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RURAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN SAUDI ARABIA: A STUDY OF

PARTICIPATION, OPINIONS, AND EVALUATIONS OF THE

DEVELOPMENT CENTER'S PROGRAMS AND SERVICES

BY WADI FATMA VILLAGERS

By

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ABSTRACT

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The sociological problem addressed in this research is the adoption of innovations in the context of a traditional society. Specifically, the primary focus of this study is to examine the villagers' participation, opinions currently held, and evaluation of the various kinds of government-sponsored programs. These programs include the areas of agricultural extension, health, education and culture, and social affairs. The target system was not viewed as monolithic. Hence, we examine the relationships between the dependent variable, participation, and the independent variables (age, marital status, level of education, size of family, length of residence, and distance from the center).

The present research started with a survey of related literature in the field of sociology and community development. In addition, informal interviews with some officials, community development center workers, and several rural leaders of the Wadi Fatma area provided valuable background information that was used in constructing the instrument for this study. Various Saudi government

documents were also consulted. A structured interview was used in gathering data for this study. This research instrument was refined into its final form following a pilot study. Finally, the instrument was typed in Arabic and administered to a selected sample.

A randomized sample of 260 household heads was selected from a population of 2,050 household heads in six villages of the Wadi Fatma region served by the community development center. Of the total sample of 260 cases, 245 were included in the final analysis. Data were analyzed using frequency analysis and cross-tabulation techniques.

Six hypotheses related to the participation of heads of household in the community development center programs were tested by employing the chi-square procedure. The results of this analysis indicate that three of the factors--marital status, level of education, and length of residence--have a statistically significant relationship to participation. The proportion of household heads who participate in the community development center's activities and programs is higher among those who are married, who have a higher level of education, and who have resided longer in the area. Age, distance to the center, and number of persons in the household do not have a significant relationship to participation. Participation tends to increase with increasing numbers in the household, but the relationship is not statistically significant. Based on the findings of this study, a number of recommendations for change are made, and suggestions for further research are provided.

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

IN THE NAME OF ALLAH, THE MOST MERCIFUL

AND THE MOST BENEFICENT

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother (may her soul rest in peace!) for her constant prayers and encouragement; my father, my uncle, and my mother-in-law for their moral support and prayers; and my two brothers, Ibraim and Ahmad, for their support. Last but not least, this dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Rhma, and our children, Hanan, Hatem, and Banan, for their patience and encouragement to complete this study.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction to the Study

In recent years, Saudi Arabia has become one of the largest oil
producers in the world. The rapid increase of revenue due to this
production has encouraged rapid development. Changes have taken place
in all aspects of Saudi Arabian society, including the economy, educa-
tion, health, and social welfare.

The increase in revenue has given the government a large finan-
cial base on which to build a development program. It must be pointed
out, however, that money does not equal development. Development
implies not only increased income, but a change within society that
improves the lives of all of the inhabitants and raises the general
standard of living. This goal cannot be fully achieved unless the
people participate effectively and share responsibility for many pro-
grams.

As a part of the plan to achieve widespread development, gov-
ernment community development centers have been established in some
rural areas of the country, beginning in 1960. As a method and pro-
cess, the Saudi government considers community development one of the
most effective ways to accelerate social and economic advancement.
Since many developing countries have embarked on successful development

programs, it is reasonable to assume that this should hold true for Saudi Arabia as well. So far, however, the Saudi Arabian experience has not been highly successful. The community development center programs in rural locations are generally considered insufficient to fulfill the needs and wants of the residents. Further, the programs have not been highly helpful in encouraging the target system to participate effectively in the various kinds of programs offered. It is important for the future of Saudi Arabia that the quality of rural programs be improved. It is also vital to obtain citizen participation in the different kinds of program activities and in the decision-making process, especially to identify public needs and problems.

Statement of the Problem and Its Theoretical Moorings

The sociological problem addressed in this research is the adoption of innovations in the context of a traditional society. Specifically, the focus is on participation, opinions, and evaluation of various kinds of government-sponsored programs and services by rural community residents in one area of Saudi Arabia. The government programs cover health, agriculture, education and culture, and social areas.

The sociological problem is one in which two social systems, each with its own social structure, norms, and value orientation, come into contact and either achieve, or fail to achieve, socio-cultural linkage. In the case of government rural development programs, the Saudi Arabian government is viewed as a change agent seeking to

introduce change into the target system. The villagers are viewed as the change target system. Government community development center workers, located in the rural areas, are seen as the primary change agents.

It is part of our theoretical perspective that the change agent system often designs programs without sufficient input and involvement by members of the change target system. This circumstance may account for the modest success of community development in Saudi Arabia. It is possible that the two systems have not achieved linkage, that is, a substantial convergence of norms, values, and objectives.

Sharkansky (1970) lists the following factors that influence the quality of and involvement in planned change:

1. . . . The specific attitudes that the citizens hold about public programs. . . ;
2. Demands, resources, and political support from individual citizens, political parties, and interest groups;
3. Demands, resources, and political support from individuals and institutions in other governments through "vertical" or "horizontal" intergovernmental relations;
4. The social background, skills, and values of administrators themselves; and
5. The structures, procedures, and precedents of administrative units. (p. 36)

Among these five factors, the first is critical and important for several reasons. First, the people feel a part of the decisions affecting their lives and thus may feel more committed to the public policies. Second, when people feel a commitment to the decisions affecting their lives, there is a greater likelihood of their participation and involvement. Finally, an input of opinions from a number of

different people in the decision-making process brings about a recognition of differing points of view and differing needs.

The intention of this research is to analyze villagers' awareness, opinions, and assessment of the specific program areas, namely, agricultural extension, health, education and culture, and social affairs. The target system is not viewed as monolithic. Hence we want to examine how participation in development programs is affected by variables such as age, education, marital status, size of family, length of residence, and distance from the center.

Objectives and Importance of the Study

The following are the main objectives of this study:

1. To describe and analyze the social and economic system of rural Saudi Arabia in general and Wadi Fatma village (the study area) in particular.

2. To describe and critically analyze the application of community development rural centers and the two community development concepts (change agents and target system) to the Saudi Arabian rural community development program.

3. To examine the knowledge, use, and opinions currently held by villages of the rural development centers' programs and services. These programs include the areas of health, agricultural extension, education and culture, and social services.

4. To analyze and examine how the villagers' participation in the different kinds of programs of the community development center is affected by a number of variables, such as age, level of education,

marital status, length of residence, size of family, and distance from the center.

This study is important for several reasons. First, no systematic study of its kind has been conducted before in Saudi Arabia. This statement was confirmed by an interview conducted by the researcher in 1983 with the director and workers of the community development center in Wadi Fatma and with administrators in the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs. In addition, a search was made of the literature to find any studies related to this area of concern. Second, such information has broad implications for rural community development, change agents, administrators, and primary change agents (workers). Personnel in these areas will be able to perform their functions more effectively once they have a better understanding of villagers' opinions and assessment of community development center programs and services. Such information will enable them to play a major role in knowledge of the major needs and problems of the villagers and then to identify possible improvement programs for all residents of the rural areas of Saudi Arabia.

Organization of the Study

The study is organized into seven chapters, as follows. Following this introduction to the study, a brief background concerning Saudi Arabia is presented in Chapter II. The literature related to community development theory, concept, programs, and participation is extensively reviewed in Chapter III. The background of rural community

development centers and the application of the change agent and target system concepts in Saudi Arabian society are presented in Chapter IV. The research hypotheses, research design and methodology, and a description of the population and area of the study are found in Chapter V. Chapter VI contains the research findings and analysis, while the summary, conclusions, and recommendations are presented in Chapter VII.

CHAPTER II

MODERN SAUDI ARABIA: A BRIEF BACKGROUND

Because this research is concerned with the community develop-
ment programs in Saudi Arabia, it is deemed appropriate to familiarize
the reader with Saudi Arabian society. This chapter briefly touches on
the historical background, geographical location, population, climate,
social and political character, and economic characteristics of Saudi
Arabia.

Historical Background

The Arabian peninsula, of which four-fifths is at present the
country of Saudi Arabia, has a civilization that stretches back almost
to 3000 B.C. A significant historical and cultural change occurred in
the seventh century A.D. when Arabs brought the Islamic religion to the
peninsula. A new set of rules, language, religion, and patterns of
living has characterized the Arabian peninsula ever since. The spread
of Islam to a large area during the early Islamic empire period made
Makkah a major cultural center in the Islamic world.

During the sixteenth century the Ottomans invaded the Arabian
peninsula, where they reigned supreme until the first world war. An
Islamic government was established in 1932 when King Abdul Aziz Al-
Saud (the founder of contemporary Saudi Arabia) was proclaimed King of

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Saudi Arabia. Since then the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has been ruled by the house of Saud. For almost 24 years (1901-1925), Ibn Saud led successive campaigns against the tribes of the Arabian desert and united them under his rule. Before the creation of the Kingdom, the tribes of Arabia lived in a constant state of insecurity, and tribal rivalry was the main principle conditioning desert life.

Location

Saudi Arabia occupies four-fifths of the Arabian Peninsula in southwest Asia. According to the Area Handbook for Saudi Arabia (1971), "the area of the Kingdom is officially estimated at about 970,000 square miles (about one-third the size of the United States" (p. 1). Saudi Arabia extends from the Arabian Gulf in the east to the Red Sea in the west. It borders Kuwait, Iraq, and Jordan to the north; Qatar, the United Arab Emirates, and Oman to the east; and Yemen and the Republic of South Yemen to the south.

The country consists of five provinces or regions. Each region has its own distinctive characteristics. The western (Hijaz) region is a coastal plain confined within a narrow space by mountains that drop sharply toward the Red Sea. This region has a long history of spiritual importance to the Muslim people since it contains the two holy cities of Makkah and Medina. Jeddah and Taif are the region's major cities. The important feature of this region is the haj, in which about two million Muslims from all over the world make the journey to Makkah and Medina during the pilgrimage season each year.

The central region (Najed) covers the largest part of the country and includes El-Kassim, Hail, and Alaflag. At the center of this region is the Kingdom's capital city of Riyadh. The Eastern Region (Al-Hasa) is the country's wealthiest area in resource endowments since it contains the massive oil deposits. In this area there are several important cities, such as Dammam, Dhahran, and Al-Khobar.

The southern region (Asir) includes the major towns of Abha, Jizan, and Najran. In this area mountain peaks rise to 10,000 feet, with ample rainfall for cultivation. The northern region (Tabouk) borders on Jordan and Iraq at the northernmost points of the country. A map of Saudi Arabia (Figure 1) is provided on the following page to help the reader visualize Saudi Arabia's geography.

The Population

According to the 1974 population census, there were slightly more than seven million people in the country, with an annual growth rate of 3 percent.

> In the 1980s Saudi Arabia's population is estimated at 8,244,000. Of this number 27 percent is nomadic and 39 percent live in towns with 30,000 or more inhabitants. The population is young; 44 percent are under 15 years of age. (El-Mallakh, 1982, p. 20)

It is very difficult to obtain reliable population statistics of the unsettled Bedouins because of the great changes in their lifestyle. Many of them have turned to stable agriculture and some to life in the cities. However, it has been estimated that about 1.9 million are unsettled or nomads.
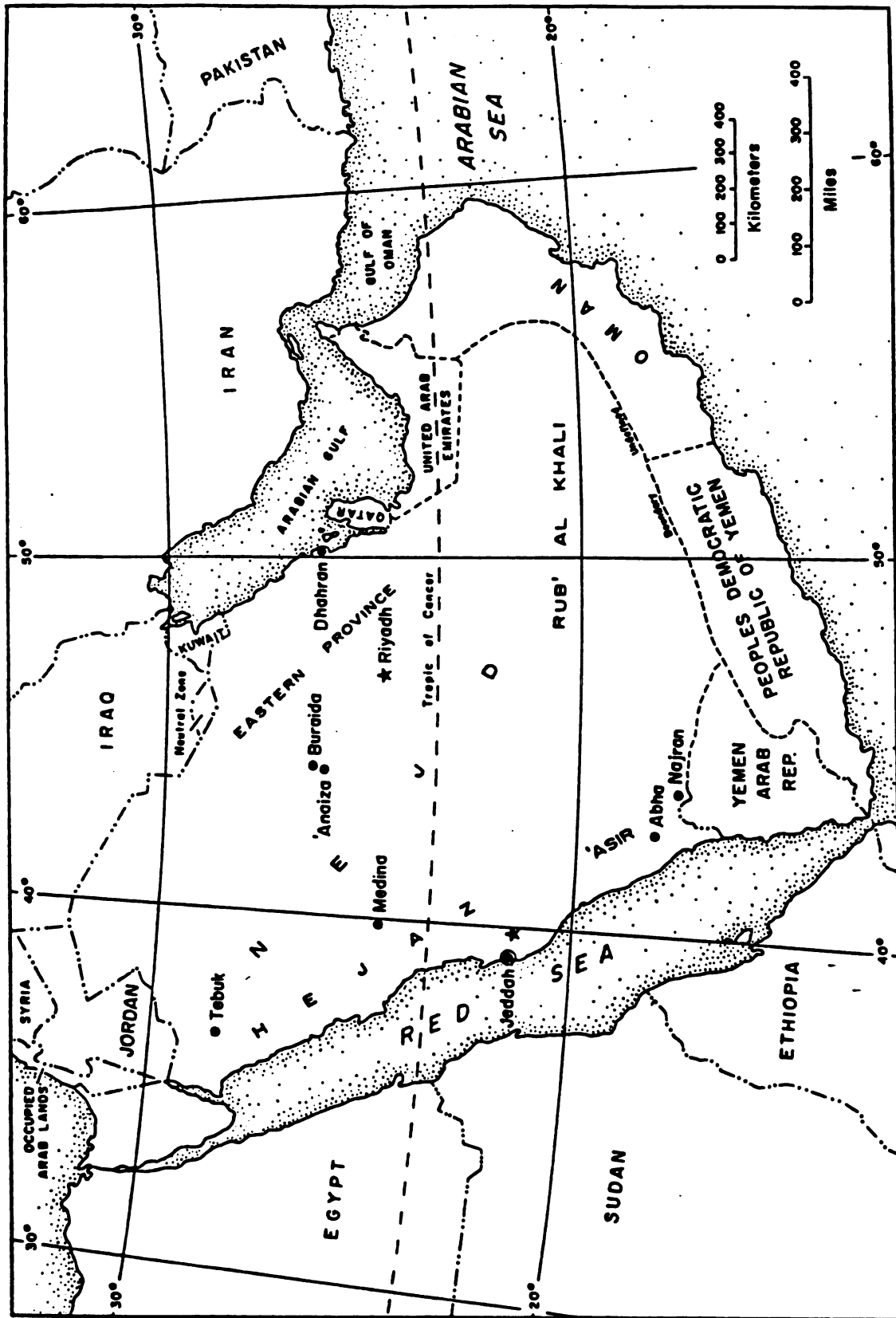
Map 1: Saudi Arabia.

The large migration experienced in Saudi Arabia from rural to urban cities by villagers and nomads is usually the result of a search for better employment opportunity, higher wages, better education, and a better standard of living. The urban population has grown very rapidly because of the large influx of people from the interior, as well as from outside the Kingdom.

The number of foreign workers in Saudi Arabia has increased rapidly in the past 15 years as a result of the huge development plans, especially in the major cities of the nation. The 1974 census indicated that the non-Saudi population in the country was 791,105 (Daghistani, 1979, p. 13), whereas other sources have put the non-Saudi population at 1.5 million in the same year (Middle East and North Africa, 1981, p. 664). However, this figure increased dramatically and was estimated at over three million in 1981.

> The population of the three million workers from South Asia and Yemen, who receive relatively low wages, has declined while the number from the United States, Europe, and East Asia, who receive relatively high pay, has increased. (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1981, p. 11)

From this information, it is likely that the foreign work force in Saudi Arabia doubled between the early 1970s and the early 1980s.

There are three urban population complexes in Saudi Arabia: the western area, which includes Jeddah, Taif, and the holy cities of Makkah and Medina; the central area, which includes the capital city of Riyadh and the Qasim section; and the eastern area, which includes the cities of Dammam, Al-Hofof, and Dharan.

Climate

The climate in Saudi Arabia is controlled by the subtropical high-pressure system. The annual average rainfall is about four inches, except in the southwest region, where it reaches an average of 12 inches because of the effect of the summer monsoon of the Indian Ocean and the Arabian Sea. Throughout most of the country, the rainfall usually occurs during the spring and winter. The summer is very hot and dry, especially in the interior, where the temperature reaches a maximum of 120 degrees Fahrenheit and averages 112 degrees. The winter is cool and dry, with occasional temperatures near freezing in the interior of the country. The coastal strips are under the influence of the adjoining seas; the relative humidity is usually higher there than in the interior areas (Al-Fiar, 1977, p. 56).

Social and Political Structure

Although Saudi Arabia has been undergoing some social changes (especially after the discovery of oil and the changing structure of the economy), it still retains an essentially traditional character. The tribe is the main unit of social organization in the country. Kinship ties and recognition of mutual obligations within the kin group are principal norms in Saudi Arabian social organization. The family is the center of the social structure, and loyalty to the family overshadows all other obligations. Individual members participate in major family decisions, but the final answer to a question rests in the hands of the father or the head of the family. Women are increasingly being

consulted in the decision-making process. The basic family is the extended family; descent is traced through the paternal lines.

An individual's well-being is the responsibility of the whole family, and the family's well-being is the individual's utmost concern. If the head of a household dies, his family is absorbed into the larger family group. The older children of the deceased usually join the household of the paternal grandfather or that of the oldest surviving brother. The widow may stay in the husband's family, or she may return to her own family, in which case she takes the youngest children with her (Al-Abbadi, 1981).

The people of Saudi Arabia are all Moslems. The role that Islam plays in the Saudi Arabian society is not only a religious one, but it is a whole social and constitutional system, and the people abide by its principles. Saudi Arabians in general have three different types of structure, each with its own social and economic conditions. The first and smallest group is the desert nomads (Bedouins). They live in tents and move from place to place looking for grazing land for their camels or sheep. They believe that kinship or blood relationship is the basis of community social and political life. The influences of the twentieth century are drawing the nomads into the world of the villages and towns. As a result, their numbers have recently been declining rapidly.

The second group is the large population that lives in villages. The villagers live on terrain that varies from the mountains in the southwest and the north to the torrid flat and plateau regions of

lower Saudi Arabia. Their housing varies in composition from stone and cement to dried mud. The major occupation for these individuals is farming.

The third but most powerful population group lives in the cities, which are centers of economic, political, and cultural life. Social differences among classes are clearer in the cities than in other communities. This urban population presents a more complex social and economic structure than does either the nomadic or village sector.

Economic Features

From an economic perspective, Saudi Arabia is the world's largest government-owned oil product exporter. Most of the government revenues are derived from revenues of the government-owned oil companies.

> The Saudi economy is based, 75 percent on average, on the oil revenues. Indeed, the dominance of oil in the country's foreign exchange, government revenues, and as a main source of growth in the national income is the most obvious characteristic of the economic system of the country. The government of Saudi Arabia is well aware of the dangers of depending on a single oil resource as the only source of income. Concern about this situation has provided one of the objectives of the country's development plan, by diversifying sources of national income and reducing dependence on oil through increasing the share of other productive sectors in the gross domestic product. (Looney, 1982, p. 99)

> The Saudi economy is characterized by the dominant role of the government, which provides nearly all the essential public services. The public bureaucracy is involved directly in providing free education, health care, postal services, social security, and most of the means of public transportation. . . . The government also subsidizes housing and many foods, and recreational and social programs are provided at no cost. (Looney, 1982, p. 22)

Further, the economy and the government-sector services in Saudi Arabia are based increasingly on industrial production and export of petrochemicals and natural gas. In other words, it is obvious that the oil industry dominates the structure of the Saudi Arabian economy. Related industrial establishments, such as mineral exploration, oil refining, and construction, are owned and operated by the government. Industrial enterprises outside the oil sector are small scale and privately owned.

> Manufacturing (excluding oil refining), utilities, and mining have had high rates of growth, particularly since the early 1970s, but they started from an extremely small base and remained minor parts of the economy in 1984. Together they contributed a little over 2 percent of GDP in 1982, but planners expected considerable growth later in the decade. Much of the foundation would be in place by the mid-1980s. The large petrochemical plants at Al-Jubayl and Yanbu would begin operations that were expected to spur investors. Development of metallic minerals was also expected to begin. (Nyrop, 1984, p. 142)

Agriculture has become a minor part of the economy since 1950, when perhaps 90 percent of the population were nomads or small farmers. Agriculture, including some fishing, contributed only 1 percent of the GNP in 1982, although it employed almost 24 percent of the labor force. Before the mid-1970s the value added by farming in real terms increased slowly (only 1.6 percent a year in the decade up to 1972). Farm incomes were low, causing a substantial migration of farmers and nomads to urban centers, where higher paying jobs were sought.

> A number of factors have contributed to the relative lack of success. Overall, agricultural development has been hampered by the very nature of Saudi agriculture. Elements such as small land holdings, inefficient farming operations, dispersion of farms over an extensive land area, inadequate water supply, and harsh climate have all tended to hinder growth in the sector. Existing institutions, including the system of land tenure and water rights, have

> also slowed growth by impeding adoption of improved technology.
> . . . Finally, the major factor impeding Saudi agriculture develop-
> ment is the scarcity of water. (El-Mallakh, 1982, p. 79)

However, the government recently has allocated a larger share of the

national revenues to the development of agricultural resources. In the

last half of the 1970s, the agricultural sector grew at an average rate

of over 5 percent a year, substantially higher than overall population

growth. By 1983, farmers were again supplying an important part of the

country's food needs, but at high cost (Nyrop, 1984). The outlook for

increased domestic production of foodstuffs may improve if new agricul-

tural lands can be made productive, if water resources can be success-

fully developed, and if Saudi farmers can be trained in and induced to

accept modern agricultural techniques suited to local conditions.

Finally, another major characteristic of the Saudi Arabian economy is

its capital surplus. "This surplus of capital, due heavily to the oil

revenues, makes development projects feasible because the capital

needed for various essential outlays no longer limits development"

(Mughram, 1973, p. 276).

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE, INCLUDING THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The major objectives of this study, as stated in Chapter I,
were to describe and critically analyze community development center
programs and the application of change agent and target system concepts
in Saudi Arabia; to examine the knowledge, use, and opinions currently
held by villagers toward the various rural programs and services; and
finally to examine how participation in community center programs is
affected by several factors, such as age, level of education, marital
status, length of residence, size of family, and distance from the
center. In pursuit of these objectives, an extensive search for the
related literature began with a review of SSCI and ERIC computer
search, an investigation of the Social Science Index, and a review of
Dissertation Abstracts International and Saudi government publications
and documents on community rural development center programs. The
search for the related literature, especially on the relationship
between participation in rural development center programs and several
independent variables that were investigated in this study, turned up
very little. Within these limited resources, the available related
literature is organized into seven major categories of review. The
format for its presentation in this chapter is as follows:

1. The concept and theory of community development

2. Community development as a worldwide approach to improving village living conditions

3. The effect of the community development approach on traditional communities

4. The concept of the target system

5. The concept of change agent

6. The concept of participation and the relationship between participation and socioeconomic factors

7. The significance of public opinion in rural development and in the decision-making process

Each of these topics is addressed in turn in the pages that follow.

The Concept of Community Development

The term "community development" is generally applied to communities located in rural areas. The United Nations Report of Social Progress Through Community Development points to this fact in the following words:

> In the world today, there may be from three to five million rural "communities," . . . local groups possessing some cohesiveness and some common institutions--ranging from Nomadi tribes of fifty members up to densely-settled agricultural villages of several thousand inhabitants. Such groups comprise up to eighty percent of the people of the so-called economically un-developed countries. (Vykuntapathi, 1975, p. 5)

Since community development came to be recognized as an effective and powerful method, capable of being consciously applied for promoting rural improvements in less developed countries, many attempts

have been made to define community development. The term "community

development" was officially adopted at the Cambridge Summer Conference

on African Administration in London in 1948 and was defined as:

> A movement designed to promote better living for the whole commu-
> nity with the active participation and, if possible, on the initia-
> tive of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming
> spontaneously, then by the use of techniques for arousing and
> stimulating it in order to secure its active and enthusiastic
> response to the movements. (Cary, 1970, p. 25)

Many other definitions have evolved since that conference, but Chris-

tenson and Robinson (1980) point out that the concept of community

development is still in need of "mature, professional identity" (p. 3).

Considerable disagreement and confusion on meaning exist. Part of the

problem of defining community development is defining what is commu-

nity. Christenson and Robinson suggest that "community is best defined

by four elements: (1) people, (2) within a geographically-bounded area

which is (3) involved in social interaction and (4) with one or more

psychological ties with each other and with the place they live" (p.

6). By these criteria, tribal nomads, although they do not settle

permanently in one place, they are involved in social interaction, have

psychological ties with each other and with the geographical area in

which they travel and thus form a community. The second part of the

term is development. Development means improvement, that is, planned

or directed change in the direction of equal distribution of social

goods such as education, housing, and participation in the political

decision-making process.

Biddle defines community development as "a social process by which human beings can become more competent to live with and gain some control over local aspects of a frustrating and changing world" (p. 78). At the same time, Dunham (1977) defines community development as

> an organized effort to improve the conditions of community life and the capacity of community integration and self-direction. Community development seeks to work primarily through the organization of self-help and cooperative efforts on the part of the residents of the community, but usually with technical assistance from governmental or voluntary organizations. (p. 122)

Thus, promotion and improvement of the community is the goal of community development, with emphasis on the participation of members of the community. The United Nations (1971) defines community development as

> a process in which efforts of local people are united with government to improve economic, social and cultural conditions in communities, to integrate them and help them participate fully in the nation's progress. (p. 6)

According to the U.N.'s definition, community development has been defined as a process designed to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community with its active participation and the fullest possible reliance on the community's initiative. The U.N.'s definition has been applied to the Saudi community development rural program, which aims to help people of the communities to learn how to help themselves with technical assistance and several kinds of services provided by the specialists in order to encourage the initiation of self-help.

In his presidential address to the Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, Copp (1972) defined community rural development as "a process aimed at improving the well-being and self-realization of people living outside urbanized areas through collective efforts."

A good single definition to describe community development is that given by the International Cooperation Administration (Dasautoy, 1977):

> Community development is a process of social action in which the people of a community organize themselves for planning and action, define their needs and problems, make group and individual plans to meet their needs, and solve their problems, execute their plans with a maximum reliance upon community resources, and supplement their resources when necessary with services and materials from governmental and non-governmental agencies outside the community. (p. 123)

In the rural areas of the developing countries, where the lack of knowledge and know-how affects the development process, technical assistance is required in order to help rural people learn how to help themselves.

New Perspectives of Development

According to the early economic perspectives, the wealth and development of nation-states have been primarily measured by income: Gross National Product (GNP) or Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita. Wealthy and developed countries are those with high GNP per capita. Conversely, poor and developing countries have been characterized by low income per capita. Thus rates of growth or development have been commonly measured by "annual increments in national income or product expressed in monetary terms" (Harbison, 1972).

However, in recent times, writers and planners are beginning to question the rationale or wisdom of regarding income maximization as the supreme or primary objective of the economic and/or development policy of nation-states. Equally important goals such as the minimization of unemployment or underemployment, maximization of education, knowledge and skills limitation, stabilization of population growth, and general improvement of the welfare of citizens are now gaining increasing recognition and prominence aspects of development, not merely economic growth through industrialization and the accompanying urbanization. The new and emerging alternatives stress, among other things, the following elements:

> The basic needs approach--which focuses on the need for equality of distribution and also argues for the provision of adequate minimum standards or basic human needs in terms of improvement in skills and knowledge through education, profitable employment, water, food, shelter as well as non-material needs as participation and cultural identity, and a sense of purpose in life and work. (Streeten, 1979)

> The placing of greater emphasis on labor-intensive and capital-extensive technology in order to create the much needed employment opportunities, and also to facilitate the integration of the "traditional" with the "modern" systems, especially in the developing countries. (Rogers, 1967)

Also, in arguing against the use of GNP or income as the major index or target of national development, Harbison (1972) observes that

> human resources, not capital, income or material resources [should] constitute the basis for the wealth of nations. Capital and natural (non-human) resources are passive factors of production; human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital, exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organizations, and carry forward national development.

It is therefore argued that any nation-state that does not possess the capacity to develop the skills and knowledge of its citizens and, more

important, the ability to use those skills and knowledge effectively in the national economy, cannot be considered to be developed or even developing.

The Theory of Community Development

A review of the literature related to community development reveals that there is no comprehensive, agreed-upon development theory. Sanders (1958) mentions that the difficulty in outlining a basic theory of community development lies in what he terms its "mixed lineage." He says,

> Community development is the product of two parental forces and carries the name of each. The paternal side is economic development, from which it takes its surname; the maternal side is community organization, from which it takes its first name. This is the mixed lineage of community development. No wonder then that one has difficulty in describing basic community development. (p. 23)

In discussing the sociological focus of community development, Sanders considers two types of theories: (1) communication theory and (2) the emerging theory related to decision making.

> Communication theory has three facets with important applicability. The first facet is that involving communication on a face-to-face basis between leaders and followers, specialist and villagers. The second facet is dealing with diffusion of knowledge and practices that are basic to community development. The third facet is maintaining a flow of ideas up and down the community development hierarchy so that those who do the regional or national planning are in touch with what the people in the local communities think and also help the latter gain some understanding of the problems faced by those trying to administer a complex nationwide operation. Without adequate community of the three types mentioned here a large program soon bogs down, nor will adequate community exist unless those responsible for it base their procedures on sound communications theory. Also pertinent to this geographical focus is the developing theory related to decision making and its effect upon social participation and other aspects of social action. (pp. 8-9)

The preceding quotation, however, describes a principle of community development practice rather than a theory of community development. As Sanders points out, there are many theories drawn from various social science disciplines (such as economics, political science, social psychology, and sociology) that relate to important aspects of community development. For instance, sociologists have contributed significant theories, such as theories of social change, social control, social organization, and community.

Community Development as a Worldwide Approach to Improving Village Living Conditions

Governmental and nongovernmental agencies have been using a variety of approaches to improve the living conditions of many villages in the world. Community development programs are found today in various forms and under different names in many countries in Latin America, Africa, and Asia. A brief discussion of the approaches to the application and adoption of community development in different countries of the Third World follows.

In Sri Lanka, rural development is not the work of a single department. It involves the development activities of several departments, institutions and agencies working in the rural sector of the country. Coordination is done at the central district and divisional levels. The government has taken far-reaching steps to eradicate rural poverty and to raise the standard of living of the poor. "Emphasis is made on alienation of land to the landless by the acquisition of private-owned land beyond the 50-acre limit, universal free education,

free health services, subsidies on rice and fertilizers" (Rural Development Strategies, 1978, p. 158).

