THE DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AS A
FIELD OF STUDY IN THE KINGDOM
OF SAUDI ARABIA

DISSERTATION

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By

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The purpose of this study was to investigate the evolution and development of the field of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Factors which brought about programs of public administration and which have been influential in the development of these programs were analyzed.

Although the historical roots of Saudi public administration are traced to the recapture of Riyadh by the late King Abdulaziz Al-Saud in 1902, modern public administration in the Kingdom actually began in 1953 with a royal decree which established the Council of Ministers. Factors that led to the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration and the birth of public administration programs at major Saudi universities include the country's rapid socioeconomic growth, rapid administrative expansion, and policies of administrative reform, higher education development, and the ambitious Five-Year Plans.

Despite the fact that attention to the field of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia dates back to
the establishment of the College of Commerce at King Saud University in 1959, the real start of teaching public administration in Saudi universities is considered recent. The field of public administration is paralleled with the establishment of the Departments of Public Administration in King Abdulaziz University in 1971, followed by similar steps at King Saud University in 1978.

This study revealed that the Saudi Institute of Public Administration and institutions of higher education offering programs of public administration have played a highly influential role in the development of public administration in the Kingdom. However, current research in the field and practice of public administration at the university level is narrowly focused on faculty promotion. The research conducted for this study did not clarify the degree to which efforts are being made to bring theory closer to actual practice. However, a greater need for coordination between university-based public administration programs and governmental agencies seems strongly indicated.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>List of Tables</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. <strong>INTRODUCTION</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Context of the Problem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purposes of the Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance of the Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <strong>THEORETICAL BACKGROUND: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE</strong></td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Meaning and Significance of Public Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Countries’ Need for Public Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and the Study of Public Administration in Developing Countries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Islamic Public Administration Model</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of Chapter Two</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES</strong></td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical Research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descriptive Methodology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analytical Methodology for Research Questions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Collection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization of the Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <strong>FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN SAUDI ARABIA: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND</strong></td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stages of Growth in Public Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Development of Public Administration, Phase 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Development of Public Administration, Phase 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Development of Public Administration, Phase 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of Chapter Four</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AS A FIELD OF STUDY</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Development of Higher Education and the Educational System in Saudi Arabia: Historical Background</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Policy for Higher Education and Teaching Public Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Emergence of Public Administration as an Academic Major at Saudi Universities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Role of Institutions of Public Administration in the Development of Public Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Adaptation of Western Administration to the Local Administrative Environment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness of Programs of Public Administration at Saudi Universities in Preparing and Providing Future Bureaucrats</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of Chapter Five</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. THE PROGRAMS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AT SAUDI UNIVERSITIES: SURVEY RESULTS</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of Public Administration in Saudi Arabia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of Chapter Six</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX</td>
<td>287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCE LIST</td>
<td>315</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Total Saudi Government Employees 1945-1985</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The Growing Number of Government Employees from 1976-77 to 1985-86</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Growth in Saudi Budget for General and Higher Education</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Growth in Total Education in Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Growth in Higher Education in Saudi Arabia (Total Students and Teaching Staff)</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Saudi Students Studying Abroad</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Types of Degrees Awarded to Saudi Students Abroad: 1970-1980</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Growth in Saudi Higher Education Enrollment and Teaching Staff</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Major Saudi Universities</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Factors Contributing to Development of the Field of Public Administration</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Role of Saudi Government Policy on Teaching Public Administration in</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Institutions of Higher Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Role of Various Entities in Establishing Saudi University Programs in</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Role of University Officials in Establishing Saudi University Programs in</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Role of Civil Service Bureau in Establishing Saudi University Programs in</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public Administrations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Role of Ministry of Planning in Establishing Saudi University Programs in</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Role of Ministry of Higher Education in Establishing Saudi University Programs in Public Administration</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Role of Other Government Agencies in Establishing Saudi University Programs</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in Public Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Role of Other Entities in Establishing Programs in Public Administration</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Most Important Contributions of Institutes, Colleges, &amp; Universities in</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Developing Field of Public Administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Page</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Reasons for Civil Service Bureau’s Recent Job Classification System</td>
<td>223</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Impact of Public Administration Taught in Universities on Productivity of Public Bureaucracy</td>
<td>224</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Role of Universities and IPA in Developing Public Administration &amp; Improving Public Service</td>
<td>225</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Extent of Improvement in Civil Service Due to Study of Public Administration and Training by IPA</td>
<td>226</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Impact of Public Administration Programs on Development of Public Bureaucracy</td>
<td>227</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Impact of Public Administration Programs on Development of Civil Service Systems</td>
<td>228</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Influence of Foreign Administrative Systems on Saudi Public Administration</td>
<td>230</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Foreign Administrative Systems Influencing Saudi Public Administration</td>
<td>231</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Adaptation of Discipline of Public Administration by Saudi Institutions of Higher Education &amp; Training</td>
<td>232</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Extent of Influence of Western Ideas on Teaching of Public Administration</td>
<td>234</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Evaluation of the Quality of the Field of Public Administration with Respondent’s Department</td>
<td>235</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Meeting of Government Needs for Staff in Public Administration by Saudi Universities</td>
<td>236</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Extent that Institutions of Public Administration Provide Public Sector with Personnel Needs</td>
<td>237</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table</td>
<td>Page</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Improvement of Public Service Through Specialization/Training in Public Administration</td>
<td>238</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Areas of Improvement in Civil Service Resulting from Entry of Public Administration Graduates &amp; Ipa Training</td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Preparation of Public Administration Graduates to Carry Out Public Administration</td>
<td>241</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Performance &amp; Productivity of Administrative Personnel According to Educational Background</td>
<td>243</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Adequacy of Public Administration Graduates' Knowledge for Assuming Administrative Positions</td>
<td>244</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Suitability of Public Administration Graduates' Information/Experience for Local Work Environment</td>
<td>246</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Cooperation and Coordination Between Saudi Universities &amp; Public Agencies</td>
<td>249</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. Extent of Respondent's Connection/Contact with Bureaucrats in Government Agencies</td>
<td>249</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Most Preferable Academic Majors for Administrative Positions</td>
<td>250</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. Affect of Public Needs on Academic Curriculum of Public Administration</td>
<td>251</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51. Application of Research in Respondent’s Department to Improvement of Field &amp; Practice of Public Administration</td>
<td>252</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52. Efforts to Bring Theory Closer to Actual Practice</td>
<td>253</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

"Administration," Dwight Waldo (1955) observes, "has been studied since the dawn of history, but seldom with much self-consciousness, and never before with the scope and intensity of today" (p. 15). Indeed, as a field of study in the modern sense, public administration is relatively new. Waldo corroborates this, observing that "the rise of public administration as a self-conscious study" was a response to government expansion and

an attempt to make government work under the new and more demanding conditions, by increasing the amount of systematic study of the problems of government and the competence and training of those entering government service. (p. 19)

Waldo also maintains that public administration "as a literature and a body of concepts also came to contain a new theory or philosophy of government" (p. 19). This new governmental philosophy was aimed at making government stronger, more efficient, more responsible, and more responsive to the people governed; thus, the movement focused both on political and administrative reforms. The development of the study of public administration was
stimulated both by the growth of the study of political science and by the growth of higher education (pp. 19-20).

Concurring with this overall assessment, B. B. Schaffer (1969) dates the beginning of the study of public administration to the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Particular stimulus was provided by "Woodrow Wilson's definition of public administration as a practical science," from his "particular agenda for research and teaching," and from his "recommendations that one should go on from reform to reorganization" (p. 180). J. C. Buechner (1968) points out that as "one of the foremost pioneers in public administration," Woodrow Wilson endeavored to show similarities between public administration and private business management (p. 6).

Many feel that Woodrow Wilson paved the way for public administration as an area of specialization. It was during this early period, according to N. L. Henry (1986), that "public administration received its first serious attention from scholars," mainly as a result of "the public-service movement that was taking place in American universities in the early part of this century" (p. 21). Ira Sharkansky (1982) has observed that

for academic specialists in political science and public administration, the study of public administration provides an opportunity to integrate their interests in government and politics with the study of how public policy is formulated and public services delivered. As social scientists interested in the specific realm
of public administration, we must take into account not only administrative departments, but also the most salient influences on them. (p. 11)

In a newly created society such as Saudi Arabia, the study of public administration is especially critical. As Henry S. Kariel (1969) observes,

If we desire societies to be well administered; if, furthermore, we realize it is merely question-begging to urge greater administrative efficiency; and if, finally, we know we cannot reasonably speak of administrative reforms without defining the goals we wish to realize, we cannot evade the attempt to define the ideals to be sustained by the machinery of the state. (p. 150)

The development of public administration as a field of study in Saudi Arabia has unveiled a number of unique situations and challenges. The need for effective research and education in public administration has emerged as an essential means for producing qualified bureaucrats who can carry out Saudi Arabian governmental responsibilities with competence and reliability.

