important in terms of the oil exporting countries' future relations with neighboring countries that do not have minerals to export. Carrying out these studies is also one way of expanding the literature in the field, which, in turn, will stimulate other researchers to replicate studies and research additional sociological problems.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Tables A.1, A.2, A.3

TABLE A.1: Foreigners Entering and Leaving Saudi Arabia by Nationality, 1978-1982

Nationality	1401/1982		1401/1981		1400/1980		1399/1979		1398/1978	
	L	E	L	E	L	E	L	E	L	E
Arab Countries:										
Iraq	16491	18552	17075	16807	18115	12926	17146	15704	12356	13917
Syria	180927	199610	206837	180304	197016	16961	186613	204657	187661	194835
Lebanon	109022	104597	167629	119706	140976	114331	116461	120144	111491	120119
Jordan	262853	282880	281259	258768	255569	231795	280131	288082	255778	261335
Kuwait	20551	22012	22020	21160	17516	15618	16464	15510	15287	17126
Yemen (North)	268348	370379	334177	334086	284147	239719	291530	252127	285902	252423
Aden (Southern)										
Yemen	15043	17124	16019	12185	10780	12508	13483	13500	13350	13268
Bahrain	45663	46843	46441	46438	38169	37509	38937	69308	60628	62645
Qatar	83632	87714	74442	74365	65059	67599	68379	69308	60628	62645
Arab Emirates	15686	18324	15579	17019	12818	12842	13951	15820	11165	13668
Oman	5937	6112	3983	4117	2595	2280	2987	2968	2542	2653
Palestine	27021	30827	44301	31052	39187	23761	31111	27571	28408	23679
Algeria	8424	11824	4683	5254	6669	4102	4060	2958	1751	2751
Mauritania	674	1375	710	1399	491	800	1425	809	491	962
Egypt	401606	413968	481924	327781	432567	290605	362120	397230	353923	376352
Morocco	7588	9137	10572	5611	11206	6501	8663	51111	3736	5226
Sudan	95259	99857	200064	78991	96925	73823	58542	60900	61733	47940
Tunisia	7215	9860	10304	5694	12088	4003	6561	4609	3270	4221
Libya	1376	1990	646	1122	4753	2542	3889	2282	1189	1927
Somalia	34418	24147	22491	16135	40272	13619	20951	14778	13420	13222
TOTAL	1707734	1777132	2061066	1558004	1686918	1333844	1543404	1555171	1456336	1462997
Asian Countries:										
Afghanistan	1502	1002	1211	1559	1355	916	4202	688	12690	9641
Turkey	49791	64880	43072	44103	31906	31605	26105	24761	22806	22800
Iran	2266	1679	1648	1691	24042	22987	8016	7938	69122	71494
Malaysia	4449	3703	5818	3461	3526	2818	3345	3345	3160	2963
Japan	27508	16775	42807	13715	26786	11440	18522	11383	11690	11993
Indonesia	12615	17808	15483	17742	16615	9046	12125	11110	918	13348

TABLE A.1: Cont

Nationality	1401/1982			1401/1981			1400/1980			19339/1979			1398/1978		
	L	E		L	E		L	E		L	E		L	E	
Philippines	138212	194308		119137	137706		66967	84523		34383	55231		26629	33205	
Pakistan	232307	294933		341989	264095		240717	229164		168028	196365		195998	154722	
India	140787	205316		120572	160810		85448	122810		63249	92675		52526	61891	
China	7951	7932		7545	7116		6770	5426		4700	6535		5286	7465	
North Korea	---	---		---	---		---	---		---	---		---	---	
South Korea	114759	111302		128987	108847		1024642	89030		63470	84347		39589	66066	
Singapore	1754	1437		1777	1699		1729	1250		2565	1697		2277	1681	
Bangladesh	14892	31639		19905	33617		14834	18469		11994	12644		4016	9617	
Hong Kong	---	---		---	---		---	---		---	---		73	90	
Thailand	62146	85082		61108	67893		34641	45951		24971	38377		10373	24325	
Sri Lanka (Ceylon)	18265	37751		11952	20329		6263	9270		4515	7562		1643	5199	
Other Asian Nationalities	613	472		888	725		69	388		1197	1695		285	551	
TOTAL	829817	1075919		923899	885108		664130	685131		452910	556353		467208	496961	
European Countries:															
Britain	136319	124251		180225	104276		109654	87120		95600	92171		91890	103341	
France	31200	29859		38133	24458		30407	21824		26389	22156		24914	27164	
Holland	13966	15076		13398	12170		13428	10583		19237	14780		16205	17521	
Belgium	3367	3111		3536	4155		2580	2510		7002	3181		4403	4804	
Italy	22800	16154		49763	18153		43123	20251		37849	24777		32343	33494	
Sweden	6386	7742		6688	7925		7399	7888		9479	7951		8495	7455	
Norway	1769	1795		1545	1774		1356	1274		2688	1497		1951	1978	
Switzerland	4342	4949		4225	4075		5111	4371		8464	5428		7373	7121	
Austria	1252	1493		1167	1364		1362	1261		2034	1884		2227	1752	
Germany (West)	33679	24996		50562	22275		34880	22742		29092	26836		27507	27918	
Spain	3231	4206		2149	3436		2528	4099		5512	5753		3037	2888	
Denmark	3032	2939		2666	3236		2763	2842		4885	3124		3823	2834	
Greece	10523	14350		12605	12334		13431	11679		18534	13362		19011	16610	
Cyprus	3209	2709		2736	2640		2493	2305		2756	2901		3830	3147	
Finland	2351	1770		2816	2310		1390	1842		2124	1496		1507	1726	
Other European Nationalities	9691	8660		6064	7036		5688	6208		7086	4797		5108	4629	
Total	287117	264060		378278	231617		277593	208799		278731	232094		252624	266182	