The involvement of ordinary people in the activities at the village level has sometimes happened, but the development activities in general are politically directed by the ruling elite and guided and administered by bureaucrats. Planning and coordinating activities of the rural areas of the country are executed by the Ministry of Planning. Implementation of the overall plan is vested in the ministers responsible for the different departments, e.g., the Minister of Health, the Minister of Agriculture, and so on (Rural Development Strategies, 1978).

The Indian approach to development puts considerable emphasis on the re-evaluation of what is called panchayat (Vykuntapathi, 1965), an idea inspired by the Ghandian philosophy of the importance of the village. The panchayat means village council, which represents public authority and a democratic institution. This approach relies heavily and directly on the local people through what is called "the village level worker" (Rambhai, 1959, p. 34). This worker operates with nonofficial leadership in the community to deal face-to-face with the rural village residents, attempting to inspire their initiative and to provide possible contributions according to the planned program. The main objectives of the community rural development program are to assist each village in planning increased agricultural production and to improve the health and educational facilities for children and adults.

Nepal's efforts toward rural development date back to 1953. To promote and accelerate development, the country was divided into blocks, districts, and divisions. Community development centers are called blocks, each block having 16 village development workers. A block, approximately 100 villages, is headed by a block development officer, who is assisted by a few administrative support staff and some specialists. The main strategy for rural development is to deliver packaged programs from the central government to villagers in various development activities. The aim of the program is to integrate horizontally all the district-level activities through the block development officer (Rural Development Strategies, 1978).

In the Republic of Korea, rural development can be described as an integrated approach to improve the quality of life of the people in the rural communities through physical and human resources development. "It is integrated in the sense that it involves the active participation of every governmental agency, institution and organization in the pursuit of rural development" (Rural Development Strategies, 1976, p. 12). The overall framework of the country's rural development strategies focuses on education, agriculture, fisheries, commerce, health, and science and technology.

In Puerto Rico, the community development agent frequently works alone in the community as a stimulator and administrator of new and appropriate technologies. Occasionally, where there are sufficient resources, the effort at rural development is carried out through specialized agencies. In Mexico and Egypt, rural community development

programs have been approached on the basis of "team work" (Waverly, 1977, p. 14). A combined effort of specialized-services representatives who reside in the community operates by rendering basic services and persuading acceptance through emphasis on the value of self-help initiatives. This is done through community rural social centers, which normally are staffed with social agricultural workers, a medical doctor, a visiting nurse, education workers, a laboratory technician, a secretary, and other technicians, depending on the scope of activities in the specific centers. The emergence of this institution came as a result of a series of trial-and-error experiments which were conducted in an attempt to solve the problems of the village communities.

The policy of the rural social centers in Egypt and Mexico, with respect to the villages they are serving, is to have the villagers share in the expenses involved, as well as in the works and plans of the center. Thus before a center is established in a certain village, the people must offer the site and contribute a certain amount of money toward the building. They also are helped to organize themselves in committees--health, agriculture, education, and so forth--each of which deals with its respective counterpart technician and workers in the center.

From the preceding discussion, we conclude that the Saudi Arabian approach in community development comes much closer to the Egyptian types than to others in that it depends on the work of a team and multiphased programs. The community development centers in Saudi Arabia include basic specialized units.

The Effect of the Community Development Approach
on Traditional Communities

This part of the literature review emanates from various disciplines, but especially from sociology. The purpose is not to review the entirety of the vast literature, but rather to cite only a selected portion of it.

First, I will consider the literature concerning the identification of social systems and their elements, as well as the process involving change. Rogers (1969) distinguishes two types of social change as follows:

1. Imminent change, or change that originates within the social system, with little or no stimulus from the outside.

2. Contact change, or change that is produced by sources external to the system. (p. 111)

Rogers indicates two subtypes:

(a) selective contact change, or change taking place when outsiders unintentionally communicate new ideas within the system; and (b) directed contact change, or change resulting from deliberate, planned programs initiated to bring about change. (p. 111)

This latter kind of change is practiced in Saudi Arabia.

Loomis and Beegle (1950), among others, distinguish between the change agent system and the target system. A change agent is seen as a professional who attempts to influence the direction of change that is deemed desirable by the change agent system, or that system of which he is a part. The target system, then, is the object (ordinarily a less developed group or segment) of the change agent system. The change agent and target system terms, of course, imply that the change is of a

directed contact type. Although the social system appears in the writing of Comte, Spencer, and other early theorists, we draw primarily on Parsons and others such as Loomis and Beegle.

A social system is considered a collectivity of individuals oriented toward a common goal. A social system may be large or small, highly solidified or loosely interrelated. However, all social systems possess a structure and value orientation. The structural elements of a social system, as specified by Loomis and Beegle (1957), include the following: (1) status roles, or that which is expected in a given status or position; (2) power, or the control over others; (3) social rank, or the standing of individuals based on consensus as to what is to be rated high and low by the system; (4) sanctions, or the satisfaction-giving or -depriving mechanisms at the disposal of the system; (5) facilities, or the means used by the system to attain its end; and (6) territoriality, the spatial requirements of the system. The two components of the system's value orientation include (1) norms, the guiding principles that establish what is acceptable or unacceptable to the system; and (2) ends or objectives, the changes that members of the system hope to accomplish by the operation of the system.

Important processes involved in social change are communication, decision making, boundary maintenance, and social-cultural linkage (Loomis & Beegle, 1957). Communication refers to the process by which information passes through a social system. In some instances, this may be accomplished through radio, newspaper, and other mass

media. In others, communication is primarily through face-to-face interaction. Decision making refers to the process by which alternative courses of action are reduced; that is, the process of eliminating numerous possible courses of action and settling on an agreeable course. Boundary maintenance is the process by which a system retains its integrity and solidarity. Resistance to change from the outside is almost always exhibited by members of traditional societies. Finally, social-cultural linkage is the process by which the elements of two interacting systems come to be articulated so that they come to function as a single system, at least in some respects.

The Concept of the Target System

The target system is made up of those who will be affected by the planned change and who actually implement (or fail to implement) the change. Even if the plan for change is well carried out by the change agent, if he is not able to convince the target system to adopt the change, all of his work will be lost.

Within the target system exists a very important group--the client system. They are the ones who work within the group to bring about the desired change. They usually are chosen by and work closely with the change agent to influence the target system to adopt the proposed plan or innovation. The adopters who make up the target system usually follow a pattern of adoption.

Rogers (1983) has provided a chapter about innovation adopters in a social system or community. Adopters may be individuals or

organizations, and they are differentiated on the basis of innovative-ness--"the degree to which they are relatively earlier in adopting new ideas than other members of the system" (p. 241). In individuals, innovativeness indicates behavioral change, which is the prime goal of most change programs and hence one of the best indicators of the success of development programs. Not all individuals in a social system adopt an innovation such as a rural community development program at the same time. Rather, they adopt in a time sequence and may be classified into adopter categories on the basis of when they first begin using a new idea.

Rogers classifies adopters (target system) into five categories, based on innovativeness. Figure 1 shows the normal frequency distribution divided into the five categories: (1) innovators, (2) early adopters, (3) early majority, (4) later majority, and (5) laggards.

> The area lying to the left of the mean time of adoption minus two standard deviations includes the first 2.5 percent of the individuals to adopt an innovation--the innovators. The next 13.5 percent to adopt the new idea are included in the area between the mean minus one standard deviation and the mean minus two standard deviations; they are labeled early adopters. The next 34 percent of the adopters, called early majority, are included in the area between the mean date of adoption minus one standard deviation. Between the mean and the standard deviation to the right of the mean are located the next 34 percent who adopt the new idea, the majority. The last 16 percent are called laggards. (p. 246)
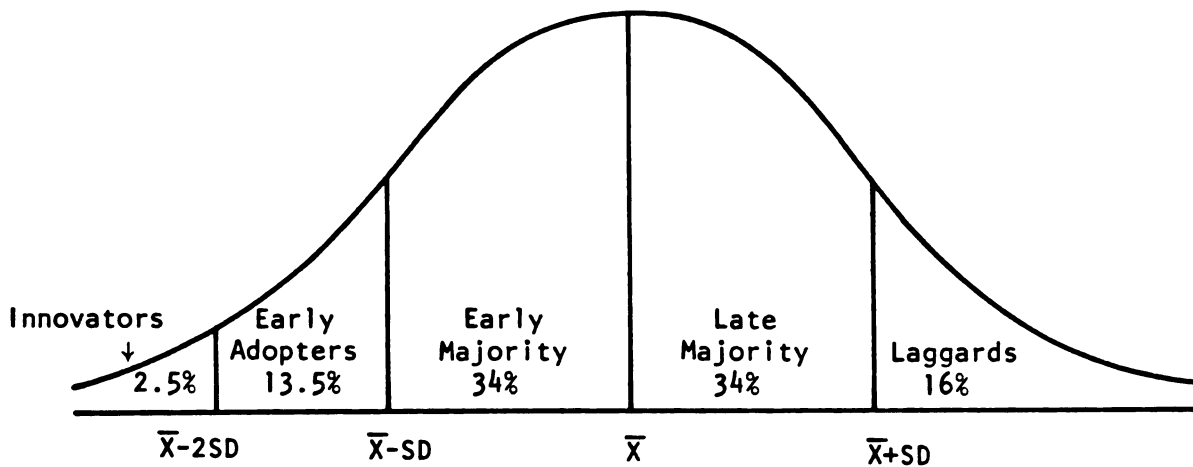
Figure 1: Normal bell-shaped adopter categorization, based on
innovativeness. (From Rogers, 1983, p. 247.)

Rogers describes the innovators as being very eager to try new
ideas. Communication patterns and friendship among innovators are
common, even though the geographical distance between the innovators
may be considerable. They go outside their social systems to import
new ideas, so they tend to be cosmopolitan, have financial resources,
and are able to understand and apply complex knowledge. The innovator
plays a gatekeeping role in the flow of new ideas into the social
system. Early adopters, by comparison, are more integrated into their
local social system. Whereas innovators are cosmopolites, early adopt-
ers are localites. This adopter category, more than any others, has
the greatest degree of opinion leadership in most social systems and

serves as a respected role model for others. The early adopter is considered by many as "the individual to check with" before using the new idea. The early majority adopts new ideas just before the average member of a social system. The early majority interacts frequently with peers, but seldom holds leadership positions. Their unique position between the very early and the relatively late to adopt makes them an important link in the diffusion process. This group provides interconnectedness in the system's networks. The late majority adopt new ideas just after the average member of a social system. This group does not adopt until most others in their social system have done so. Laggards are the last in a social system to adopt an innovation. This group may be prevented by respect for traditional ways, lack of financial resources, or cautious skepticism from adopting anything new until everyone else has done so.

In making generalizations about socioeconomic characteristics, it was indicated that early adopters tend not to differ from others in age but are better educated, of higher social status, more upwardly mobile, more commercial (versus subsistence), more specialized, and richer than later adopters.

> In personality characteristics, early adopters tend to be less dogmatic and more abstract, rational, intelligent, and motivated than others. They are less fatalistic and have more favorable attitudes toward education, science, change and risk. Their communication behavior indicates they are more socially interconnected, cosmopolitan, have more exposure to interpersonal and mass media communications and more exposure to change agents. (Rogers, 1983, p. 251)

These differences between adopter categories suggest that change agents should use somewhat different techniques and approaches with each

category--thus following a strategy of "audience segmentation" (Rogers, 1983, p. 264).

The paradox between innovation and need is that those who most need the benefits of new technology (the less educated, less wealthy) tend to be the last to adopt such innovations, thus widening socio-economic gaps in a community. Change agents can alter this with a target audience segmentation strategy of greatest resistance, in which communication efforts are concentrated on those who are lowest in socioeconomic status, those hardest to reach.

After reviewing the authors concerned with community develop-ment and the target system, the following are among the conclusions that emerge:

1. Community development will benefit local residents if the target system concept is used to identify the group of individuals who will benefit from the planned change.

2. People in a target system can be divided into several subgroups, ranging from innovators (early adopters) to laggards (late adopters), who adopt the new proposals at varying speeds.

3. Community development will be more beneficial if the early adopters in the target system (client system) actively participate in the planning of the program.

The Concept of Change Agent

Zaltman and Duncan (1977) define the change agent as "any individual or group operating to change the status quo in the clients'

system such that the individuals involved must learn how to perform their roles" (p. 186). Proceeding from the premise that social interaction is the basis of social life and the medium through which social change occurs, they find that planned change involves deliberate manipulation of social interaction between varied individuals and groups. In this manipulation, one of the basic functions of the change agent is to establish a link between the target system's needs and possible means of satisfying those needs.

The community development change agents are usually prepared through training in various fields, such as health, agricultural extension, and adult education. At the present time, the position titled community development agent, or worker, is found most widely in newly modernizing countries that have what they call national community development programs.

> In communities of such countries, the agent has the role of "opening the eyes" of the indigenous residents to the way of life characteristic of communities that have moved further toward modernization. He also has the link roles of trying to get the national program adopted in the community while seeing to it that the objectives and procedures advocated by that program are adapted to the needs and value system of the community and are realistic in terms of the resources that are available. (Edward & Jones, 1976, p. 229)

The community action in Indian villages is served by a community development agent called village-level worker. The village-level worker is the lowest employee in the entire hierarchy of the community development project administration. "He is a paid full-time man who is available to the villagers on the spot for all sorts of advice. He acts as a multi-purpose man and is in charge of five to ten villages"

(Vykuntapathi, 1965, p. 40). The village-level worker starts the work on a small scale with a limited number of people. To gain acceptance in the village, he works with a few villagers and starts the work where the interest is the greatest. Afterwards, he tries to mobilize the villagers' participation in the development activities.

There are five basic qualifications for change agent (Zaltman & Duncan, 1977). First are technical qualifications. These include competence in the tasks of the change project, ability to adapt and apply skills to problems of a simple nature, institution-building capabilities, and credentials for establishing credibility. Second is administrative ability, including the willingness to spend time on relatively detailed matters; planning skills, especially planning for the unexpected; personnel management skills; and the ability to work well with others. Third, skills in interpersonal relations--empathy with members of the change team and members of the target system--is vital because of its effect on openness, risk taking, and trust. Fourth, job orientation skills include motivation, initiative, and drive; ability to tolerate and work around constraints; and dedication to developing target system skills and resources. Finally, there are leadership skills, including poise and courage of one's convictions, and emotional maturity with integrity and adequate self-confidence.

Change agent errors that limit effectiveness often arise from deficient planning, including premature commitment to particular strategies without involving the target system, failure to get a target

system, and failure to identify influential persons who are open to change.

In planning change, an initial decision concerns the type of change agent to be employed. The dimensions of this choice are whether the agent will be similar to or different from the target system in certain traits (i.e., age, education, social background) and whether one individual or a change team will be used. In performing some of the change agent's tasks, one or another dimension often has a distinct advantage. Zaltman and Duncan (1977) detail the relative advantage of various dimensions, but most are implicit in the objectives of the change agent's tasks. The change agent's tasks begin with establishing a relationship with the target system so that (1) he/she is seen as a competent and legitimate helping person, (2) there is an exchange of expectations about the change process, and (3) adequate sanction is given to the change target.

The second task is diagnosis, to enable the agent to understand "the issue around the change the target system is contemplating" (Zaltman & Duncan, 1977, p. 22). Data should be collected from members of the target system about the change issues, need for and openness to change, resources available for change, and commitment of the members. In determining change objectives, the agent and client are defining the nature and scope of the change program and who will be affected. The change agent's task of reducing resistance to change can be approached through involving the target system in determining objectives and

examining members' perceptions of anticipated change to find misunder-
standings.

Change agents usually provide a communication link between a
resource system of some kind (commonly called a change agency) and a
client or target system (Figure 2). One of the main roles of a change
agent is to facilitate the flow of innovations and knowledge from a
change agency to an audience of clients and target systems.

> But for this type of communication to be effective, the innovations
> must be selected to match the audience's needs and problems. And
> for the linkage to be very effective, feedback from the client
> system must flow through the change agent to the change agency so
> that it can make appropriate adjustments on the basis of previous
> successes and failures. (Rogers, 1983, p. 313)

The change agent is the medium through which the planned change
is effected in the target system. When one chooses a change agent, it
is important to know if that agent will play a central role or a less
dominating one. In summary, in order to be effective, any change agent
must:

1. have the appropriate knowledge and planning skills;

2. be able to work with people, both as a leader and as a team
member;

3. understand the values and culture of the people;

4. have the patience to help members of the target system and
involve them in the planned change; and

5. be a person the target system respects, preferably a citi-
zen of the community involved.
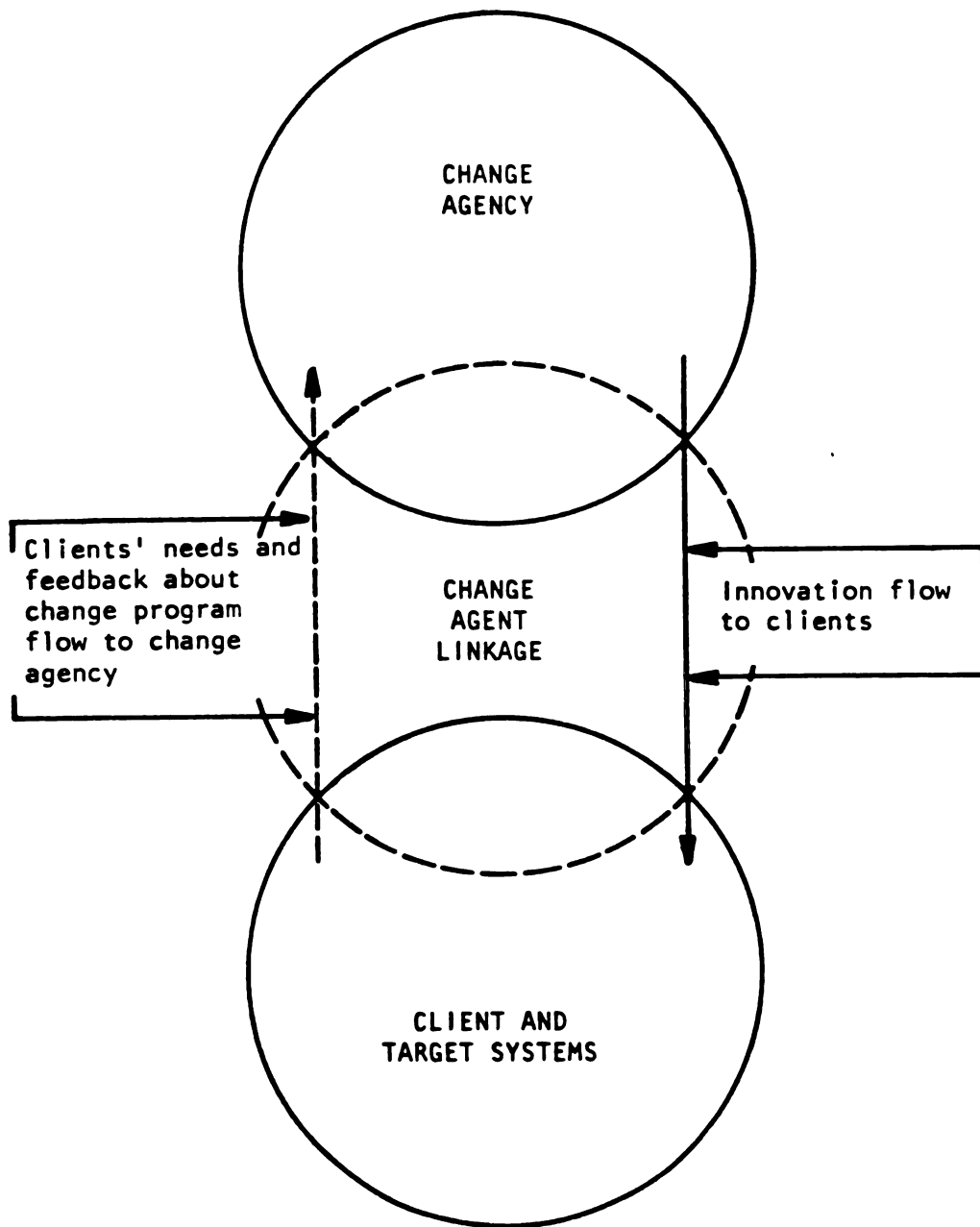
Figure 2: Change agents provide linkage between a change agency and a client and target systems. (From Rogers, 1983, p. 314.)

Participation

There are many definitions of participation in the literature. Some stress people's involvement in the decision-making process, particularly their involvement in implementing programs and decisions, their contributions of various resources, and their cooperation in specific activities and programs, as well as mutual sharing in the benefits of the development in efforts to evaluate such programs (Cohen & Uphoff, 1977). From the community development perspective, "participation is considered as the process by which a community's felt needs are elicited and responded to. With the help of village-level workers, the villagers participate in identifying their needs and the means to fulfill them" (Holdcroft, 1978). One author defined participation as "an instance where villagers themselves have a major say in the choice of innovative programs or in deciding on the methods to be used and in organizing their own contributions of labor and management" (Hunter, 1980, p. 5).

In fact, the advocacy of participating as an approach to increasing the number of benefits to the rural community is fast becoming the key instrument in the success of rural development programs generally, according to Cohen and Uphoff (1979): "Decisions concerning the activities to be carried out should be made, preferably by those who benefit and if not, at least through effective consultation, and substantial acceptance by those who benefit" (p. 1).

Some studies of rural development projects underscore the importance of participation for the success of the projects. And a

16-country comparative analysis of Asian experience by the rural development committee at Cornell University found the participatory approach beneficial, particularly when there was a link from the rural communities to national centers of decision making and implementation. In the same way, a study by Development Alternatives, Inc., of 36 rural development projects in 11 African and Latin American countries also demonstrated a clear connection between project success and villagers' participation in the activities and in resource commitment to the project.

Indicators of Villagers' Participation

There are many ways to measure villagers' participation in rural community development programs. Voth (1975) mentions that "the principal way would be the degree of participation in formal community development organization, e.g., party activities, and the activities of voluntary organizations" (p. 636). Chapin (1939) lists five aspects of participation on his social participation scale. His measurement of participation consists of membership associations, attendance at meetings, financial contributions, voluntary activities, and positions of leadership. Another source indicates that two other important aspects of participation include what members do between meetings and what part they play during meetings (Cary, 1970).

My study includes three major indicators of villagers' participation in community development center programs, (1) participation in activities such as voluntary work for certain types of community development center affairs (child care, adult education, summer camp, health

care, and recreation activities); (2) contribution to community development center programs and services such as donated money, donated land, donated materials to the community development programs and activities; and (3) head of household's attendance at meetings, regularly or not regularly.

Participation and Socio-
economic Factors

Some studies have found the degree of participation to be directly related to socioeconomic position. The higher the socioeconomic status, the greater is the amount of community participation (Bell, 1956; Zimmer, 1959). Foskett (1955) mentions that "people in different educational, income, or age categories hold differential behavior patterns, including a tendency to participate or not participate in community programs and affairs" (p. 437). Another study mentions that "the extent of participation in formal groups was found to vary for different subgroups in the population. The greatest difference occurred between groups varying in amount of education, family head's occupation, and family income" (Axelrod, 1956, p. 15). One study points out that, in general, the higher the socioeconomic status of household heads, the greater the amount of participation. That is, highly educated residents tended to be more involved in community affairs than less educated persons (Li, 1977). Cary (1970) points out that "minority and low income groups [in the United States], particularly, have been isolated from effective participation in the community development process" (p. 152).

The Significance of Public Opinion in Rural Development and in the Decision-Making Process

Government and community development workers in rural areas have important roles in the provision and improvement of services and programs. In their decision making for improving the adequacy of community rural services, local workers can benefit by knowing and understanding citizens' opinions. An understanding of public preferences helps change agents to better understand, from the clientele's point of view, a variety of possible service needs. Vlasin (1976) comments that a major concern in planning for rural development is "how to insure meaningful local participation in decisions" (p. 374). The writer goes on to say that

> Clearly, the rural service policy and program decisions must bene-
> fit the actual and potential users of those services. . . . Achiev-
> ing this orientation in policy and program development is
> difficult. Achieving it without local participation by those
> affected is likely impossible. (p. 375)

Also, including citizens' opinions in the decision-making process helps to legitimize or insure the support of the public in the decisions that are made for improving services. Finally, recognizing public opinion in decision making helps people feel a part of the decision affecting their lives, which may result in communitywide commitment.

Several writers point to other advantages of using public opinion in the decision-making process concerning rural development. The following paragraphs focus on what some writers see as advantages in making use of citizen opinion in the decision-making process.

Childs (1965) advocates the consideration of citizen opinion in the decision-making process for several reasons: First, he indicates that it seems only fair that those who are affected by major policy decisions should be consulted and should share in making policy. Second, Childs feels that, in some matters, citizen opinion is wiser than the opinions of a small decision-making group.

Adrian (1962) regards the citizen opinion survey "as a useful source of information at the local level for determining potential support for proposed community improvements" (p. 3). Bogart (1972) points out that an opinion survey becomes an important part of the process by which political leaders develop an awareness of the public's sense of social priority. He writes, "Opinion surveys here become mechanisms through which the public becomes sensitized to its own needs so that it is self-conscious about its own collective stance" (p. 15).

Since it was generally concluded in the literature that public opinion does have a role in the decision-making process, and that public opinion is one way of assessing public programs or conditions, it would then seem to be useful to use citizen opinion as one way of evaluating the adequacy of community development centers' programs. Also, a good understanding of users' dissatisfaction with selected services could help the Saudi government identify possible services that present a hindrance to social and economic development in rural areas.

Moreover, to have a good understanding of users' dissatisfaction with those services that present possible barriers to social and

economic development, community center administrators and social work-

ers must be aware of how differing user groups in the community feel

about various services and programs. According to Hatry, Winnie, and

Fish (1973),

> Services seldom affect segments of the population the same way.
> ... The community as a whole might be well served by a program,
> while certain neighborhoods are receiving inadequate services. A
> recreation program, for example, may inadvertently ignore special
> needs of aged, very young, or handicapped persons. (pp. 15-16)

Thus, careful evaluation of various subgroups should be an important

part of program evaluation.

Various socioeconomic groups in the community that view serv-

ices negatively may have service needs that are not being met. Devel-

opment efforts, therefore, can be directed toward these groups.

CHAPTER IV

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT CENTERS AND THE APPLICATION OF

CHANGE AGENT AND TARGET SYSTEM CONCEPTS

IN SAUDI ARABIA

Before discussing the community development centers in
Saudi Arabia and the application of the two key concepts of develop-
ment, change agent and target system, it is useful to discuss briefly
the four development plans and the social programs in Saudi Arabia.

Development Plans in Saudi Arabia

Introduction

In Saudi Arabia, development depends on the quality and quan-
tity of resources, as well as the organization and infrastructure to
use them. Moreover, in Saudi Arabia development must take place within
a specific framework of values and principles. Unlike many other
countries, Saudi Arabia is particularly known for its Islamic tradi-
tions. The constitution of the country and the Koran are one. The use
of resources and the historical-cultural base merge as guidelines for
development.

Before 1965, no organization existed for planning in Saudi Arabia, although a number of projects had been planned and carried out by such departments as agriculture, communication, health, and others. Planning as a method to achieve a national development policy began in early 1965, when the government invited the Ford Foundation to survey the economic and administrative situation and make recommendations for development programs. Based on some of these recommendations, the government established the High Board of Planning to formulate a development plan for the entire country. Later, this board was replaced by a central planning organization, and in 1975 this organization became the Ministry of Planning.

The First Development Plan (1970-1975)

The general objective of the first development plan was stated by the Central Planning Organization as follows:

> The purpose of the plan is to provide a rational and orderly approach to achieving the nation's development objectives. The plan was not intended to be a rigid, restrictive set of rules and regulations but a means of bringing increased rationality into public sector programs by establishing priorities and integrating activities to avoid bottlenecks and ensure coordination. (Saudi Arabian Central Planning Organization, 1970, p. 23)

The first plan was introduced in 1970 with a total allocation of $15,973.5 billion, of which 56.3 percent was allocated to economic development. The plan can best be seen as an attempt to rationalize and modernize the economy. The plan resulted in significant programs in some sectors, such as infrastructure and education. The first plan's achievements in the health sector were limited by difficulties of insufficient staffing and lack of organization and coordination

between the different departments. The targets in telecommunications with automatic telephones and satellite connections were not fulfilled, and work was concentrated in the large population centers at the expense of the rural areas. In industrialization, the general picture was one of highly underdeveloped industry (Lackner, 1978).

Since this was the government's first attempt at long-term planning for developing the country, one might have predicted that it would not achieve its target as well as those countries that have had long experience with planning, but it was a necessary starting place.

> In conclusion, it seems that the first development plan was by no means an unqualified failure, as it was an improvement on the previously chaotic situation. It started the establishment of the planning processes, collecting reliable statistics, and created the possibility of measuring the degree of progress, defined in terms of modernization. (Saudi Arabian Central Planning Organization, 1970, p. 23)

The Second Development Plan (1975-1980)

In the second five-year development plan, the government allocated $142 billion to carry out the plan. In this plan the planners had no financial constraints. The Saudis decided to narrow their industrial profile and adopted a strategy designed to maximize their natural advantages in oil and minerals. The plan called for overcoming the overreliance on fuel oil exported by developing a diversified oil-based chemical industry, so that by 1990 Saudi Arabia would be able to phase in the export of petrochemicals, commodities, and manufactured products from its oil wealth.

The second development plan was considered a successful endeavor:

> Despite the pessimism of most foreign commentators, the Saudis pursued the goals of the second plan with great determination, and the results have been, on the whole, successful. Difficulties were confronted and overcome: a crisis of port congestion was countered by improved efficiency and the rapid construction of new berths; runaway inflation was successfully met with spending controls and some cutbacks in projects. Although the main industrial projects fell behind schedule, infrastructure grew a pace, endowing the country with the basic transport and communication facilities required by a modern industrial state. (The Middle East and North Africa, 1980-81, p. 646)

The Third Development Plan (1980-1985)

In the third five-year development plan, the Saudi Arabian government allocated $285 billion to carry out the plan. This plan began with more positive conditions than either of the previous plans. Saudi Arabia was playing a major role in world economics, an infrastructure had developed, and inflation had been reduced. The third plan has three fundamental objectives: "to bring about structural change in the economy, increase participation and social welfare in development, and increase economic and administrative efficiency" (Saudi Arabian Ministry of Planning, 1980, p. 75).

The fundamental purpose of community development is explained within the third development plan:

> The main objective of community development is to help people to help themselves. Community development techniques are designed to encourage and enable members of local communities to utilize their own resources and skills to provide for their own needs . . . rather than relying on the government for the provision of services, infrastructure and investment. (Saudi Arabian Ministry of Planning, 1980, p. 352)

The third plan made good progress in continuing community development in Saudi Arabia. The plan also placed special emphasis on developing Saudi Arabia's manpower in order to replace foreign workers to the maximum extent possible, through education, training, and raising of health standards.