The present study was undertaken with the expectation that the experiences of Saudi decision makers, administrators, and educators might benefit others under similar circumstances. It was also anticipated that an analysis of the process by which the study of public administration has evolved in Saudi Arabia may be of value to others facing similar problems.
Context of the Problem

As the International Group for Studies in National Planning (1966) points out, the responsibilities of guiding national development in virtually all modern countries have produced an unprecedented challenge to the capacities of key personnel involved in planning, activating and evaluating programs of national economic change. This challenge has created a need everywhere for the development of greater capacities on the part of both present personnel and the younger people who will replace them. (p. 135)

W. Jimenez-Castro (1966) similarly asserts that "to achieve the aims of development planning, qualified human resources—which, in the emerging countries, are just as scarce as material resources—have to be utilized in the most suitable and rational manner" (p. 43). Jimenez-Castro concludes that:

Thus, greater benefit must be derived from the skills, knowledge, and experience of the public service personnel of the less developed countries and, through an efficient vocational and in-service training programme, the public service should have professional and technical personnel qualified in public administration. (p. 43)

Like most developing countries, Saudi Arabia has faced significant challenges. G. F. Gant (1966) observes that countries seeking social and economic development are often "frustrated by a lag between plan and accomplishment" (p. 53), of which a prominent cause is the inadequacy of public administration. In the case of Saudi Arabia, the processes of development have been complicated by rapid growth, the
availability of capital, and the lack of a pre-existing, inherited colonial administrative structure.

As Richard Chapman (1974) points out, approximately 15 years ago Saudi Arabia's administrative machinery was relatively new, having been created from scratch within the past two decades (p. 345). Unlike many other developing countries, Saudi Arabia was never colonized; thus, there was no legacy of administrative structure to inherit, reform, and customize.

Despite such limitations in human resources, however, the Saudi bureaucracy is "charged with enormous responsibilities" (Othman, 1979, p. 234). Moreover, according to A. N. Abussuud (1979),

the Saudi administration has grown not only in size but its parts have assumed different definite structures and functions. Historically speaking, the Saudi administrative machinery has grown from a simple structure represented by a small number of government agencies that deal with many functions at a time to a more complex structure with specific functions . . . . In fact, the number of ministries and other government agencies has increased astronomically. (p. 2)

Abussuud points out that this substantial growth in Saudi bureaucracy is a response to internal factors such as population growth, rising expectations, and efforts toward industrialization, as well as external factors such as the world petroleum and energy situation. This growth has especially impacted the kingdom's administrative apparatus, as reflected in an increase in the standard skills of public
employees and greater interest in the training and education of good administrators (pp. 2-4).

Observing that in all modern countries national governments have assumed "an important degree of responsibility for the guidance of significant economic change," G. Nannetti (1966) emphasizes that national development requires "a solid educational substructure." National development responsibilities necessitate "the formation of highly capable administrative cadres who must have, in addition to specialized technical university education, the ability to plan, program, execute, and evaluate the administrative action" (p. 129).

The challenges of Saudi Arabia's self-reliance and national development resulted in an early interest by Saudi authorities in developing an educational commitment to the field of public administration. This commitment began in the late 1950s with the establishment of public administration programs at the higher education level and with other events, such as the formation of the Saudi Institute of Public Administration.

This study presents an analysis of factors which led to the creation of programs for the study of public administration in Saudi Arabia and factors which have influenced the development of these programs. The study also highlights efforts by Saudi universities to adapt the program of public administration to the Saudi environment in
order to prepare qualified administrators who are capable of managing and operating government services. The government’s policy and support for establishing essential programs to accelerate the progress of development is also discussed.

Statement of the Problem

The problem addressed in this study is the development of public administration as a field of study in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Purposes of the Study

This research investigates the evolution and development of the discipline of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, which is intended to provide government with qualified bureaucrats who are able to help the country achieve progress and development—socially, economically, and, most importantly, administratively.

The aims of this study are (a) to discover and analyze the factors which brought about the creation of programs for the study of public administration in Saudi Arabia and factors which have been influential in the development of these programs, (b) to determine how the field of public administration is studied, researched, and taught in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, (c) to examine how Saudi universities adapted Western concepts and ideas to fit the Saudi environment, (d) to investigate and describe the role
of government policies toward teaching public administration, (e) to determine, describe, and analyze the contact and coordination between institutions of public administration, the civil service bureau, and other government agencies, and (f) to report and analyze the perceptions of the practitioners and faculty about the adequacy of public administration programs.

Research Questions

Based on the purposes of the study, the following specific questions were investigated:

1. What factors have led to the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration and the birth of public administration programs at major Saudi universities?

2. How have Saudi Arabian institutions of higher education and training in public administration adapted the discipline of public administration?

3. What has been the role of Saudi government policy with respect to the teaching of public administration in Saudi institutions of higher education?

4. What has been the role of public administration programs in various institutes, colleges, and universities in developing the area of public administration?

5. How do Saudi institutions for study and training in public administration provide the Saudi government with needed civil servants and administrators?
6. How adequate is the preparation of graduates of Saudi institutions for study and training in public administration?

7. How adequate are the contacts and coordination between the teaching and practice of public administration in Saudi Arabia?

Significance of the Study

The historical roots of the development of public administration can be traced back to the early stages of the unification of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia under the leadership of the late founding father, King Abdulaziz ibn Saud. Since that time, public administration has become a major concern of Saudi officials. This concern is based on the belief that there is an urgent need for establishing an administrative system which will be the arm of the newly established state in pursuing its functions and achieving the objectives of its development plans.

A review of related literature revealed no previously conducted research on this topic. Therefore, research is considered important in order to determine how the field of public administration is studied, researched, and taught in a developing country such as Saudi Arabia with a variety of unique conditions and problems.

The Saudi experience is especially significant because of some of the unique challenges that that country has
faced. These include the challenge to quickly and efficiently develop an effective administrative bureaucracy without the benefit of a pre-existing colonial administrative infrastructure, and the task of implementing an efficient, competent administrative system capable of responding effectively to rapid national growth. The experiences of Saudi decision makers, administrators, and educators in this area will, hopefully, be valuable to those in the field of public administration in Saudi Arabia and elsewhere. It is also hoped that analysis of the process by which the field of study of public administration has been established and developed in Saudi Arabia will provide a useful contribution to the field of public administration in general.
CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The review of the literature for this study is classified into several categories: (a) the meaning and significance of public administration; (b) developing countries need for public administration; (c) education and the study of public administration in developing countries; and (d) the Islamic public administration. Important studies related to each of these areas are described in this chapter.

Topics related to public administration have been studied by various scholars, analysts, officials, government agencies, and other authorities. A review of many of these materials is important to this study.

The Meaning and Significance of Public Administration

Because this study focuses on the development of public administration as a field of study, it is suitable to examine how various scholars have attempted to clarify the meaning of public administration. In an attempt to illuminate what is meant by administration in terms of "cooperative human action with a high degree of rationality," Dwight Waldo (1955) elaborates:
The distinguishing characteristics of an administrative system, seen in the customary perspective of administrative students, are best subsumed under two concepts, organization and management, thought of as analogous to anatomy and physiology in a biological system. Organization is the structure of authoritative and habitual personal interrelations in an administrative system. Management is action intended to achieve rational cooperation in an administrative system. (p. 12)

While emphasizing that "at the present stage of man's evolution, public administration is indispensable," G. E. Caiden (1971) notes that "no one has yet produced a simple definition of public administration that is fully acceptable to both practitioners and scholars" (p. 3). Acknowledging the difficulty of rendering such a comprehensive definition, Waldo (1955) observes that typical definitions of public administration include the following: "the organization and management of men and materials to achieve the purposes of government . . . the art and science of management as applied to affairs of state" (p. 2). Waldo uses the term "public administration" to delineate both "(a) an area of intellectual inquiry, a discipline or study, and (b) a process or activity--that of administering public affairs" (p. 3). Waldo further notes that

The central idea of public administration is rational action, defined as action correctly calculated to realize given desired goals. Public administration both as a study and as an activity is intended to maximize the realization of goals; and often the two blend into each other, since in the last analysis study is also a form of action. (p. 11)
Public administration has been defined from different aspects, but these definitions seem to converge in a conception of it as some kind of active implementation of politics. Corson and Harris (1963) define public administration as "the action part of government, the means by which the purposes and goals of government are realized" (p. 12). Pfiffner and Presthus (1967) see public administration as "a field mainly concerned with implementing political values" (p. 6). And to Dimock and Dimock (1969), "Public administration is the accomplishment of politically determined objectives" (p. 3).

In addressing reasons for the historical emergence of public administration systems, Al-Yassini (1985) has observed that "the presence of differentiated and complex administrative structures enhances the capability of the political system to manipulate its environment." Thus, "as the political system confronts a wide range of areas that require state intervention, the pressures to develop complex administrative institutions become tremendous" (p. 63).

Vincent Ostrom (1982) emphasizes the need to understand key aspects of public administration as a field of study:

If the practice of public administration is based upon a knowledge of the organizational terms and conditions which are necessary to advance human welfare, then those of us who teach public administration should be able to indicate what those terms and conditions are. (p. 2).
J. C. Buechner (1968) observes that "ever since man formed governments to develop public policies, he also cared about how these policies were administered" (p. 1).

M. E. Dimock and G. O. Dimock (1969) refer to important differences between public administration and most other fields of knowledge as the "diversity of its programs and the skills required," the "bewildering array" of levels and forms of government which adds to its complexity, and the fact that "all government programs must be organized, staffed, financed, managed, and coordinated, which requires coherence and planning, sometimes on an enormous scale" (p. 5).