TABLE A.1: Cont

Nationality	1401/1982		1401/1981		1401/1980		1399/1979		1398/1978	
	L	E	L	E	L	E	L	E	L	E
African Countries:										
Ethiopia	3233	3869	2800	2681	2434	2577	4213	2612	2231	1915
Mali	605	1259	919	1428	758	1251	1656	1186	646	2441
Nigeria	5896	12705	7163	12168	5852	7920	5596	3773	3855	3273
Somalia	---	---	1285	1353	1783	1871	1789	1678	631	1700
South Africa	1111	1116	985	809	1027	677	960	751	999	169
Chad	1293	703	1514	1579	979	2940	1795	1885	1820	5081
Other African Nationalities	9025	12008	6273	10400	5032	13671	8088	9556	4138	9768
TOTAL	21163	31660	20939	31418	17865	30907	24097	21441	14320	24347
American Countries:										
U.S.A.	152600	147536	199607	119958	119158	98068	105981	104156	105383	108087
Canada	12906	13777	10052	11539	7374	8403	8657	9445	5785	7475
Australia	7736	5769	14449	4799	7469	3939	7516	3906	3989	4345
Other American & Australian Nationalities	2981	2149	1796	1913	2437	1564	2251	2183	1428	1389
Total	176223	169231	225904	138209	136438	111974	124405	119690	116585	121296
GRAND TOTAL	3022054	3318002	3610086	2844356	2782944	2370655	2423547	2484749	2307073	2371783

SOURCE: Statistical Yearbook, 1982, p. 238

TABLE A.2: Foreigners Obtaining Saudi Nationality Classified by Sex and Previous Nationality
1978 - 1982 A.H.

Previous Nationality	1402/1982		1401/1981		1400/1980		1399/1979		1398/1978	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Arab Countries:										
Kuwait	---	2	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Libya	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Algeria	5	16	12	17	4	17	15	7	8	11
Egypt	51	34	156	8	116	25	79	21	87	35
Tunisia	---	---	1	1	---	---	---	---	3	---
Lebanon	5	19	18	18	20	15	12	11	15	14
Palestine	9	40	38	24	39	28	24	37	28	30
Syria	29	59	59	32	76	17	69	44	97	52
Jordan	26	17	66	14	55	19	43	13	43	25
Hadramaut	52	512	104	427	82	274	78	220	80	221
Bahrain	4	18	6	8	12	7	16	6	10	5
Morocco	1	---	7	3	1	---	4	---	2	1
Iraq	6	9	48	1	70	2	44	4	31	6
Sudan	5	33	12	26	18	14	7	17	15	16
Dubai	1	2	2	1	---	2	---	1	---	2
Oman	2	2	3	3	2	5	1	2	3	2
Yemen	68	179	120	130	57	113	30	172	60	152
Qatar	1	---	1	---	1	1	2	---	---	2
South Arabia	---	---	---	---	---	---	13	10	---	1
TOTAL	265	942	653	713	553	530	437	565	482	575

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Asian Countries:

Pakistan	14	80	34	52	45	50	18	45	22	31
Indonesia	5	31	10	20	19	24	9	45	6	15
India	11	28	15	21	23	21	18	28	4	19
Buchair	2	7	---	7	3	---	---	7	2	16
Turkey	1	3	5	1	2	1	2	1	5	3
Bangladesh	1	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
China	4	11	4	6	---	4	3	5	1	3
Afghanistan	9	7	6	5	5	11	6	2	7	13
Thailand	2	3	2	---	7	4	---	7	1	2

TABLE A.2 Cont

Previous Nationality	1402/1982		1401/1981		1400/1980		1399/1979		1398/1978	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
American Countries:										
U.S.A.	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Canada	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Columbia	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Others	20	30	---	---	93	67	---	---	---	---
GRAND TOTAL	376	1348	856	1042	841	824	576	825	612	794

SOURCE: Statistical Yearbook, 1982, p.236

TABLE A.3: Residence Permits, Issued to Foreigners at Various Passport Office by Regions,
1977-1982

Region	Year					
	1982	1981	1980	1979	1978	1977
Central Region	217376	213604	199017	209451	159134	187121
Western Region	179424	161829	216911	223500	240263	113586
Eastern Region	202811	197394	176299	169656	140821	164733
Northern Region	18897	19080	28373	48007	45805	35373
Southern Region	44605	40249	48331	36660	20380	21272
Total	663113	632156	668931	687274	606403	522085

SOURCE: Statistical Yearbook, 1982, p. 241.

TABLE B.1: Frequency of Attitude Variables

Variable	Agree		Don't Know		Disagree	
	Raw #	Percent of Total	Raw #	Percent of Total	Raw #	Percent of Total
Have it because we need foreign labor	452	89.2	21	4.1	35	6.7
Foreigners' low income	423	83.4	44	8.7	40	7.9
Improving the economy	348	68.6	79	15.6	80	15.8
Solve labor shortages	440	86.8	25	4.9	42	8.3
Participation of local people	490	96.6	11	2.2	6	1.2
Participation of women	343	67.7	40	7.9	124	24.5
Impact on customs	452	89.5	21	4.1	32	6.3
Impact on family	448	88.5	15	3.0	43	8.5
Impact on spiritual values	369	72.9	44	8.7	93	18.4
Developing local human resources	480	96.6	13	2.6	4	0.8
Pressure on public services	467	92.1	25	4.9	15	3.0
Pressure on traffic conditions	474	93.5	10	2.0	23	4.5
Impact on inflation	389	76.9	36	7.1	81	16.0
Increasing cost of rent	443	87.4	12	2.4	52	10.2
Declining productivity	373	73.7	59	11.7	74	14.6
Extravagance	404	79.7	25	4.9	78	15.4
Improving education	504	99.4	0	0.0	3	0.6
Dependency on foreign labor	316	62.5	65	12.8	125	24.7
Reducing influx of foreign labor	452	89.2	26	5.1	29	5.7
Positive impact of foreigners on training	324	63.9	71	14.0	112	22.1
Need for all current foreign labor	89	17.6	87	17.2	331	65.2
Increasing crime	416	82.1	0	0.0	91	17.9
No impact on crime rate	9	1.8	124	24.4	374	73.8
Mean	387.6		37.1		82.0	
Standard Deviation	120.3		31.1		93.3	

Appendix B

Coding Manual for Questionnaire

APPENDIX B

Coding Manual for Questionnaire

No. of the Questionnaire 1-3

Type of Sector 1

Section I: Personal Data

1. What age group of the following do you fall under: 5

1. Less than 20 years
2. 20-24 years
3. 25-29 years
4. 30-34 years
5. 35-39 years
6. 40-44 years
7. 45-49 years
8. 50 years and above.