The Fourth Development Plan (1985-1990)

The objectives of the fourth plan were formulated to ensure continuity with the strategy of the third plan. The emphasis is on efficient use of resources, development of the producing sectors, and human resources development. These objectives represent an all-encompassing framework for structural change. The 11 objectives of the fourth development plan are:

1. To safeguard Islamic values, duly observing, disseminating and confirming Allah's Shar'ia.

2. To defend the faith and the nation and to uphold security and social stability.

3. To form productive citizen-workers by providing them with the services of education and health, ensuring their livelihood and rewarding them on the basis of their work.

4. To develop human resources, thus insuring a constant supply of manpower, upgrading and improving its efficiency to serve all sectors.

5. To raise cultural standards to keep pace with the Kingdom's development.

6. To reduce dependence on the production and export of crude oil as a main source of national income.

7. To continue with real structural changes in the Kingdom's economy through continuous transformation to produce a diversified economic base--with due emphasis on industry and agriculture.

8. To develop mineral resources and to encourage discovery and utilization thereof.

9. To concentrate on qualitative development through improving and further developing the performance of the utilities and facilities already established during the three development plan periods.

10. To complete the infrastructural projects necessary to achieve overall development.

11. To achieve economic and social integration among the Arab Gulf Cooperation Council (AGCC) countries. (Saudi Arabian Ministry of Planning, 1985, p. 7)

Macro-economic Analysis of the Fourth Plan

A. The Economy at the Start of the Fourth Plan

The Saudi economy throughout the Fourth Plan would be best described as in a state of transition.

In the public sector two important tendencies are observed:

the virtual completion of basic infrastructure; after more than a decade of heavy investment in physical infrastructure and basic industries, the government's future involvement in these areas will be substantially reduced;

the maximization of the purchasing power of budget appropriations, both in the domestic and international markets, through continuing such measures as the increased scrutiny of project design and implementation, competition in public tenders, the critical examination of cost levels and structures.

In the private sector there are also two tendencies:

there is growing competition for the declining volume of government projects, putting pressure on margins and requiring higher quality performance;

many of the private sector's own investment projects have also been completed, which also makes competition much stronger.

Both the public and the private sectors are adjusting to the new conditions. Therefore the thrust of the government's policy objectives will be on:

concentrating on financial support to private activity in the producing sectors;

safeguarding and increasing the private sector's share in government projects;

promoting various new partnership arrangements between the public and private sectors, relating especially to operations and maintenance projects.

Within the private sector, typical problems facing companies may be under-utilization of capacity, underemployment of work force, and narrowing profit margins. Such pressures will force managers to raise the level of efficiency. As in other economies in periods of adjustment, it is expected that the more efficient firms will increase their market share, and a great deal of consolidation and rearrangement will probably take place in the Saudi private sector.

The private sector is expected to help realize the development priorities of the Fourth Plan in its search for new opportunities. The Fourth Plan is the strategic framework within which the private sector's initiatives can contribute to structural changes on a hitherto unknown scale. (Ministry of Planning, 1985, pp. 10-11)

B. Government Expenditure in the Fourth Plan

Total government expenditure in the Fourth Plan, including non-civilian items, is set at SR 1,000 billion (approximately $286 billion), at current prices. Under the assumption of a balanced budget, average annual revenues are estimated at SR 200 billion ($75 billion). The allocation of civilian development expenditure is broken down into three main categories:

	SR Billion	$ Billion	Percent*
Development Agencies			
-Economic Resources Development	130.7	37.3	
-Human Resources Development	135.3	38.6	
-Social Development	89.6	25.6	
-Transport and Communications	76.9	21.9	
-Municipalities and Housing	67.4	18.4	
Subtotal	500.0	142.8	72.7
Transfer Payments and Reserves			
-Credit institutions (net domestic lending)	60.1	17.1	
-Subsidies and budget reserves	57.2	16.3	
Subtotal	117.3	33.4	17.1
Administration Expenses			
-Religious and Judicial	18.5	5.2	
-Nonfinancial Administration	7.0	2.0	
-Nonportfolio Offices	9.9	2.8	
-Financial Administration	34.8	9.9	
Subtotal	70.2	20.0	10.2
Total Civilian Expenditures	687.5	196.2	100.0

*Percent of the total civilian expenditures (SR 687.5 billion).

Source: Saudi Arabian Ministry of Planning, The Fourth Development Plan 1985-1990, 1985, p. 12.

International Benefits and Opportunities From the Kingdom's Development Plans

Several benefits have resulted from the Kingdom's development plans to many other countries in the world through the fundamental

belief in allowing free-market competition both domestically and internationally and through the vital and active participation of Saudi Arabia in assisting the development process of other countries, especially underdeveloped countries in Asia or Africa. In specific terms, the benefits have resulted from:

--Private enterprise: licenses issued to around 3,000 industrial companies; emergence of thousands of small- and medium-size firms; importation of foreign labor; hundreds of joint ventures with foreign partners.

--Free trade: Saudi Arabia's growing economy has placed it among the leading trading nations of the world. Over the past fifteen years, imports have amounted to around SR 1,800 billion, of which 23 percent came from the United States; 35 percent came from Europe, 12 percent came from Japan, and 30 percent came from other countries.

--Saudi Arabia has allowed these imports to enter virtually tariff free. Many trading partners have benefited from this rapid growth and transformation of the Saudi economy.

--International cooperation: During the past fifteen years, Saudi Arabia has granted development aid totalling SR 136 billion to many developing nations. On an international comparison basis, the Kingdom's development assistance ranks very high as a proportion of gross domestic product. (The Fourth Development Plan, 1985-1990, p. 3)

Governmental Social Programs

Since 1960, The Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs has offered a range of programs oriented toward the social development of individuals and groups, as well as more conventional forms of welfare for individuals with special needs. The Ministry's activities are divided into two major groups--social security and social affairs.

Social Security

Social security provides pensions to people over the age of 60, those partially or completely disabled, orphans, and women without support. Grants-in-aid are made to persons affected by natural and social calamities. The social security agency has a Ministry office in Riyadh, three regional offices (in Jeddah, Riyadh, and Dammam), and 46 branch offices.

Social Welfare

Social welfare provides various kinds of institutional care. In 1975, 12 institutions have cared for 1,218 orphaned children. At that time four social-orientation institutes cared for nondelinquent problem youths, and three probation homes accommodated delinquents or first-offense juveniles. The expansion of institutional facilities for delinquent and problem boys represented an important change of attitude in Saudi society. Children previously subjected to the harsh punishments incorporated in Sharia law were given social guidance and vocational training.

The Office of Social Welfare supervises a foster and alternate care program for foundlings and infants separated from their mothers. A department under the social affairs agency was formed in 1974 to provide rehabilitation services and training to the mentally and physically handicapped.

Community Development Programs

Through 22 community development centers serving many communities, governmental services were coordinated with local efforts to improve the welfare of the community by emphasizing the concept of self-help. The majority of community development centers were located in rural areas. Training for community development personnel was undertaken jointly by the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs and the United Nations at a center at Diriyah, which had a staff of 47 Saudis and seven United Nations advisors.

A typical community development center includes health, social, educational, and agricultural extension programs. The government considers community development centers to be important vehicles with which to foster social stability under circumstances of rapid social change.

Social Insurance

Since 1973, the social insurance law has provided several kinds of protection for workers, regardless of nationality, gender, or age; disability, old age, and death benefits; benefits in cases of occupational-hazard diseases; benefits for temporary disability because of sickness and maternity; family grants in cases in which the insured has several dependents; unemployment compensation; and protection for the self-employed.

Special Programs for Nomads

In addition to the preceding social services provided by the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, the government also provides special programs and services for nomads because they are the most underprivileged section of society. Although some nomads have settled in villages and towns, many still follow their traditional way of life of pastoral livestock herding.

The fundamental government policy toward the nomads is to provide them with all possible realistic opportunities and options to allow the nomads themselves to be able to choose the form of life they want. For those who wish to remain nomads, there is no compulsion to settle, and the government has provided livestock subsidies, veterinary services, and assistance in livestock marketing. Also, boreholes are drilled to increase the availability of water supplies on the range. For those nomads who wish to settle and take up a new livelihood, land, equipment, and training are awarded to those who wish to begin agricultural farming. There is a great scope for employment in the private sector or the armed services. Nomads are awarded plots of land in towns to enable them to apply for loans from the Real Estate Development Fund, and they have every opportunity to attend adult education and training programs.

Community Development Centers

Historical Background

The first community development center was established in Saudi Arabia in October 1960 as the result of an agreement between Saudi Arabia and the United Nations. It was located in Al-Diriyah village in the central province to serve Al-Diriyah, Irquan, Odah, and Elf villages, which were originally located about 15 miles from the capital city of Riyadh, with a total population of about 20,000.

> Al-Diriyah was selected for its historical and religious background. It was the homeland of Sheikh Mohamed Ibn Abdul-Wahab and thus was considered to be the most religiously conservative area in Saudi Arabia. The acceptance or rejection of the community development movement by the people in Al-Diriyah was to be the measure deciding the scope and nature of future activities. The activities of the center at Al-Diriyah were at first resisted by the people. Once rapport was established, the people showed unexpectedly strong response to the movement; in reality, an indication that people were thirsty for such reform movements as community development. (Khattab, 1983, p. 153)

About 50 percent of Al-Diriyah's population were farmers, and the rest had various kinds of jobs. The majority of the farmers owned their land.

The relative success of the pilot project caused the government to decide in March 1961 to establish five more rural centers covering 28 villages. More centers were added in 1970, and eventually the total reached 22 centers--16 in rural areas and 6 in urban areas. (See Map 2 and Table 1.) In addition to the community development and service centers, many indigenous community development committees have been established in rural areas lacking community development centers. These committees decide which forms of joint action are needed in the communities.
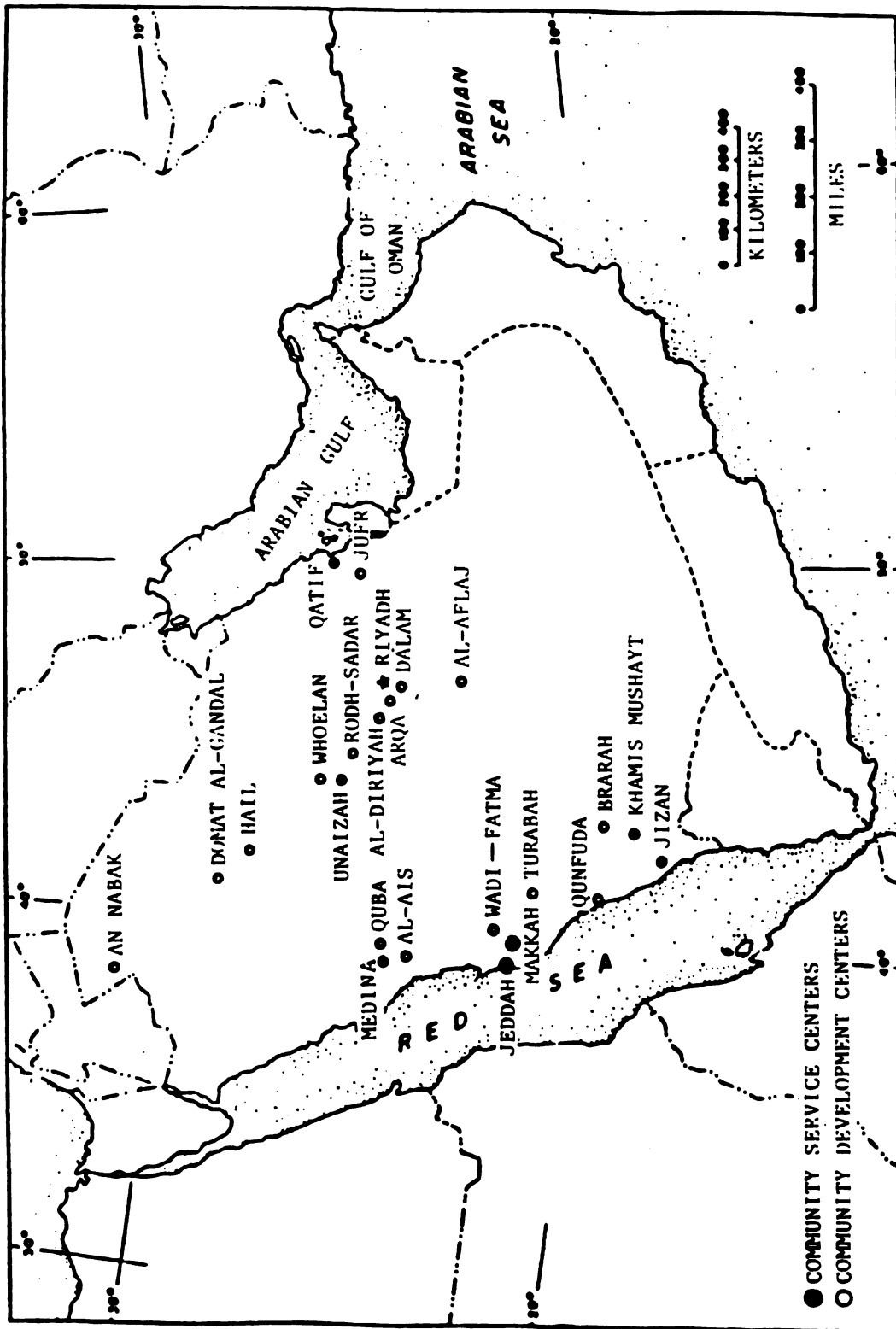
MAP 2: LOCATIONS OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND SERVICE CENTERS IN SAUDI ARABIA

ARABIAN SEA

GULF OF OMAN

ARABIAN GULF

QATIF
JUFR
WHOELAN
RODH-SADAR
UNAIZAH
AL-DIRIYAH
ARQA
RIYADH
DALAM
AL-AFLAJ

DONAT AL-GANDAL
HAIL

AN NABAK

MEDINA
QUBA
AL-AIS
WADI—FATMA
MAKKAH TURABAH
JEDDAH

KHAMIS MUSHAYT
BRARAH
JIZAN
QUNFUDA

RED SEA

KILOMETERS
MILES

● COMMUNITY SERVICE CENTERS
○ COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT CENTERS

Table 1.--Community development and service centers in Saudi Arabia and their places and
dates of establishment, and location and number of areas and villages.

No.	Name of Center	Founding Date	Location	Number
1	Comm. Service in Riyadh	1962	Central SA	4 areas
2	Comm. Service in Unaizah	1962	Central SA	4 areas
3	Comm. Service in Qatif	1962	Eastern SA	Qatif City
4	Comm. Service in Makkah	1962	Western SA	3 areas
5	Comm. Service in Medina	1962	Western SA	5 areas
6	Comm. Service in Jizan	1962	Central SA	3 villages
7	Comm. Development in Al-Diriyah	1960	Central SA	3 villages
8	Comm. Development in Al-Aflaj	1963	Central SA	6 villages
9	Comm. Development in Qasim (Whoelan)	1961	Central SA	6 villages
10	Comm. Development in Al-Ahsa	1961	Central SA	10 villages
11	Comm. Development in Wadi Fatma	1961	Western SA	6 villages
12	Comm. Development in Turabah	1962	Western SA	6 villages
13	Comm. Development in Quba	1961	Western SA	2 villages
14	Comm. Development in Hail	1962	Northern SA	9 villages
15	Comm. Development in Khamis Mushayt	1962	Southern SA	Khamis Mushayt
16	Comm. Development in An Nabak	1962	Northern SA	9 villages
17	Comm. Development in Domat Al-Gandal	1977	Northern SA	Domat Al-Gandal
18	Comm. Development in Qunfuda	1977	Southern SA	2 areas
19	Comm. Development in Dilam	1978	Central SA	Dilam area
20	Comm. Development in Rodh Sedar	1978	Central SA	Rodh Sedar
21	Comm. Development in Brarah	1979	Southern SA	Brarah area
22	Comm. Development in Al-Ais	1978	Western SA	Al-Ais

Source: Saudi Arabian Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, A Brief Look at the Deputies
of Ministry for Social Affairs and Social Care, 1981.   (In Arabic.)

Stages in Selecting Locations
for Community Development Centers

The Saudi Arabian government set three stages or conditions
that are necessary in the selection process of establishing community
development centers.

The first stage. It was necessary to divide all parts of Saudi
Arabia into areas for community development. Each area was arranged
for the establishment of a community development center in it. In each
area the following basic stipulations can be found (Saudi Arabian
Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, 1980):

1. An abundance of good roads for connecting the various area
   parts and the areas around it.

2. Existing good water supply for drinking.

3. The area should exist within the Saudi Arabian regional
   planning areas.

4. The area should have adequate population. (p. 3)

In this way, it is possible to know the number of community development
centers necessary to cover the country.

The second stage. The second stage involves conducting field
research on all areas that potentially need the establishment of a
community development center. In obtaining the information, it was
considered possible to apply priority standards to them. The following
are the proposed standards (Saudi Arabian Ministry of Labor and Social
Affairs, 1980):

1. Standard of density of the population: a priority is given to
   the area with the highest population density.

2. Standard of stability of population: a priority is given to
   the area with the longest average family staying period.

3. Standard of deprivation of basic services including the follow-
    ing: public cleanliness, governmental and indigenous social
    services, active cooperatives, mental and preventive health
    services, cultural services and adult education, agricultural
    and veterinary services. The priority is given to the area
    with the smallest percentage of basic services in it.

4. Standard of citizens' desires and willingness to participate,
    which includes two elements: First, the proportion of the
    number of the leaders by area who are supportive of establish-
    ing the center in the area to the total number of leaders in
    the area. Also, the percentage of the leaders who are willing
    to participate in the center's activities to the total number
    of the population. Second, the proportion of the population
    who are supportive of establishing the center and willing to
    participate in its activities to the total number of the popu-
    lation. Priority is given to the area that has the highest
    percentage of support and willingness to participate among the
    areas considered. (p. 4)

The third stage. Complete determination of the centers' loca-

tion within the selected areas is as follows (Saudi Arabian Ministry of

Labor and Social Affairs, 1980):

1. That the center's location should be in the middle of the area
    it serves.

2. The center should be in the village which has the most
    governmental services.

3. The center should be in the village which has the largest
    population. (p. 5)

Organizational Structure of the Rural
Community Development Programs

In the community development centers in Saudi Arabia, the

program is based on the participation of four ministries that are

concerned with the rural areas. These ministries are (1) the Ministry

of Agriculture, (2) the Ministry of Education, (3) the Ministry of

Health, and (4) the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, which is

administratively responsible for the unique character of the project. The following organizations were designed to plan, operate, and supervise the scheme:

1. The Central Community Development Committee or National Committee is made up of representatives of the four ministries and two other representatives, one of them from the Ministry of Finance and the other from the Ministry of Planning. Among other functions, this committee mainly formulates the general policy of community development programs and plans and coordinates the activities of the concerned bodies.

2. The Regional Community Development Committee. Each of these committees is composed of representatives of the regional offices of the Ministries of Health, Agriculture, Education, and Social Affairs (Saudi Arabian Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, 1966). Every committee is responsible for coordinating, supervising, and following up the activities of the community development center in its respective area (Nasser, 1976).

3. The community development center is composed of the following units: social unit, health unit, agricultural unit, and cultural and educational unit. Each center is staffed with male and female workers. (See Figure 3.)

4. Local people's committees, which are formed in the villages served by the community development centers, have a membership of voluntary leaders devoted to the development of their communities. Their members comprise local leaders, heads of families, and
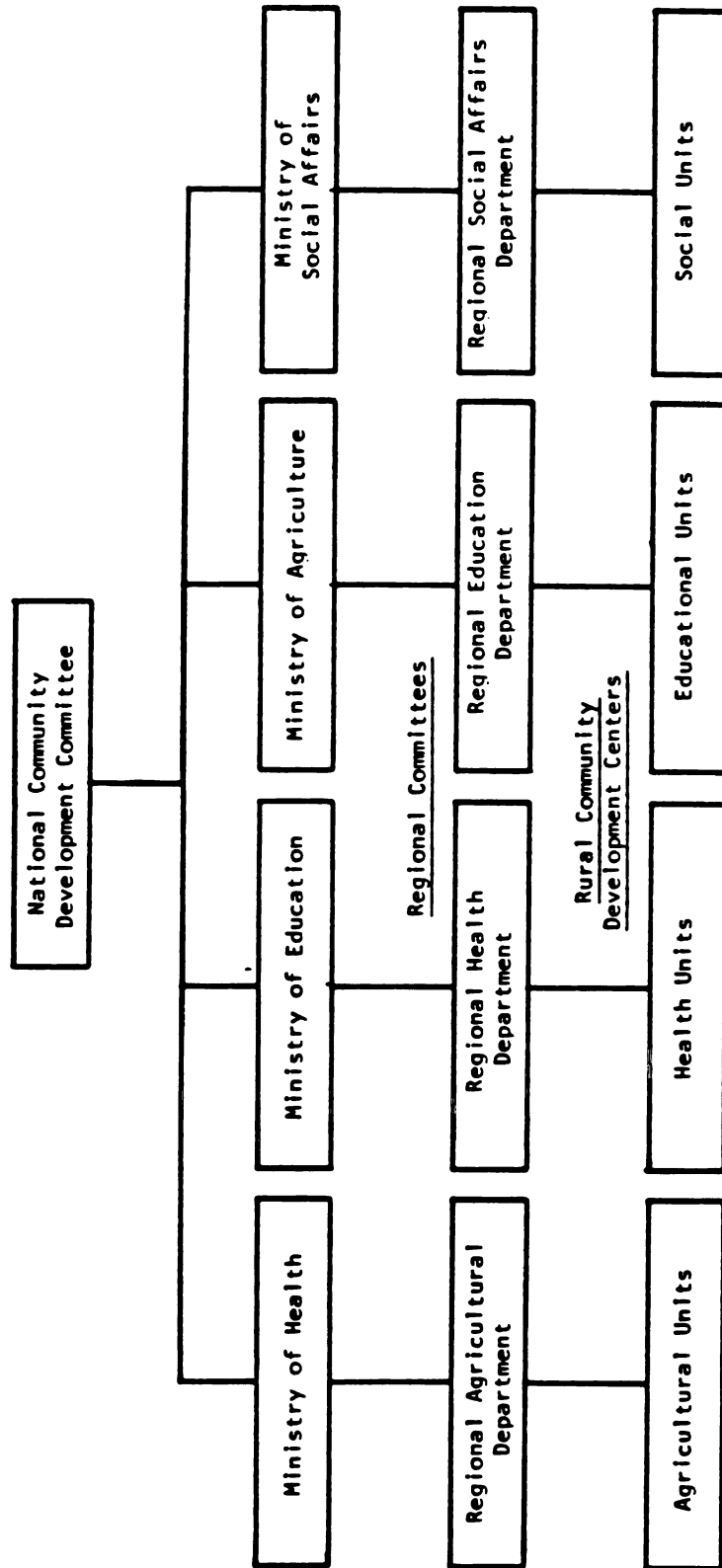
Figure 3: Organizational structure of the community development rural programs in Saudi Arabia.

representatives of local institutions. Each committee is divided into subcommittees whose activities are in line with the various operating sectors of the center. There are social, educational, health, and agricultural subcommittees. The technical staff of the centers serve as consultants to these subcommittees, each in his field of specialization. Through these committees, people attempt to determine their needs and collaborate to meet them through their mutual efforts.

Staff of the Centers

The Saudi government has constructed a large building to house each center, with offices for the staff, living accommodations for some of them, a large club and meeting room, a lecture room, an exhibit area, a kindergarten, a clinic, and a library. The staff of every center is as follows:

1. A director
2. One or two male social workers
3. One or two female social workers
4. A cultural specialist
5. An agricultural specialist
6. One or two physicians
7. One or more nurses
8. A pharmacist
9. A clerk
10. A typist
11. Workers and messengers
12. Drivers

Each of the above personnel is financed and supervised techni-
cally by the appropriate ministry participating in the programs. Coor-
dination and control are exercised by the director of the center.

The materials and personnel needs for the project are supplied
by the four ministries:

1. The Ministry of Agriculture provides machines, seed, ferti-
lizer, and agricultural workers.

2. The Ministry of Health provides clinics, medicine, doctors,
and nurses.

3. The Ministry of Education provides school buildings, teach-
ers, class materials, and a library.

4. The Ministry of Social Affairs offers social workers and
all personnel needed for counseling and improving the social condi-
tions. In addition, all buildings of the centers were built by this
ministry.

The Basic Objectives of Community Development Centers

Local community development programs in the rural areas of
Saudi Arabia aim at mobilizing the efforts of individuals and groups to
participate in the activities and programs with governmental agencies
to help people and improve available resources, allowing the community
to meet its needs. It aims toward human development through the promo-
tion of self-reliance and change in social attitudes. In these broad
lines, the basic objectives for community development are as follows

(Saudi Arabian Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, 1966, p. 18;

Ministry of Planning, 1982, p. 4):

1. To work toward making the desired changes within the framework of Islamic values to achieve balanced growth of citizens' physical and intellectual capabilities and to effectively use environmental resources.

2. To spread awareness among the citizens in all [areas] of health, education, social, and agricultural factors.

3. To raise and better the standard of living in the local community by providing integrated services and programs to the rural population in different aspects.

4. To establish village indigenous committees in which people can work jointly for the welfare of their communities.

5. To encourage the people to participate effectively and positively in the different kinds of programs and services.

6. To increase the fitness of youth and to benefit from their energy in developing the community and improving it by establishing youth athletic clubs in order to organize the youths for some constructive activities for themselves and their communities.

7. To improve the health condition of the rural people through curative as well as preventative measures.

8. To cooperate in spreading literacy and spreading the functional teaching of reading and writing among the population.

9. To give women a chance to participate effectively in community life within the framework of Islamic values concerning motherhood and childhood and to increase social and health care for women and children.

10. To help farmers improve their farming practices, as well as to encourage them to adopt new fertilizers, tools, seeds, technical information, and treatment of plant disease and to follow modern methods of animal production.

Services and Programs Provided by the
Community Development Centers

As mentioned before, there are six urban community development centers and 16 rural centers. The centers in urban areas consist of three sections: social, cultural and health. The centers in rural areas have, in addition to these, an agricultural section.

Social Section

Indigenous committees in villages and local areas. Indigenous committees are considered essential to the achievement of development objectives because the committees act to coordinate local activities and efforts. They attempt, with government support, to bring about social change in the right direction at the right time. Indigenous committees attempt to:

1. encourage the citizens to think about their community;

2. train them to think about and to face problems and to seek solutions by their own exertion and endeavors;

3. study these solutions logically, suggesting tools to achieve the solutions;

4. develop trust among the members and the community and encourage community residents to participate in projects. (Saudi Arabian Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, 1981, p. 27)

The rural clubs. The rural club is concerned fundamentally with social, educational, cultural, and physical education for youths (most of them between the ages of 14 and 20), the goal being to work with them until they gain maturity and skills to be able to be involved in building and advancing their communities. The clubs' role is similar to that which the family and the schools play in preparing the

young to be responsible citizens of their nations. These clubs intro-
duce the youths to the following programs:

1. Public service programs giving them the opportunity to be
    involved in serving the community to understand its problems
    and to work to solve them;

2. diverse cultural and sport programs;

3. farming programs;

4. programs to provide outlets for hobbies they have already or to
    direct them toward new hobbies. (Saudi Arabian Ministry of
    Labor and Social Affairs, 1981, p. 28)

Summer camps for youths. To benefit from the energy and free
time of youths, summer camps carry out projects in areas and villages
in which the youths live. These projects, such as road improvement and
road leveling, clean-up campaigns, and other efforts, are aimed at
reducing the costs of these services as well as creating in youths
personal responsibility and responsibility for good works for the
community.

Social lectures and debates. The centers use lectures and
debates as tools of extension and awareness in which issues that con-
cern the citizens in the community are presented and discussed.

Girls' dwellings or houses. The purpose of girls' dwellings
(or houses) is to facilitate educational experiences for women, to
educate women to support the community and to take care of their fami-
lies. The centers seek existing local institutions to carry out this
activity in exchange for administrative and specialist help. There is
a total of 60 local dwellings (or houses) serving 2,877 women and
girls.

Kindergartens. One of the most important responsibilities of the centers is taking care of children and helping families to provide good education for their sons and daughters, especially in the stage before elementary school. The centers work to achieve this objective by cooperating in establishing kindergartens that work with three to six year olds, providing a facility that meets religious, social, and health requirements. The social specialist and health visitors supervise this kindergarten. Usually, the centers give them ample materials, sometimes also providing furniture or a location. The local population has a strong interest in the success of these kindergartens.

Studying individual problems and cases. Despite the basic concentration of community development centers on carrying out operations for the local community in general, community development social workers devote some effort and energy to individual cases and problems of families in the area covered by the center.

Educational and Cultural Section

The educational and cultural activities of development centers include sponsoring cultural competitions, establishing libraries, cooperating with school activities, and fostering adult literacy. These efforts to upgrade local citizens are led and assisted by the centers' cultural specialists.

Cultural competitions. The purpose of these contests is to provide good competition among youths and establish strong relationships. These competitions bring out youths' special abilities by encouraging them to continue their efforts to supply, through science

and knowledge, inputs that will contribute significantly to the comprehensive development movement in Saudi Arabia and return benefits to all the citizens.

Libraries. An awareness of reading is considered one of the major objectives of the cultural section in development centers. Therefore, there is a cultural library in every center, which citizens can frequent at their leisure. In addition, mobile library services are moved among schools and other citizen groups, such as clubs. There were 66 libraries in the 22 centers in 1984, 34 permanent libraries and 32 mobile library units, used by 20,246 citizens to borrow 4,786 books.

Illiteracy obliteration classes. One of the general objectives of the cultural sections in centers is an effort to put an end to illiteracy among the citizens in their service areas. Educational specialists made 519 visits from the centers to those classes in 1980, involving 144 awareness presentations. There was a total of 95 night school classes.

Educational and cultural committees. These committees represent one of the tools for getting citizens to participate in development projects, by training them to research community problems in the cultural room and to pass or adopt fitting resolutions, as well as to participate in planning programs and implementing them.

Other cultural activities. The cultural sections in the centers work with the youths and adults in the centers' service areas. In doing so, they visit schools; publish awareness papers; organize public

debates, lectures, and celebrations; hold diverse cultural competitions and artistry expositions; and promulgate various other activities.

Health Section

Health committees. These committees are tools for health education for citizen groups, also providing first-aid training to members of these committees. Committee members receive beneficial health information to help them participate in and plan health conservation programs.

Extension work and health education. This activity involves preparation of publications, circulars, lectures, meetings, and cinema showings. In addition, extension visits of health observers and other methods of encouraging health awareness among the citizens are used.

Protective and curative therapeutic activity in center clinics. Most of the community development centers have clinics for free treatment of area citizens. A large number of citizens frequent these clinics. The clinics are also involved in public vaccination campaigns organized by the health ministry at various times of the year. In addition, the projects of the health sections in the centers include other activities, such as environmental services, child care, public campaigns for cleanliness, cover-the-pool efforts, and others.