Vincent Ostrom (1982) points out the central status of bureaucracy in the framework of public administration: "Students and practitioners of public administration have relied predominantly upon a theory of bureaucracy as the basis for conceptualizing relationships within and among public agencies" (p. 46).

Noting that laymen tend to equate "bureaucracy" with administration, J. C. Buechner (1968) observes that "there are many definitions of the word bureaucracy, some more useful than others for the study of public administration" and that "a literal interpretation of bureaucracy is government by bureaus or 'desk government’" (p. 43).

Fred W. Riggs (1969) defines "bureaucracy" as "all offices formally subordinated to an executive who exercises
authority over a polity." His definition of bureaucracy includes "all the officials, military and civil, of a state, of a politically organized society" (p. 221).

Acknowledging bureaucracy as "a central institution in modern societies," M. W. Meyer et al. (1985) contend that in the public sector the term "bureaucracy" refers to virtually all agencies "with administrative functions." Meyer et al. further observe that

Sociologists, following Max Weber, have used "bureaucracy" to connote rational, efficient organization; political scientists identify "bureaucracy" with administration of the state; economists use "bureaucracy" to describe non-market organizations whose efficiency properties may be substantially inferior to profit-seeking firms. (p. 1)

B. B. Schaffer (1969) attempts to define the relationship of public administration and bureaucracy more precisely. Schaffer points out that "Administration is a set of political relationships and bureaucracy is a particular set of solutions for its expected problems, a distinctive style in which the relationships can be conducted" (pp. 188-189). The bureaucratic model, Schaffer emphasizes, "is not really an efficiency or 'output' model. The emphasis is on repetition and reiteration rather than on innovation" (p. 190). Furthermore, a major characteristic of bureaucracy is that it is "adaptive rather than innovative," and bureaucratic style "attempts to emphasize
incremental rather than other sorts of change" (pp. 191-192).

W. F. Ilchman (1969) describes the emergence of a "rational-productivity bureaucracy." This new bureaucratic phenomenon represents a "new general administrative and program technology and poses political problems for 'developed' and 'developing' states alike" (p. 474). This rational-productivity bureaucracy "can be associated with specific episodes and major on-going developments" (p. 474).

Developing Countries' Need for Public Administration

Public administration is especially important in countries, such as Saudi Arabia, which are accelerating their development. Shakawy (1983) points out that

The accelerated development in Saudi Arabia as a result of the vast resources from oil has led to expansion of social and economic activities at all levels. It has also allowed the increasing demand of the country for sophisticated technology. As a result, manpower needs have become one of the major questions facing the country. (p. 3)

Talal K. Hafiz (1982) has similarly observed that

Developing countries particularly confront the difficult problem of adapting human and natural resources to parallel the requirements of contemporary development plans. Because of the lack of qualified human resources, managing the process of modernization and technology transfer becomes a highly complex problem that entails not just the desired goal but all intermediate steps needed to reach that goal. (p. 81)

Gerard Timsit (1982) likewise calls attention to the necessity for adequate public administration in developing
countries. Contending that "the crisis of distribution of resources arose as much from the insufficiency of administrative facilities as from the enormous and widespread expectations entertained vis-a-vis the State," Timsit observes that it is necessary "to install administrative machinery which can distribute the developing countries' resources in the manner which the present situation demands" (p. 50). Similarly, David E. Bell (1964) emphasizes that "the improvement of public administration is a critical need in underdeveloped countries." A major effort toward helping developing countries meet this need, Bell asserts, is "not by teaching them solutions to their problems, but by helping them to establish a problem solving capability" (p. 14).

As Ferrel Heady (1974) points out, implementing systems of public administration began with efforts by major developed powers such as Britain, France, and the United States to establish administrative processes aimed at assisting the modernization of developing nations. Major objectives included nation-building and socioeconomic advancement (p. 244).

A. S. Saaty (1985) observes that "these goals continue to form the basis of the ideology of development for many of these nations" even though these countries have shaken off colonial domination and achieved independence and self-reliance (p. 5). It should be noted that Saaty is referring
to countries which have experienced colonialism, which excludes Saudi Arabia because it has never been colonized. However, Saudi Arabia is similar to these nations because it is a newly established state. It too is exerting its utmost efforts to build a strong country which can be self-reliant and self-dependent. Thus, the Saudi government is working diligently toward building a powerful state in the Arab world and to gain worldwide prestige for the Kingdom in international society—moves which can enhance its position as a recognized power and important actor in international affairs.

S. N. Eisenstadt (1967) points out that administrative bureaucracies in developing nations have tended both to adapt preexisting administrative structures and to create wholly new administrative structures:

In all developing countries, bureaucracies very rapidly tend to develop and extend their scope. As some of the older states (e.g. Latin America or the Middle East) surged toward modernization and expanded the range of state activities, they took over many organs of public administration, the scope of their activities greatly expanded, and new organs were created. (p. 220)

Chi-Yuen Wu (1977) emphasizes the need for effective planning in developing countries in order to achieve national goals, and the key role of sound public administration to implementing such planning. "There is a close interrelation and interdependence between planning and administration. From the standpoint of development
administration, the most important type of plan is a national economic development plan" (p. 36). Considered on a more advanced and sophisticated level, a national development plan is "a rationality model for achieving the optimum in an economy and is a fully coordinated, integrated, balanced and internally consistent programme" (pp. 36-37).

One of Wu's major concerns is identifying the weaknesses of planning and development in developing countries and finding ways to improve both planning and public administration. A typical defect in planning is "a tendency to overlook the administrative element" (p. 37).

Consequently, he concludes that many development plans make no or inadequate provision for administrative development. They outline economic and social targets but do not contain any guidance on problems concerning the administrative machinery necessary to carry them out. (p. 37)

This imbalance, which Wu calls an "administrative gap" or "implementation gap," is "one of the most serious obstacles to national development" (p. 37).

Contemporary thought has been focused on the specific public administration requirements of developing countries and the necessity to find appropriate solutions tailored to their needs. Chi-Yuen Wu (1972), for example, predicted in the early 1970s that public administration would continue to grow in size and importance. In the developing countries, the government plays a
leading role in the whole area of economic and social development. Qualified manpower, another decisive factor in economic and social development, is educated or trained mainly in the public sector. (p. 206)

Further predicting that "government activities will increase in complexity," Wu observes that these activities "are becoming much more specialized, requiring highly technical personnel to handle them" (p. 207).

Another important aspect of public administration in the 1970s identified by Wu (1972) was "the increasing importance of the management role and the rational and quantitative (economics-based) approach" (p. 210). As a result,

the need of public administration in the 1970s calls for a managerial orientation. The public administrators will be increasingly expected to bring the benefit of modern science and technology to bear on the management of public affairs and to develop new managerial concepts and systems. (pp. 210-211)

Furthermore, these public administrators "must be familiar with the potentialities and also the limitations of management technology, including the more modern and more sophisticated techniques." Truly competent administrators "must be capable of applying as appropriate such technology in the administrative tasks" (p. 211). Wu believes that in many of the developing countries the "low level of administrative capability" has given rise to a "disequilibrium system in planned development" whereby "the
administrative load continuously outpaces administrative and management capability" (p. 211).

The fast pace of growth in many nations of the developing world has also led to mounting pressures in terms of public administration requirements, as Cao Tri Huynh (1982) points out:

In many developing countries, the public administration system has been expanded very rapidly, and has often been heavily influenced by foreign administrative systems which have either been carried over from the colonial period or which have been transferred by co-operation systems. The transfer of administrative techniques is far from being a universal cure: the contrary is often true. It often provokes structural distortions, inappropriate socio-political mutations and excessive bureaucratic surveillance, thus increasing social inequality and further widening the gap that already exists between a society and its administration. (p. 3)

The rapid pace of growth of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia--driven by economic growth and the Five Year Development Plans thus, makes Saudi Arabia similar to other developing nations because rapid growth has accelerated the development of national public administration intensified the demand for manpower. In short, the theme repeatedly expressed in the literature reviewed in this study is the strong need in developing countries for improved public administration. In addition to the critical need in underdeveloped nations for more effective planning to achieve national goals, there is also a major need for sound public administration to implement such planning.
Developing countries such as Saudi Arabia face the difficult problem of adapting human and natural resources to meet the pressures and needs of contemporary development plans.

Thus a number of authors stress that the rapid pace of growth in many developing countries has also led to mounting public administration needs, and has highlighted shortcomings in administrative expertise—especially managerial and administrative deficiencies at a variety of administrative levels. Such deficiencies in qualified managerial and administrative manpower are serious in the face of the pressures of growth and modernization development in these nations.

In the light of these conditions which were outlined by the scholars of public administration, there was an urgent need for establishing the programs of public administration at the domestic level in the developing countries to satisfy that need. The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was among the countries to realize that fact and begin the process of founding the programs of public administration at Saudi universities.

Education and the Study of Public Administration in Developing Countries

The importance of education in public administration—especially in developing nations such as Saudi Arabia—is widely recognized by scholars. Dimock and
Dimock (1969) point out an essential and integral connection between the study and implementation of public administration in every context. They observe that "public administration must be sufficiently practical to accomplish the many complex responsibilities of governments, and it must also develop a body of theory as a guide to the most effective accomplishment possible" (p. 5).