2. Please indicate the highest level of education you have completed 5

1. No formal education
2. Elementary education
3. Middle School
4. High School
5. College
6. Higher education

3. Please indicate which of the following categories best describes your annual income. 7

1. Less than SR 30,000*
2. 30,000 to 40,000
3. 41,000 to 50,000
4. 51,000 to 60,000
5. 61,000 to 70,000
6. Over 70,000

*One United States dollar equals 3.5 Saudi Riyals

4. Which category best describes your present occupation? 8
1. Businessman
 2. Official employee
 3. Employed in commercial company
 4. Student
 5. Retired
 6. Do not have job
 7. Other
5. How many persons live in your household? (Please include yourself, but do not include visitors) 9
1. One person
 2. Two people
 3. Three to five people.
 4. Six to nine people.
 5. Ten to twelve people.
 6. More than twelve people.
6. What is your marital status? 10
1. Single
 2. Married
 3. Divorced
7. How long have you been in Jeddah City? 11
1. Less than one year
 2. 1 to 4 years
 3. 5 to 9 years
 4. More than 10 years
8. Have you traveled outside of Saudi Arabia? 12
1. Yes
 2. No
9. What countries? 13
1. Arabian countries
 2. Non-Arabian countries
 3. Arabian and non-Arabian countries
10. How many times have you been outside of Saudi Arabia? 14
1. Once
 2. Twice
 3. Three times or more

11. What was the purpose for travel? 15
1. Trade
 2. Work
 3. Pleasure
 4. Education
 5. Seeking health
 6. Other
12. What language do you know besides your native language? 16
1. English
 2. French
 3. German
 4. Other languages
 5. Do not know
13. Do you have any contact with foreign labor? 17
1. Yes
 2. No
14. Foreigners in your opinion are: 18
1. Arab
 2. Muslims non-Arab
 3. Non-Arab and non-Muslims
15. What type of contacts? 19
1. Personal contact
 2. Contact at the workplace
 3. Only brief contact
16. How often do you have contact with foreign laborers? 20
1. Everyday
 2. Several days a week
 3. Once a week or less
17. Do you employ foreign workers? 21
1. Yes
 2. No
- If yes, please answer the following questions:
18. What is their nationalities?

19. How long have you been employing them? 22
1. Less than one year
 2. One to 3 years
 3. More than three years
20. Are you satisfied with their performance? 23
1. Satisfied
 2. Very satisfied
 3. Not satisfied
21. Which of the following nationality groups do you think they respect the traditions and customs of Saudi society 24
1. Arabs
 2. Muslims non-Arabs
 3. South East Asian
 4. European and Americans
22. Which of the following nationality groups do you feel most comfortable with? 25
1. Arabs
 2. Muslims non-Arabs
 3. South-East Asian
 4. European and Americans
23. Which of the following nationality gorups do you think they work for their own interest more than to the interest of Saudi society? 26
1. Arabs
 2. Muslims
 3. South-East Asian
 4. European and Americans
24. How much do you watch foreign broadcasts per day? 27
1. Less than one hour
 2. More than one hour
 3. Do not watch
25. How often do you listen to foreign radio per day? 28
1. Less than one hour
 2. More than one hour
 3. Do not listen

26. Do you read any foreign newspapers? 29
1. Yes
 2. No
27. How much do you read foreign newspapers each day? 30
1. Less than one hour
 2. More than one hour
 3. One hour
28. What type of magazines do you like to read? 31
1. Domestic
 2. Foreign
 3. None

SECTION II: ATTITUDES TOWARD FOREIGN LABOR FORCE

Please read each of the following statements carefully. Indicate your opinion by circling the response below each statement that best describes how you feel about the statement. Select only one response for each statement.

1. The existence of the huge influx of foreign workers in Saudi Arabia was a result of the need for them. 32
- | | | | | |
|----------------|-------|------------|----------|-------------------|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| strongly agree | agree | don't know | disagree | strongly disagree |
| _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
2. The presence of many foreign workers in Saudi Arabia is due to factors such as low wages and inadequate standards of living in their home countries. 33
- | | | | | |
|----------------|-------|-------------|----------|-------------------|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| strongly agree | agree | do not know | disagree | strongly disagree |
| _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
3. The foreign labor force in Saudi Arabia has led to improvement in the Saudi economy. 34
- | | | | | |
|----------------|-------|------------|----------|-------------------|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| strongly agree | agree | don't know | disagree | strongly disagree |
| _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