Agricultural Section

Raising the economic standard of the villagers is one of the important goals of the community development programs. Through

agricultural extension units, the farmers may benefit in a number of ways.

Demonstration farms. Some centers prepare model fields to enable farmers to observe modern agricultural methods, to teach use of the correct fertilizers, and to show methods of planting new kinds of crops. They also distribute seedlings to the citizens. In 1980, the centers set up 21 model fields and distributed 48,911 agricultural seedlings for different crops. In addition, the agricultural section in the center provides other services, such as seed improvement, farmer training, insecticide spray, and others.

Agricultural committees. Agricultural committees are important tools for the participation of farmers in researching their agricultural problems and working toward solutions to them. The local committees cooperate with agricultural specialists in their work (Taiyar, 1984).

Summary of Community Development Centers

Community development centers are the primary units in the rural areas of Saudi Arabia responsible for carrying out community development plans. The first center opened in 1960 with the aid of the United Nations. Now there are 22 centers in Saudi Arabia. In areas where no centers exist, there are indigenous community development committees that have as their goal helping people to help themselves. The centers should involve the community as a whole and work together to help bring about national development.

Community development centers are established only in those locations that can meet the specifications as set up in the three stages of standards. In the first stage, the area must have good communications and adequate water. In the second stage, studies are carried out and priorities are given to those locations with the highest population and stability, deprived of basic services, where the citizens are willing to participate. The third and final stage is the decision of where to place the center, which is made by placing it either in the center of the area, in the village with the most existing government offices, or in the largest village.

The basic objectives of the community development plan are: to spread awareness, to work toward desired change, to raise the standard of living, to increase individual participation, to organize volunteer efforts, to increase social stability of the family, to improve the local environment, to increase women's participation, to increase the involvement of youths, to form indigenous committees, to spread literacy, to carry out investigations, and to improve health.

The urban centers are divided into three sections: social, educational and cultural, and health; the rural centers have an agricultural section as well.

The social section directs the following programs: indigenous committees, rural club, youth summer camps, studying individual problems and cases, extension visits to houses, women's committees, and kindergartens. These encourage social participation and the betterment of individuals' lifestyles.

Increasing the community's educational and cultural level is carried out through the establishment of libraries, illiteracy obliteration classes, cultural committees, school activities, vocational training, and the encouragement of cultural and educational activities.

The health section improves the community's health through health committees, extension services, health education, and clinics. These groups work together to reduce disease and increase public sanitation.

The rural centers also contain an agricultural section whose primary responsibility is to provide extension services, prepare model fields, and give other services such as seed improvement, insecticide spray, fertilizers, and others.

Working together in the community development center, these various sections attempt to bring about a balanced approach to development.

The Center for Training and Applied Research in Community Development in Al-Diriyah

As any other developing country in the world, Saudi Arabia faces the problem of shortage of technical and qualified staff personnel to carry out the program. This has led the government to establish a center for training and applied research in Al-Diriyah village. This center has served as a model for community development centers in Saudi Arabia. It is also one of the large-scale projects that is being executed in the country with the cooperation of the United Nations Development Program.

The Center for Training and Applied Research in Community Development (CTARCD) exists as a result of an agreement between the Saudi government and the United Nations Development Program and the Technical Cooperation Office (UNDP-TC) in June 1970 and launched on July 1, 1970. The major objectives and aims of the Center are:

--To train senior-level personnel, field work staff, specialists and local leaders in the different fields of community development.

--To advise and assist the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs and other related ministries in the implementation of procedures conducive to efficient administration, supervision and evaluation of rural development programs.

--To strengthen existing community development centers and assist in the establishment of new ones.

--To assist the government in carrying out rural, social and economic development activities in selected areas; these activities will form an integral part of the training and research activities.

--To conduct action-oriented research whose result will be utilized in training and community development activities.

--To offer specialized seminars and courses in agriculture, health, education, literacy, adult education, cooperatives, and social welfare, etc. (Saudi Arabian Ministry of Planning, 1975-80, p. 404)

Staff of the Training and Applied Research Center in Al-Diriyah

The Saudi government provided the Center with specialized Saudi nationals. Some of them assumed their posts as counterparts to the United Nations experts. Others fill technical positions as well as clerical and administrative posts. They are all being supervised by the director general of the Center. On the other hand, the United Nations provided the Center with international experts specialized in

the various fields of community development. They work under the supervision of the project manager. The organizational structure of the Center is shown in Figure 4.

Activities of the Al-Diriyah Center

The Center performs two kinds of activities, training and research.

Training activity. Training is the Center's most important task. The training activity of the Al-Diriyah Center is carried on in two ways:

1. Training administered at the Center itself in the form of training sessions (long or short).

2. Applied fieldwork training periods, prepared and carried out under the direction of the Center. (Saudi Arabian Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, 1975, p. 6)

The training activity--already noteworthy for the results it has achieved with but limited means--must be considerably intensified to attain the goal of training managerial staff in the various sectors of community centers.

Research activity. Development of social research is the second major objective of the Center. The research carried on at the Al-Diriyah Center has included descriptive, analytical, and statistical surveys designed to enable the evaluation of activity in the social affairs area, evaluation of training courses, and of activity in social development.
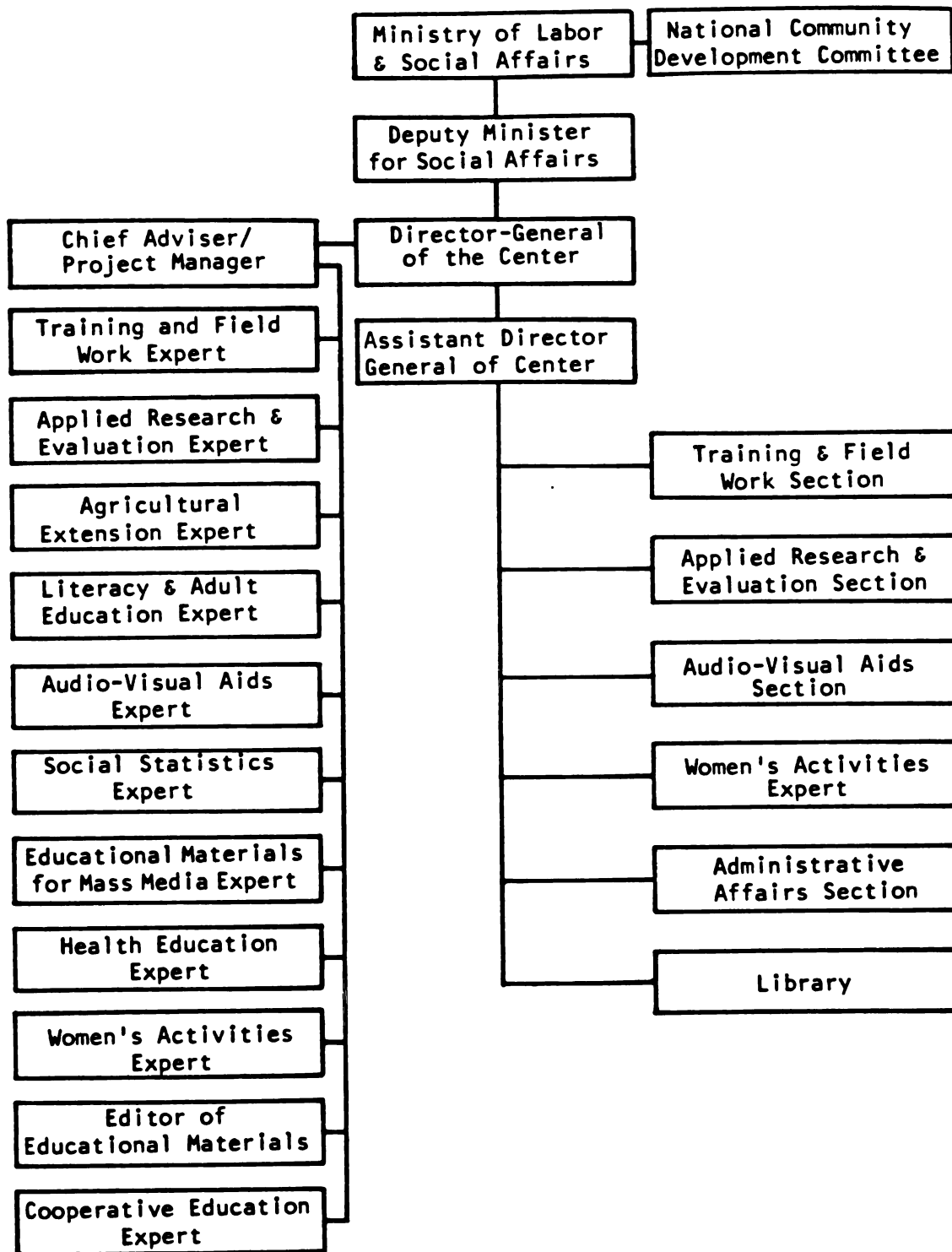
Figure 4: Organizational structure of the Al-Diriyah Center for Training and Applied Research in Community Development. (From Saudi Arabian Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, Center for Training and Applied Research in Al-Diriyah, 1980.)

A Word About the Center for
Training and Applied Research
in Community Development

As mentioned before, the CTARCD focuses on two major points. First is training for top personnel, and second is preparing social researchers to evaluate the activity and programs in the social affairs area. It is fine to have these things done, but one might ask whether the training the Center offers to community center workers is helpful to understand the needs and solve the problems of the villagers, whether those people who attend training programs implement the knowledge they have gained in their work, and so on. In my opinion, the Center does not provide the community development workers with adequate knowledge and skills which will enable them to work effectively with community people to encourage them to participate efficiently to increase their income, improve their living conditions, solve the problems of their communities, and help them to be self-sufficient.

Individual participation is a critical issue facing the Center because its training programs are offered only to the top personnel. The center has not offered special programs for the individuals who are concerned with community development. In addition, the Center does not offer people any incentives to encourage their participation in its programs.

The Application of the Change Agent and Target
Systems Concepts in the Community Rural
Development Programs

It must be remembered that concepts are theoretical interpreta-
tions of a perceived reality. Concepts may be understood differently
by individual people or in different countries, and the actual practice
may differ somewhat but remain within the framework of the main ideas
presented by the concept. In this section, the two key concepts,
change agent and target systems, defined in Chapter III, are applied to
the Saudi Arabian community development program.

Application of the Change
Agent Concept

In Chapter III the concept of change agent was divided into
four different components. As a quick review, this person or group of
persons must (1) have the appropriate knowledge, credentials, and
planning skills; (2) be able to work with people, both as a leader and
as a team member; (3) understand the values and the culture of the
people; and (4) have the patience to help the target system become more
involved in the planned change. Since human characteristics are sub-
jective in nature, supporting evidence concerning change agents will be
more difficult to obtain. Since it is not possible to review the
qualifications of individual Saudi community development agents in the
community development centers because that kind of information is not
available to the public, one must deduce their characteristics by
reviewing job performance.

<u>Have the appropriate knowledge, credentials, and planning</u>

<u>skills</u>. The national government requires community development centers

to have a team of specialists (workers). This team includes a physi-

cian, a nurse, a health visitor, social workers, a literacy specialist,

and an agricultural extension worker. Forty-six percent of the workers

have taken training programs at the Al-Diriyah Center for Training and

Applied Research in Community Development. Courses dealt with specific

issues concerning Saudi Arabian development. Despite this degree of

competency, a high number of the centers' directors felt that some of

their workers needed an additional training link to the community

development areas and a self-help approach, in order to shift the

clients from a position of reliance on the change agents to one of

self-reliance. It must be remembered that most community development

centers are still predominantly interested in having team members be

technical experts instead of self-help trainers. When local residents

have sufficient skills to accept self-help policies, there will either

need to be a change in staff or current workers will need to improve

their self-help training skills.

 <u>Be able to work with people</u>. Change agents have to work on a

team if they are to work in a community development center in Saudi

Arabia. In addition, the most crucial aspect of a change agent's job

involves designing annual plans and implementing these plans once they

are designed. It is necessary to understand the needs of local resi-

dents if one is to design a successful plan. Also, it is necessary to

have knowledge of the residents' strengths and weaknesses if one is to

assess the degree of change a culture can accept during each one-year period. Since our findings in field research indicate that the majority of local residents believed the centers helped them to some extent, it is reasonable to assume that a majority of the change agents worked relatively well with residents to adequately reflect local needs in the annual plans.

Understand the values and culture of the people. Change agents need to understand the values, culture, attitudes, and beliefs of the people because without that knowledge successful plans and programs cannot be designed. To understand local residents, change agents must spend a long time in the community and participate in community affairs. In a survey conducted by the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, local residents were asked if they had had personal contact with service center workers. Sixty percent of the families said they had been contacted. This leads one to conclude that the change agents somehow had a good understanding of the values and culture of the people and therefore the people's needs.

Have the patience to help the client system and the target system become involved in planned change. Patience is a difficult characteristic to measure. However, a growth in target system participation is more tangible and easier to show. It is reasonable to suggest that growth in local participation may be positively associated with a change agent's patience. As has been shown, lack of local participation in the center's activities and programs has been the most serious problem change agents face in Saudi Arabia. Historically, local

residents have passively accepted governmental programs. With the rise
in the number of indigenous committees, one is beginning to see an
increase in the number of local participants and a change in their
behavior. But this change is just beginning and it will take time for
the people to become full participants in the activities, plans, and
programs of community development centers (Taiyar, 1984).

Application of the Target System Concept in the Community Rural Development Programs

The concept of the target system was outlined in Chapter III,
and its definition comprises three major points. They include: (1)
community development will benefit local residents if the target system
is used to identify the group of individuals who will benefit from
planned changes; (2) people in the target system can be divided into
several subgroups, ranging from innovators (early adopters) to laggards
(late adopters), who adopt the new proposal at varying speeds; (3) and
community development will be more beneficial if the early adopters in
the target system (client system) actively participate in the planning
of the program. To compare Saudi Arabia's target system to the one
outlined above, it is necessary to apply data from the previous section
about community development centers to the individual components listed
above.

Community Development Will Benefit Target Systems if the Target System Concept Is Followed

The Saudi Arabian government has a list of guidelines that is
used to establish the need for community development centers based on

perceived needs. Areas must have a certain degree of deprivation
before they are considered potential locations for centers. Such areas
of deprivation include public cleanliness, governmental and indigenous
social services, treatment and preventive health services, cultural
services and adult education, and agricultural services. Hence one may
conclude that many Saudi Arabian localities are target systems or are
potential target systems that can benefit from planned change.

The Target System Can Be Divided
Into Several Groups That Adopt New
Proposals at Varying Speeds

When investigating the composition of the target system, one
subgroup, the client system, is readily identifiable. It is composed
of local leaders, and this group is the first to participate in planned
change. Generally, this group is rather well organized and sometimes
forms an indigenous committee. These committees actively participate
in projects at the development centers in Saudi Arabian villages.

Community Development Will Be More
Beneficial if the Early Adopters in
the Target System Actively Participate
in Program Planning

The early adopters, or the client systems in Saudi Arabia, are
local citizens who participate in the community development process
through indigenous committees. One study conducted by the Ministry of
Labor and Social Affairs indicated that 81 percent of the centers'
directors said it would not be possible to practice center activities
with the same competence and increase the villagers' participation in

programs without the existing indigenous committees (Taiyar, 1984). However, not all indigenous committees were able to participate to their expected capacity. Under half (41 percent) of these committees performed a primary role in determining community development activities in their local communities. Only 12.5 percent of the centers' directors said that ideas for programs and projects came from the indigenous committees (Saudi Arabian Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, 1974). Hence, one may conclude that the client system plays a more active role than any other part of the target system, but it could be even more active if center directors were more responsive.

CHAPTER V

STUDY SITE, HYPOTHESES, AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The major objective of this survey research is to examine the knowledge, use, and opinions currently held by villagers toward the rural community development centers' programs and services. These programs include the areas of health, agriculture, social, and educational and cultural services. Another objective of this survey is to examine how the villagers' participation in the community development centers' programs is affected by a number of variables, such as age, level of education, marital status, length of residence, and distance from the center. To examine these objectives in depth, primary data were collected from a sample of respondents selected from Wadi Fatma villages in the western province of Saudi Arabia.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide details on the study design and methodology used in the present research. This chapter includes two sections. The first includes information in some detail on the research site (Wadi Fatma) and a study of the customs and way of life of the villagers in the area. The second section includes the research hypotheses, a description of the population, the sampling techniques used, and the research instrument. Also discussed is the

validity of the instrument, the pilot study, and procedures used for data analysis.

The Study Site

The focus of this section is on the Wadi Fatma area (the study area). The researcher attempts to describe briefly (1) the geographical location, agriculture, and water resources of the region; (2) the historical outlook; (3) residents of Wadi Fatma; (4) physical structure; and (5) the customs and ways of life in the area.

Geographical Location, Agriculture, and Water Resources of Wadi Fatma

Wadi Fatma is located in the western region of Saudi Arabia, near Makkah and Jeddah (see Map 3). It lies approximately 30 kilometers northwest of Makkah and 75 kilometers east of Jeddah. The valley (wadi) runs from the northeast village of Al-Mubarak to the westernmost village of Haddah, located 40 kilometers from the Red Sea. The width of the wadi averages 4 kilometers. This wadi covers an area of about 4,500 square kilometers.

> Wadi Fatma is bounded on the North by the Wadi Alaf and by Harra Al-Nahamiya, a flat lava-flow area. . . . At the eastern boundary many small mountains spread out, with Mount Daf, Faj (a narrow route between mountains) Al-Ramithy, and Faj Al-Karimy forming the western boundary. (Katakura, 1977, pp. 11-12)

Geographically, Wadi Fatma is located in the vegetation area. Many plants of this area display an adaptation to dry conditions, the thorn plants being the most important. In the villages, where moisture is preserved in the sand, various types of wild trees and bushes can be observed. A rather wide variety of vegetables is cultivated in Wadi
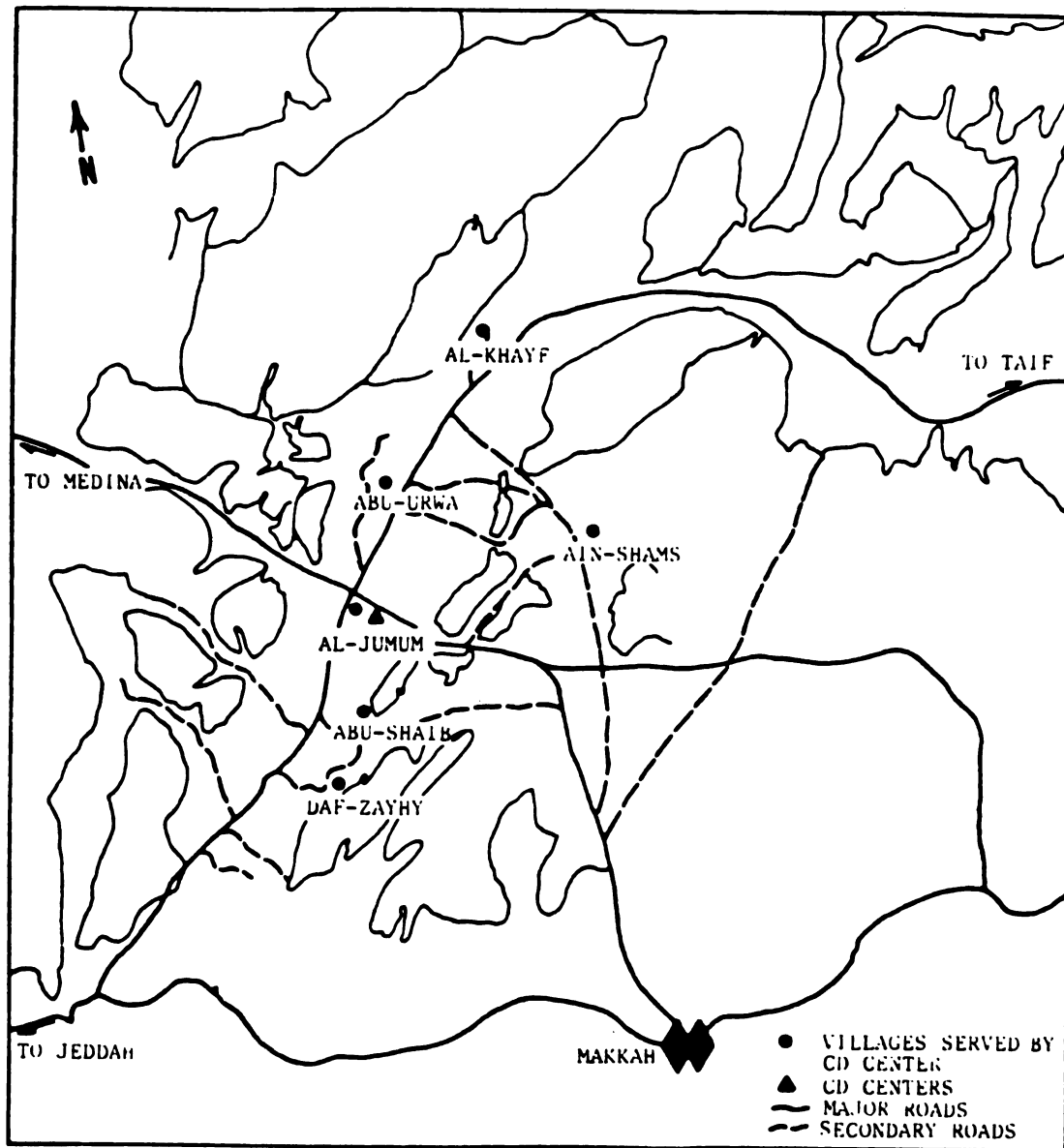
MAP 3: WADI FATMA AND ITS LOCATION

Fatma, such as dates, clover, sweet potatoes, okra, sweet melon, cucumbers, and tomatoes.

Most agricultural fields are located at least one kilometer away from the residential areas. Agriculture survives around the water sources, such as springs, wells, and rainfall. There used to be 360 natural springs with water that was excellent for drinking and agriculture, but now most of them are dried up as the result of decreased annual rainfall in the area, or because of piping water to Jeddah and Makkah by a water company called Ain Aziziya, which was established in Wadi Fatma and supported by both government funds and private investment.

Wadi Fatma consists of a number of villages, ranging from 3 to more than 45 kilometers from one another. They are all connected by narrow, winding roads, some of which are unpaved. The following list gives the names of all 28 villages of Wadi Fatma:

Al-Jumum, Al-Riyan, Ain-Shams, Hadda, Hadh Al-Samed, Ben-Massood, Trfa, Al-Mubarak, Asffan, Al-Akalyh, Al-Qushashiya, Abu-Husany, Al-Khayf, Al-Burqa, Abu-Urwa, Abu-Shaib, Al-Bushur, Daf-Zayny, Daf-Khuza'a, Al-Brabir, Al-Hamish, Al-Samd, Al-Murshdiya, Sarwa'a, Al-Zelal, Al-Duh al-Saghir, Al-Duh al-Kabir, West Al-Nwahrih, East Al-Nwahrih. (Abdul-Jabar, 1983, p. 135)

Historical Outlook of Wadi Fatma and How It Was Named

Knowledge of Wadi Fatma during the pre-Islamic period is very sparse.

It is certain that from earliest times the valley was an important traffic center for camel caravans passing between Makkah and Medina. It was also a prosperous residential area, at one time even more prosperous than Makkah because of the abundant spring. (Katakura, 1977, p. 19)

There is no unanimous agreement among historians concerning the naming of the valley. As a matter of fact, the Wadi (valley) has been known by numerous names. Some ancient names were Wadi Al-Sharif, Wadi Mur, and Mur Dahran. Mur means a passage between two mountain ranges. The Arabic word Dahr means backbone, and Dahran is a doubled form which emphasizes its meaning (Katakura, 1977).

It is not certain when the name Wadi Fatma was first given to the valley. The most possible idea tells us that the name Fatma comes from a person, Fatma Al-Kazaeya, a young girl from Kaza, one of the original tribes that settled in Wadi Fatma. In spite of her youth, Fatma was a courageous person who defended her tribe and territory with such strength and determination that all contesters finally acknowledged it belonged to her. It should be mentioned in passing that the name Wadi Fatma has no relation to Fatma, the daughter of Prophet Muhammed (peace be upon him).

In the area of Wadi Fatma there are many artifacts scattered throughout the valley, but the most important historical sites in the area are as follows: (1) a huge tombstone on the mountain in Wadi Fatma belongs to the tomb of Fatma Al-Kazaeya. This is one evidence of the reality of the person for whom the valley was named; (2) Al-Roadah Mosque, located in the Roadah village and built more than 200 years ago; and (3) the Abu Shaib Fort. In addition, other sites include various castles and mosques, whose historical value has not been determined.

Residents of Wadi Fatma

Traditionally, the villages of Saudi Arabia are characterized by a tribal social structure. The tribal origin of the inhabitants of Wadi Fatma can be traced to a number of tribes, such as:

1. Quraysh--one of the oldest tribes in the area. This tribe makes up about 35 percent of the population in the area.

2. Lihyan tribe--live in the Ain-Shams. These people are mostly farmers, and they live by raising animals and by growing produce. They make up 15 percent of the population.

3. Al-Shayouwage. This tribe of people are called in Islamic religion Al-Ansar. Most members of this tribe live in Daf-Zayny and make up 15 percent of the population.

4. The Herb. This tribe settled in Wadi Fatma much later than the other tribes. It is made up of a mixture of people from different backgrounds. They comprise 15 percent of the population. Most of them live in Al-Jumum.

5. The remaining 20 percent of the people in Wadi-Fatma are represented by different tribes, such as Salem, Zhrian, and Al-Shadah.

Physical Structure of Wadi Fatma

A compact, nucleated structure is the first striking impression one gets of most Saudi villages in general and of Wadi Fatma in particular. A cluster of houses stand close to each other, divided by winding alleys and paths that do not seem to have any regular design or plan. Some of the houses are built of mud bricks and logs and leaves from palm trees, whereas others are made of concrete. To a casual

observer, such a mass of dwellings shows no evidence of differentia-
tion. Upon investigation, however, one finds that the people are
conscious of the existence of distinct sections. Each one of these
sections usually forms the life of one kinship system or tribe.

Amid the clustered houses there is usually a central open
square where people hold social gatherings or trade. Villagers meet
there very often during their leisure time to discuss the problems of
the village and exchange news. Another important physical structure
that is conspicuously different from the rest of the buildings in the
village is the mosque. It is usually larger and cleaner than the other
village buildings. Each village has at least two small grocery shops
and elementary schools for both boys and girls.

In some cases, adjoining the houses are small plots used as
gardens for vegetables, flowers, or fruit trees. During the greater
part of the year, the farmers go to their fields early in the morning
and back to the village at sunset.

The above structural pattern provides the individual with a
situation that is highly conducive to interaction. There is a high
degree of intimate association, but it is segregated by sex. A genuine
feeling of neighborhood and a keen consciousness of belonging to the
community prevails.

Major Governmental Agencies and Institutions

The village of Al-Jumum holds most of the government agencies
and institutions of the Wadi Fatma area. Al-Jumum is the center of the

area, in which they coordinate with the city of Makkah. The major administrative agencies and institutions in Al-Jumum are:

1. The headquarters and offices of the ruler (amir), the representative of the Saudi government in Wadi-Fatma. Formerly there were four separate headquarters, located at Al-Riyan, Al-Khayf, Al-Tayf, and Al-Jumum, but in 1955 it was decided to organize one main office in Al-Jumum, making the other three offices local branches. A new branch was recently added in Ain-Shams village.

2. The court was established in 1961 by the central government to settle judicial problems according to Islamic law.

3. The police station was established in 1960. The police keep order in the area, provide public security, and assist the ruler in various matters.

4. The municipality is actually a branch of the Makkah municipality, which was established in 1963 to handle the increasing responsibilities of this area. Its primary functions are providing street lights, keeping the public areas clean, and developing ideas for town planning.

Several other types of administrative institutions are located in Al-Jumum village, such as schools, Red Cross, post office, phone company, and a community development center, discussed in detail in the preceding chapter.

Customs and Way of Life in Wadi Fatma

Rural Family

In rural Saudi Arabia in general and Wadi Fatma in particular, two types of family can be found. The first is the nuclear family, consisting mainly of husband and wife and their children. The second type is the joint family, which is the most important social and economic unit. The joint family consists ideally of the man and his wife or wives, their married sons and their families, and their unmarried sons and daughters. Members of the joint family usually live under one roof as one unit or household, with a very strong sense of solidarity and loyalty.

Socially and economically, the oldest male, the father, has absolute authority over all members of his family. He is the household head. He is responsible for managing the affairs of the family and is its representative to the outside world. The father is revered by the rest of the family and is considered the symbol of authority and family solidarity. This is not only based on the tribal system of patrilineal descent and patriarchal residence, but is also considered a religious duty according to Islamic teaching:

> Thy Lord hath decreed, that ye worship none save Him, and (that he show) kindness to parents. If one of them or both of them attain to old age with thee, say not "Fie" unto them nor repulse them, but speak unto them a gracious word.

> And lower unto them the wing of submission through mercy, and say: My Lord! Have mercy on them both as they did care for me when I was little. (Koran 17:23-24)

The relationship between father and sons is marked by deep respect and complete obedience to the will and authority of the father,

but the father who has only one son tends to be permissive in his relationship with him. This relationship also changes to mutual respect as the sons grow and especially when they share with their father the economic burden of the family. By then, the sons are treated as men.

Marriage

Marriage is obviously an agreement between families. When a village boy hints that he is interested in getting a wife, the first thought that comes to his family usually is that he should marry his <u>bint</u> <u>amm</u> (daughter of his paternal uncle). Such a marriage is usually encouraged for many reasons--not only because this intermarriage will strengthen the solidarity of a kinship group, but also because it assures the boy's parents that the girl who comes to live with them will fit smoothly into their way of life. The girl is not a stranger to the boy's family, and her premarriage loyalty is the same as theirs since they belong to the same kinship group. <u>Bint</u> <u>amm</u> marriage also assumes an economic importance. Islamic inheritance laws, as laid down in the Koran, prescribe that daughters as well as sons must share in the father's inheritance. Such marriages insure that the daughter's share will remain within the immediate kinship group. And finally, a very important fact in most Wadi Fatma villages is that blood, and not marriage, takes priority in all social relationships. Hence marriage to <u>bint</u> <u>amm</u> is preferred above all types of marriage. The twin ties of blood and marriage tend to achieve

solidarity and common interest among members of the family in rural society of Saudi Arabia.

Marriage in rural areas of Saudi Arabia and Wadi Fatma in particular involves the following procedures:

1. Arranging and engagement for marriage. Arranging of marriage is done mostly by the young man's father or mother, or a close relative if the mother is not available. Sometimes the young man himself goes to the parents of the desired young woman and asks them for the hand of their daughter. The father of the young woman then customarily says, "Would you please wait for awhile?" Usually in a week or so the girl's parents will return with their answer. Although the people say that parents should not consult with their daughter concerning her will in the matter, somehow mother and daughter always manage to communicate with one another, and in practice the young girl's feelings are generally respected. Most of the time the mother or relative plays a major role in choosing the bride for the groom by describing her looks and behavior to him. Young people do not have a chance to meet each other until they get married.