As M. A. Rasheed (1984) points out, it is well known that "education, with its different institutions, plays a positive role in the development and progress of a society" (p. 170). Noting that "proper scientific planning is the most important and effective means of defining and meeting the needs of a developing society," Rasheed contends that "development cannot be achieved without controlling the elements of change." These elements of change, he insists, "must be guided and follow studied plans. Planning based on facts and future horizons undoubtedly results in creating a new man who is conscious of his society's problems and possibilities and is capable of participating in the country's growth" (p. 171).

Panandikar (1973) contends that to establish a program in public administration there are certain "organically linked" issues which should be considered:

(a) the creation of an adequate body of knowledge and theoretical framework of public administration;
(b) the development of appropriate level of research and teaching competence; and
(c) the development of research methodology and tools appropriate for the purpose. (p. 22)

Panandikar emphasizes that in the process of academic development, "action must be deliberate and simultaneous in each of these areas" (p. 22). The importance of education to the Arab Gulf states, which include Saudi Arabia, is specifically emphasized by Nader Fergany (1984), who stresses that "human resources development . . . is the major determinant of the future of the Arab Gulf states" (p. 170).

According to Al-Buraey (1985) "one of the most serious problems hindering the process of development in the developing world is the lack of efficacious administrative institutions and competent personnel to run them" (p. 225). Al-Buraey further cautions that "even with abundant monetary and economic resources, as is the case with some developing nations, these countries are in desperate need of highly qualified administrators and managers to organize such resources" (p. 225).

O. B. Conaway, Jr. (1965) focuses on the special need in developing countries for effective study and education in the area of public administration. The need "for stronger public services is so great and their educational resources are so limited that they cannot tolerate an informal and diffused system of educational preparation for their public services." In other words, these countries "cannot rely on
the possible initiative of individuals and institutions." Instead, they are in need of "a definite plan for such professional training--a plan actually adapted to their institutions both of education and of government" (p. 151).

Similarly, R. W. Crawley (1965) recognizes the critical role of a proper program of study and training in public administration when he observes that

In any society, the importance of public administration in the modernization process cannot be overemphasized, for without an efficient, honest bureaucracy, advancement is almost certain to be thwarted. In advancement the investment in trained minds for the public service is even more important than railways or transmission lines. (p. 162)

Shortage of administrative expertise is suggested by Jack Koteen (1972) when he observes that managerial deficiencies exist "at all levels of developing economies in both the public and private sectors." Koteen goes on to warn that "The prevalence of the managerial and administrative problem is sufficiently limiting to national development to warrant high priority attention" (p. 47). Indeed, the shortage of "qualified managerial manpower" capable of coping with the demands of growth and modernization is uppermost among the problems of development administration. Therefore, less developed countries must substantially expand their capacity "to produce middle managers in quantity" (pp. 48-49).
Koteen recognizes that shortcomings exist in the education of public administrators. For example, in developing countries managerial training has typically emphasized the training of officials "in the area of established laws and authorities, rules and regulations, and administrative procedure and technique, accompanied by the 'principles' of efficiency and economy." However, a new trend has emerged: "For several decades, scholars and practitioners of administration have been turning away from the traditional forms of management education and training. They have emphasized a greater concern for program performance, in the context of policy and purpose" (p. 49).

Koteen also emphasizes that a balance must be achieved among the various elements of management development, because "an effective institution depends not only on preentry training for junior executives, but upon a well-trained middle management group and qualified top executives" (p. 51).

Koteen perceives adequate study and education in public administration to be an urgent need in developing countries, because ministries or firms cannot wait the ten to twenty years for the younger people to move to the middle or upper reaches of the structure. More seriously, most of the current crop of senior executives in the developing world have had primarily professional and technical training, but little or no exposure to the concepts and practice of management, and in consequence cannot provide the understanding or leadership necessary for managerial and institutional innovation and reform. (p. 51)
Although administrators in ministries and enterprises in developing countries have received "some exposure to management," little opportunity exists for "their continuous development as managerial responsibilities increase or the nature of managerial thought and practice changes" (Koteen, 1972, pp. 51-52).

Further indicating that the need for study and training in public administration in developing countries has been widely recognized, Yves Chapel (1977) relates this need to the public works sector, which

demands knowledge and competence at the various levels of the organization's hierarchy, and throughout the fields of application that comprise the public works sector of administration. Capability development is indispensable for the professional/technical specialist, the program manager and the administrative generalist, as well as for the personnel in the lower echelons of the organization. Yet in the developing country, the top priority in administrative development comprises the first three categories. These are the organization members with the supervisory and administrative responsibilities. (p. 210)

The need for effective education in public administration is also affirmed by Donald C. Stone (1977), who insists that new administrators in developing countries "should be knowledgeable in social, economic and technological interfaces." Such administrators need "more sophistication to enable them to work in a complex political environment while serving the total public interest" (p. 211). He also observes that "an alert person gains managerial competence on the job." Such an individual "also
learns about political, social, financial and administrative matters through reading, professional meetings, visits to other jurisdictions and in-service training opportunities. A few have the benefit of graduate work in public affairs/administration in addition to an engineering degree" (p. 211).

However, Stone maintains that such a "makeshift method" of education is no longer acceptable and that the number of engineers having access to "an adequate policy/mangement/people-oriented education" is "minuscule in relation to the thousands in administrative positions." To fill such a gap, Stone envisions a "concurrence of university initiatives." A combination of "pre-service and in-service education/training thrusts" will enable public works-engineering skills to be enhanced; thus, "a larger number of persons will be equipped with policy-making, planning, managerial and administrative capabilities" (p. 211).

Koteen (1972) also raises concerns about the character of public administration and its study in developing countries. Discussing the importation of public administration practices through technical assistance programs sponsored by developed nations, Koteen observes that

the history of technical assistance in public administration is fraught with examples of the direct transfer of American or Western public administration to the developing nations with small regard to the
difference of culture, politics, economics, technology, or ethics. (pp. 50-51)

The study of public administration in developing countries should comprise certain essential topics, according to some analysts. Huynh (1982), for example, cites the possible benefits of studying pre-colonial administrative forms:

Is it not possible that such studies might make it essential to "shift the emphasis" in the analysis of administration in developing countries which, through having focused too long on "modern" forms of administration, has failed to pay attention to attitudes and structures which, even though not "modern," play a vitally important role, and to discover where they have had an impact on "modern" structures? (p. 10)

This viewpoint is somewhat corroborated by Chapel (1982), who points out that most developing countries must confront "difficult problems in adapting the structure, organization, and functioning of their own administrations to the needs and resources of the modern world."

Consequently, in such countries, "the discrepancy between what the administration should be and what it is or may be is particularly noticeable." Thus, "underdevelopment in general is matched by administrative underdevelopment, which is both one of its causes, and one of its results" (p. 22).

The need for indigenous, customized solutions to public administration needs is also affirmed by Andre Molitor (1971), who observes that problems of administration that arise in developing countries
are immense and will certainly not be solved by servile imitation of the administrative models devised over the course of time by those nations which are today economically developed. These models may provide a partial and provisional term of reference for administrative purposes. The developing States will nonetheless have to make their own synthesis in this field as in others. (pp. 16-17)

This approach is affirmed by O. B. Conaway, Jr. (1965), who argues that no developing country should attempt to "emulate the scheme of the United States" in its public administration teaching program without an assessment of its relevance to national conditions. Conaway believes that one of the lessons of the United States' technical assistance programs has been that "the system of the United States for the teaching of public administration cannot be exported successfully in the whole" (p. 151).

Such a viewpoint seems to be shared by Dwight Waldo (1981) when he observes that "We have learned that the creation of an administrative apparatus which even superficially resembles that of an archetype, say that of France, Germany, Britain, or the United States, is extremely difficult and indeed in some cases impossible" (p. 131). Such a bureaucracy, superficially attempting to resemble an archetype, Waldo asserts, will almost certainly not be authentic or suitable to the needs of the given developing country.

Schaffer (1969) points out that public administration in developing countries may need to find its own form and
character. He notes that although "there may certainly be features of Western and bureaucratic administration that development might use, there may also be others that it cannot tolerate; costs that it cannot afford" (p. 190). A somewhat similar approach is advocated by Huynh (1982), who believes that in the study and implementation of public administration in developing countries one of the greatest problems is to determine a means of "reducing the gap between the modern Western values relayed by public administration and the socio-cultural norms and values of local and national communities" (pp. 3-4).

In order for developing countries to improve their systems of administration, it is important to consider their native environments and to focus on their own culture and traditions. Asking whether it is "a necessity for the developing countries, which have lived so long on imported models, to ensure that the State is deeply rooted today in their own administrative traditions and culture," Huynh suggests that the path toward administrative renovation in developing countries "may not lie through transfers of administrative technology as hitherto practised or understood" (p. 9). Instead, Huynh proposes,

Constructive change consists today in a continuing effort to adapt to a perpetually changing environment. Two avenues seem to be worth exploring: one possibility is to work out a new way of managing the administration so as to promote the continuous process of self-adaptation and transformation necessitated by the instability
of its economic development; the other possibility—to be studied simultaneously—is to promote the "endogeneity" of the administration in order to enable it, despite the instability of its economic environment, to rediscover its socio-cultural origins and recover its stability. (p. 9) Koteen (1972) emphasizes the need for integrating training in management and public administration with education in specialized professions, stating that "In the field of management education, choices should not be limited to institutions currently involved in management education or training." The range of choice in terms of educational institutions, "should be widened to include other professional schools [health, agriculture, education, etc.] not yet engaged in management education and consideration should be given to incorporating in their curricula a modern management component" (p. 52).