4. Foreign workers in Saudi Arabia have helped to solve the problem of local shortages of native workers. 35
- | | | | | |
|----------|-------|-------|----------|----------|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| strongly | agree | don't | disagree | strongly |
| agree | | know | | disagree |
5. Increased participation of Saudi citizens in government and private business employment would lead to a decline in the importation of foreign labor forces? 36
- | | | | | |
|----------|-------|-------|----------|----------|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| strongly | agree | don't | disagree | strongly |
| agree | | know | | disagree |
6. Women's participation and involvement in appropriate government and business employment would positively reduce the dependency on foreign labor. 37
- | | | | | |
|----------|-------|-------|----------|----------|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| strongly | agree | don't | disagree | strongly |
| agree | | know | | disagree |
7. The presence of a large foreign work force in Saudi Arabia has had harmful effects on the society's traditions and customs. 38
- | | | | | |
|----------|-------|-------|----------|----------|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| strongly | agree | don't | disagree | strongly |
| agree | | know | | disagree |
8. Having a foreign driver, nurse or servant within the Saudi family is likely to have harmful effects on 39
- | | | | | |
|----------|-------|-------|----------|----------|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| strongly | agree | don't | disagree | strongly |
| agree | | know | | disagree |
9. The spiritual values of the Saudi society are threatened 40
by the presence in our country of large numbers of
non-Moslem foreign workers.
- | | | | | |
|----------|-------|-------|----------|----------|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| strongly | agree | don't | disagree | strongly |
| agree | | know | | disagree |
10. The establishment of government programs to develop Saudi human resources will elad to increased self-sufficiency and less reliance on imported foreign labor. 41
- | | | | | |
|----------|-------|-------|----------|----------|
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) |
| strongly | agree | don't | disagree | strongly |
| agree | | know | | disagree |

11. The existence of a large imported labor force has put serious pressure on local public services such as education, health care and transportation. 42
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree
12. The existence of foreign labor in Saudi Arabia has led to crowded traffic conditions as well as a high accident rate. 43
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree
13. The existence of the foreign labor force in Saudi Arabia has led to inflated prices of goods and services. 44
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree
14. The presence of foreign labor in Saudi Arabia has led to high rents, as well as a shortage of housing. 45
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree
15. The presence of the foreign labor force in Saudi Arabia causes the productivity of the indigenous labor force to decline. 46
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree
16. The majority of Saudi families who import a foreign driver, a nurse and a servant do not really need them, but it is an extravagance. 47
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree

17. Improvement in the educational system (formal, vocational, technical) will lead to the development of human resources. 48
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree
18. It seems that the current demand on foreign labor forces indicates a form of continuing dependency on imported foreign labor during the next coming years. 49
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree
19. An effort must be made to slow down the influx of foreign labor to Saudi Arabia. 50
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree
20. The presence of a foreign labor force in Saudi Arabia has contributed positively to effective training of Saudi labor forces? 51
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree
21. The country actually needs all of the imported foreign workers now in Saudi Arabia? 52
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree
22. The importation of foreign workers has increased the crime rates in the country. 53
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree
23. The rates of crime would be the same even if there were no foreign labor force. 54
- (1) strongly agree (2) agree (3) don't know (4) disagree (5) strongly disagree

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

دراسة تطبيعية على مدينة "جدة" على المجتمع السعودي

دراسة تطبيعية على مدينة "جدة"

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

الدخ الفاضل ..

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

تولي حكومتنا الرشيدة الدراسات والبحوث الميدانية اهتماماً كبيراً وخاصة في دراسة واقع مجتمعنا السعودي . وهذه الدراسة التي نقوم بها الآن هي أحد العاير التي تساهم في توضيح المراحل والظروف الاجتماعية للمجتمع السعودي وعلاقته بالبيئة العاملة الأجنبية وهذا الاستفاد المأمور به بين يديك يهدف إلى قياس الأثر الاجتماعي للعالة الأجنبية على المجتمع السعودي . وجميع المعلومات التي ترد في هذا الاستفاد يستفاد منها في الدراسة وتعلمي أياكم كرامين سعودي تعيش هذه الظاهرة وأن تعاونكم معنا في الدجابه على حل المسئلة الواردة بعناياتكم وموضوعية سوف يجعل نتائج هذه الدراسة أقرب إلى الصحة وساهمتكم منكم في خدمة وطننا ومجتمعنا العالي وأخي والله في كريم تعاونكم وتجاوبكم وأشكر لكم سلفاً عنايتكم واهتمامكم .

والسلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

أنتم علي عبد الله صقر الفاضل

طالب دراسات عليا لتوضير الدكتوراه

بعلوم الاجتماع

بجامعة ولاية مسكن بأمریکا

مدعظه لهامة: فضلًا ضع علامة (ـ) أمام أى خانة من
الخانات التى تدرئتم رأيت . رقم الاستبيان
قطاع التوزيع

القسم الأول: معلومات شخصية.

١- ما هو تقديرك لعمره ؟

١	٢	٣	٤	٥	٦	٧	٨
أقل من ٢٠ سنة	٢٠-٢٩ سنة	٣٠-٣٩ سنة	٤٠-٤٩ سنة	٥٠-٥٩ سنة	٦٠-٦٩ سنة	٧٠-٧٩ سنة	٨٠ سنة فأكثر

٢- ما هو المستوى التعليمى الذى وصلت اليه ؟

١	٢	٣	٤	٥	٦
تعليم غير رسمى	تعليم ابتدائى	تعليم متوسط	تعليم ثانوى	تعليم جامعى	تعليم عال

٣- ما هو مقدار دخله السنوى تقريباً ؟

١	٢	٣	٤	٥	٦
أقل من ٢٠٠٠ ريال	٢٠٠٠ - ٤٠٠٠ ريال	٤٠٠٠ - ٦٠٠٠ ريال	٦٠٠٠ - ٨٠٠٠ ريال	٨٠٠٠ - ١٠٠٠٠ ريال	أكثر من ١٠٠٠٠ ريال

۴۔ ماہی المینہ التي تراو لظ عالیا ؟

۷	۶	۵	۴	۳	۲	۱
غیر لکھا	لید لریج محل	ستقاعد	طالب	موظف تجاریہ	موظف حکومتی	رجد اموال

۵۔ کم عدد الأشخاص الذين تعلمهم (فضلًا عدم إضافة الزائرين) ؟

۶	۵	۴	۳	۲	۱
اکثر سے ۱۲ شخصاً	۱۲-۱۰ سے شخصاً	۹-۶ سے شخصاً	۵-۳ سے شخصاً	۲ شخص	شخص واحد