When the milka (engagement contract) is drawn up, the fathers of the prospective bride and groom meet at the house of the imam (Muslim religious leader) accompanied by two male witnesses from both families. On the contract paper are inscribed the names of the groom and the bride, the date of the occasion, and the amount of the dowry. One copy of the document is given to the prospective groom and another

to the prospective bride. This milka is, in fact, more important than the actual wedding ceremony (Katakura, 1977).

2. Dowry. One of the most important aspects of engagement in Saudi Arabia is the mahr (dowry) or money which the groom's family give to the bride's family. After marriage is agreed upon, the amount of the dowry is discussed. Islamic law prescribes that the engaged man must pay a mahr to his betrothed, but no dowry is required from the bride's side. The dowry varies from place to place and from situation to situation in the Wadi Fatma area. The dowry usually is spent to buy the bride beautiful clothing, gold, and sometimes a savings account in the event of divorce. Also, the mahr is used to buy the bride whatever she needs for her new home, but mostly this money is spent on gold items.

3. Wedding party and marriage. When the marriage contract has been drawn up and the dowry has been paid, the family and close relatives of the bride and groom celebrate the wedding party. At the wedding party, friends greet close relatives of the bride and groom by saying, "Congratulations to you," and the relatives answer, "God give you the same good luck." The night of the wedding, the bride stays with her closest friends at her family's home. This pattern continues for five to six days. On the wedding night she will be taken from her home to the groom's home by her mother and close relatives.

The wedding usually takes place on a Monday or Friday night, followed by a dinner for the near community, relatives, and friends.

After dinner the men and women gather together in two separate places for singing and socializing. The party will last until early morning.

On the wedding night the groom and his bride will get together and receive the wedding gifts (usually gold or money) from their relatives and friends. After this night the groom and bride live as man and wife.

The wedding season in Wadi Fatma is usually in late summer and early fall, especially in September and October. This is partly because the nights are more pleasant during this time than in the hot summer and are the longest nights of the year. Then, too, schools are out for summer vacation until October, so that students and teachers are home to join the wedding party and also to help with wedding preparations.

Death. When a person dies, close relatives or friends nearby cry out and begin to wail. Although wailing for the deceased was forbidden by the Islamic religion, this cry still serves as a kind of official notice in the villages of Wadi Fatma that a death has occurred.

After death, the villagers gather in the house of the deceased for three nights. The first and second nights, the family will receive just close friends and will serve coffee. On the third night (end of the days of mourning), sheep are slaughtered to provide food for the mourning family, friends, and poor people. On the fourth day, sheep are killed for a party. The women at this time will express their sadness by crying and wearing black.

When a young person dies, villagers express greater sorrow, sometimes postponing any scheduled festivity, such as a wedding. But the death of an aged person is considered natural in the due course of life, so people return to their normal pattern of living earlier. After the third day of mourning, the people in most of the villages of Wadi Fatma return to their normal pattern of living.

Folk medical traditions. Although trust in modern medicine is steadily increasing in Wadi Fatma, some people in the area still seek folk medical traditions. One such popular cure, called kay-binar, involves laying a heated stone or piece of iron on the area of pain. Although the skin is burned and a scar remains, the Bedouins claim that the most painful diseases have been healed by this procedure.

For stomach and intestinal troubles, a treatment called hamyya is used. The patient abstains from food for one or two days and drinks only mint or herb tea. When a person is bitten by a scorpion, the infected part of the skin is cut away immediately; raw garlic is placed on the area. If someone breaks a leg, they may use pieces of special wood and herbs to hold the leg until it heals.

Daily life. The village family of Wadi Fatma arises shortly before dawn. After Al-fajr prayer the mother, or sometimes the father, will first begin making Arabian coffee. After being roasted, the coffee beans are pounded in a bell-shaped container. Then the coffee is placed on the fire.

As the sun comes up, breakfast (generally including coffee, dates, eggs, bread, and yogurt) is usually eaten out in the sand

garden. The father goes to work, and the mother begins her household chores, such as cleaning and sewing. Around 7:00 a.m., the children of school age are sent off to school, which generally convenes around 7:30.

About noon the second prayer of the day, al-zuhr, is observed, and then at 1:30 p.m. or so the children return from school for the day. Shortly thereafter, the husband returns from work. The main meal of the day is served, including most likely boiled rice with meat and tomatoes, vegetable salad, and coffee. The family takes a nap in the afternoon, through the hottest period of the day, then rises to observe the afternoon prayer, al-asr. The farmers might return to the fields to work until sunset, while the children have time to play or do homework or help around the house.

The fourth prayer of the day, al-maghrib, is observed around sunset, at home or most often at the mosque by the men. Shortly afterward, the family eats its evening meal. After supper and after praying the last prayer, aish, people generally gather together in small groups at various dwellings for a short social time. The women are glad to see each other as they spend most of their day in their own dwellings. Generally, however, the Bedouins retire early, around 10:00 p.m.

Leisure time. The men who work in agriculture do not have much free time--just enough to eat, sleep, and spend some time with their family. During harvest time, sometimes the men will stay out in the fields during the whole day, stopping only for a light snack at midday.

During these periods, by the time they return at sunset they are totally exhausted. Government employees and students spend free time in the clubs of community development centers or in the coffee shops with friends. The elders usually spend their free time in the open square. They talk about the good old days, discuss the problems of the village, and exchange news. The women have many tea parties with friends and visit family members.

Hospitality and generosity. Hospitality and generosity are typical qualities of villagers in Saudi Arabia, and they are the main things in which people in Wadi Fatma take pride. They open their houses to friends and relatives, offering them the best that they have in the way of food and shelter.

The Bedouin's generosity, as Berger (1964) puts it, appears in "his being generally more willing to give than to receive" (p. 142). The offering of food is the essence of Arab hospitality. Pre-Islamic as well as Islamic poetry has been devoted to the glorification and affirmation of the virtue of hospitality.

Hypotheses and Research Methodology

After reviewing literature on organizational participation and adoption of innovation, a decision was made to state hypotheses in the null form. Several considerations led to this decision. Most of the research done in this area was carried out in Western, non-Islamic cultures. Studies often are concerned with a particular type of organization that has no counterpart in Saudi Arabian society. Studies of participation in extension most often deal with agriculture and

related activities. Our study considers four different program efforts, only one of which is agriculturally oriented. In our study, logic would tend to dictate the direction of some of the relationships. For example, distance from the center should be negatively related to participation, or a family with young children should use health services more often than a family without young children. However, in most instances, the direction of relationships is not obvious, based on existing literature or logic.

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

Ho 1: There is no significant relationship between heads of households' participation in the community development center programs and their marital status.

Ho 2: There is no significant relationship between heads of households' participation in the community development center programs and their age.

Ho 3: There is no significant relationship between heads of households' participation in the community development center programs and their level of education.

Ho 4: There is no significant relationship between heads of households' participation in the community development center programs and their length of residence.

Ho 5: There is no significant relationship between heads of households' participation in the community development center programs and the total number of people in the household.

Ho 6: There is no significant relationship between heads of households' participation in the community development center programs and the distance from residence to the center.

The Study Population

The target population in this study comprises all Saudi households in Wadi Fatma villages served by the community development center. Non-Saudi citizens were excluded from this study because most of the non-Saudi citizens have been in Wadi Fatma for only a short period of time. Another reason for their exclusion is that non-Saudis cannot use every kind of service in the center. Further, their evaluations and opinions concerning the services of the community development center may be influenced by different cultural, socioeconomic, and environmental factors than those affecting Saudi citizens.

The respondents in this study are the male heads of all households surveyed. It is realistic to use this approach because the survey questions addressed the social service needs of the entire household, and traditionally the head of the household is the spokesperson. Thus, if other members of the household were to be interviewed, it might not be appreciated by the head of the household. Also, to interview others might raise doubts and suspicions that the interviewer did not trust the answers of the head of the family.

Sampling Techniques

As mentioned before, the target population of this study included a sample of household heads in each of six villages (Al-Jumum, Daf-zayny, Abu-shaib, Abu-urwa, Ain-Shams, and Al-Khayf) of the Wadi Fatma region served by the community development center. This area was chosen because of its location in an area served by a community development center and because of its fairly representative nature of the

target population for which community development was planned on a national level. In view of the homogeneity of the population and the cost and time available for the research, the researcher took a sample of 260 household heads out of approximately 2,050 household heads in the six villages (about 12 percent).

Due to the lack of statistical information on population numbers and characteristics for the villages and residents of Wadi Fatma, the sampling process became critical. The investigator attempted to collect relevant information through other sources. The author was able to obtain a complete computer file of Al-Jumum village from the electric company. This file contained the names, numbers, and addresses of subscribers. There were 1,040 households in Al-Jumum village in winter 1985. Several households without electricity were added to the list.

Because there is a lack of data available about the number of households in the other five villages mentioned above, the author obtained a list of all household heads from the local leaders and indigenous committees in every village and local area. This list was the sampling frame of the study. The sample was selected randomly from each village by using a table of random numbers. A simple random sampling technique was used in this study to ensure that each individual in the defined population had an equal and independent chance of being selected as a member of the sample.

Ten household heads were out of the region during the time of data collection, and for five respondents the data were incomplete.

Thus, 245 cases of the total sample of 260 were included in the final analysis. Table 2 shows the distribution of the population (2,050) and the sample (245) in each village of the study area.

Table 2.--Distribution of the population and sample, according to every village in the study area (Wadi Fatma).

Name of Village	Total Number of Households	Total Number of Households in Sample[a]
Al-Jumum	1,040	130
Abu-Urwa	250	28
Ain-Shams	210	24
Abu-Shaib	200	23
Daf-Zayny	185	21
Al-Khayf	165	19
Total	2,050	245

[a]The total number of the sample in every village represents about 12 percent of the total number of population in every village.

Research Instrument

A structured interview was developed for the purpose of collecting research data. The development of the instrument involved several steps.

First, a comprehensive review of the literature was undertaken in the field of sociology and community development and programs. Various Saudi government documents were also consulted to acquire a sound background and knowledge for the construction of a questionnaire relevant to the study.

Second, in an informal interview, some community development officials in the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs and community development center workers in the Wadi Fatma area were asked to state the major components of community development programs, to know the major services, needs, and problems that face the villagers. The results were classified and organized into groups and categories. Each category contained items that dealt with particular types of services (agriculture, health, social, and cultural and educational).

Third, the methods of developing the structured interview were discussed with the major advisor and members of the writer's doctoral committee to revise and modify its components.

Fourth, the approved and revised version was translated into Arabic and then was given to some graduate students at Michigan State University, all faculty members of the Sociology Department at King Abdul-Aziz University, Saudi Arabia, and all social workers in community development centers in the Wadi Fatma area. The writer talked individually to every person who received a copy of the structured interview and took comments and suggestions for revising the Arabic form. Then the final Arabic form was given to two faculty members of King Abdul-Aziz University in Saudi Arabia to translate it into English. The original English form, which had been written by the researcher, was compared to the translated form that the translator had converted from the Arabic translation. This two-way translation, English to Arabic to English, helped to assure that the Arabic form was equivalent to the English form and that the exact meaning was

translated into the subjects' language, Arabic, in order to ensure better understanding of the structured interview items.

The structured interview (see Appendix A) is arranged in seven major sections:

The first section, Questions 1-7, contains items designed to collect personal data relevant to the purpose of this study, such as marital status, age, level of education, and length of residence of the head of the household.

The second section, Questions 8-13, contains general questions about community development center programs and household heads' reaction to and participation in the programs.

The third, fourth, fifth, and sixth sections, Questions 14-51, contain questions about each kind of service and program of the community development center. Included are the following programs: agricultural extension programs, health programs, educational and cultural programs, and social programs.

The seventh section includes some observations and comments from the interviewer.

Validity of the Research Instrument

Assuming that the validity of an instrument consists of its ability to measure what it set out to measure, the researcher took the following steps to insure the validity of the instrument.

First, he consulted with members of his doctoral committee and some faculty members of the community development department at

Michigan State University for advice and suggestions throughout the process of developing the instrument.

Second, a tentative draft of the questionnaire was submitted to some graduate students who were currently taking courses in the field of sociology and community development at Michigan State University so they could comment on the questionnaire items. This was done so that the graduate students could indicate whether any questions seemed ambiguous to them and whether some needed revision.

Third, based on the comments by members of the writer's doctoral committee and the graduate students to whom the questionnaire had been submitted for review to ensure validity, the researcher thoroughly revised the questionnaire to meet the standards of clarity and accuracy.

Fourth, the writer tested the subjects' understanding in regard to the questionnaire items. (The procedure that was used is explained in detail in the section on the research instrument.)

Using the preceding steps and procedures, the instrument was improved and was then readied for administration to the subjects of the research.

Observation, Informal Interviews, and Other Data Sources

Data also were collected through observation in order to learn more about the cultural and social aspects of the community of Wadi Fatma. Before interviewing the sample in all six villages of Wadi Fatma, the researcher made several visits to the area of study in order

to discuss several issues with residents of the area. During the interviews, the researcher also observed what was happening in particular households and in the village.

Additional information was collected by consulting the following sources:

1. Saudi government publications and documents on community development center programs.

2. Interviews with administrators and workers in the community development center.

3. United Nations publications in the field of community development rural programs.

4. Books and articles in the field of sociology and community development.

Pilot Study

Before administering the structured interviews to the selected sample and before collecting the final data, a pilot study was carried out in winter 1985 to insure and determine villagers' reaction and participation, and whether there would be any problems or confusion regarding the subject matter and items of the structured interview.

The following procedure was followed: The final Arabic version of the structured interview was administered to 20 householders of Wadi Fatma villages served by the community development center. The sample represented families of different socioeconomic status, age, level of education, marital status, and locations in the area of Wadi Fatma. The time needed to complete the questionnaire schedule ranged from 20

to 30 minutes, depending on the respondents' level of education. It took more time for illiterate respondents to finish the questionnaire schedule.

An analysis was made of the responses to each item for the purpose of identifying possible problems in construction of the items of the instrument. Based on all responses, direct feedback and comments were received from the research subjects, which led the researcher to revise the instrument according to these findings. These procedures were necessary to determine whether the structured interview would elicit the data needed for the study and whether it was written in a clear and comprehensible manner.

Finally, the instrument was neatly typed in Arabic. Copies were then administered to the study sample.

Some Difficulties

The interviews and the process of data collection were not without some difficulties. One such difficulty encountered was the attitude of the public toward the survey. Although this situation was not encountered at all interview locations, it appeared that some people lacked knowledge and orientation concerning the purpose of the survey and how it related to them. Because of a lack of awareness, some residents seemed to fear strangers knocking on their door once or twice a day, seeking information about their household and their opinion about community development in the area. Such situations required

more complete explanations and polite persuasion in order to secure an interview.

Data Analysis

After collecting and coding the responses (computer laboratory--FORTRAN coding forms), a card-punching process was used to prepare the data for the computer. Each structured interview was punched twice by two different technicians as a verifying process. The two cards of each respondent were compared, and when the cards differed the information was punched again. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was employed in the analysis.

Several statistical techniques were used to achieve the objectives and to test the hypotheses of this study.

1. The characteristics of the sample and the findings concerning the opinions and assessments in regard to use and adequacy of rural community development center programs and services were tabulated and presented in the form of frequencies and percentages.

2. For the purpose of ascertaining relationships between the dependent factor, participation, and the independent variables (age, education, marital status, size of family, length of residence, and distance from the center), chi-square was used as a measure of association and a test of significance. The results of any chi-square test regarding this study are presented in cross-tabulation tables. Statistical data were considered significant at the 0.05 level.

The results of these analyses are presented in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER VI

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The data gathered from the villagers' responses to the struc-
tured interview will now be used to (1) describe the characteristics of
the sample; (2) describe and analyze how the household heads responded
and reacted to the various items of the structured interview; and (3)
test possible relationships and associations between participation in
the community development center activities and programs and the fol-
lowing variables: age, level of education, marital status, size of
family, length of residence, and distance from the center.

Distribution of the Sample According to
Their Personal Characteristics

As previously stated, the sample of this study consists of 245
male Saudi household heads who are living in Wadi Fatma villages of the
western region of Saudi Arabia. Table 3 shows the distribution of
the sample according age. The ages ranged from 20 years to 60 years
and over; this range in ages is rather wide. The highest number of
household heads is in the age range between 30 and 39 years (26.9
percent), and the lowest number is 60 years and over (8.6 percent). By
combining some of the categories, we find that there are 52.6 percent

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young adults (20 to 39 years old), 38.8 percent middle-aged individuals (40 to 59 years old), and 8.6 percent old-aged (60 years and over).

Table 3.--Distribution of the sample according to age.

Age Group	Frequency	Percent
20-29	63	25.7
30-39	66	26.9
40-49	44	18.0
50-59	51	20.8
60 and over	21	8.6
Total	245	100.0

The high percentage of young adults among the household heads may be explained by the high birth rate and by marriages at younger ages in this area and other rural areas of Saudi Arabia. Migration of young people recently to Al-Jumum village, where the community development center is located, might have increased the number of young adults as the heads of households. The low percentage of old-aged people among the household heads can be explained by the fact that the life expectancy (as reported by several villagers) is between 60 and 65 years of age.

Table 4 shows the distribution of the household heads according to their marital status. We observe that a majority of them (82 percent) are married, and the smallest group is either separated or divorced (1.2 percent). The total number of single individuals who

were never married comprises only 18 percent of the sample—a rather small number.

Table 4.--Distribution of the sample according to marital status.

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single (never married)	35	14.3
Married	201	82.0
Widowed	6	2.4
Separated/divorced	3	1.2
Total	245	100.0

The high proportion of married people is the general situation in this region and in Saudi Arabia as a whole and is largely due to the Islamic way of life, in which marriage is highly encouraged by the community. Also, both sexes are encouraged to marry early. A few of those who are married now have been married more than once. Separation and divorce are not encouraged at all. One other reason for the high percentage of marriages is that in Wadi Fatma men are allowed to marry women from the same tribe or from tribes that are lower in status than their own tribes. Thus men can easily find marital partners in this region.

The distribution of the household heads according to their levels of education is presented in Table 5. The lowest level of education is "unable to read and write," and the highest level is "college education." Almost one-fourth of the sample (24.9 percent)

are unable to read and write, and almost one-third (29 percent) are able only to read and write. The ability of some villagers to read and write, as indicated by the villagers themselves, results from their desire to read the Koran, the holy book of Islam. This shows the role of religion as a positive factor in the matter of education. Only a very small proportion of the sample (6.9 percent) have a college education. We observe that a majority of the household heads are either unable to read and write, are able only to read and write, or have only attended elementary school (71.9 percent). Thus, we can conclude that a majority of the household heads in the study sample have had very little formal education.

Table 5.--Distribution of the sample according to level of education.

Level of Education	Frequency	Percent
Unable to read and write	61	24.9
Able only to read and write	71	29.0
Elementary school (some or completed)	44	18.0
High school (some or completed)	52	21.2
College (some or more)	17	6.9
Total	245	100.0

Although a majority of the household heads have received little formal education, the figures indicate an improvement in terms of the number of illiterates as compared to 20 years ago. At that time, there were no schools in the villages of Wadi Fatma, and it was difficult to send children to urban schools, such as those in Makkah or Jeddah, due

to transportation problems. Now, there are primary and middle schools for boys and girls in most villages, and children can attend secondary school in Al-Jumum. Transportation allowances are given to the children by the Saudi government to encourage them to attend school and to continue their education to the highest level.

As in most of developing nations, the psychological value of education in Saudi Arabia in general, and in Wadi Fatma in particular, is tremendous. Many villagers in the region reported to the researcher that "education is the way to a better future for the younger generation." The experience of the early out-migrants and of young people who had an opportunity to obtain an education and join government institutions or companies was enough to make them believe in the value of education. In the region itself, the government has recognized this fact and, in recent years, educational facilities and school attendance have increased. But, in spite of this effort, there is still a need in the Wadi Fatma region for more schools and educational services.

Table 6 shows the distribution of household heads according to their occupations. A wide variety of occupations is represented: unemployed, retired, laboring work, farming, government services, and business. Nearly one-half (45.2 percent) of the household heads are farmers, and more than one-fourth of them (27.8 percent) work in government services. Most of them (73 percent) are either farmers or government officials, and the rest are either businessmen, laborers, unemployed, or retired.

Table 6.--Distribution of the sample according to occupation.

Occupation	Frequency	Percent
Farmer	111	45.2
Government official	68	27.8
Businessman	24	9.8
Unemployed/retired	22	9.0
Laborer	20	8.2
Total	245	100.0

The table indicates a wider variety of occupations than in earlier periods, in which the main occupations in Wadi Fatma were agricultural activities. The decline in the proportion of the active population engaged in agriculture is due to the increased level of education for the young villagers in the area. The changes in the level of education give them some other alternatives for their occupations. Some of the villagers work in government services, such as schools, police offices, court, and the community development center. Others are employed by business organizations or manage their own trades. Those who do not have land and have very little formal education usually work in labor services. The unemployed people are usually the old-aged, the retired, and the handicapped. These individuals are usually supported by the governmental social security agency if they once were governmental employees, or sometimes by their older children or relatives.

The distribution of household heads according to length of residence in the Wadi Fatma area is shown in Table 7. The number of household heads increases as the number of years of residence increases. The lowest number of respondents (4.1 percent) have resided in the area for less than one year; the greatest number (43.3 percent) have lived in the area for more than 20 years. A majority of the household heads (84.1 percent) have resided in the area for at least five years.

Table 7.--Distribution of the sample according to length of residence in the area.

Length of Residence	Frequency	Percent
Less than one year	10	4.1
One to four years	29	11.8
Five to nine years	41	16.7
Ten to twenty years	59	24.1
More than twenty years	106	43.3
Total	245	100.0

The results suggest that most of the household heads are familiar with the services and programs offered by the community development center and changes that have taken place in the activities and programs of the center. Some of them reported that they had lived in the village for less than ten years, moved to an urban area for some time, and then returned to the village.

In recent years, the number of people, especially young adults, who live in Al-Jumum village, where the community development center is

located, has grown more rapidly than that of any other village of Wadi Fatma. The major cause for this growth is the migration of people from remote villages to Al-Jumum to find jobs in government services, to conduct business such as trading, and to enjoy better living conditions and services that are not available in the smaller villages.

Table 8 shows the distribution of household heads according to the number of persons in each household, including the household head himself. The lowest number of households (15.1 percent) comprise one and two persons, followed by those with three to five persons (28.6 percent). The highest number of households (56.3 percent) have more than five persons. Hence, a majority of the household heads (84.9 percent) are responsible for at least three other persons in organizing the family life.

Table 8.--Distribution of the sample according to number of persons in the household.

Number of Household Members	Frequency	Percent
One to two	37	15.1
Three to five	70	28.6
Over five	138	56.3
Total	245	100.0

There are several combinations in the make-up of a household or family. A household may comprise just the head himself; the head and

his parent(s), brothers, and sisters; or the head and his wife and children, and this is the common pattern of most households in the Wadi Fatma area. These combinations explain the size of the households, ranging from very small (between one and two persons) to very large ones (more than five persons). The average size of a household was even bigger in the past, when there were 10 to 12 children from one mother or several mothers. "Although the size of the rural household in Saudi Arabia became progressively smaller during the last two cen- suses as the result of increasing the level of education for the citi- zen, and the level of life became more complicated, it was still greater in comparison with the urban households" (Mahgub, 1976).

The distribution of household heads according to the number of children in each household is presented in Table 9. The number of children ranges from none to more than four. More than one-third (37.6 percent) of the household heads have over four children, and the rest have either no children (20.8 percent) or three to four children (15.1 percent). Most of the household heads (79.2 percent) have at least one child.

The distribution of the number of children may be explained by several factors. The households with no children are those in which the heads are not married, are married with no children, or are elderly with grown children. The percentage of households with at least one child can be explained by the fact that the Islamic religion encourages people to marry and to have as many children as early in life as possible. By looking at the percentage of households with three or

more children (52.7 percent) and the percentage of households with more than five persons (56.3 percent) (see Table 8), it can be concluded that the households with five or more persons are those that include two parents and three or more children.

Table 9.--Distribution of the sample according to number of children in the household.

Number of Children	Frequency	Percent
None	51	20.8
One to two	65	26.5
Three to four	37	15.1
Over four	92	37.6
Total	245	100.0

Distribution of the Sample According to Awareness of and Sources of Knowledge About the Existence of Community Development Center Programs in Their Area

It was thought that after more than 20 years of operating the community development center in the Wadi Fatma region, it would be interesting to know how many people had actually heard about the community development center. Table 10 shows that out of a total of 245 respondents (heads of households), 86.9 percent are aware of the existence of the development center; a small number of them (13.1 percent) are not aware of the center's existence.

Table A1 in Appendix C displays the relationship between age of household heads and awareness. The results indicate decreasing

proportions of household heads who are aware of the existence of the center (20-29 years, 96.8 percent; 30-49 years, 86.4 percent; 50 years and over, 79.2 percent). The proportion of awareness for married household heads is slightly higher than that of single household heads (Table A2, Appendix C). The proportion of awareness also increases with the number of people and children in the household, the household head's level of education, and length of residence (Tables A3 through A6, Appendix C). The proportions of awareness among household heads are not significantly related to the distance from place of residence to the center. However, the proportion increases with distance (Table A7, Appendix C).

Table 10.--Distribution of the sample according to awareness of the community development center.

Aware	Frequency	Percent
Yes	213	86.9
No	32	13.1
Total	245	100.0

From Table 11 it appears that there are five sources of awareness of the existence of the development center in this area: radio or television, family or relatives, center workers, center activities, and friends or neighbors. The center activities are an important source of awareness of the center's existence for 49.3 percent of the household heads. Center workers are also a source of awareness for 16.9 percent

of the household heads. We observe that a development center, through
its activities and workers, plays an important role in making the
household heads aware of its existence (66.2 percent). The next most
important sources of awareness are family members, relatives, friends,
or neighbors (31.5 percent). Radio and television contribute very
little (2.3 percent) as a source of awareness of the center's existence.

Table 11.--Distribution of the sample according to the first source of
information about community development center programs.

Source of Awareness	Frequency	Percent
Center activities	105	49.3
Friends or neighbors	43	20.2
Center workers	36	16.9
Family or relatives	24	11.3
Radio or television	5	2.3
Total	213	100.0

Table 10 indicates that most of the household heads are aware
of the existence of the community development center in their area.
Surprisingly, the major source of awareness is not radio or television,
even though there is a radio in every household and a television set in
some of the households. One reason for the small role of radio and
television in spreading awareness of the center is that adults usually
prefer to gather and talk and exchange news in the open square in a
village or in the front yard of a house or coffeeshop during their free
time rather than watching television or listening to the radio. One

other reason is that there are now fewer radio and television commer-
cials on the centers and their activities and programs. Hence,
villagers become the source of communication, rather than radio or
television. The major source of awareness is the activities of the
centers themselves, primarily the health services that most villagers
use.

Distribution of the Sample According to Participation and Types of Participation in the Center's Programs

Table 12 shows the distribution of the household heads who are
aware of the existence of the community development center, according
to their participation in the center's programs. The data show that,
although they are aware of the center's existence, only 37.6 percent of
the household heads actually participate in the center's programs.
Almost two-thirds of them (62.4 percent) do not participate.

Table 12.--Distribution of the sample according to participation in
community development center programs.

Participation in Programs	Frequency	Percent
Yes	80	37.6
No	133	62.4
Total	213	100.0

Tables 10 and 12 indicate that although most of the household
heads (86.9 percent) are aware of the existence of the community

development center, only a very small number of them (37.6 percent) actually participate in the center's activities and programs. Most of them do not participate. In terms of the total sample, only 33 percent or one-third of the household heads participate in the center's activities and programs.

There are three types of participation in the programs: contributing time, money, or materials; participating in the center activities; and attending meetings (see Table 13). A majority of those participating in the programs (75.0 percent) take part in the center activities, such as health or social services. Some of them participate by contributing their time, money, or materials (43.0 percent) or by attending the center's meetings (40.5 percent).

Table 13.--Distribution of the sample according to type of participation in community development center programs (N = 80).

Type of Participation[a]	Frequency	Percent[b]
Participation in activities of center	60	75.9
Contribution of time, money, materials	34	43.0
Attendance at meetings	32	40.5

[a]In most cases, villagers indicated more than one response.

[b]Percentage of cases.

Again, the type of participation can be classified as "contributing" (contribution of time, materials, money, and attending meetings) and "receiving" (participating in the center's activities and

services). The data indicate that, among those who participate, the participation is most frequently in the contributing category rather than in the receiving category. This is good in terms of the self-help concept of community development.

The data in Table 14 show the responses of sample members concerning their reasons for not participating in the center's programs. The major reason for not participating is lack of publicity about the center and its programs (67.7 percent). Some respondents indicated that they have no desire to participate (12.8 percent), and others indicated that they do not have time to participate in the center's programs (19.5 percent).

Table 14.--Distribution of the sample according to reasons for not participating in the community development center programs.

Reasons	Frequency	Percent
Not enough publicity about the center and its programs	90	67.7
Not enough time to participate	26	19.5
No desire to participate	17	12.8
Total	133	100.0

The data indicate that, among those household heads who do not participate in the center's activities and programs, only one-third (32.3 percent) fail to participate because they do not desire to or do not have time to participate. Some villagers reported that they have lost interest and desire for participation in community development

programs and projects because of delays in approval. Usually after a local project, such as establishing a kindergarten or youth club, is agreed upon by the villagers and the center, it must be approved by the regional committee. Before it can be implemented, the project must be approved by the Central Department at the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs. Such a process is lengthy. As a result, residents feel less motivated to participate in community development center activities and programs. Most of the nonparticipants (67.7 percent) do not participate because they do not know about the center and its activities and programs. One would anticipate that more people in this region would benefit from the center's activities and programs if greater effort were given to publicizing the center and its activities through mass media and other sources. Valuable information about the problems and needs of the villagers could be obtained if more of them participated in the community development programs.

The Degree of Helpfulness of Community Development Center Programs

The household heads in the sample were asked to indicate the degree of helpfulness of community development center programs. It was observed (see Table 15) that most of the householders who are aware of the existence of the center feel that the center's programs are either highly helpful or moderately helpful (68.5 percent). Some of them feel the programs are either not helpful or slightly helpful (31.5 percent).

Table 15.—Distribution of the sample according to degree of
helpfulness of community development center programs.