Park (1979) points out that any modern study of public administration must make "extensive use of the concepts and theories of a variety of disciplines," including political science, economics, sociology, management, and organizational science, as well as "the expertise of practitioners in government." Park also delineates what he views as the major theories of public policy which should be involved in a program of study of public administration. These include the rational comprehensive model, the satisficing model, the incremental model, the systems model, the elitist model, the group model, the institutional model, and the optimal qualitative model (p. 43).
The emergence of public administration as a field of study in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia occurred in the midst of the same kind of tremendous growth of bureaucratic infrastructure which many of these scholars describe in connection with other developing countries. As with these other countries, this administrative expansion created a need for an educated and adequately trained cadre able to assist in the management of the expanding public sector. Similarly, this led to the development of public administration as a major in the academic programs of the universities, and to the creation of the Institute of Public Administration to train public employees to carry out public administrative functions efficiently. In the process, Saudi decision makers faced the problems of seeking an authentic approach to the development of indigenous programs of public administration education and training.

The Islamic Public Administration

Saudi Arabia is an Islamic state that follows the Islamic law, or the shari'ah, which is based on the Qur'an. The government constitution is the shari'ah. Al-Farsy (1986) points out that the Quran, as the state constitution of Saudi Arabia, "provides an effective flexible ground for a governmental system" (p. 96). Citing Al-Buraey's remarks, Al-Mutairi (1987) points out that "the Islamic texts outline the fundamentals and basic principles of government and of
all its organs, including the administrative branch, or what is called today, bureaucracy" (p. 61). In addition to Islam's direct influence on government education in the field of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia includes a strong component of Islamic ethics and values, which are deeply rooted in Saudi society. In order to fully understand the dynamics of public administrative development and the evolution of public administration as a field of study in Saudi Arabia, it is important to devote some consideration to Islamic public administration.

Ferrel Heady (1979) observes that all developing countries, including the Islamic nations, "are caught up in the processes of social change, not just the continuous change that any society undergoes, but change that is critical and disruptive" (p. 243). This process of change, Al-Buraey (1985) perceives, presents a major challenge to today's Muslim nations: "On the one hand, these countries want change in the context of overall development--political, socio-economic, and administrative. On the other hand, they want to maintain their Islamic identity" (pp. 225-226).

One of the aspects distinguishing public administration--and the study of public administration--in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is its Islamic context. In effect, this context constitutes a basically unique way of perceiving the world. As Al-Buraey (1985) explains, the
Islamic world-view model "should be understood as representing a completely different world view from that of the secular West" (p. 299). The Islamic world view combines elements that are "both material and spiritual, religious and secular" (p. 299). Thus, a clear comprehension of the Islamic world view is essential to an understanding of the Islamic administrative model (p. 299).

Al-Buraey emphasizes that the foundation of the Islamic model of public administration is deeply rooted both in the shari'ah (Islamic law) and in Muslim tradition: "The Islamic roots of administration generally exist in the primary and secondary sources of the shari'ah in addition to the practices of the early Muslims" (p. 232). The Islamic standards of administration "provide the contemporary Muslim countries with an indigenous mode of administrative development extracted primarily, but not exclusively, from local historical experiences" (p. 232).

Indeed, the Islamic roots of public administration can be traced through hundreds of years to the early of Islam. Al-Buraey particularly focuses on three features of early Islamic administration.

First, and most importantly, the Islamic system easily assimilated foreign institutions with its own notions of government administration. Most of the institutions of the territories that came under Arab control were kept intact, but a new and vigorous Islamic spirit was infused into them. (p. 233)
A second characteristic of early Islamic administration was "the religious and moral spirit which dominated the entire field of government and administration under the Prophet and the Four Pious Caliphs" (p. 233). Finally, a third feature, which Al-Buraey feels is in some ways related to the first characteristic, is that Islamic legal ijtihād did not deny any human experience, whether previous or yet to come, that would benefit the goals of the shari'ah and the interests of the people provided that it did not contradict the principles of the shari'ah. (pp. 233-234)

The political and administrative systems were likewise encompassing because the Qur'anic verses and the Sunnah's references are limited, broad, and flexible. Thus, an Islamist should find no embarrassment in borrowing from other systems in a global exchange of ideas and thoughts, as well as of tools and techniques. (p. 234)

In terms of moral, ethical, and practical principles, "some of the most important principles of Islamic political and administrative systems are found in the Qur'an and Sunnah." Examples of such principles include "how to carry out administration, especially the administration of justice; administrative probity, honesty, and integrity; people's authority; and the general principles of consultation (shura)" (p. 234). Al-Buraey insists that "it is the urgent duty of the Islamist to derive from these general principles a detailed body of administrative
literature that addresses the needs of the present time" (pp. 234-235).

In attempting to convey an understanding of the fundamental nature of the Islamic approach to public administration, Al-Mutairi (1987) emphasizes its strongly ethical and value-based character (pp. 60-61). For example, the Islamic attitude perceives public service as a trust and a great responsibility: "At the government level, public service is a trust in the hands of rulers and public employees who must handle it carefully and deliver it back to the public complete" (p. 62).

In the development of a truly indigenous and authentic system of public administration in Muslim nations, Al-Buraey believes an Islamic value system can and should be an intrinsic element:

there are various ways by which Islamic values can be maximized through Islamic administration. In the area of training and education, for example, Islamic principles of government, politics, economics, and administration should be taught to students alongside various other theories and concepts of management and administration. (p. 305)

Al-Buraey emphasizes that the advocacy of the Islamic public administrative model is not a call merely "to dismiss anything and everything Western." Rather, it is a proposal for studying various theories and methods of management and administration "with an Islamic perspective and a critical attitude." Al-Buraey also notes the importance of studying
Islamic theory and the practice of administration "not just because it is indigenous in nature but also because it is vital for societal identity and heritage" (pp. 305-306).

From the Islamic perspective,

Western models of administration (both of East and West) glorify materialisms as the basic value. They neglect the spiritual and psychological well-being of individuals and groups and heavily rely on the concept of the 'economic man' in motivation and incentives. (p. 306)

Elaborating on related shortcomings of Western administrative models, Al-Buraey notices in the Islamic (administrative) model,

the absence of values to be maximized such as efficiency, effectiveness, and economy. These terms have already acquired special meanings in Western scholarship that make them a priori in conflict with other Islamic values such as humanism. Thus, an extensive literature in Western scholarship focuses on the innate conflict between efficiency and humanism. From an Islamic viewpoint humanism and human dignity take precedence over efficiency and effectiveness, which are measured only on material grounds and by economic scales. Therefore, we can say that since the Islamic model is primarily a human-oriented one and thus seeks to maximize human dimensions, it is not expected to maximize—nor does it validly claim to do so—all other values such as efficiency, effectiveness, and economy. Some kind of sacrifice has to be made if humanism as a value is to prevail. (p. 333)

In contrast, Al-Buraey asserts, traits that most thoroughly distinguish the Islamic administrative model from Western models include the following:

The ideal Islamic model of administration is based on Islamic values which strike a balance between the material and the spiritual and psychological well-being and development of the individuals and
groups in society. Motivation in the Islamic model is not entirely through economic incentives and material rewards notwithstanding their importance. Equality and justice have a yardstick which is divine in nature and not left to the whims and desires of mortals. The 'guiding spirit' is Islam. Administration is not and cannot be an independent enterprise by itself. It is a part of the overall Islamic system which is non-secular in theory, practice, and orientation; thus, administration should reflect the non-secular orientation and values of the total system. (p. 307)

It is for many of these and related reasons that public administration curricula in Saudi institutions of higher education include requisite study in various aspects of Islamic thought, including Islamic public administration. This emphasis, in part, gives the study and practice of public administration in Saudi Arabia its indigenous and distinctive character, fully responsive to the cultural ecology and needs of the society.

The Islamic ideal of excellence in public administration, with its strong emphasis on the public servant's mandate to strive for quality in his sphere of public administration and to seek the best employees to accomplish his tasks, is also emphasized by Al-Mutairi (1987) when he notes that it is the duty of the person who has authority to hire personnel to fill vacant jobs, to choose the best qualified candidate. If he fails to do so, he will be considered dishonest and a betrayer of Islam and Muslims. (pp. 62-63)

It is certainly this intrinsically Islamic focus on quality of personnel which has provided much of the strongest
motivation of the Kingdom's commitment to higher education in general and especially its support of programs of study and training in public administration.

Summary of Chapter Two

From the preceding discussion of related literature, which provides various viewpoints of scholars in regard to public administration, the need for education in public administration has been indicated. Islamic public administration, which provides the model for public administration in Saudi Arabia, has also been examined, particularly in terms of its application in an Islamic perspective.

It is critical that the practice of public administration be founded upon an awareness of the organizational terms and conditions that are crucial to the advancement of human welfare, and that study in the field of public administration enable the evaluation and understanding of those terms and conditions. As a developing country, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has experienced critical public administration needs.