۶۔ ماہی حالتک الیجتماعیہ ؟

۴	۳	۲	۱
اُردو	طلمہ	تذوہ	اعزب

۷۔ کم لك قییم فی مریئہ جری ؟

۴	۳	۲	۱
اکثر سے ۱۰ سنوات	۹-۵ سے سنوات	۴-۱ سے سنوات	اکثر سے واحد

٨. هل سبق لك أن سافرت خارج المملكة العربية السعودية ؟

١	٢
نعم	لا

٩. إذا كانت الأجابة بنعم فملاُجب على الأسئلة التالية :

في أية سه لدول التالية ؟

١	٢	٣
دول عربية	دول غير عربية	دول عربية
عربية	عربية	غير عربية

١٠. كم عدد المرات التي سافرت فيل إلى خارج المملكة العربية السعودية ؟

١	٢	٣
مرة واحدة مرتان	ثلاث مرات	أكثر

١١. ما إذا كان الغرض من سفرك للخارج ؟

١	٢	٣	٤	٥	٦
للجاءة	للمع	للتنزهة	للتعليم	للمع	أشياء أخرى

١٤. ماهي اللغات التي تجيدها الى جانب اللغة العربية ؟

٥	٤	٣	٢	١
لغة أخرى لا أعرف غيرها	لغة أخرى	اللغة اللاتينية	اللغة الفرنسية	اللغة الإنجليزية

16

١٥. هل لديك علاقة مع المال الدجانبى ؟

٢	١
لا	نعم

17

١٦. الدجانبى سدرجته تترك هم :

٣	٢	١
غير العرب المسلمين	المسلمون غير العرب	العرب

18

١٧. ما نوع العلاقة ؟

٢	٢	١
مُرتبة	عمل	مُرتبة

19

۱۶. ماری کے تکرر۔ العداۃ مع کد جانہ ؟

۳	۲	۱
مرو فی ہجرت اذا فتنہ	عقۃ اہل خاندان	کھلے یوم

20

۱۷. کھلے تستفہم عمال اُجانب لڈمورک افصاۃ ؟

۲	۱
لا	نعم

21

۱۸. اذا كانت الذجابة بنعم، فضعاً اُجب علی الذسئلۃ السالیه ؟
ماہی جنسیاتہم ؟

۱۹. کم الدۃ القی قضرلہا فی العدۃ عدۃ ؟

۳	۲	۱
اکثر مدۃ ۳ سنوات	۲-۱ مدۃ سنوات	اقل مدۃ واحدۃ

22

۲۰. کھلے أنتے ارضی عنہ علمہم ؟

۳	۲	۱
غیر ارضی	ارضی جداً	ارضی

23

٢٤. أيا هذه الديوث العاملة الأجنبية تعتقد أنه يعمل بصرفه وأخذ من
وعتد عادات وتقاليد مجتمعنا العربي؟

١	٢	٣	٤
العالم العرب	العالم غير العرب	العالم الشرق	العالم الغرب

24

٢٥. أيا هذه الديوث العاملة الأجنبية تعتقد أنها أكثر غيرة؟

١	٢	٣	٤
العالم العرب	العالم غير العرب	العالم الشرق	العالم الغرب

25

٢٦. أيا هذه الديوث العاملة الأجنبية تعتقد أنهم يعملون لصالحهم الخاصة
أكثر من غيرة من المجتمع العربي؟

١	٢	٣	٤
العالم العرب	العالم غير العرب	العالم الشرق	العالم الغرب

26

٤٤. كم المرة التي تقضيها في طاعة البرامج التليفزيونية الأجنبية في اليوم؟

٢	١	١
لا أطلع	أكثر من ساعة	أقل من ساعة

27

٤٥. كم المرة التي تقضيها لسماع الإذاعات الأجنبية في اليوم؟

٢	١	١
لا أسمع	أكثر من ساعة	أقل من ساعة

28

٤٦. هل تقرأ أي صحف أجنبية؟

٢	١
لا	نعم

29

٤٧. كم المرة التي تقضيها في قراءة الصحف الأجنبية كل يوم؟

٢	١	١
ساعة واحدة	أكثر من ساعة	أقل من ساعة

30

٢٨. ماهي أنواع المبدآت التي تحب قرادتها ؟

٣	٢	١
المالية	الدجنبية	لأشئ

31



١	٢	٣	٤	٥
أولاده بشم	أولاده	لأولادهم	لأولادهم	لأولادهم بشم
				36
				37
				38
				39

٥- زيادة نسبة مشاركة المواطنين في قتل
القطاعات الحكومية والخاصة سيكثرون له تأثير
إيجابي في انخفاض نسبة الاعتماد على
العمالة الأجنبية .

٦- مشاركة المرأة في بعض القطاعات الحكومية
الخاصة قد يؤدي إلى انخفاض نسبة
العمالة الأجنبية .

٧- أن استمرارية وجود الأعداء الكبير من
الذين العاملون الأجنبية سوف يكون له
تأثير سلبي على عادات وتقاليد المجتمع العربي .

٨- أن وجود السائقين الأجانب ، والمهنيين
والخادمة في الأسرة السعودية سوف يكون له
تأثير سلبي على العلاقات الاجتماعية
الأسرية .

١	٢	٣	٤	٥
أدناه بشع	أدناه بشع	أدناه بشع	أدناه بشع	أدناه بشع
40				
41				
42				
43				

٩. نظراً لوجود الدعاية الكبيرة ضد العراق كجانب
في مختلف المرسات فإن لقيم الاجتماعية للمجتمع
السعودي ضرورة

١٠. أن المعنى على تطوير القوى البشرية
المهمة سيؤدي إلى صوما إلى اليكفاء
الذاتية بدلاً من الاعتماد الكلي على الذكاء
العامة الأجنبية .