Degree of Helpfulness	Frequency	Percent
Highly helpful	36	16.9
Moderately helpful	110	51.6
Slightly helpful	59	27.7
Not helpful	8	3.8
Total	213	100.0

The total sample of 213 household heads comprises those who are aware of the existence of the community development center, including those who do not participate in the center's activities and programs. The table indicates that only some of the sample think that the center's activities and programs are highly helpful. Those who find the center's programs the most helpful seem, from the author's direct contact and observations, to be a few villagers, who have frequent contacts with the center's programs and workers.

Thus, the rural people do not deny the value of the community development center in improving their villages; they do believe that the program has potential to help them in every kind of service. But the operation of the program, its inadequate facilities and services, did not address their felt need as it should do. Several of the respondents reported that they see the community development workers as not having enough professional ability to help them with their problems and to understand their perceived needs. It may be concluded that the activities and programs do help the villagers, but not really enough.

More improved programs should be introduced by examining people's needs and problems.

Analysis of Agricultural, Health, Educational, and Social Programs of the Community Development Center

In this section, an attempt is made to describe and analyze how the household heads responded to the various items in the structured interview. The discussion is focused on the agricultural, health, educational, and social programs and services provided by the community development center.

The data regarding the respondents' use of various programs and services in the community development center in the past and present are presented in Tables 16 and 17. The analysis of the data shows that the most frequently used programs and services in the past and present are health programs and services. The least frequently used programs and services in the past and present are agricultural extension programs.

Table 16.--Distribution of the sample according to the use of various community development programs and services in the past.

Kinds of Programs and Services Used	Yes Responses		No Responses		Total Responses
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Agricultural	88	41.3	125	58.7	213
Health	183	85.9	30	14.1	213
Educational	100	46.9	113	53.1	213
Social	124	58.5	88	41.5	212[a]

[a]Number of missing observations = one.

Table 17.--Distribution of the sample according to the current use
of various community development center programs and
services.

Kinds of Programs and Services Used	Yes Responses		No Responses		Total Responses
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Agricultural	56	26.3	157	73.7	213
Health	193	90.6	20	9.4	213
Educational	124	58.2	89	41.8	213
Social	153	71.8	60	28.2	213

By comparing the figures in the two tables, we notice that the use of various programs and services has increased for all types of programs except for agricultural programs. The highest increment is in the use of social programs and services (13.3 percent), followed by the use of educational and cultural programs and services (11.3 percent) and health programs (4.7 percent). This indicates that the need for health, educational, and social programs and services has increased recently as compared to the past. Workers in the center reported that there has been an increase in the number of users of the center's programs in the areas of treatment, adult education and literacy, and youth activities. More parents send their children to kindergartens and demand better quality preschool care and education.

The decreased use of agricultural programs and services was explained by the director of the community center as being the result of the changes that have recently occurred in the types of occupations held by the villagers. The change from agricultural activities to

other types of occupations, such as government services and business activities. As a result, the number of farmers using the agricultural unit of the center is less than before. Another reason for the decreased use of agricultural programs and services is that there are currently many other agencies, such as agricultural cooperative extension, that render services to the farmers. As a result, farmers can obtain services from alternative sources other than the community development center.

When the household heads were asked to indicate their reasons for not using the various services and programs offered by the community development center in their area, more than one-half (an average of 52.0 percent over all services) said they do not use the various services or programs because they do not know about the programs and there is not enough publicity about the center's services from the workers or other sources (see Table 18). Not needing the services was cited most often as a reason concerning the agricultural services area (24.3 percent) and least often concerning educational and cultural services (3.4 percent). The other major reasons for not using the services are that workers are not very helpful (an average of 28.0 percent over all services) and that the center is too far away (an average of 21.2 percent over all services). The next most frequently mentioned reason is inconvenient hours (an average of 14.7 percent over all services). The least frequently cited reason is not needing the services (an average of 14.0 percent over all services).

Table 18.--Distribution of the sample according to the reasons for not using community development center services and programs.

Reasons[a]	Types of Services and Programs							
	Agricultural Services (N=123)		Health Services (N=20)		Educational and Cultural Services (N=89)		Social Services (N=60)	
	Freq.	%[b]	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Didn't know about services	46	37.4	10	50.0	55	61.8	35	58.3
Don't need this service	30	24.3	1	5.0	3	3.4	9	15.0
Workers not helpful	22	17.9	8	40.0	26	29.2	15	25.0
Too far away	19	15.4	6	30.0	20	22.5	10	16.7
Inconvenient hours	9	7.3	4	20.0	13	14.6	10	16.7

[a] In some cases, villagers indicated more than one reason.

[b] Percentage of cases.

By looking at all types of services together, we notice that the major reason for not using the center's programs and services is that people do not know about all of the types of services and programs that are offered. Other reasons, in order of decreasing frequency, are that workers are not very helpful, the center is too far from one's residence, inconvenient hours, and not needing the service. It can also be observed that people most frequently do not need the services in the agricultural section. Such respondents probably work in government services and business organizations.

The data with regard to the types of agricultural, health, educational, and social services and programs the respondents have received from the community development center are presented in Tables 19 through 22. The analysis of the data in Table 19 shows the types of agricultural services given to the people in Wadi Fatma. The following agricultural services are arranged in order of most to fewest heads of households who have received them: insecticide services (85.7 percent), seed-improvement services (78.0 percent), fertilizer services (60.7 percent), supervision and training (53.6 percent), and livestock improvement services (27.2 percent). Some of these services were only available in the past and have been reduced. Livestock improvement services, as reported by agricultural workers, are less available at present. The supply of fertilizer to farmers was one of the major services in the past, but now the service has been reduced greatly. Seed-improvement services are still available. The current major service offered by the agricultural section of the center is

Insecticide spraying. Thus, the agricultural unit currently does not provide farmers with much in the way of needed services, advice, or training.

Table 19.--Distribution of the sample according to the types of agricultural services they have received from the community development center.

Kinds of Services Received[a]	Yes Responses		No Responses		Total Responses
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Insecticide	48	85.7	8	14.3	56
Seed improvement	43	78.0	12	22.0	55[b]
Fertilizer	34	60.7	22	39.3	56
Supervision/training	30	53.0	26	47.0	56
Livestock improvement	15	27.2	40	72.8	55[c]

[a]In most cases, villagers indicated more than one answer.

[b]Number of missing observations = one.

[c]Number of missing observations = one.

Table 20 shows the distribution of the household heads according to the types of health services they have received from the community development center. Nearly every one of them has had health treatment (97.4 percent). The next most frequently received services are mother and child care (68.4 percent). The least frequently received services are home visits (32.6 percent) and health lectures and awareness (19.7 percent). The interview with the health workers revealed that some of the services are no longer provided by the center. Health treatments, mother and child care, and immunization

services are still available at the center. Health awareness lectures, home visits, child delivery, and hospitalization have been reduced greatly or are no longer available. The main reason for discontinuation of some services is the shortage of facilities and health workers at the center. The center's area of coverage has become larger and the number of people served has increased greatly, whereas the number of doctors, nurses, and other workers has remained the same as it was several years ago. Hence, the workers do not have time to visit villages. They just work at the center and provide treatment, mother and child care, and immunization. The center usually becomes so crowded that it is very difficult for the patients, especially those who are very sick, the elderly, and small children.

Table 20.--Distribution of the sample according to the types of health services they have received from the community development center.

Kinds of Services Received[a]	Yes Responses		No Responses		Total Responses
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Treatment	188	97.4	5	2.6	193
Immunization	156	82.1	34	17.9	190[b]
Mother and child care	132	68.4	61	31.6	193
Gynecological	100	51.8	93	48.2	193
Home visits	63	32.6	130	67.4	193
Health lectures/awareness	38	19.7	155	80.3	193

[a]In most cases, villagers indicated more than one answer.

[b]Number of missing observations = three.

Table 21 summarizes the data concerning the distribution of subjects according to the kinds of educational and cultural services they have received from the community development center. About three-fourths (77.4 percent) of the respondents indicated that they have received the literacy/adult education service. The next most frequently received services are the home visits (40.3 percent). The least frequently received service is vocational training (21.8 percent).

Table 21.--Distribution of the sample according to the types of educational and cultural services they have received from the community development center.

Kinds of Services Received[a]	Yes Responses		No Responses		Total Responses
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Literacy/adult education	96	77.4	28	22.6	124
Home visits	50	40.3	74	59.7	124
Seminars/panel discussion	49	39.5	75	60.5	124
Library reading	45	36.3	79	63.7	124
Vocational training	27	21.8	97	78.2	124

[a]In most cases, villagers indicated more than one answer.

According to the educational worker at the rural development center, vocational training is not currently offered by the center. Also, seminars and panel discussions are offered less frequently than in the past. Most young adults do not know about services provided by the library in Al-Jumum. The library opens at irregular times, which creates difficulties for the young adults who want to use the library

services. Also, the number of books and journals is very small and does not meet the needs and desires of the young people.

Adult education is entirely the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. The role of the worker at the community development center is solely to encourage people to attend classes. Because of the limited role of the center in this operation, the people perceive the classes as part of the function of the school in their community rather than of the center.

From Table 22 it can be observed that the major social service received is kindergarten (81.7 percent). This service is the most recognizable one, and some individuals perceive it as one of their community needs. The next most frequently received services are games and sports (55.6 percent), child care counseling (43.8 percent), and summer activities and camps (41.8 percent). The least frequently received services are home economics and sewing training (27.6 percent) and home improvement (35.5 percent).

Home improvement services concern improvement of rooms of a house, such as the bathroom or bedroom, for which the center will contribute about 50 percent toward the cost of construction and materials. Such services have currently been reduced. The youth clubs are not appreciated by the villagers for a number of reasons. First, the clubs are poorly designed and equipped. Second, adults are unfamiliar with the importance of the clubs to youths' development. Thus these clubs are not perceived as useful to their children. Some parents believe that the clubs take children away from their school work or

from helping their parents on the farm. Kindergartens are relatively better equipped, with some recreational facilities and female staff members. A girls' club has been formed in Al-Jumum village. Its activities include combating illiteracy, training in home economics, sewing, and child care. The response of the Saudi women to participate in various aspects of this club is quite promising.

Table 22.--Distribution of the sample according to the types of social services they have received from the community development center.

Kinds of Services Received[a]	Yes Responses		No Responses		Total Responses
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Kindergarten	125	81.7	28	18.3	153
Games and sports	85	55.6	68	44.4	153
Child care counseling	67	43.8	86	56.2	153
Summer activities/camp	64	41.8	89	58.2	153
Home improvement	55	35.5	98	64.5	153
Sewing training/ home economics	42	27.6	110	72.4	152[b]

[a]In most cases, villagers indicated more than one answer.

[b]Number of missing observations = one.

Concerning villagers' satisfaction with the programs and activities offered by the community development center, the majority of the sample are most satisfied with health services (79.8 percent), whereas they are least satisfied with services related to agricultural extension (64.3 percent) (see Table 23).

Table 23.--Distribution of the sample according to their satisfaction with the various community development center programs and services.

Kinds of Programs and Services	Satisfaction				
	Yes Responses		No Responses		Total Responses
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Agricultural extension	36	64.3	20	35.7	56
Health	154	79.8	39	20.2	193
Educational and cultural	92	74.2	32	25.8	124
Social	120	78.4	33	21.6	153

Table 24 shows the distribution of the sample according to the degree of satisfaction with services they have received from the community development center. Of those who said they were satisfied with services, only 16 percent are very satisfied with services (considering all services together). Others expressed moderate satisfaction (56.5 percent) or slight satisfaction (27.4 percent) with the services. Of those who received agricultural services, 11 percent are very satisfied, 50 percent are moderately satisfied, and 39 percent are slightly satisfied. Of those who received health services, 22.7 percent are very satisfied, 60.4 percent are moderately satisfied, and 16.9 percent are slightly satisfied. Of those who received educational and cultural services, 9.7 percent are very satisfied, 54.8 percent are moderately satisfied, and 35.5 percent are slightly satisfied. Of those who received social services, 20.8 percent are very satisfied, 60.8 percent are moderately satisfied, and 18.3 percent are slightly satisfied. The

Table 24.--Distribution of the sample according to the degree of satisfaction with every kind of community development center program and service.

Kind of Service	Degree of Satisfaction								Total
	Very Satisfied		Moderately Satisfied		Slightly Satisfied				
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%			
Agricultural	4	11.0	18	50.0	14	39.0			36
Health	35	22.7	93	60.4	26	16.9			154
Educational and cultural	9	9.7	50	54.8	33	35.5			92
Social	25	20.8	73	60.8	22	18.3			120

figures for the various services indicate that household heads are more satisfied with health services (83.1 percent very satisfied and moderately satisfied) than with the other services. The least satisfactory services are the agricultural extension services (61 percent very satisfied and moderately satisfied).

Whereas Table 23 indicates that high percentages of the household heads are satisfied with various services in general, the breakdown of degrees of satisfaction (Table 24) shows very low percentages of the household heads are very satisfied with the services. For the most part, respondents are either moderately or slightly satisfied with the services offered by the center. Many improvements are needed in all services in order to render more satisfactory services to the villagers.

The data in Tables 25 and 26 show the responses of the total sample regarding the degree of family and villagers' current need for agricultural, health, educational, and social services and programs. The family needs are the needs of the family as perceived by the head of household, whereas the villagers' needs are the needs of others (outside the family), as perceived by the heads of household in the sample. By combining the "much needed" and "very much needed" categories, we observe that the order of family needs is as follows: health (91.9 percent), educational and cultural (68.1 percent), social (61.6 percent), and agricultural (20.0 percent). By combining the "much needed" and "very much needed" services in Table 26, we again observe a similar pattern in the degree of villagers' needs: health

Table 25.--Distribution of the sample according to the degree of family need for every kind of community development center program and service.

Degree of Family Need of Service	Kind of Service							
	Agricultural Extension		Health		Educational		Social	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Very much needed	8	3.3	108	44.1	17	6.9	27	11.0
Much needed	41	16.7	117	47.8	150	61.2	124	50.6
Somewhat needed	60	24.5	18	7.3	55	22.4	62	25.3
Little needed	42	17.1	2	.8	18	7.3	25	10.2
Not needed	94	38.4	0	0.0	5	2.0	7	2.9
Total	245	100.0	245	100.0	245	100.0	245	100.0

Table 26.—Distribution of the sample according to the degree of villagers' need for every kind of community development center program and service.

Degree of Villagers' Need of Service	Kind of Service							
	Agricultural Extension		Health		Educational		Social	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Very much needed	24	9.8	121	49.4	33	13.5	45	18.4
Much needed	122	49.8	109	44.5	169	69.0	132	53.9
Somewhat needed	78	31.8	13	5.3	37	15.1	59	24.1
Little needed	18	7.3	2	.8	5	2.0	9	3.6
Not needed	3	1.2	0	0.0	1	.4	0	0
Total	245	100.0	245	100.0	245	100.0	245	100.0

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(93.9 percent), educational and cultural (82.5 percent), social (72.3 percent), and agricultural (59.6 percent).

By combining the "little needed" and "not needed" categories, we observe that the order of family's least-needed services is as follows: agriculture (55.5 percent), social (13.1 percent), educational and cultural (9.3 percent), and health (0.8 percent). The order of villagers' least-needed services has a similar pattern: agricultural (8.5 percent), social (3.6 percent), educational and cultural (2.4 percent), and health (0.8 percent). Agricultural services are least needed by both the families and villagers. Agricultural extension services became important a decade ago, when farming was the primary occupation, as well as the basic economy of these communities. However, the number of farmers has decreased significantly, and the number of people who work in government services and business organizations has increased.

Table 27 displays the frequency and percentage of household heads responding to the degree of importance of increasing the number of services within each category offered to them by the community development center. The degrees of importance indicate priority of development in the services offered by the community development center. Within agricultural, educational and cultural, and social services, the greatest number of household heads perceived increasing the number of services to be "important"; only within health services did the household heads rate the degree of importance as "very important." We observe that, comparing different services, the rating of "very

Table 27.--Distribution of the sample according to the degree of importance of increasing the number of services within every kind of community development center program and service.

Degree of Importance	Agricultural Extension		Health		Educational		Social	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Very important	12	21.4	89	46.1	27	21.6	34	22.2
Important	27	48.3	83	43.0	72	58.4	89	58.2
Slightly important	16	28.6	20	10.4	23	18.4	30	19.6
Very slightly important	1	1.7	1	.5	2	1.6	0	0.0
Total	56	100.0	193	100.0	124	100.0	153	100.0

Kind of Service

important" is highest in terms of percentage of household heads in favor of increasing the number of health services (46.1 percent).

By combining the "important" and "very important" categories, it is seen that the majority of respondents agree on the importance of increasing the services in all sections (89.1 percent for health services, 70.0 for agricultural services, 80.0 percent for educational services, and 80.4 percent for social services). Although not all of the villagers need agricultural services, those who do need such services need more of them, particularly fertilizer and seed improvement, livestock improvement, and farm visits for agricultural extension services. In terms of the health section, more services are needed in the gynecological, infant delivery, and hospitalization areas. In the educational and cultural section, more services are needed in young children's and youths' programs, library services, and vocational training. Finally, in the social section, more services are needed in increasing the number and improving the quality of kindergartens and helping young women become better housewives.

Table 28 shows the distribution of the household heads according to the importance of increasing the resources in each kind of service offered by the community development center. The results indicate that, for all services, most household heads rated the degree of importance of increasing the resources as "important." Among the services, the percentage rated "very important" by household heads is again highest for health services.

Table 28.--Distribution of the sample according to the degree of importance of increasing the resources in every kind of community development center program and service.

	Kind of Service							
	Agricultural Extension		Health		Educational		Social	
Degree of Importance	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Very important	7	12.5	43	22.3	14	11.3	20	13.1
Important	30	53.5	102	52.8	63	50.8	75	49.6
Slightly important	16	28.5	46	23.8	45	36.3	48	31.4
Very slightly important	3	5.5	2	1.0	2	1.6	10	6.5
Total	56	100.0	193	100.0	124	100.0	153	100.0

By combining the "important" and "very important" categories, we observe that most household heads agree on the importance of increasing the resources in all types of services (62.7 percent for social services, 62.1 percent for educational services, 75.1 percent for health services, and 66.0 percent for agricultural extension services). We also notice that increasing resources is least important for the social and educational services.

Table 29 indicates that most of the household heads agree on the importance of increasing the number of workers in every section in the center. The results show a similar pattern of rating between the importance of increasing the number of workers and the importance of increasing the number of services. Most household heads rated "important" within the agricultural, educational and cultural, and social services. For health services, most household heads rated the importance as "very important." Also, among the services, increasing the number of workers was rated "very important" by most household heads for health services. Again, the results indicate the priority for increasing the number of workers should be given to the health services.

By combining the "important" and "very important" categories, it appears that the number of workers should be increased most in the health services (91.7 percent) and agricultural services (89.9 percent). The center needs more doctors and nurses and other medical workers in order to improve the health treatment at the center and to establish other small clinics in the villages of the Wadi Fatma area.

Table 29.--Distribution of the sample according to the degree of importance of increasing the number of workers in every kind of community development center program and service.

Degree of Importance	Kind of Service							
	Agricultural Extension		Health		Educational		Social	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Very important	22	39.2	92	47.7	36	29.0	48	31.4
Important	28	50.0	85	44.0	70	56.5	82	53.6
Slightly important	4	7.2	15	7.8	15	12.1	22	14.4
Very slightly important	2	3.6	1	.5	3	2.4	1	.7
Total	56	100.0	193	100.0	124	100.0	153	100.0

The center also needs more workers in every other development area so that visits can be carried out to villages and families located far from the center.

The present workers are primarily foreigners, who have different cultures and values than the villagers of the Wadi Fatma area. In addition, workers often lack an understanding of the complexities of the innovations and sometimes suggest changes that cause further difficulties and complications. Some community members referred to the failure of the demonstration farm that the workers planned and conducted with the cooperation of some of the community farmers. After implementing the project, the workers were not consistent in following up its progress, and consequently it was a total failure. It would be beneficial to both the center and the villagers if local people could be recruited and trained for the jobs of the center. The cooperation between the villagers and the center's workers would then be enhanced.

A majority of the respondents (91.7 percent) agreed that community development center units should be established for health services in every village (see Table 30). The degree of importance of establishing units in each village by the most household heads varies among the kinds of services ("very important" for health services, "important" for agricultural and educational services, and "slightly important" for social services). As for between-service ratings, most household heads rated establishing a health service unit in each village "very important." Most of them rated establishing a social services unit in each village "slightly important." The results indicate a

Table 30.--Distribution of the sample according to the degree of importance of establishing units in each village of the Wadi Fatma area for every kind of community development center program and service.

Degree of Importance	Kind of Service							
	Agricultural Extension		Health		Educational		Social	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Very important	11	19.6	98	50.8	20	16.1	18	11.8
Important	23	41.1	79	40.9	70	56.5	44	28.8
Slightly important	14	25.0	14	7.3	33	26.6	81	52.9
Very slightly important	8	14.3	2	1.0	1	.8	10	6.5
Total	56	100.0	193	100.0	124	100.0	153	100.0

higher priority for establishing a health service unit and a lower priority for establishing a social services unit in each village.

Some workers and community members reported that subcenters or units can be established either by having one unit for each large village in terms of the number of villagers or by establishing one unit for several smaller villages. A village-level worker residing in the village and working face to face with villagers can be a stronger stimulus than occasional visits by the center workers and project technicians. The village units would also solve the problems of the center being too far from the people and of inconvenient hours.

Respondents were asked to rate the importance of increasing the number of lectures and awareness of each kind of service and program offered by the community development center. The results shown in Table 31 indicate that the degrees of importance of increasing the number of lectures and awareness for all kinds of services are almost the same. Within each kind of service, most household heads rated all kinds of services "important." The results indicate that the same priority should be given to increasing the number of lectures and awareness of the services of the development center. On combining the "important" and "very important" categories, it can be seen that most household heads agree that the number of lectures about and awareness of each kind of service should be increased (87.6 percent for health services, 78.4 percent for social services, 78.2 percent for educational and cultural services, and 73.0 percent for agricultural extension services). Lectures and awareness of all kinds of services are

Table 31.--Distribution of the sample according to the degree of importance of increasing the number of lectures and awareness of every kind of community development center program and service.

Degree of Importance	Kind of Service							
	Agricultural Extension		Health		Educational		Social	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Very important	15	26.8	59	30.6	38	30.6	28	18.3
Important	26	46.4	110	57.0	59	47.6	92	60.1
Slightly important	9	16.1	18	9.3	24	19.3	33	21.6
Very slightly important	6	10.7	6	3.1	3	2.4	0	0
Total	56	100.0	193	100.0	124	100.0	153	100.0

necessary in exposing the villagers to the services. This will eventually lead to a two-way communication in that the villagers can express their problems and needs to the center's workers for future planning of the center's activities, programs, and other services.

Analysis of Participation

Participation of the household heads in the programs and activities of the community development center is considered to reflect their overall participation in the various components of the center's programs and services. In this section, an attempt is made to test the relationships between the dependent variable, participation, and the independent variables (age, marital status, education, length of residence, size of family, and distance from the center). Chi-square was used as a measure of association and a test of significance. The results of the chi-square tests carried out in this study are presented in cross-tabulation tables. The significance level is 0.05. Association between participation and the previously mentioned variables is discussed in the following paragraphs.

Participation of Household
Heads and Their Age

Table 32 shows the relationship between the participation of household heads in the community development center's services and programs and their age. A chi-square value of 4.97 with three degrees of freedom indicates an insignificant relationship between age and participation. Thus, participation in community development center activities and services does not depend on age. The small variations

Table 32.--Relationship between household heads' participation and their age.

Participation	Age Range (in Years)								Total
	20-29		30-39		40-49		50 and Over		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Participate	28	45.9	17	29.8	17	44.7	18	31.6	80
Do not participate	33	54.1	40	70.2	21	55.3	39	68.4	133
Total	61	100.0	57	100.0	38	100.0	57	100.0	213

$x^2 = 4.97$ df = 3   Significance = 0.1741

in the type of participation is shown in Appendix C, Table A8. From Table A8 one can observe that the percentages of participation in terms of financial contribution and involvement in the center's activities are nearly the same for all ages. This can be explained by the fact that financial and other kinds of contributions are highly encouraged by the Islamic religion as a way of life and that all ages are affected. There is a small variation in the percentages of attending meetings, with higher percentages in the age groups of 20-29 and 40-49 years and lower percentages in the 50 and over age group. We may conclude that the variation in the percentage of participants according to age range is mainly due to variations in the number of household heads who attend meetings.

Participation of Household Heads and Marital Status

The relationship between the number of household heads who participate in community development center activities and programs and their marital status is presented in Table 33. The calculated chi-square value of 5.68 with one degree of freedom indicates that a statistically significant relationship exists between the marital status of the household head and participation in community development center activities and services.

The classification of "single" household heads includes those who have never married, widowers, and those who are separated and divorced. Participation includes financial contributions, attending meetings, or using the center's activities, programs, or services.

Table 33.--Relationship between household heads' participation and their marital status.

| Participation | Marital Status | | | | Total |
| | Single | | Married | | |
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Participate	6	18.8	74	40.9	80
Do not participate	26	81.2	107	59.1	133
Total	32	100.0	181	100.0	213

$x^2 = 5.68$ df = 1   Significance = 0.0172

Table A9 in Appendix C indicates that a higher proportion of married household heads participate through financial contributions and the center's activities as compared to single household heads. In contrast, we observe that a higher proportion of single household heads participate by attending the center's meetings. Table 33 indicates that only 18.8 percent of the single household heads participate in the center's activities and programs, in contrast to 40.9 percent participation for married household heads. There could be many explanations for this finding. One of them may be that married household heads participate in the center's programs because of the needs of their families for the services and programs offered by the center.

Participation of Household Heads and Number of People in Their Households

Table 34 shows the relationship between the number of people in the household and participation in the services and programs of the community development center. A chi-square value of 4.54 with two degrees of freedom indicates that there is no strong evidence to support the existence of a relationship between the number of people in a household and participation of the household head in the center's programs. The results suggest that a higher proportion of household heads participate in the services as the number of people in their households increases. Table A10 in Appendix C indicates that households in which there are three to five persons participate more in all types (financial contributions, center activities, attending meetings)

Table 34.--Relationship between household heads' participation and the number of people in their households.

Participation	Number of People						Total
	1-2		3-5		More Than 5		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Participate	5	20.0	20	35.1	55	42.0	80
Do not participate	20	80.0	37	64.9	76	58.0	133
Total	25	100.0	57	100.0	131	100.0	213

$x^2 = 4.54$ df = 2   Significance = 0.1039

than households of smaller or larger size. No small families of one or two persons reported attending meetings.

Participation of Household Heads and Number of Children

As shown in Table 35, there is no regular pattern with regard to the number of children and the household head's participation in the center's programs and activities. The figures indicate less participation among household heads who have no children, as compared to those who have one child or more. However, the calculated chi-square value of 3.02 with three degrees of freedom indicates an insignificant relationship between the number of children and participation in the center's programs. Hence it may be concluded that the participation of household heads is not related to or determined by the number of children in the household, but we observe that the household heads with no children participate less than those with children. Table A11 in Appendix C indicates that households with one or two children participate more in financial contributions and attendance at meetings than those with no children, three to four children, or five or more children. Household heads with three to four children reported the greatest incidence of meeting attendance.

Participation of Household Heads and Their Level of Education

The results of testing the relationship between level of education and participation of household heads in the activities, services, and programs of the community development center are presented in Table

Table 35.--Relationship between household heads' participation and their number of children.

Participation	Number of Children								Total
	0		1-2		3-4		5 or More		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Participate	10	25.6	21	40.4	12	37.5	37	41.1	80
Do not participate	29	74.4	31	59.6	20	62.5	53	58.9	133
Total	39	100.0	52	100.0	32	100.0	90	100.0	213

$x^2 = 3.02$ df = 3   Significance = 0.3880

36. A chi-square value of 35.26 with four degrees of freedom is statistically significant. This indicates that a statistically significant relationship exists between level of education and participation in the center. In other words, the household head's level of education is an indication of whether he will or will not participate in the center.

The percentage of participation in the center's programs increases with an increase in the level of education. The higher the level of education, the more household heads participate in the center's activities and programs. Table A12 in Appendix C indicates that the level of participation tends to rise with each increment of education. This increase in participation is associated with increased education, particularly in center activities and meeting attendance.

Participation of Household Heads and Length of Residence

Table 37 shows the relationship between household heads who participate in the community development center's activities, services, or programs and their length of residence in the villages of Wadi Fatma. The calculated chi-square value of 18.26, with four degrees of freedom, indicates a statistically significant relationship between length of residence and participation in the center's activities. In other words, length of residence is an indication of whether or not one will participate in the center. The longer individuals live in a village, the more they tend to participate in the center's programs.

Table 36.--Relationship between household heads' participation and their level of education.

Participation		Level of Education									
	Illiterate		Can Read or Write		Elementary School		High School		College or More		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Participate	8	17.4	16	25.8	13	34.2	29	58.0	14	82.4	80
Do not participate	38	82.6	46	74.2	25	65.8	21	42.0	3	17.6	133
Total	46	100.0	62	100.0	38	100.0	50	100.0	17	100.0	213

$\chi^2 = 35.26$ df = 4   Significance = 0.0000

Table 37.--Relationship between household heads' participation and the length of their residence in Wadi Fatma.

Participation	Length of Residence										Total
	Less Than One Year		1-4 Years		5-9 Years		10-20 Years		More Than 20 Years		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Participate	1	14.3	4	21.1	4	12.1	27	50.0	44	44.0	80
Do not participate	6	85.7	15	78.9	29	87.9	27	50.0	56	56.0	133
Total	7	100.0	19	100.0	33	100.0	54	100.0	100	100.0	213

x^2 = 18.26   df = 4   Significance = 0.0011

The figures indicate greater participation among household heads who have lived in the area for ten years or more than among those who have lived in the area for less than ten years. Those who have lived in the area for a longer time are more aware of the center's existence and its activities through contact with the center's workers and through using the different services and programs provided by the center, and this encourages their participation. Table Al3 in Appendix C displays the relationship between length of residence and type of participation. Unfortunately, the number of respondents in several categories is very small. Participation in center activities is most clearly associated directly with increased residence. Surprisingly, attendance at meetings declines with increasing years of residence.

Participation of Household Heads and Distance of Residence From Center

The relationship between household heads' participation in the community center's programs and the distance of their residence from the center is presented in Table 38. The distances are classified as short (0-6 miles), medium (7-20 miles), and long (over 20 miles). Three villages--Al-Jumum, Abu Urwa, and Abu Shaib--are classified as being a short distance from the center. Two villages--Daf Zayny and Ain Shamis--are classified as being a medium distance. One village-- Al-Khafy--is classified as being a long distance.

Table 38.--Relationship between household heads' participation and the distance from their residence to the community development center.