In Saudi Arabia, as in other developing countries, education and the study of public administration have gone hand-in-hand as interrelated and preeminent needs. Education in Saudi Arabia has held a prominent status, and the development of public administration as a field of study
is a reflection of this priority. As the preceding discussion has indicated, various factors have contributed to the strong need that has stimulated the development of public administration as a field of study in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. In the Kingdom, the evolution of programs of study in public administration has been a direct result of the continuing growth of administrative needs in public agencies.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

This study primarily utilizes qualitative methods of research and analysis. In particular, historical and descriptive methods of research and analysis are employed.

The methodology of this study has some of the characteristics of a case study—the subject of the case study being public administration as a field of study in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Yin (1984) pointed out that "case studies are the preferred strategy when 'how' or 'why' questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context" (p. 13). Consequently, methods of research and analysis appropriate to case studies are historical and descriptive.

Historical Research

In this study, historical research is focused on the evolution and development of public administration as a field of study in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. As described by Best (1977), the process of historical research "involves investigating, recording, analyzing, and interpreting the events of the past for the purpose of discovering generalizations that are helpful in understanding the past,"
understanding the present, and to a limited extent, in anticipating the future" (p. 15).

Wiersma (1986, p. 16) observes that in an educational context historical research involves the study of a past problem which requires the collection of data from the past which is the main data to be interpreted. According to Good (1963) "history differs in method from the natural sciences, since it is not a discipline of direct observation or experimentation, but utilizes reports of observations that cannot be repeated" (p. 183). The historical method involves a procedure which supplements observation, "a process by which the historian seeks to test the truthfulness of the reports of observations made by others." Like the scientist, the historical researcher must "examine data, formulate hypotheses, and test the hypotheses against the evidence until acceptable conclusions are reached."

Sources cited by Good as appropriate for historical research span a wide range, including physical remains, orally transmitted material, handwritten material, films, literary materials, and personal observations, including those of individuals interviewed by the researcher (pp. 190-191).

Wiersma (1986) further explains that historical research "concerns the critical evaluation and interpretation of a defined segment of the past" (p. 220). Dealing with the past, historical research involves a systematic search for documents and other sources containing
facts that relate to questions about past events. Since a review of related literature is necessary for any research study, Wiersma notes that "in a sense this itself is historical research" (p. 219).

According to Wiersma, there are four steps in the methodology of historical research: (a) identification of the research problem; (b) collection and evaluation of source materials; (c) synthesis of information from source materials; and (d) analysis-interpretation-formulation of conclusions (p. 221).

The historical method employed in this study is an endeavor to reconstruct significant components of the development of the field of study of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. This is implemented mainly through secondary research data, with some supplementation and analysis through primary data. Secondary data include library research and a review of relevant literature. In the process of historical research, a variety of documentary and literary materials are utilized to answer research questions.

**Descriptive Methodology**

A second methodology that was employed to some extent in this study is descriptive methodology. According to Johnson (1977), "description is often concerned with the analysis and interpretation of numerical data." He notes
that "descriptive statistics, used intelligently and computed accurately, can enable the researcher to acquire a better understanding of data" (pp. 43-44).

Because of the primarily qualitative rather than quantitative research approach of this study, the descriptive methodology was used to supplement other research methodologies rather than serve as the main research focus. Specifically, descriptive analysis assisted in the process of validating and corroborating the other methods of analysis. In particular, the descriptive methodology was useful in the analytical process of applying the triangulation procedure to data gathered.

Analytical Methodology for Research Questions

Each of the research questions specified for investigation in this study were analyzed with an appropriate methodology.

The research questions were investigated and analyzed primarily through the methodology of historical research in order to trace factors that have contributed to the evolution and development of the field of public administration, supplemented by descriptive methods and the procedures of triangulation.

To validate the results, a method of cross-validation called triangulation was useful. Basically, Wiersma (1986) explains, triangulation is a method of comparison "to
determine whether or not there is corroboration" and to assess the sufficiency of the data "according to the convergence of multiple data sources or multiple data collection procedures" (p. 246). Denzin (1978) notes that while triangulation may take a variety of forms, "its basic feature will be the combination of two or more different research strategies in the study of the same empirical units" (p. 308).

Wiersma (1986) elaborates further that triangulation is "a search for convergence of the information on a common finding or concept." Furthermore, to a large extent, the triangulation process assesses the sufficiency of the data. If the data are inconsistent or do not converge, they are insufficient. On the other hand, if there is convergence, the researcher can have greater confidence in the reliability and accuracy of the data (pp. 246-247). Triangulation played a major role as an analytical tool in the analysis of data gathered in this study—especially data collected through personal interviews and questionnaires.

Data Collection

The methodology for collecting data in this research consisted of several components. Two main literature sources were utilized in collecting the data: materials written and available on the subject, and government documents. The chief emphasis throughout the study is these
sources, which were also beneficial in exploring further and deeper aspects of the developmental process of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

In addition, another source for collecting needed information was a field trip to Saudi Arabia to conduct personal interviews with various officials in the Kingdom and faculty members in Saudi universities teaching public administration, and a questionnaire-based survey of directors of personnel.

**Library Research**

A major source for data collection in this study was library research to gather and examine available literature in a variety of subject areas, including social, political, economic, and administrative development; public administration; education; and related fields. Library sources utilized in this research were from the University of North Texas Library; University of Texas at Arlington Library; University of Texas at Dallas Library; University Microfilms; Southern Methodist University Library; and the Saudi Arabian Cultural Attache Library in Washington, DC.

**Government Documents**

Another major research resource was government documents related to administrative development, reform, and structure; higher education; public administration; and related areas in regard to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
These documents were obtained predominantly from the Ministry of Higher Education, Ministry of Planning, King Saud University, King Abdulaziz University, Imam Mohammed ibn Saud Islamic University, Institute of Public Administration, and the General Civil Service Bureau.

Specific materials examined included official documents, development plans, statistical yearbooks, special reports, conference reports and presentations, pamphlets, bulletins, and other official materials.

**Field Trip: Interviews and Survey**

Another source for collecting additional information was the field trip to Saudi Arabia where a questionnaire-based survey and personal interviews were conducted with various officials in the Kingdom and faculty members in Saudi universities who were teaching public administration. Questionnaires were also distributed among the directors of personnel in order to obtain their perceptions regarding the efficiency of the graduates of public administration and their impact on public service.

In this study, primary data were produced through these interviews with key individuals and specialists involved with public administration in Saudi Arabia. Interviews were conducted in late 1988 and early 1989 with various high-level government officials. Faculty members selected for
interviews were randomly chosen based on their areas of specialization.

To achieve the objective of structured and unstructured interviews, all interviews were documented with the exception of one, which was taped. In most cases, questions were translated into the Arabic language, and each individual was asked to answer in Arabic or in English.

The procedures applied in conducting the questionnaire survey included translation into Arabic by experts in both the Arabic and English languages. Then, they were checked by experts in the Arabic language to ensure their Arabic grammatical validity and their applicability to domestic context. Finally, a pilot study was performed to assure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire items by presenting them to a group of directors of personnel to check their applicability and observations on them. Based on feedback, the questionnaires were amended and revised to fit the purpose of the study.

The questionnaires were distributed to 76 directors of personnel in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia over the period from September 1988 to February 1989. The directors represent different ministries, agencies, and independent governmental departments. The Directory of the General Civil Service Bureau provided their names and addresses.

The number of respondents among personnel directors totaled 58, representing a response rate of 76.3 percent.
Out of 50 faculty members from the public administration departments at major Saudi universities, 30 were randomly chosen for interviews.

**Personal Experience**

Another source utilized in this research was personal experience of the researcher himself, who has worked for the Saudi government for several years.

To carry out the historical research methodology proposed for this study, the following procedures have been followed: (a) selection of specific problem areas to investigate; (b) collection of source materials; (c) critical evaluation of source materials; (d) formulation of research questions to explain events, phenomena, conditions, etc.; and (e) interpretation and reporting of results (Van Dalen, 1962, p. 160).

**Organization of the Study**

This study is divided into seven chapters. The first chapter is the introduction which includes the introduction to the study, the context of the problem, statement of the problem, purposes of the study, research questions, and significance of the study.

The second chapter deals with the review of literature. The meaning and significance of public administration are highlighted. This chapter also includes a discussion of developing countries' need for public administration and the
education and study of public administration in developing countries. Finally, the Islamic public administration is discussed.

The third chapter includes the methodology. Qualitative methods of research and analysis are the main emphasis of the study. The research applied the historical, descriptive, and analytical approach.

The fourth chapter examines factors influencing the development of Saudi public administration as a field of study. This chapter provides a historical perspective of the evolution of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, primarily from the early twentieth century through the present.

The fifth chapter traces the development of public administration as a field of study. It sheds light on the educational system and the development of higher education in the Kingdom. The results of literature research and interviews of key individuals are presented.

The sixth chapter analyzes the programs of public administration at Saudi universities. It provides further analysis of the perceptions of personnel directors and faculty members concerning the state of the field of public administration in the Kingdom.