١١. أن وجود الدعاية الكبيرة ضد الأديرة لعامة
الأجنبية أدى إلى وجود ضغوط على الحكومات
العامة مثل " التعليم ، الصحة ، المواصلات " .

١٢. أن وجود العراق الأجانب بشكل كبير في المملكة
أدى إلى إرباك حركة السير الروسية وبالتالي
أدى إلى زيادة الحوادث المرورية .

١	٢	٣	٤	٥
أراضيه بشعة	أراضيه بشعة	أراضيه بشعة	أراضيه بشعة	أراضيه بشعة
44				
45				
46				
47				

١٣. أن مجموع الدخل الكبير من الأراضي لمعامله
الاجنبية في المملكة أدعى إلى استغاث
في أسعار المزارع الزراعية والفواكه.

١٤. أن مجموع الدخل الكبير من الأراضي لمعامله
الاجنبية في المملكة أدعى إلى مجموع نقص
في المساحة وارتفاع في أجور الكس.

١٥. أن تدفق الموالد الأجانب بشكل كبير إلى
المملكة أدعى إلى عدم حرص المصالح المحلية
على المساهمة بفاعلية في زيادة الإنتاج.

١٦. الكثير من العائدين السعوديين يستفيدون
من السهم الاجنبي والمربية والقائمة ليس
لأن هناك حاجة ماسة لهم، ولكن من باب
التنمية والتقليل.

١	٢	٣	٤	٥
أوراق بشرة	أوراق بشرة	أوراق بشرة	أوراق بشرة	أوراق بشرة
				48
				49
				50
				51

١٧. التوسع في التعليم بمحتوياته المتكيفة
(تعليم عام ، موزع ، فني ... الخ)
سوف يؤدي إلى تنمية لقرى لبرية لمالية .

١٨. أن الطلب على الديروى العاملة الأجنبية
في الوقت الحاضر يشير إلى استمرارية الاعتماد
على الديروى العاملة الأجنبية في لبرية لمالية .

١٩. هذه تعتقد أنه لا بد من العمل على تقليص
تدفق الديروى العاملة الأجنبية .

٢٠. إذا كانت أجايدى بالمرتبعة فمضى وضم لماذا ؟

إذا كانت أجايدى بمرتبعة فمضى وضم لماذا ؟

٢١. هذه تعتقد أن وجود الدعداد الكبيرة بعد الديروى الأجنبية
في المملكة كان له تأثير إيجابي في تدريب لقرى لبرية
المالية

١	٢	٣	٤	٥
أراضه بشم	أراضه بشم	أراضه بشم	أراضه بشم	أراضه بشم
52				
53				
54				
55				
١	٢	٣	٤	٥

١. هل تعتمد أن البلد نعتد بحاجة لكل هذه الأديرة
العامة الأجنبية المرسدة الآن في المملكة .

٢. هل تدرج الأديرة العامة الأجنبية أدنى
إلى ارتفاع نسبة الجريمة في المملكة .

ما هي أنواع الجرائم الناجمة من وجود العمالة
الأجنبية بالمملكة

٣. هل نسبة الجريمة مستبقة كما هي حتى لو لم يكن
هناك أعداد كبيرة من العمالة الأجنبية .

٤. إذا كنت تعتقد أنه لا بد من تقليص الأديرة العامة
الأجنبية ، ما هي في نظرك أفضل لتقليص اعتمادنا
على الأديرة العامة الأجنبية .

أى ملاحظات تريد إضافتها

- ١-١. ارتفاع نسبة مشاركة المرأة
- ٢-١. تدبير الأديرة العامة المحلية على الأعمال
المجانية
- ٢-٢. إعطاء صوافر معنوية ومالية للطلاب
المقبلين على التعليم الفني