Participation	Distance						Total
	Short 0-6 Miles		Medium 7-20 Miles		Long Over 20 Miles		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Participate	55	35.7	18	43.9	7	38.9	80
Do not participate	99	64.3	23	56.1	11	61.1	133
Total	154	100.0	41	100.0	18	100.0	213

$X^2 = 0.94$ df = 2   Significance = 0.6248

A chi-square value of 0.94 with two degrees of freedom is insignificant. This indicates that there is no statistically significant relationship between distance from the center and participation. This finding may be explained by the fact that although the center is located in Al-Jumum, some services such as youth clubs and kindergartens are provided in individual villages in the area. Thus household heads can participate in the center's activities by using the units in their villages or nearby villages, as well as the center itself in Al-Jumum. Table A14 in Appendix C indicates that variations exist in relation to type of participation and distance. Participation in center activities increases with increasing distance, but the reverse is true for attendance at meetings. Participation in financial contributions does not exhibit a clear pattern in relation to distance.

Summary of the Hypotheses Tests

Six hypotheses related to the participation of heads of households in community development center programs and services were tested by employing the chi-square procedure with the level of significance set at 0.05. The results are as follows.

1. The relationship between the marital status of heads of households and participation was found to be significant. The proportion of married heads of households who participate in community development center programs is higher than the proportion of single heads of households.

2. The relationship between the age of heads of households and participation was found to be not significant. There is no particular pattern between age and participation.

3. The relationship between level of education of heads of households and participation was found to be significant. The proportion of heads of households who participate in the community development center programs increases with higher levels of education.

4. The relationship between length of residence of heads of households and participation was found to be significant. The proportion of heads of households who participate in the community development center programs is higher for those who have resided in the area more than ten years, as compared to those who have lived there less than ten years.

5. The relationship between the number of people in the household and participation was found to be almost significant (significant at alpha = 0.10). The proportion of heads of households who participate in the community development center programs increases as the number of persons in the household increases.

6. The relationship between distance from place of residence to the center and participation in the center's activities was found to be not significant. There is no particular pattern between distance from the center and participation.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The Problem

The sociological problem addressed in this research is the adoption of innovations in the context of a traditional society. Specifically, the intention of this research is to analyze villagers' awareness, use, opinions, and evaluation of various kinds of government-sponsored program and service areas, namely, agricultural extension, health, education and culture, and social affairs. The target system is not viewed as monolithic. Hence, we want to examine the relationships between the dependent variable, participation, and the independent variables (age, marital status, level of education, size of family, length of residence, and distance from the center).

Objectives of the Study

The following were the main objectives of this study:

1. To describe and analyze the social system and way of life of rural Saudi Arabia and Wadi Fatma villages (the study area).

2. To describe and critically analyze community development centers and the application of change agent and target system concepts in Saudi Arabia.

3. To examine the knowledge, use, and opinions currently held by villagers toward rural development center programs and services in the Wadi Fatma area.

4. To analyze and test the relationship between villagers' participation in the different kinds of programs offered by the community development center and the following independent variables: age, marital status, level of education, size of family, length of residence, and distance from the center.

Methodology

Population and sample. The target population in this study comprises all Saudi household heads in Wadi Fatma villages served by the community development center. This area was chosen because of its location in an area served by a community development center and because it is fairly representative of the target population for which community development was planned on a national level. In view of the homogeneity of the population and the money and time available for the research, the investigator selected a sample of 260 household heads out of 2,050 male household heads in the six villages of Wadi Fatma (Al-Jumum, Abu-Urwa, Ain-Shams, Abu-Shaib, Daf-Zayny, Al-Khayf) by using a table of random numbers. Of the total sample of 260 cases, 245 were included in the final analysis. Data were analyzed using frequency analysis and cross-tabulation techniques.

Hypotheses. The following six null hypotheses were formulated for this study:

Ho 1:   There is no significant relationship between heads of house-
holds' participation in the community development center
programs and their marital status.

Ho 2:   There is no significant relationship between heads of house-
holds' participation in the community development center
programs and their age.

Ho 3:   There is no significant relationship between heads of house-
holds' participation in the community development center
programs and their level of education.

Ho 4:   There is no significant relationship between heads of house-
holds' participation in the community development center
programs and their length of residence.

Ho 5:   There is no significant relationship between heads of house-
holds' participation in the community development center
programs and the total number of people in the household.

Ho 6:   There is no significant relationship between heads of
households' participation in the community development cen-
ter programs and the distance from residence to the center.

Research Instrument.   The present research started with a sur-
vey of related literature in the field of sociology and the community
development concept.   Various Saudi government documents were also
consulted.   In addition, informal interviews with some officials, com-
munity development center workers, and several rural leaders and resi-
dents of the Wadi Fatma area provided valuable background information
that was used in constructing the instrument for this study.

The structured interview was arranged in seven major sections:
control information and general questions on rural development center
programs, agricultural extension programs, health programs, educational
and cultural programs, social programs, and some observations and
comments from the interviewer.   Before administering the structured
interview to the selected sample and collecting the final data, a pilot

study was carried out in winter 1985 to determine villagers' reaction and ensure their participation, and to ascertain whether there would be any problems or confusion regarding the subject matter and items in the instrument. Finally, the instrument was neatly typed in Arabic and administered to the study sample.

Summary of Important Findings

The summary of findings is divided into three parts. The first deals with demographic characteristics of the household heads, including age, marital status, level of education, occupation, length of residence, number of persons and children in the household, and distance from the center. The second part deals with the outcome measures, which include household heads' awareness of the existence of the community development center, sources of information about the center, participation, helpfulness of the center, use of and satisfaction with the center's various activities, family and community need for services, and need to increase services, resources, workers, lectures, and center units. The third part summarizes the results of the statistical tests conducted in the study.

Findings Regarding Demographic
Characteristics of the Respondents

A majority of the household heads in the study (52.6 percent) are young adults between 20 and 39 years of age. The rest of the household heads were middle-aged, between 40 and 59 years old, and old-aged, 60 years and over (47.4 percent). A majority of the household

heads (82 percent) are married, whereas only 14 percent have never been married. Very few of them are either separated or divorced.

In terms of education, the household heads have received a rather low level of education. Seventy-two percent of them have either completed elementary school, are able to read and write, or are illiterate. Only 21 percent have completed high school, and just 7 percent have completed college education. Regarding occupation, a majority of the household heads are farmers (45 percent) or governmental officials (28 percent). The remaining 27 percent are businessmen, laborers, unemployed, or retired. For the most part, they have resided in the village for at least ten years (67.4 percent). The remaining 32.6 percent have lived in the area for less than ten years.

Concerning the number of persons in each household, there are more households with a large number of persons than those with fewer persons. Fifty-six percent of the households have more than five persons. The number of children per household varies from no children to more than four. Thirty-eight percent of the households have four or more children.

Findings Regarding the Outcome Measures

The findings indicate that a large portion of the household heads (87 percent) are aware of the existence of the community development center. The center's activities are the most important source of information about the center. Other sources include friends, neighbors, center workers, family members, and relatives. Radio and

television are the least important source of information. As for participation, although 87 percent of the household heads are aware of the center's existence, only 38 percent of them have participated in the center's programs. Of those who have participated, 76 percent have participated in the center's activities. The remaining 24 percent have participated by attending meetings at the center or by contributing time, materials, or money. The major reasons for not participating are lack of publicity about the center and its programs (68 percent) and not having enough time to participate. Only 13 percent of the respondents indicated that they do not have a desire to participate.

In terms of the center's helpfulness to the community, only 4 percent of the household heads think the center's activities are not helpful at all. Most of the respondents indicated that the activities are moderately helpful (51 percent) or slightly helpful (28 percent). Only 17 percent think the activities are highly helpful. Health programs have been used most frequently in the past and the present, followed by social, educational and cultural, and agricultural programs. The use of social programs currently has increased from 58 percent to 63 percent, whereas the use of agricultural programs has decreased from 41 to 26 percent. For all four programs, the major reason for lack of participation was that householders did not know about the services (more than 50 percent). Other reasons are that activities and services are too far away, are offered at inconvenient hours, or workers are not helpful. Twenty-four and three-tenths

percent of the household heads indicated that they do not use agricultural programs because they do not need such services.

Looking closely at various programs, we obtain the following relative frequency of use of specific activities. For agricultural programs, the most frequently used services are insecticide services, followed by seed improvement, fertilizer, supervision and training, and livestock improvement. The most frequently used services in the health area are medical treatment, followed by immunization, mother and child care, gynecological services, home visits, and health awareness. In the educational and cultural area, the most frequently used services are literacy/adult education, followed by home visits, seminar/panel discussion, library reading services, and vocational training. Kindergartens are the most frequently used service in the social area, followed by games and sports, child care counseling, summer activities and camps, home improvement, and home economics and sewing training.

In terms of satisfaction, a majority of the household heads expressed their satisfaction with all programs—80 percent with health services, 78 percent with social services, 74 percent with educational and cultural services, and 64 percent with agricultural services. Concerning the degree of satisfaction with services they have received from the center, on the average over all services, only 15.8 percent of the sample are very satisfied with the services. The others feel that these services are moderately or slightly satisfactory (84.2 percent). The household heads indicated that, in terms of family needs, the highest needs are in the health services area, followed by educational,

social, and agricultural services. The degree of villagers' need for the services followed the same order as did the family's need.

Sample members also indicated that the number of services should be increased in all program areas, especially in the health services, followed by educational, social, and agricultural services. Respondents feel the center should increase the resources and number of workers in the health and social service areas. The majority of respondents (91.7 percent) feel that units of the center should be established for health services in every village. The degree of importance of establishing units for other kinds of services and programs varied. Villagers also expressed the need to increase the number of lectures on awareness of all services, especially in the health area.

Findings Regarding the Relationship Between Background Variables and Participation

This study includes six variables concerning household heads' marital status, age, level of education, length of residence in Wadi Fatma, number of people in the household, and distance from the place of residence to the community development center. This was done in an attempt to determine whether certain factors influence household heads' participation in the center's activities or programs.

It was found that three of the factors--marital status, level of education, and length of residence--have a statistically significant relationship to participation. Age, number of people in the household, and distance from place of residence to the center do not have a significant relationship to participation. We may conclude that the

proportion of household heads who participate in the community develop-
ment center's activities and services is higher among those who are
married, who have a higher level of education, and who have resided
longer in a particular place. There may be an effect of the number of
people in a household on the participation of household heads, but
there is no strong evidence to support this claim.

Recommendations and Implications

Based on the outcome measures and the results of statistical
tests of the relationship between participation and various predictors,
the following recommendations and implications are suggested.

1. The community development center workers should take posi-
tive action to encourage more villagers in their area to participate
effectively in the center's programs and services. The search for more
villagers to participate in project activities and services may con-
tribute to the longer-term goal of building a sense of responsibility,
independence, and self-reliance. Villagers' participation implies that
they themselves have a major say in the choice of innovative activi-
ties, in deciding the methods to be used, and in organizing the differ-
ent kinds of contributions they make to the programs. Local residents'
participation is essential for meaningful rural development. Rogers
(1976) says that "if a development program is to benefit the people,
the people must participate in considering, planning, and implementing
their development plans" (pp. 130-31).

2. One of the major problems facing community development centers, according to the findings of this study, is lack of publicity. Such lack of publicity has been the major reason for nonparticipation in the center's activities and programs. It is therefore suggested that more awareness and publicity of the center's programs and services be provided to the villagers. People should be better informed about which community development programs are provided at their local centers and how they can benefit from all or some of them. Information can be communicated to the villagers directly, through center workers, lectures on awareness of programs and activities offered by the center, printed bulletins, posters, flash cards, and many other devices. Information can also be communicated to the villagers through public media, such as special radio or television programs. The importance of radio and television coverage appears in its role of carrying information and educational programs that must appeal to the rural population and thus be geared to their everyday interests, needs, and problems.

Media may be used to encourage rural youths and women to contribute to the development of their communities. Programs and services for youths may include information about volunteer activities, hobbies, sports and physical education, new technologies, and local events. Educational media may be used to address women's interests and needs, including topics such as homemaking skills, child care, and cottage industries in which women can participate.

Radio and television presentations may include programs dealing with regional agricultural differences and requests for information, news programs concerning new technology and farming methods, and markets for agricultural products. The telecommunication service's agricultural programming should be designed to increase rural people's awareness and understanding of the importance of agriculture regionally and nationally.

3. Community development centers throughout Saudi Arabia need to build a communications network. Such a network would enable these centers to benefit from each other's progress and experience.

4. A flow of ideas throughout the community development hierarchy should be maintained so that those who are engaged in regional or national planning of community rural development programs and services can stay in touch with what the people in local communities and villages think and feel.

5. There is a shortage of personnel and qualified workers in the various services and programs offered by community development centers. Therefore, it is suggested that additional training centers are needed to train workers at all levels and to provide them with the appropriate knowledge and skills to form a good relationship with clients in the rural communities. Through this relationship, the community members are helped to cope with their present and future problems and are encouraged to contribute ideas and suggestions regarding solutions to their specific problems and difficulties. In

addition, center workers should be allowed to practice what they learned during their training period.

6. Community development center workers should encourage and help the villagers in their communities to help themselves. Through the self-help approach they can work together to examine and improve their situation, design strategies to deal with various segments of their surroundings, and implement plans for improvement. The role of community center workers should be to facilitate the process of self-help and to encourage this process even at the expense of retarding change. Community development work should start where the people are; however, this does not mean agreeing with whatever people say or want to do. For example, the people may desire a youth club or a small-scale industry in their village, but it is not the purpose of community center workers to obtain the club or the industrial plant. Instead, the workers should help the people think through what they want, why they want it, the short- and long-term effects, and whether what they desire will produce the intended results.

7. The findings of this study showed a strong relationship between level of education and participation in the community development center. The proportion of household heads who participate in the center's activities is higher among those who have more education. Therefore, emphasis should be made on increasing the level of education of the local residents. Investment in education will be profitable in terms of development human resources. In addition, when people are better educated they are able to accept change more readily and are

more likely to participate in the programs offered by the community development center. Moreover, they can participate in the various programs by identifying their community's needs and determining alternative solutions to those needs. They can also participate in the planning and decision-making process to improve the effectiveness of the community development services in their area.

8. A greater effort should be made to stimulate adults to join literacy classes, possibly through incentives such as grants and rewards offered to those who successfully complete the courses. An effort must also be made to organize more literacy programs in every village. The teachers and educational workers should be able to speak the tribal dialect and relate the introduction of written words and their meaning to the local dialect. The adult literacy program should include not only education for reading and writing, but also education for village life. It should help the villagers to know the resources, needs, and problems of their local community and how they can cooperate to solve those problems.

9. Because of the distance between villages and the community development center, shortages of transportation, and inconvenient hours for many villagers, it is suggested that subcenters or small units be established in every village or combined small villages to provide for all programs, especially in the health and educational areas. A village-level worker residing in the village and working face to face with the villagers can be a stronger stimulus than occasional visits by the center's workers.

10. Each community development center should have basic data about the environment and the community it serves, such as a map of the area showing the location of various institutions, charts indicating population distribution, education ratios, and project achievements. Such data are useful illustrative tools for visitors and center workers, as well as for people of the community. Also, the information collected should be used for diagnoses covering as many aspects of community life as possible. The audio-visual unit can help produce useful charts for the centers.

11. Certain small-scale village industries, like spinning, food processing, fruit and vegetable preservation, and so on, should be planned and established within the rural community development center's programs. Small-scale industries play a vital role in the development of the rural community. They provide employment to many villagers, and increase the incomes and raise the standard of living of many others. They also help villagers meet their needs for food, clothing, and other important items of daily life. Emphasis on the promotion of rural industries has been found in community development programs in India, Pakistan, and Egypt (Issawi, 1947).

12. It is clear that close interaction and communication between rural community development planning and national planning is mutually advantageous to both the community and the nation. Therefore, to achieve the maximum results from the community development programs, interrelation between the national development programs and the development of local communities in project areas is recommended.

13. Since the rural development program was planned to be comprehensive and it has been functioning through 16 centers throughout different areas of the Kingdom, and since some of its goals have been reached, more community development centers are needed for regions that are not currently exposed to these services and programs. As a result, more villagers could benefit from this innovation.

If the Saudi Arabian government accepted all of the recommendations outlined above, there would be both immediate and long-term effects on planned change efforts. At first, Saudi Arabian community development centers would experience a period of relatively slow progress. More emphasis would be placed on building centers and training change agents (workers) than on specific programs. Once the additional centers were constructed and needed staff members were trained, new programs would begin. Villagers would be encouraged to learn new skills that would allow them to participate more fully in the programs and activities. The programs would continue helping the people, but with increased emphasis on having the villagers develop the necessary skills to help themselves. Eventually these recommendations will lead to a much more rapid acceptance of and participation in community development programs. Once the population is better educated, it will respond more readily to proposals for planned change.

Recommendations for Further Research

1. It is recommended that more detailed survey research with regard to the attitudes, opinions, and assessments of local residents and their readiness to participate in the programs of rural community

development centers should be conducted in other Saudi rural areas served by community centers. Application of this study, therefore, would be necessary to generalize these findings over different regions.

2. The researcher recommends further study that focuses on the change agents' (center workers') attitudes toward and evaluation of the community development center's programs and services and participation of local residents to determine whether or not the views of local residents and center workers are the same.

3. It is of great importance for researchers to conduct a similar study to measure the attitudes and opinions about and participation in community development programs by villagers in other developing countries that have identical community development center programs and services.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ENGLISH AND ARABIC VERSIONS OF THE

STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

IN THE NAME OF ALLAH, THE MOST MERCIFUL

AND THE MOST BENEFICENT

STRUCTURED INTERVIEW:

A STUDY OF VILLAGERS' ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS TOWARD THE

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT CENTER'S PROGRAMS IN THE

WADI FATMA AREA OF SAUDI ARABIA

Prepared by Ismael Khaleel Kutubkhanah

STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Computer
Code No.

No. of the structured interview   1-3

I. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Name: _____

2. Marital status   4

    a. _____ Single
    b. _____ Married
    c. _____ Widowed
    d. _____ Separated/divorced

3. Age group   5

    a. _____ 20-29
    b. _____ 30-39
    c. _____ 40-49
    d. _____ 50-59
    e. _____ 60 and over

4. Level of education   6

    a. _____ Illiterate
    b. _____ Can read and write
    c. _____ Elementary school (some or completed)
    d. _____ High school (some or completed)
    e. _____ College (some or more)

5. Occupation   7

    a. _____ Farmer
    b. _____ Businessman
    c. _____ Government official
    d. _____ Laborer
    e. _____ Unemployed/retired

6. Length of residence in the area (approximate)   8

    a. _____ Less than one year
    b. _____ One to four years
    c. _____ Five to nine years
    d. _____ Ten to twenty years
    e. _____ More than twenty years

7. Number of persons in the household   9-10

    a. ____ Total persons
    b. ____ Number of children
    c. ____ Number of others

II. GENERAL QUESTIONS ABOUT THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
    CENTER AND ITS PROGRAMS

8. Are you aware of the community development center
   in your area?   11

    a. ____ Yes
    b. ____ No

9. If yes, how did you first come to learn about
   the center and its programs?   12

    a. ____ Radio/television
    b. ____ Family/relatives
    c. ____ Workers from the center
    d. ____ Activities of the center
    e. ____ Friends/neighbors

10. If yes, do you take part/participate in any programs
    of the community development center in Wadi Fatma?   13

    a. ____ Yes
    b. ____ No

11. What kind of participation have you given?   14-16

    a. ____ Financial contributions
    b. ____ Activities of center
    c. ____ Attendance at meetings

12. How helpful do you think the center is to you and
    to the people of your village?   17

    a. ____ Highly helpful
    b. ____ Moderately helpful
    c. ____ Slightly helpful
    d. ____ Not helpful at all

13. If you don't participate in any programs of the
community development center, why not?   18

    a. ____ I don't have the desire to participate in
          the activities of the center
    b. ____ Not enough publicity about the center and
          its programs
    c. ____ I don't have enough time to participate in
          the center's programs

Now I would like to ask you some questions about all of
the kinds of programs of the community development
center in the Wadi Fatma area.

III. AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION PROGRAMS

14. Have you or any members of your household _ever_
used/taken part in the center's agricultural   19
extension programs?

    a. ____ Yes
    b. ____ No

15. Do you or any members of your household _now_ use/
take part in the center's agricultural extension   20
programs?

    a. ____ Yes
    b. ____ No

16. If _yes_, what kinds of agricultural services
have you or any member of your household received?   21-26

    a. Improved seeds   Yes____   No____
    b. Improved livestock   Yes____   No____
    c. Fertilizer services   Yes____   No____
    d. Supervision and training Yes____   No____
    e. Insecticide services   Yes____   No____
    f. Demonstration farm   Yes____   No____

Which one service was most beneficial to you? _____

Which one service was least beneficial to you? _____

Computer
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17. Are you satisfied with the agricultural exten-
sion services that you have received?   27

    a. ____ Yes
    b. ____ No

18. If _yes_, how satisfied are you with the agricul-
tural extension services that you have received?   28

    a. ____ Very satisfied
    b. ____ Moderately satisfied
    c. ____ Slightly satisfied

19. If aware but do not use agricultural extension
services, why do not not use these services?   29-33

    a. Didn't know about this kind of
       service being offered   Yes____   No____
    b. Too far to the center   Yes____   No____
    c. Inconvenient hours   Yes____   No____
    d. Workers not very helpful   Yes____   No____
    e. Don't need this service   Yes____   No____

20. If not aware of the center, where do you obtain
agriculture-related information or advice?   34-39

    a. From agricultural cooperative
       extension   Yes____   No____
    b. From agricultural engineer   Yes____   No____
    c. From relatives   Yes____   No____
    d. From friends/neighbors   Yes____   No____
    e. From radio or television   Yes____   No____
    f. From no source   Yes____   No____

21. In your opinion, how great is the need for agricul-
tural extension services for you and your family?   40

    a. ____ Very much needed
    b. ____ Much needed
    c. ____ Moderately needed
    d. ____ Little needed
    e. ____ Not needed

22. In your opinion, how great is the need for agri-
     cultural extension services in your village?   41

     a. _____ Very much needed
     b. _____ Much needed
     c. _____ Moderately needed
     d. _____ Little needed
     e. _____ Not needed

23. In your opinion, how can we improve the agricul-
     tural extension services of the center?   42-46

	Very Imp.	Impor- tant	Slightly Imp.	Very Slightly Imp.
a. Increase number of agricul. services	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. Increase center's agricul. resources	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. Increase number of agricul. workers	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. Establish agricul. unit in every village	_____	_____	_____	_____
e. Increase number of lectures for vil- lagers' awareness	_____	_____	_____	_____

IV. HEALTH PROGRAMS

24. Did you or any members of your household _ever_ use/
     take part in the center's health programs?   47

     a. _____ Yes
     b. _____ No

25. Do you or any members of your household _now_ use/
     take part in the center's health programs?   48

     a. _____ Yes
     b. _____ No

Computer
Code No.

26. If yes, what kinds of health services have you or
any members of your household received?   49-54

    a. Treatment   Yes____   No____
    b. Mother and child care   Yes____   No____
    c. Immunization   Yes____   No____
    d. Gynecological   Yes____   No____
    e. Home visit for awareness Yes____   No____
    f. Health lectures for awareness Yes____   No____

Which one service was most beneficial to you? _____

Which one service was least beneficial to you? _____

27. Are you satisfied with the health program's services
that you have received?   55

    a. ____ Yes
    b. ____ No

28. If yes, how satisfied are you with the health
program's services that you have received?   56

    a. ____ Very satisfied
    b. ____ Moderately satisfied
    c. ____ Slightly satisfied

29. If aware but do not use health services, why do you
not use these services?   57-61

    a. Didn't know about this kind Yes____   No____
       of service being offered
    b. Too far to the center   Yes____   No____
    c. Inconvenient hours   Yes____   No____
    d. Workers not very helpful   Yes____   No____
    e. Don't need this service   Yes____   No____

30. If not aware of the center, where do you obtain
health services and get treatment?   62-65

    a. From the central hospital
       in the city   Yes____   No____
    b. From the clinic center   Yes____   No____
    c. From a private doctor   Yes____   No____
    d. Prepare the suitable tradi- Yes____   No____
       tional treatment

31. In your opinion, how great is the need for
health services for you and your family?   66

    a. ____ Very much needed
    b. ____ Much needed
    c. ____ Moderately needed
    d. ____ Little needed
    e. ____ Not needed

32. In your opinion, how great is the need for
health services in your village?   67

    a. ____ Very much needed
    b. ____ Much needed
    c. ____ Moderately needed
    d. ____ Little needed
    e. ____ Not needed

33. In your opinion, how can we improve the health
services of the center?   68-72

	Very Imp.	Impor- tant	Slightly Imp.	Very Slightly Imp.
a. Increase number of health services	____	____	____	____
b. Increase center health resources	____	____	____	____
c. Increase number of health unit workers	____	____	____	____
d. Establish health clinic in every village	____	____	____	____
e. Increase number of lectures for villagers' awareness	____	____	____	____

V. EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL PROGRAMS

34. Did you or any members of your household _ever_ use/
take part in the center's educational and cultural   73
programs?

    a. ____ Yes
    b. ____ No

35. Do you or any members of your household _now_ use/
take part in the center's educational and cultural   74
programs?

    a. _____ Yes
    b. _____ No

36. If _yes_, what kinds of educational and cultural
services have you or any members of your household   75-79
received?

    a. Literacy/adult education   Yes_____   No_____
    b. Use library for reading   Yes_____   No_____
    c. Vocational training   Yes_____   No_____
    d. Seminars/panel discussion   Yes_____   No_____
    e. Visit home for awareness   Yes_____   No_____

    Which one service was most beneficial to you? _____

    Which one service was least beneficial to you? _____

37. Are you satisfied with the educational and cultural
services that you have received?   80

    a. _____ Yes
    b. _____ No

38. If _yes_, how satisfied are you with the educational
and cultural services that you have received?   81

    a. _____ Very satisfied
    b. _____ Moderately satisfied
    c. _____ Slightly satisfied

39. If aware but do not use educational and cultural
services, why do you not use these services?   82-86

    a. Didn't know about this kind
       of service being offered   Yes_____   No_____
    b. Too far to the center   Yes_____   No_____
    c. Inconvenient hours   Yes_____   No_____
    d. Workers not very helpful   Yes_____   No_____
    e. Don't need this service   Yes_____   No_____

40. In your opinion, how great is the need for
educational and cultural services for you and
your family?   87

    a. ____ Very much needed
    b. ____ Much needed
    c. ____ Moderately needed
    d. ____ Little needed
    e. ____ Not needed

41. In your opinion, how great is the need for educa-
tional and cultural services in your village?   88

    a. ____ Very much needed
    b. ____ Much needed
    c. ____ Moderately needed
    d. ____ Little needed
    e. ____ Not needed

42. In your opinion, how can we improve the educa-
tional and cultural services of the center?   89-93

	Very Imp.	Important	Slightly Imp.	Very Slightly Imp.
a. Increase number of educational and cultural services	____	____	____	____
b. Increase center's educational and cultural resources	____	____	____	____
c. Increase number of educational and cultural workers	____	____	____	____
d. Establish educational and cultural unit in every village	____	____	____	____
e. Increase number of lectures for villagers' awareness	____	____	____	____

Computer
Code No.

VI. SOCIAL PROGRAMS

43. Did you or any members of your household ever
    use/take part in the center's social programs?   94

    a. _____ Yes
    b. _____ No

44. Do you or any members of your household now use/
    take part in the center's social programs?   95

    a. _____ Yes
    b. _____ No

45. If yes, what kinds of social services have you or
    any members of your household received?   96-101

    a. Home improvement   Yes_____   No_____
    b. Child care counseling   Yes_____   No_____
    c. Sewing   Yes_____   No_____
    d. Summer activities/camp   Yes_____   No_____
    e. Kindergarten   Yes_____   No_____
    f. Games and sports   Yes_____   No_____

    Which one service was most beneficial to you? _____

    Which one service was least beneficial to you? _____

46. Are you satisfied with the social services that you
    have received?   102

    a. _____ Yes
    b. _____ No

47. If yes, how satisfied are you with the social
    services that you have received?   103

    a. _____ Very satisfied
    b. _____ Moderately satisfied
    c. _____ Slightly satisfied

Computer
Code No.

48. If aware but do not use social services, why do
you not use these services?   104-108

    a. Didn't know about this kind
       of service being offered   Yes____   No____
    b. Too far to the center   Yes____   No____
    c. Inconvenient hours   Yes____   No____
    d. Workers not very helpful   Yes____   No____
    e. Don't need this service   Yes____   No____

49. In your opinion, how great is the need for social
services for you and your family?   109

    a. ____ Very much needed
    b. ____ Much needed
    c. ____ Moderately needed
    d. ____ Little needed
    e. ____ Not needed

50. In your opinion, how great is the need for social
services in your village?   110

    a. ____ Very much needed
    b. ____ Much needed
    c. ____ Moderately needed
    d. ____ Little needed
    e. ____ Not needed

51. In your opinion, how can we improve the social
services of the center?   111-115

	Very Imp.	Impor- tant	Slightly Imp.	Very Slightly Imp.
a. Increase number of social services	____	____	____	____
b. Increase center's social resources	____	____	____	____
c. Increase number of social workers	____	____	____	____
d. Establish social unit in every village	____	____	____	____
e. Increase number of lectures for villagers' awareness	____	____	____	____

Computer
Code No.

VII. GENERAL INFORMATION ABOUT THE DWELLING

52. Number of rooms in house: 116

    a. _____ One
    b. _____ Two
    c. _____ Three
    d. _____ Four or more

53. Do you own or rent your house?   117

    a. _____ Own
    b. _____ Rent

54. Which of the following do you have in your home?   118-122

    a. Refrigerator   Yes_____   No_____
    b. Washing machine   Yes_____   No_____
    c. Air conditioner   Yes_____   No_____
    d. Television   Yes_____   No_____
    e. Telephone   Yes_____   No_____

THIS CONCLUDES THE INTERVIEW.   THANK YOU FOR YOUR KIND COOPERATION.

INTERVIEWER OBSERVATION

Type of dwelling: 123

a. _____ Villa
b. _____ Apartment
c. _____ Traditional house
d. _____ Other (specify) _____

General condition of dwelling: 124

a. _____ Very good
b. _____ Good
c. _____ Average
d. _____ Poor

Interviewer's comments:

Date: _____   Computer
                                                              Code No.