Finally, the seventh chapter presents the summary, discussion, conclusions, and recommendations of the study.
It summarizes the entire research and focuses on its important aspects.
CHAPTER 4

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN SAUDI ARABIA:

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Introduction

In order to analyze the factors that have contributed to the emergence of public administration as a field of study in Saudi universities, it is first important to consider the development of public administration itself in the Kingdom. Indeed, the development of public administration has created the need for qualified administrators and has provided the main source of employment for graduates with degrees in public administration.

Richard Chapman (1974) observes that "the main characteristic of the system of government in Saudi Arabia is that it is an Islamic monarchy which, in recent years, has been developing from monarchical to ministerial rule" (p. 333). The development of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, similar to that in all developing countries, has passed through several stages and reforms throughout its history. This chapter provides a brief historical perspective of the evolution of Saudi public
administration with particular focus on the principal factors that have influenced the evolution of public administration as a field of study from the early twentieth century to the present. In this sense, the analysis represents an ecological approach in the examination of these events.

Stages of Growth in Public Administration

The development of public administration in Saudi Arabia can be categorized into three stages of development—corresponding to Phase 1, Phase 2, and Phase 3. It is useful to consider first the process of development of public administration in Saudi Arabia from this perspective.

The Development of Public Administration: Phase 1

The initial stage of Saudi public administration development, 1902-1932 (1319-1351 H) is generally considered to be the period of unification of the country and the founding of national administration of modern Saudi Arabia. During this historical period, all previously divided land currently known as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was unified under the leadership of the late King Abdul Aziz Al-Saud. The actual history of the Kingdom goes back to the victorious return of the late King AbdulAziz ibn Abdul Rahman Al-Saud in 1902 and his recapture of Riyadh and, hence, the throne of his ancestors (Al-Awaji, 1971, p. 40).
Indeed, the development of public administration in the Kingdom represents a part of the administrative, political, and economic development which accompanied the process of nation-building in the early stages of unification of the Kingdom under the leadership of the late King Abdul Aziz Al-Saud. At that time, the main objectives of King Abdul Aziz were to establish a modern administration that fit the changing world and could cope with the needs of Saudi society.

Johany’s (1982) description of the region’s socioeconomic status in this period is enlightening:

Prior to the unification of Saudi Arabia in 1932, an integrated national economy did not even exist. Economic activity outside Hejaz (where the holy cities are located) was confined to livestock raising by Bedouins, primitive agriculture, and production of simple tools by craftsmen who lived in small towns concentrated around sources of water. (p. 1)

Al-Tawail (1986) further places Saudi administrative development in ecological perspective when he observes that "public administration foundations, during the early stages of the formation and unification of the Kingdom . . ., were influenced by the geographic, historical, and practical factors dominating the situation then" (p. 3).

During this period, one of the most significant factors influencing the development of public administration in the new country was the rather fragmented, traditional, tribal society which originally predominated. Public administration was quite simple, and the bureaucracy was
"very traditional" and "deeply rooted" in Saudi society (Al-Askar et al., 1987, pp. 1-3).

The administrative system evolved simply and gradually in pragmatic response to experienced needs. Al-Mazroa (1980) relates that "the necessary organizational structure was built gradually as the needs arose and the circumstances permitted;" the main characteristic of administrative development in this period was "the simplicity of procedure." The administrative system was "conservative, traditional, and Islamic in outlook and practice, conforming to the prevailing atmosphere of public opinion" (p. 230).

Another feature of this period is the fact that the nation's economy and the government's budgetary level were relatively modest (see Table 1); consequently, the necessary administrative structure was also modest. The early economic situation is summarized by Mohammed M. Al-Juhani (1985), who observes that

Prior to the discovery of oil, the country experienced severe poverty and agriculture followed traditional patterns due to the dearth of rainfall. Industry was limited to mining, handicrafts, and maritime enterprises, mainly fishing. . . . Education in a modern sense did not exist. The government directed all of its resources towards stability—strengthening the armed forces and solving the problems related to the creation of a new country. (p. 3)

According to Al-Hamad (1985) this period is characterized by a "simple administrative system, lacking financial and technical resources" (p. 47). A particularly significant factor influencing public administration
Table 1

Saudi Arabian Oil Revenue: 1938-1980

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Oil Production (Barrels)</th>
<th>Oil Revenue (US Dollars)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1938</td>
<td>500,000</td>
<td>$340,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>5,100,000</td>
<td>$4,790,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1942</td>
<td>4,500,000</td>
<td>$3,410,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1944</td>
<td>7,800,000</td>
<td>$1,660,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1946</td>
<td>59,900,000</td>
<td>$10,400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>142,900,000</td>
<td>$32,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>199,500,000</td>
<td>$56,700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>301,900,000</td>
<td>$212,200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>350,800,000</td>
<td>$236,300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956</td>
<td>366,800,000</td>
<td>$290,200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1958</td>
<td>385,200,000</td>
<td>$297,600,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>481,400,000</td>
<td>$333,700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>599,800,000</td>
<td>$409,700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964</td>
<td>694,100,000</td>
<td>$523,200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>949,700,000</td>
<td>$789,700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>1,113,700,000</td>
<td>$926,800,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>1,386,700,000</td>
<td>$1,214,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>2,202,000,000</td>
<td>$2,744,600,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>3,095,100,000</td>
<td>$22,573,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>3,139,300,000</td>
<td>$30,754,900,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>3,038,000,000</td>
<td>$32,233,800,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>3,623,800,000</td>
<td>$84,466,400,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


devolution was the fact that while a slightly more sophisticated administrative structure existed in the region of Al-Hijaz, other regions in the young nation were administered simply by governors responsible for local administration (Mansour Alsaud, 1986, p. 209).
Ayman Al-Yassini (1985) notes that, "prior to the 1950s, when Al-Saud realized the need to develop modern administrative institutions, political life in the kingdom revolved around the king, through whom both the executive and legislative powers were exercised" (p. 64). Al-Yassini perceives the core factor influencing public administration development in this period to be the pressures created by the drive to unify the new kingdom:

Following the conquest of the Hejaz in 1926 and the subsequent unification of the kingdom in 1932, Al-Saud needed a more effective administrative structure to meet the ever-increasing economic and social needs generated by oil revenues. [Thus he] laid the structural foundation for more differentiated and complex bureaucratic institutions. (p. 64)

Huyette (1983) likewise perceives unification to be the preeminent factor underlying the development of public administration in this period. She observes that when King Abdul Aziz "conquered the Hijaz and gradually consolidated his grip on the rest of the peninsula, he encountered for the first time the need for a formal administration to handle the more complex requirements of his far-flung dominions" (p. 3).

Mohammed A. Al-Tawail (1986), emphasizing the formative dynamics of this period, further corroborates such an analysis in recounting that King Abdul Aziz was continuously working to unify the Kingdom, which at that stage consisted of four separate segments: the emirates of Najd, Al-Ahsa, Al-Hijaz, and Aseer. He notes that,
each Emirate maintained its distinctive characteristics which reflected its own customs and traditions during the formative stage of the State. . . . Administrative functions, in the early years, were limited to traditional activities of providing basic services and keeping law and order. (p. 3)

Al-Juhani (1985) points to another major factor influencing the development of public administration in Saudi Arabia--the fact that because the country was never colonized, it lacked "the previous administrative experience that might have been imposed by a colonizing country" (p. 3). This observation is corroborated by J. A. Shaw and D. E. Long (1982), who relate that the Saudi bureaucracy developed somewhat differently than did that of most other emerging nations. Discussing the situation prior to King AbdulAziz's unification of the nation in the 1920s, Shaw and Long observe that Saudi Arabia, having never been under colonial rule, had never possessed a master plan for the development of national public administration (p. 74).

Osama Othman (1979) further corroborates this factor, noting that,

despite the fact that the Saudi bureaucracy shares the same problems facing many bureaucracies in the less developed countries, it differs from the others in terms of its history; that is, it does not have the bureaucratic tradition that most of the others have. (p. 234)

Al-Juhani (1985) emphasizes that the tasks of insuring unification and stability "limited or at least delayed any attempts at administrative development and development of manpower needed by all sectors of the country." As another
influential factor, he notes that the somewhat fragmented bureaucracy was heavily dependent on foreign Arab nationals—Palestinians, Syrians, Egyptians, Sudanese, and others—and there was little skilled manpower or financial support. Overall, "most new governmental units remained ineffective because of their discontinuity" (p. 3).