سعيد الشكري

Appendix C

Government Ministry Branches in Jeddah City

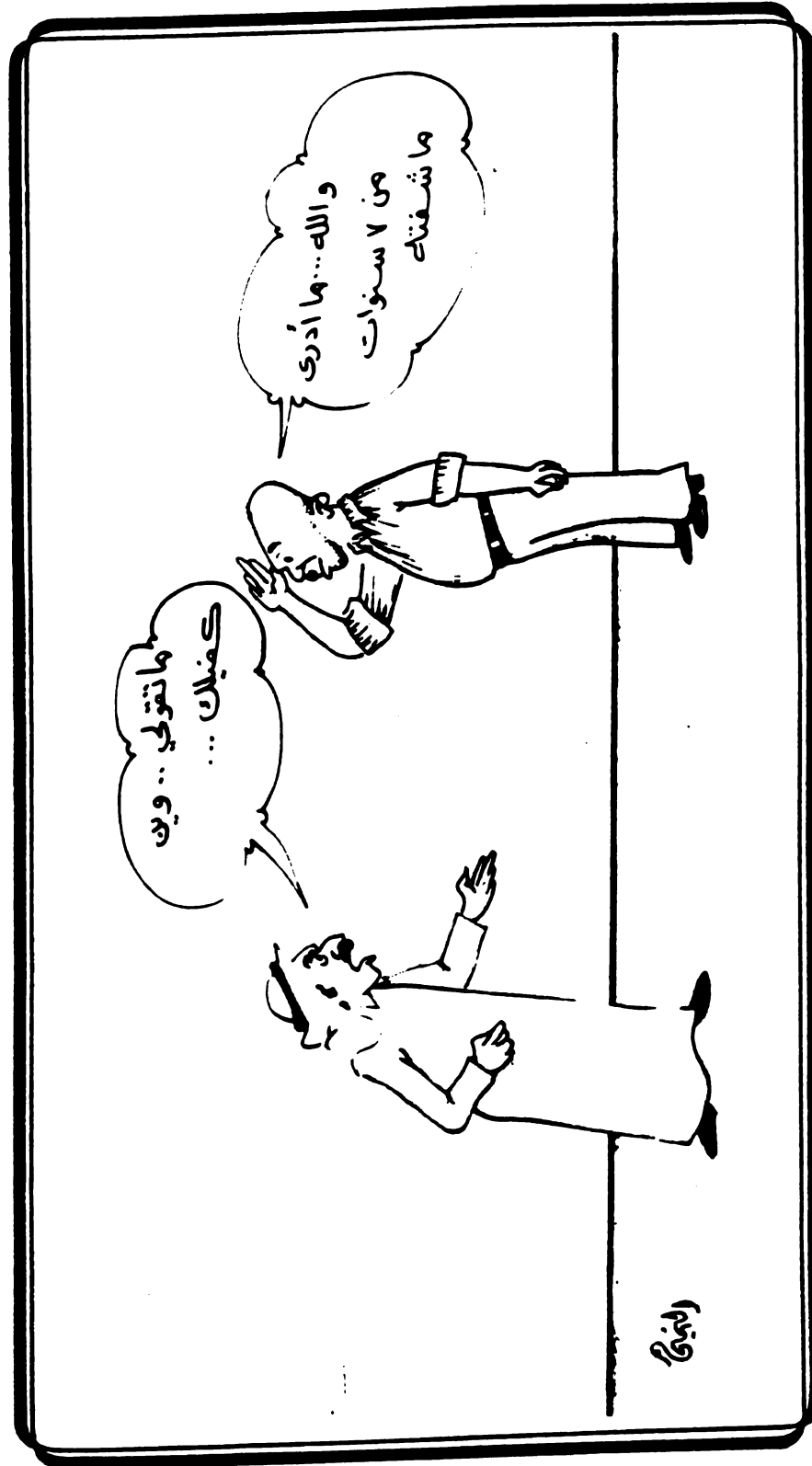
APPENDIX C

List of the Twenty Government Ministries in the Capital City and Their Branches Located in Jeddah City.

1. Ministry of Interior
2. Ministry of Planning
3. Ministry of Justice
4. Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs
5. Ministry of Pilgrimage and Endowments
6. Ministry of Foreign Affairs
7. Ministry of Commerce
8. Ministry of Defense and Aviation
9. Ministry of Health
10. Ministry of Municipality & Rural Affairs
11. Ministry of Agriculture
12. Ministry of Housing and Public Work
13. Ministry of Communication
14. Ministry of Information
15. Ministry of Education
16. Ministry of Telegraphs
17. Ministry of Petroleum
18. Ministry of Industry
19. Ministry of Finance and National Economy
20. Ministry of Higher Education

Appendix D

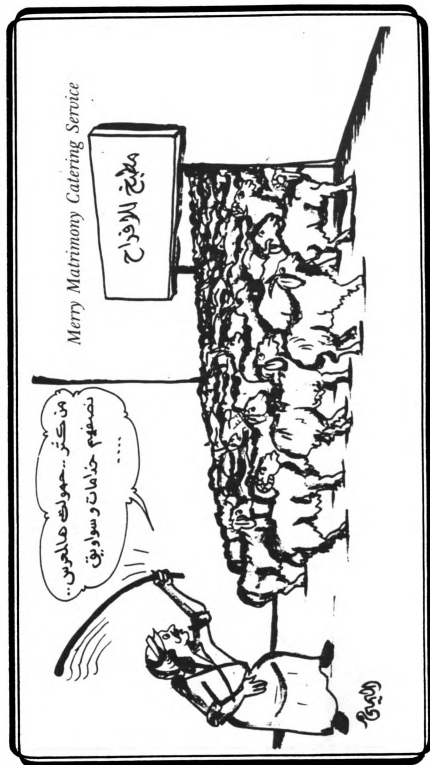
Cartoons in this section are media depictions that reflect public perceptions of and reactions to the presence of a large expatriate labor force in Saudi Arabia. While the situations are exaggerated for humor, the underlying themes accurately echo the society's frustration and exasperation with its growing dependence on foreign workers and their cultural differences



So tell me... who's your sponsor (Kafeel).
 The hell if I know... I have not seen him in seven years.
 Source: Riyadh daily newspaper, Dec. 11, 1984



*Officer: Okay now... who caused the accident?
 Woman: Not my driver! Our Pakistani is never at fault.
 Source: Riyadh daily newspaper, April 11, 1984*



"Oh Boy! . . . and half of them will be devoured by maids and chauffeurs."

Source: Riyadh daily newspaper, April 23, 1984



Mother: Get back here! You gotta take your sisters shopping.
 Son: Says who? The guys wanna go out cruising. . . let the Filippino take them.
 Source: Riyadh daily newspaper, Jan. 25, 1984



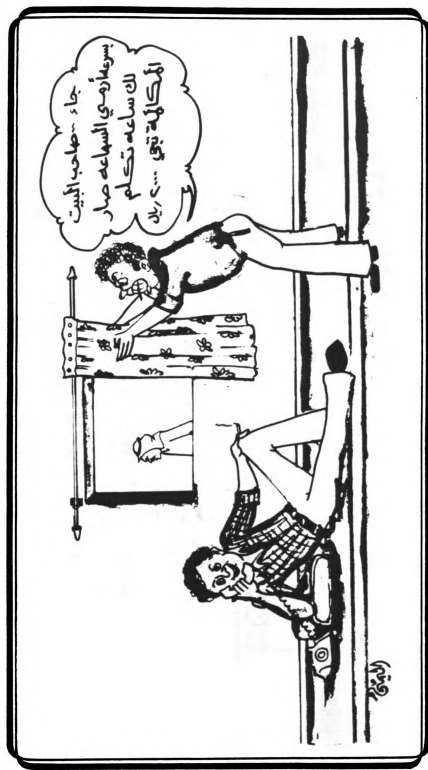
Wife: For a Buddhist to face Mecca is like asking me to milk a ram.