Interviewer's village: 125

    a. _____ Al-Jumum   d. _____ Al-Khayf
    b. _____ Daf-Zayny   e. _____ Abu-Shaib
    c. _____ Ain-Shams   f. _____ Abu-Urwa

بـــم اللـــه الرحمـــن الرحـــيم
=============================

استـــمارة مقابلـــــة
=====================

دراسة اتجاهات وآراء القرويين نحو

برامج مركز التنمية الاجتماعية بمنطقة وادى فاطمة

بالمملكة العربية السعودية

اعـــداد

اسماعيل خليل كتب خانة

استمارة مقابلـــــــة

=

I- معلومات شخصيـــــــة :

1 - الاسم : ــــــ _____

2 - الحالة الاجتماعية :

    1 - اعزب   (   )

    2 - متزوج   (   )

    3 - ارمل   (   )

    4 - منفصل او مطلق (   )

3 - العمر :

    1 - ٢٠ - ٢٩   (   )

    2 - ٣٠ - ٣٩   (   )

    3 - ٤٠ - ٤٩   (   )

    4 - ٥٠ - ٥٩   (   )

    5 - ٦٠ وما فوق (   )

4 - المستوى التعليمى :

    1 - امى   (   )

    2 - يعرف القراءة والكتابة (   )

    3 - تعليم ابتدائى   (   )

    4 - تعليم متوسط او ثانوى (   )

    5 - تعليم جامعى او دراسات عليا (   )

5 - المهنـــــة :

    1 - مزارع   (   )

    2 - متسبب   (   )

    3 - موظف حكومى   (   )

    4 - عامل   (   )

    5 - لا يعمل - متقاعد (   )

6 – المدة التى قضيتها فى هذه المنطقة بالتقريب ؟

( )   ( )   1 – اقل من سنة

( )   ( )   2 – سنة الى اربع سنوات

( )   ( )   3 – خمس سنوات الى تسع سنوات

( )   ( )   4 – عشر سنوات الى عشرون سنة

( )   ( )   5 – اكثر من عشرين سنة

7 – عدد الافراد فى منزلك ؟

( )   ( )   1 – مجموع الافراد بالمنزل

( )   ( )   2 – عدد الاطفال

( )   ( )   3 – عدد الافراد الاخرين

II- اسئلة عامة من مركز التنمية الاجتماعية وبرامجه :

8 – هل عندك فكرة من وجود مركز التنمية الاجتماعية فى منطقتك ؟

( )   ( )   1 – نعم

( )   ( )   2 – لا

9 – فى حالة الاجابة (بنعم) ، كيف عرفت – لاول مرة – عن المركـــــز وبرامجه ؟

( )   ( )   1 – الراديو / التليفزيون

( )   ( )   2 – الاسرة / الاقارب

( )   ( )   3 – العاملين فى المركز

( )   ( )   4 – انشطة المركز

( )   ( )   5 – اصدقاء او جيران

10- فى حالة الاجابة بنعم هل ساهمت او اشتركت انت او اى فرد من الـــراد اسرتك فى اى برنامج من برامج مركز التنمية الاجتماعية بوادى فاطمة ؟

( )   ( )   1 – نعم

( )   ( )   2 – لا

11- ما نوع المساهمة او المشاركة التى قدمتها ؟

( )   ( )   1 – مشاركة مالية

( )   ( )   2 – مشاركة عينية

( )   ( )   3 – مشاركة فى مجالس القرية / اجتماعات

12- الى اى مدى يساعدك مركز التنمية الاجتماعية ويساعد اهل قريتك ؟

    1 - مساعدة كبيرة   (   )

    2 - مساعدة متوسطة   (   )

    3 - مساعدة قليلة   (   )

    4 - لا يساعد ابدا   (   )

13- اذا كنت لا تساهم او مشترك فى اى برنامج من برامج مركز التنمية الاجتماعية للماذا ؟

    1 - ليس لدى الرغبة فى المشاركة او المساهمة فى انشطة المركز (   )

    2 - ليس هناك دعاية كافية عن المركز وخدماته . (   )

    3 - ليس لدى الامكانيات والوقت الكافى للمشاركة فى برامج المركز (   )

الان اود ان اسالك بعض الاسئلة عن كل برنامج من برامج مركز التنمية الاجتماعية بوادى فاطمة :

III- برامج الارشاد الزراعى :

14- هل انت او احد الافراد اسرتك سبق ان استخدم او شارك فى برامج الارشاد الزراعى بالمركز ؟

    1 - نعم   (   )

    2 - لا   (   )

15- هل انت او احد الافراد اسرتك يشارك او يستخدم - الان - فى برامج الارشاد الزراعى بالمركز ؟

    1 - نعم   (   )

    2 - لا   (   )

16- اذا كانت الاجابة بنعم ، فما هى الخدمات الزراعية التى انت او احد الافراد اسرتك استفاد منها ؟

لا	نعم	
( )	( )	1 - تحسين البذور
( )	( )	2 - تحسين سلالات المواشى
( )	( )	3 - تقديم اسمدة زراعية
( )	( )	4 - اشراف وتدريب

5 ـ مكافحة آفات زراعية ( ) ( ) ( )

6 ـ مزارع نموذجية ( ) ( ) ( )

ـ اى خدمة من الخدمات السابقة كانت اكثر فائدة لك ؟ ( ) ( )

ـ اى خدمة من الخدمات السابقة كانت اقل فائدة لك ؟ ( ) ( )

17- <u>هل انت راضى عن خدمات الارشاد الزراعى ؟</u>

1 - نعم ( )

2 - لا ( )

18- <u>اذا كانت الاجابة بنعم فما هو مدى رضاك عن خدمات الارشاد الزراعى ؟</u>

1 - مرضية كثيرا ( )

2 - مرضية ( )

3 - مرضية قليلا ( )

19- <u>اذا كنت على علم بالمركز ولكن لا تستخدم او تشارك فى خدمات الارشاد الزراعى فلماذا ؟</u>

<u>لا</u>   <u>نعم</u>

1 - لم اكن اعلم بهذه الخدمة ( ) ( ) ( )

2 - بعد المسافة للمركز ( ) ( ) ( )

3 - الوقت غير ملائم ( ) ( ) ( )

4 - العاملون لا يساعدون كثيرا ( ) ( ) ( )

5 - عدم حاجتى لهذه الخدمة ( ) ( ) ( )

20- <u>اذا كنت لا تعلم من المركز ـ فمن اين تحصل على النصائح او المعلومات الزراعية ؟</u>

<u>لا</u>   <u>نعم</u>

1 - الجمعيات التعاونية الزراعية ( ) ( ) ( )

2 - المهندس الزراعى ( ) ( ) ( )

3 - الاقارب ( ) ( ) ( )

4 - الاصدقاء او الجيران ( ) ( ) ( )

5 - الراديو او التليفزيون ( ) ( ) ( )

6 - لا احصل على معلومات من اى مصدر ( ) ( ) ( )

21- من وجهة نظرك ما هي درجة احتياجك انت او اسرتك الى خدمات الارشـــاد
الزراعى ؟

1 - حاجة شديدة جدا   (   )
2 - حاجة شديدة   (   )
3 - حاجة متوسطة   (   )
4 - حاجة قليلة   (   )
5 - لا حاجة   (   )

22- ما هي درجة احتياج قريتك الى خدمات الارشاد الزراعى ؟

1 - حاجة شديدة جدا   (   )
2 - حاجة شديدة   (   )
3 - حاجة متوسطة   (   )
4 - حاجة قليلة   (   )
5 - لا حاجة   (   )

23- من وجهة نظرك كيف يمكن تحسين خدمات وبرامج الارشاد الزراعـــــى
بالمركز ؟

غير مهم خدا	مهم قليلا	مهم	مهم جـدا	
( )	( )	( )	( )	1 - زيادة عدد الخدمات الزراعية
( )	( )	( )	( )	2 - زيادة الموارد بالمركزالمتعلقة بالزراعة
( )	( )	( )	( )	3 - زيادة عدد العامليـــــن بالارشاد الزراعـــى
( )	( )	( )	( )	4 - انشاء وحدة زراعية فى كــل قريــــة
( )	( )	( )	( )	5 - زيادة عدد النـــــدوات والمحاضرات للاهالى لتوعيتهم

IV - البرامج المعية :

24- هل انت او احد افراد اسرتك سبق ان استخدم او شارك فى احد البرامــــج
المعية بالمركز ؟

1 - نعم   (   )
2 - لا   (   )

25- هل انت او احد افراد اسرتك يشارك او يستخدم الان اى برنامـــج مــــن البرامج الصحية بالمركز ؟

1 - نعم ( )
2 - لا ( )

26- اذا كانت الاجابة بنعم ، فما هى الخدمات الصحية التى انت او احــــد افراد اسرتك استفاد منهـا ؟

	نعم	لا
1 - علاج	( )	( )
2 - رعاية امومة وطفولة	( )	( )
3 - تطعيم	( )	( )
4 - امراض نسائية	( )	( )
5 - زيارات منزلية للتوعية	( )	( )
6 - محاضرات وندوات صحية للتوعية	( )	( )
- اى خدمة من الخدمات السابقة اكثر فائدة لك		( )
- اى خدمة من الخدمات السابقة اقل فائدة لك		( )

27- هل انت راضى من خدمات البرامج الصحية ؟

1 - نعم ( )
2 - لا ( )

28- اذا كانت الاجابة بنعم فما مدى رضاك من خدمات البرامج الصحية التـــى سبق ان حصلت عليها او تحصل عليها الان ؟

1 - مرضية جدا ( )
2 - مرضية ( )
3 - مرضية قليلا ( )

29- اذا كنت على علم بالمركز ولكن لا تستخدم / تشارك فى خدمات البرامـــج الصحية فلماذا ؟

	نعم	لا
1 - لم اكن اعلم بهذه الخدمة	( )	( )
2 - بعد المسافة للمركز	( )	( )
3 - الوقت غير ملائم	( )	( )

4 - العاملون بالمركز لا يساعدون كثيرا ( ) ( ) (

5 - عدم حاجتي لهذه الخدمة ( ) ( ) (

30- اذا كنت لا تعلم عن المركز فمن اين تحصل على الخدمات الصحيــــــة والمعالجة ؟

لا	نعم	
( )	( )	1 - من المستشفى المركزي
( )	( )	2 - من المستوصف
( )	( )	3 - من العيادة الخاصة
( )	( )	4 - باستخدام الاساليب القديمة للعلاج

31- من وجهة نظرك ، ما هي درجة احتياجك انت او اسرتك الى الخدمــــــات الصحية ؟

1 - حاجة شديدة جدا ( )

2 - حاجة شديدة ( )

3 - حاجة متوسطة ( )

4 - حاجة قليلة ( )

5 - لا حاجة ( )

32- ما هي درجة احتياج قريتك الى الخدمات الصحية ؟

1 - حاجة شديدة جدا ( )

2 - حاجة شديدة ( )

3 - حاجة متوسطة ( )

4 - حاجة قليلة ( )

5 - لا حاجة ( )

33- من وجهة نظرك كيف يمكن تحسين الخدمات الصحية بالمركز ؟

غير مهم حدا	مهم قليلا	مهم	مهم جدا	
( )	( )	( )	( )	1 - زيادة عدد الخدمات الصحية
( )	( )	( )	( )	2 - زيادة الموارد الصحية بالمركز

3 - زيادة عدد العاملين بالقسم
المحــــــى ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

4 - انشاء مركز محى فى كل قرية ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

5 - زيادة عدد الندوات والمحاضرات
المحية لتوعية الاهالــــــى ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

٧ - **البرامج الثقافية والتعليمية :**

34- **هل انت او احد الفراد اسرتك سبق ان استخدم او شارك فى البرامج الثقافية**
والتعليمية بالمركز ؟

1 - نعم ( )

2 - لا ( )

35- **هل انت او احد الفراد اسرتك يشارك او يستخدم – الان – البرامــــــــج**
التعليمية والثقافية بالمركز ؟

1 - نعم ( )

2 - لا ( )

36- **اذا كانت الاجابة بنعم ، فما هى الخدمات الثقافية والتعليمية الـــــتى**
انت او احد الفراد اسرتك استفاد ًمنهــا؟

لا	نعم

1 - مكافحة الامية وتعليم الكبار ( ) ( )

2 - استخدام المكتبة للاطلاع والقراءة، ( ) ( )

3 - تدريب مهنى ( ) ( )

4 - ندوات ومناقشات ( ) ( )

5 - زيارات منزلية للتوعية ( ) ( )

- اى خدمة من الخدمات السابقة كان اكثر فائدة لك ( )

- اى خدمة من الخدمات السابقة كان اقل فائدة لك ( )

37- **هل انت راضى من خدمات البرامج التعليمية والثقافية ؟**

1 - نعم ( )

2 - لا ( )

38 - اذا كانت الاجابة نعم فما مدى رضاك عن خدمات البرامج التعليمية
والثقافية ؟

1 - مرضية جدا ( )

2 - مرضية ( )

3 - مرضية قليلا ( )

39 - اذا كنت على علم بالمركز ولكن لا تستخدم او تشارك في خدمات البرامج
التعليمية فلماذا ؟

	لا	نعم
1 - لم اكن اعلم بهذه الخدمة	( )	( )
2 - بعد المسافة للمركز	( )	( )
3 - الوقت غير ملائم	( )	( )
4 - العاملين بالمركز لا يساعدون كثرا	( )	( )
5 - عدم حاجتى لهذه الخدمة	( )	( )

40 - من وجهة نظرك ، ما هي درجة احتياجك انت واسرتك الى الخدمات
التعليمية والثقافية ؟

1 - حاجة شديدة جدا ( )

2 - حاجة شديدة ( )

3 - حاجة متوسطة ( )

4 - حاجة قليلة ( )

5 - لا حاجة ( )

41 - ما هي درجة احتياج قريتك الى الخدمات الثقافية والتعليمية ؟

1 - حاجة شديدة جدا ( )

2 - حاجة شديدة ( )

3 - حاجة متوسطة ( )

4 - حاجة قليلة ( )

5 - لا حاجة ( )

42- **من وجهة نظرك كيف يمكن تحسين الخدمات الثقافية والتعليمية بالمركز ؟**

غير مهم جداً	مهم قليلاً	مهم	مهم جداً	
( )	( )	( )	( )	1 - زيادة عدد الخدمات الثقافية والتعليمية
( )	( )	( )	( )	2 - زيادة الموارد بالمركز
( )	( )	( )	( )	3 - زيادة عدد للعاملين بالمركز
( )	( )	( )	( )	4 - انشاء وحدة تعليمية وثقافية فى كل مركز
( )	( )	( )	( )	5 - زيادة عدد المحاضرات والندوات الثقافية لتوعية الاهالى

VI - **البرامج الاجتماعية :**

43- **هل انت او احد افراد اسرتك سبق ان استخدم او شارك فى البرامج الاجتماعية بالمركز ؟**

نعم - 1   (   )

لا - 2   (   )

44- **هل انت او احد افراد اسرتك يستخدم او يشارك – الان – فى البرامج الاجتماعية بالمركز ؟**

نعم - 1   (   )

لا - 2   (   )

45- **اذا كانت الاجابة بنعم فما هى الخدمات الاجتماعية التى انت او احد افراد اسرتك استفاد منها؟**

لا	نعم	
( )	( )	1 - تحسين وتطوير المنازل
( )	( )	2 - تومية ورعاية الاطفال
( )	( )	3 - خياطة وتطريز
( )	( )	4 - انشطة صيفية ومعسكرات

5 - روضة الاطفال ( ) ( )

6 - رياضة والعاب مختلفة ( ) ( )

- اى خدمة من هذه الخدمات السابقة كان اكثر فائدة لك ( )

- اى خدمة من خده الخدمات السابقة كان اقل فائدة لك ( )

46- هل انت راضى من خدمات البرامج الاجتماعية ؟

1 - نعم ( )

2 - لا ( )

47- اذا كانت الاجابة بنعم فما مدى رضاك من خدمات البرامج الاجتماعيـــــة ؟

1 - مرضية جدا ( )

2 - مرضية ( )

3 - مرضية قليلا ( )

48- اذا كنت على علم بالمركز ولكن لا تستخدم او تشارك فى الخدمـــــــات
الاجتماعية فلماذا ؟

	نعم	لا
1 - لم اكن اعلم بهذه الخدمة	( )	( )
2 - بعد المسافة للمركز	( )	( )
3 - الوقت غير ملائم	( )	( )
4 - العاملون بالمركز لا يساعدون كثيرا	( )	( )
5 - عدم حاجتى لهذه الخدمة	( )	( )

49- من وجهة نظرك ، ما هى درجة احتياجك انت واسرتك الى الخدمات الاجتماعية؟

1 - حاجة شديدة جدا ( )

2 - حاجة شديدة ( )

3 - حاجة متوسطة ( )

4 - حاجة قليلة ( )

5 - لا حاجة ( )

50 - ما هى درجة احتياج قريتك الى الخدمات الاجتماعية ؟

1 - حاجة شديدة جدا ( )

2 - حاجة شديدة ( )

3 - حاجة متوسطة ( )

4 - حاجة قليلة ( )

5 - لا حاجة ( )

51 - من وجهة نظرك كيف يمكن تحسين الخدمات الاجتماعية بالمركز ؟

غير مهم جداً	مهم قليلا	مهم	مهم جداً	
( )	( )	( )	( )	1 - زيادة عدد الخدمات الاجتماعية
( )	( )	( )	( )	2 - زيادة الموارد بالمركــــز
( )	( )	( )	( )	3 - زيادة عـــدد للعامليـــن بالقسم الاجتماعـــى
( )	( )	( )	( )	4 - انشاء وحدة اجتماعية فى كـل قريــة
( )	( )	( )	( )	5 - زيادة عدد المحاضرات والندوات لتوعية الاهالى .

VII - معلومات عامة بالسكن :

52 - عدد الغرف بالمنزل ؟

1 - واحدة ( )

2 - اثنتان ( )

3 - ثلاث ( )

4 - اربع او اكثر ( )

53 - هل تمتلك منزلا ام تستأجر ؟

1 - امتلك ( )

2 - استأجر ( )

54 - ماذا يوجد في منزلك من الاشياء التالية ؟

    لا   نعم

1 - ثلاجة   (   )   (   )

2 - غسالة   (   )   (   )

3 - مكيف   (   )   (   )

4 - تلفزيون   (   )   (   )

5 - تليفون   (   )   (   )

هذه نهاية المقابلة ـ شكرا على تعاونك معنا .

ملاحظات المقابل

== نوع السكن :

1 - فيلا   (   )

2 - شقة   (   )

3 - بيت شعبي   (   )

4 - نوع آخر (اذكره) ─────────

== الحالة العامة للسكن :

1 - جيدة جدا   (   )

2 - جيدة   (   )

3 - معتدلة   (   )

4 - سيئة   (   )

== ملاحظات اخرى للمقابل :

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_____ == التاريخ للمقابلة :

== القرية :

(   )   1 - الجموم

(   )   2 - دف رينى

(   )   3 - عين شمس

(   )   4 - الخيف

(   )   5 - ابو شعيب

(   )   6 - ابو مروة

APPENDIX B

OFFICIAL LETTERS

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

18 December 1984

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN: Re: Mr. Ismael Ktobkahnh
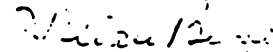
As Chair of Mr. Ismael Ktobkahnh's Ph.D. Guidance Committee, I wish to inform you that he has acquired approval of his dissertation plan. As reported to you earlier, he has completed all of his coursework and the comprehensives. This means that he is now ready to collect the data for his dissertation.

He plans to study the application of rural development practices in Saudi Arabia, and specifically to evaluate the effectiveness of the Rural Development Center's programs in Wadi Fatma. While he now has prepared the basic questionnaire to be used, he will need to consult with Center personnel before he translates it into Arabic. He will have to prepare a random sample of informants in the several villages and will then conduct the interviews. We have discussed the time required to complete all aspects of the fieldwork and our best estimate is from 3-4 months.

Mr. Ktobkahnh plans to return to Michigan State to carry out the analysis and the writing of his dissertation. If all goes well, he should be able to complete the writing and oral examination by December 1985.

Sincerely yours,

J. Allan Beegle
Professor

JAB/om

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

Ref. ....

Date ....

الرقم ٨٦٨٠/١١
التاريخ ١١/١/١٧

حـادة وكيل الـوزارة المسـاعد للشـئون الاجتمـاعيـة   الموقر
الدكتور يـاسين اندرقيرى

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ، وبعد..

انطلاقا من مبدأ التعاون القائم بين الجامعة والمؤسسات الحكوميـة
الاخرى ، وحيث ان السيد / اسماعيل خليل كتبخانه هو احد مبعوثى الجامعـة
قسم الاجتماع ويحتاج لبعض المعلومات والاحصائيات المتعلقة بموضوع بحثـه
لدرجة الدكتوراه ـ المقترح عن مراكز التنمية الاجتماعية الريفية ودورهـا
فى عملية التنمية .

نرجو من سعادتكم التكرم بمساعدته قدر المستطاع خدمة للعلـم
والمعرفة .

وتقبلوا الطيب تحياتى،،

٧/١٢

عميد كلية الآداب
والعلـــوم الانسانيـــة

د. سليمان محمد الغنام

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعة الملك عبدالعزيز
كلية الأداب والعلوم الانسانية

الرقم ٩٩٨٨/١ رس/ص/٤
التاريخ ..... ٨٢/٥/١٤ هـ

سعادة امير منطقة الجمـــــوم   الموقر

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته :

انطلاقا من مبدأ التعاون القائم بين الجامعة والجهات الحكوميـــــة
الاخرى ، وحيث ان السيد / اسماعيل خليل كتب خانة - احد مبعوثى الجامعة
للتحضير لدرجة الدكتوراه فى مجال علم الاجتماع الريفى . وهو الان بصــدد
تجميع المعلومات اللازمة لتحضيره لدرجة الدكتوراه من مراكز التنمية
الاجتماعية بالمنطقة الغربية .

نرجو من سعادتكم التكرم بمساعدته قدر الامكان لتسهيل مهمتــــــه
خدمة للعلم وطلابه .

شاكرين لكم جميل تعاونكم .

وتقبلوا خالص تحياتى ....

عميد كلية الأداب
وللعلـوم الانسانيـة

د. سليمان محمد الضنـــام

حصـام :
٤/٢٢

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة العمل والشئون الاجتماعية
وكالة الوزارة للشئون الاجتماعية

الــى كــآفــة مدراء مراكز التنمية الاجتماعية

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ... وبعد ،

حيث أن الأستاذ/ اسماعيـل خليل سيقوم بأعداد بحث عن مــدى
تأثيـر الخدمات التى يقدمها مشروع التنمية الاجتماعية بالمملكة وحاجـة
لاجراء المقابلات مع المسئولين عن هذه المراكز أو مع بعض الأهالـــى
الذين يسكنون فـى منطقة خدمات المركز .

نأمل العمل على تسهيل مهمته وتمكينه من الحصول على المعلومات التـى
يرغب الحصول عليها حسب المتبع لديكم .

ودمتم . ،،،

وكيل الوزارة للشئون الاجتماعية بالنيابة

عبدالله الزيد

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم
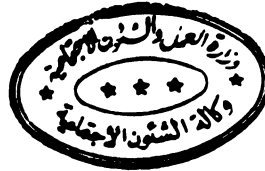
KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA
Ministry of Higher Education
KING ABDULAZIZ UNIVERSITY
Scholarships Dept.

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعة الملك عبد العزيز
ادارة البعثات

Ref. ....

Date ....

Encl. ....

الرقم .... ع ب / ٤٠١/٢/ ع - ح ٠
التاريخ .... ح / ١٤٠٥/٧/ هـ ٠
المرفقات ....

COPY صورة

حضادة الملحق التعليمي السعودي في أمريكا   الموقـر

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ...
اشارة الى خطابنا رقم ٤٠١/٢/٦٢٥ ب غ في ١٤٠٥/٦/١١هـ وبخصوصه
صورة القرار الاداري رقم ٤٠١/٢/١٣٤ ب م في ١٤٠٥/٦/١١هـ المتضمن الموافقة
على قيام مبتعث الجامعة السيد/اسماعيل خليل كتبخانه برحلة علمية الى
المملكة لمدة ثلاثة أشهر لجمع المعلومات اللازمة لتحضيره لدرجة
الدكتوراه ٠

نفيدكم بان سيادته أنهى رحلته العلمية وذلك بناء على خطاب
حضادة عميد كلية الاداب والعلوم الانسانية رقم ١٥٤٤/ادب/٤٠٥ في ١٤٠٥/٦/٢٨هـ ٠

نرجو تعميد من يلزم بحرف استحقاقاته النظامية من رحلته العلمية
وكذلك مخصصاته عن الفترة التي قضاها بالمملكة اثناء قيامه بهذه الرحلة.
وتقبلوا وافر تحياتي ...

مدير ادارة البعثات

محمد مرتاج الدين جاوى

صورة مع التحية لسعادة عميد كلية الاداب والعلوم الانسانية ٠
صورة لملف مدير البعثات ٠
صورة لملف المبتعث /صورة للمتابعة ٠
صورة للبعثات العام لتمديد القيد رقم ٦٤١ في ١٤٠٥/٧/٤هـ ٠

APPENDIX C

CROSS-TABULATION TABLES

Table A-1.--Relationship between household heads' awareness and age.

Awareness	Age Range in Years								Total
	20-29		30-39		40-49		50 and Over		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Aware	61	96.8	57	86.4	38	86.4	57	79.2	213
Not aware	2	3.2	9	13.6	6	13.6	15	20.8	32
Total	63	100.0	66	100.0	44	100.0	72	100.0	245

$X^2 = 9.2660$ df = 3   Significance = 0.03

Table A-2.--Relationship between household heads' awareness and their marital status.

| Awareness | Marital Status | | | | | Total |
| | Single | | Married | | | |
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
Aware	32	72.7	181	90.0		213
Not aware	12	27.3	20	10.0		32
Total	44	100.0	201	100.0		245

$x^2 = 9.53$ df = 1 Significance = 0.0020

Table A-3.--Relationship between household heads' awareness and the number of people in their household.

Awareness	Number of People						Total
	1-2		3-5		More Than 5		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Aware	25	67.6	57	81.4	131	94.9	213
Not aware	12	32.4	13	18.6	7	5.1	32
Total	37	100.0	70	100.0	138	100.0	245

$x^2 = 21.85$ df = 2   Significance = 0.0000

Table A-4.--Relationship between household heads' awareness and the number of their children.

Awareness	Number of Children								Total
	0		1-2		3-4		5 or More		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Aware	39	76.5	52	80.0	32	86.5	90	97.8	213
Not aware	12	23.5	13	20.0	5	13.5	2	2.2	32
Total	51	100.0	65	100.0	37	100.0	92	100.0	245

x^2 = 17.28   df = 3   Significance = 0.0006

Table A- 5.--Relationship between household heads' awareness and their level of education.

Awareness	Level of Education											
	Illiterate		Can Read or Write		Elementary School		High School		College or More		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
Aware	46	75.4	62	87.3	38	85.4	50	96.2	17	100.0	213	
Not aware	15	24.6	9	12.7	6	14.6	2	3.8	0	0.0	32	
Total	61	100.0	71	100.0	44	100.0	52	100.0	17	100.0	245	

x^2 = 13.60   df = 4   Significance = 0.0087

Table A-6.--Relationship between household heads' awareness and the length of their residence.

Awareness	Length of Residence										
	Less Than One Year		1-4 Years		5-9 Years		10-20 Years		More Than 20 Years		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Aware	7	70.0	19	65.5	33	80.5	54	91.5	100	94.3	213
Not aware	3	30.0	10	34.5	8	19.5	5	8.5	6	5.7	32
Total	10	100.0	29	100.0	41	100.0	59	100.0	106	100.0	245

x^2 = 21.95   df = 4   Significance = 0.0002

Table A-7.--Relationship between household heads' awareness and the distance from their residence to the center.

Awareness	Distance							
	Short 0-6 Miles		Medium 7-20 Miles		Long Over 20 Miles		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
Aware	154	85.0	41	91.0	18	94.7	213	
Not aware	27	15.0	4	9.0	1	5.3	32	
Total	181	100.0	45	100.0	19	100.0	245	

$X^2 = 2.2870$ df = 2   Significance = 0.3

Table A-8.--Distribution of the sample according to the type of participation and their age range.

Type of Participation[a]	Age Range In Years								Total
	20-29		30-39		40-49		50 and Over		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Financial contribution	12	42.9	7	41.2	7	41.2	8	44.4	34
Center's activities	21	75.6	14	82.4	12	70.5	13	72.2	60
Attending meetings	14	50.0	7	41.1	6	47.0	5	27.8	32
Total	28		17		17		18		80

[a]In most cases, villagers indicated more than one answer.

Table A-9.--Distribution of the sample according to the type of participation and their marital status.

Type of Participation[a]	Marital Status					
	Single		Married		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Financial contribution	2	33.3	32	43.2	34
Center's activities	4	66.6	56	75.6	60
Attending meetings	3	50.0	29	39.1	32
Total	6		74		80

[a]In most cases, villagers indicated more than one answer.

Table A-10.--Distribution of the sample according to the type of participation and the number of people in their household.

Type of Participation[a]	Number of People						Total
	1-2		3-5		More Than 5		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Financial contribution	2	40.0	9	45.0	23	41.8	34
Center's activities	4	80.0	16	85.0	40	72.7	60
Attending meetings	0	0.0	9	45.0	23	41.8	32
Total	5		20		55		80

[a]In most cases, villagers indicated more than one type of participation.

Table A-11.--Distribution of the sample according to the type of participation and the number of their children.

Type of Participation[a]	Number of Children								Total
	0		1-2		3-4		5 or More		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Financial contribution	4	40.0	10	47.6	5	41.6	15	40.5	34
Center's activities	7	70.0	17	80.9	8	66.6	26	70.2	60
Attending meetings	3	30.0	10	47.6	6	50.0	13	35.1	32
Total	10		21		12		37		80

[a] In most cases, the villagers indicated more than one answer.

Table A-12.--Distribution of the sample according to the type of participation and their level of education.

Type of Participation[a]	Level of Education										
	Illiterate		Can Read or Write		Elementary School		High School		College or More		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Financial contribution	3	37.5	5	31.2	7	53.8	12	41.3	7	50.0	34
Center's activities	5	62.5	10	62.5	9	69.2	24	82.7	12	85.7	60
Attending meetings	1	12.5	3	18.7	4	30.7	13	44.8	11	78.5	32
Total	8		16		13		29		14		80

[a]In most cases, villagers indicated more than one answer.

Table A-13.--Distribution of the sample according to the type of participation and the length of their residence.

Type of Participation[a]	Length of Residence										Total
	Less Than One Year		1-4 Years		5-9 Years		10-20 Years		More Than 20 Years		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Financial contribution	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	50.0	8	29.6	24	54.6	34
Center's activities	0	0.0	2	50.0	2	50.0	19	70.3	37	84.0	60
Attending meetings	1	100.0	2	50.0	2	50.0	13	48.1	14	31.8	32
Total	1		4		4		27		44		80

[a] In most cases, villagers indicated more than one answer.

Table A-14.--Distribution of the sample according to the type of participation and the distance from their residence to the center.

Type of Participation[a]	Distance						Total
	Short 0-6 Miles		Medium 7-20 Miles		Long Over 20 Miles		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Financial contribution	22	39.9	6	33.3	6	85.7	34
Center's activities	39	70.9	15	83.3	6	85.7	60
Attending meetings	28	50.9	3	16.6	1	14.2	32
Total	55		18		7		80

[a]In most cases, the villagers indicated more than one answer.

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