Source: Riyadh daily newspaper, Jan. 21, 1984



"Here comes our maid... you ask her for a spoon, she brings you tea; you ask her for macaroni, she brings cheese."

Source: Riyadh daily newspaper, Jan. 19, 1984



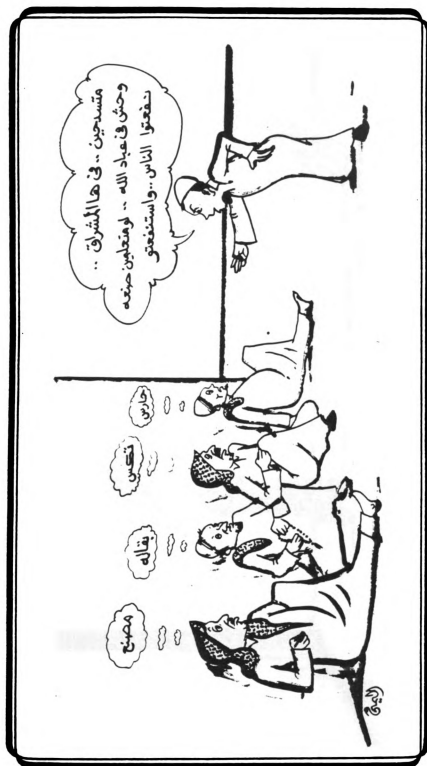
"Hey... here comes the owner. You better hang up before he figures out you ran up his phone bill."

Source: Riyadh daily newspaper, Dec. 15, 1984.



Sheppard: If they can have a Filippino to drive them, I sure as heck want one to drive my herd.

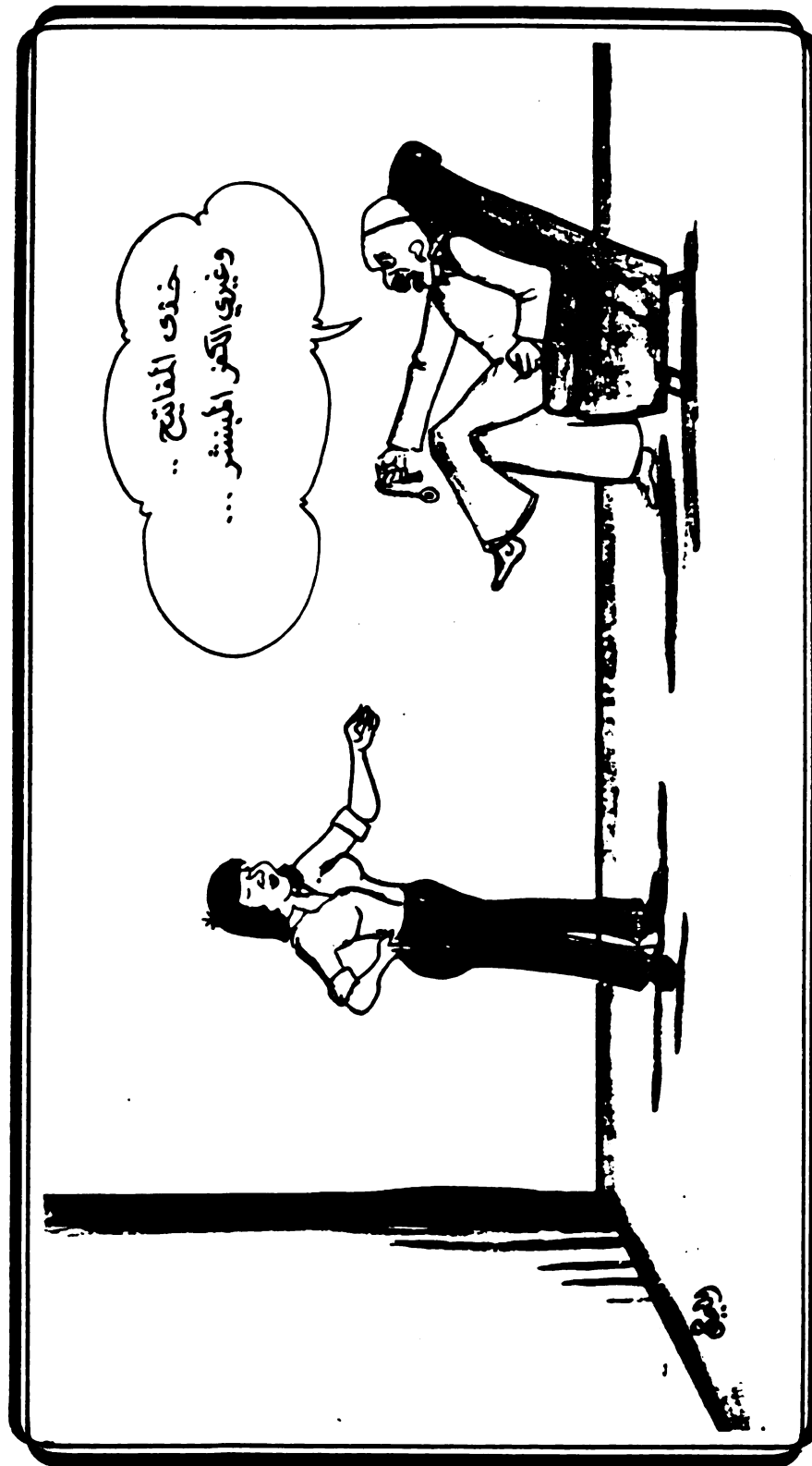
Source: Riyadh daily newspaper, March 17, 1984



Boy: Instead of sitting on your behinds all day you ought to spend the time learning to do it your selves.

Care Taker, Cab Driver, Clerk, Assembly Worker.

Source: Riyadh daily newspaper, Dec. 15, 1983



Man: "and when you're done with that, take the keys and fix the flat."

Source: Riyadh daily newspaper, Jan. 29, 1984

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