Steps in Early Administrative Development

The need for an effective administrative system in Saudi Arabia was perceived early by King Abdul Aziz Al-Saud, particularly upon his unification of the Arabian peninsula. Prior to the Saudi capture of Hijaz (in 1925), "Saudi public administration consisted of personal relationships with Abd al-Aziz" (Shaw & Long, 1982, p. 74). Al-Yassini (1985) recounts that in this period King Abdul Aziz established the precursors of the later Council of Ministers in the form of ad hoc committees and administrative institutions (p. 64). In 1924 King AbdulAziz established the Domestic Council of Makkah, which was replaced in 1925 by an Instructive committee. According to Al-Yassini (1985) in 1927:

Al-Saud established the Committee of Investigation and Reform to review the government’s organizational structure. . . . This committee recommended the unification of the country’s administrative regions as well as the creation of a national advisory council to represent regional interests. These recommendations were implemented by the establishment of an Advisory Council. (p. 64)
As Al-Yassini recounts, "Al-Saud empowered the Advisory Council to formulate socioeconomic policies, supervise the expenditures of government departments and agencies, and act as a legislative body" (p. 65). Then, in 1930, Abdul Aziz established a Council of Deputies. According to Al-Yassini, this body:

served as a central agency for coordination of activities among branches of government organizations in the Hejaz region and the Advisory Council as well as other national agencies. As a result of the explosion of government operations throughout the country, the Council of Deputies acquired legislative and executive powers that were derived from the king. (p. 65)

Al-Mazroa (1980) emphasizes that King Abdul Aziz's establishment of the Council of Deputies "constituted another big step in developing the public administration" (p. 231). Explaining that "this administrative body had wide-ranging authorities in determining the public policy and supervising the administrative departments of that region" (p. 231), Al-Mazroa asserts that the Council was "by far the most powerful council in the Kingdom" since "it had the authority to draw the State's public policy and its decisions were final when they were signed by its president, without being ratified by the King" (pp. 231-233).

Despite this rich background of national, societal, and administrative development, most analysts typically trace the history of the contemporary Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to 1932, when the country became what Al-Sadhan (1980) calls "a political entity" (p. 75) and was given its modern name of
"the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia." This, according to Lipsky (1959), represented the culmination of a process by which "an effective territorial state was superimposed upon the old tribal structure and had, to a large extent, replaced it" (p. 16). With unification, Al-Sadhan observes, the new nation suddenly "found itself on the doorstep of the second half of the twentieth century." This meant a new kind of struggle: not the violence of tribal conquests and rivalries that King Abdul Aziz had experienced on the path to unification and nationhood, but a struggle "aimed at putting the country onto the road to modernity" (p. 76).

The Development of Public Administration: Phase 2

Modern public administration began during the second stage of public administration development in Saudi Arabia, 1933-1957 (1352-1377 H). During this important period, the overall framework of the governmental structure and most administrative agencies were established.

Prior to the discovery of oil, the economic resources in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia were very simple and scarce. With the discovery of oil came a gradual but significant development of economic resources. At the time, the administration was able to manage these economic resources, which were not complicated, and needed no administrative professionals as it does now.
This stage started with the discovery of oil and the beginning of industrialization and extended to the first administrative reforms associated with the United Nations, the International Monetary Fund, and the Ford Foundation. During this stage, tribal fragmentation ended and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, unified with a centralized governmental system, truly emerged as a modern state. While a variety of administrative agencies and legislative policies were established, governmental development functions were limited to "traditional activities which provided basic services" such as law enforcement, serving Islamic pilgrims, resolving disputes, and Islamic almsgiving (Zakat) (Al-Askar et al., 1987, pp. 1-3).

Rapid Economic Growth

By far the most significant factor influencing the development of Saudi public administration in this period was the strikingly rapid developmental-economic growth of the country and the equally rapid expansion of public administration which was brought on by the accelerating exploitation of the country’s petroleum resources (see Table 1).

Just prior to Saudi Arabia’s postwar petroleum-economic boom, the country’s economic character was pastoral and predominantly impoverished. Al-Mazroa (1980) recounts that, from 1932 on, the real challenge of internal reform and development started. There were immense tasks to be
done but with little choices at hand. Insufficient economic resources, lack of skilled human resources, and the prevailing illiteracy of the population hampered any effort to develop the economic, social, or administrative conditions. (pp. 235-236)

Likewise, as Al-Askar et al. (1987) relate, the nation's public administration needs were modest, and little economic resources were limited to any further need for bureaucratic development:

Despite the existence of some ministries, central administrative agencies, and new development units, a simple development system was used; the government establishments remained largely homeostatic in their purpose and sporadic in their scope and timing. The attention of the government was directed toward maintaining the status quo because the economic situation limited its ability to expand activities and services. (p. 2)

These analysts also note that "public administration and financial standards were primitive; skilled personnel were scarce and no developmental institutions were available" (p. 2). Al-Mazroa (1980) emphasizes that the poor economic and social conditions of Saudi Arabia at this time attenuated effective public administrative development: "Under these conditions public administration remained traditionally conservative in its norms and practice" (p. 236).

The years prior to the proclamation of the Kingdom in 1932 and the years following were considered a period of national institutionalization during which some ministries and other public agencies were established. By 1944, only three ministries were in existence, and it was not until
1950 that a central public bureaucracy was created (Al-Juhani, 1986, pp. 3-4).

The surge of oil revenue is noted by Arthur Young (1983), who recounts that "from its modest beginning of $340,000 in 1938 [oil revenue] grew to $3.21 million in 1939 and to $4.79 million in 1940 (including ARAMCO advances)" (p. 11).

Al-Juhani (1986) points out that petroleum production began to expand substantially in the mid-1940s; accordingly, government revenue from royalties and other sources skyrocketed from approximately $40 million in 1948 to $170 million in 1953, and to $340 million in 1955 (pp. 3-4).

Al-Yassini (1985) describes the jolting impact of the sudden increase in wealth on the nation's economy:

The mighty spending power that resulted from oil revenues had shocked the stationary economy of the country. . . . Oil revenues became the most significant single source from which the state's revenues were drawn. In 1932, Saudi government revenues reached 12 million riyals, 60 percent of which came from the haji [Islamic pilgrimage]. By the year Al-Saud died, state revenues were 757 million Saudi riyals, 90 percent of which were drawn from oil. (p. 62)

The rise in Saudi government revenue from 1932 into the 1960s is displayed in Table 2.

Young (1983) calls attention to the administrative reforms needed to meet the economic growth:

How manage the receiving of the flow of foreign currency, mostly dollars? How control and allocate the spending? The traditional structure of government, the economy, currency, and financial institutions could not
cope with the new situation. The need for reforms became more and more clear. (p. 19)

Table 2

Total Saudi Government Revenue in 5-Year Intervals: 1932-1967

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Saudi Riyals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1932</td>
<td>11,250,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1937</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1942</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1947</td>
<td>214,587,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>756,960,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>1,500,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>2,452,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>4,237,000,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Historical evidence and triangulated analyses from various sources appear to support the conclusion that rapidly expanding economic and demographic conditions represented the driving forces behind the expansion of Saudi public administration. Al-Yassini (1985), for example, recounts that,

The development of an oil economy affected not only the creation of complex administrative structures but also the overall orientation of the political system. Prior to his death in 1953, Al-Saud witnessed the drastic increase in his country’s wealth—from $200,000 prior to World War I to $10 million in the interwar period; $60 million in 1948; $160 million in 1952; and $250 million in 1953. (p. 61)
Al-Juhani (1986) likewise points to Saudi Arabia's "high percentage of increase in demand for government services" in this period "due to population growth and rises in the standard of living" (p. 4). Similarly, noting the societal pressures and administrative problems created by the swift growth of oil production in the 1940s, Al-Askar et al. (1987) present further corroborative analysis. They note that,

as a natural result of the simple development system which prevailed during this period of the history of the Kingdom, procedures and methods of work were rather primitive and few in number. There were no legalized procedures established according to a unified plan. (p. 7)

**Rapid Bureaucratic Expansion**

The Kingdom's increasingly massive exportation of oil beginning in the 1940s led directly to mounting needs for government services and administration. Thus major expansion and improvement in Saudi Arabia's administrative system began to occur in the post-World War II period. As Al-Askar et al. (1987) recount, "the Kingdom's revenues increased accordingly and the government offered more services to the citizens. This situation necessitated making an expansion in establishing new government agencies, and a number of new ministries were established" (p. 7). Furthermore, Al-Askar et al. note,

this expansion in the activities of the government agencies made it difficult to work within the limits of the previous simple administrative system. There was a
growing need for a central government agency which could coordinate work among these ministries. (p. 7)

Othman (1979) discusses the impact of Saudi economic growth in this period in terms of the expansion of the nation's bureaucracy. Noting that, in general, "the rapid growth of bureaucracy is the result of a drastic change in economic growth" (p. 237), Othman summarizes these effects in Saudi Arabia: "Increases in oil prices coupled with increased shares led to a substantial increase in oil revenues. And growth of wealth has paced the way for the growth of bureaucracy" (p. 236).

Al-Said (1982) explains the ecological context by pointing to mounting societal and popular pressures:

This mushrooming of governmental institutions represented an attempt to cope with a condition of "rising expectations." As the citizens heard of the building of new schools and municipalities in neighboring towns and cities, delegations would go to the capital and demand similar privileges. As a result, limited and understaffed ministries of yesterday were giving way to larger and more numerous ministries and bureaus. (p. 102)

This analysis is corroborated and elaborated by Murshid (1978):

In the face of rising expectations, Saud succeeded in enlarging the size and scope of the administrative bureaucracy in order to attempt to meet the modernizing needs of the state and its people. However, the lack of trained and experienced administrators constantly reduced the efficiency of government administration. (pp. 97-98)
Establishment of Council of Ministers

Many observers and scholars interested in Saudi public administration maintain that the actual start of a modern public administration system in the Kingdom should be dated in 1953, when by royal decree the Council of Ministers was established and its functions defined. Despite the earlier establishment of eight ministries and some major autonomous agencies, Ibrahim Al-Awaji (1981) states that modern public administration dates from 1953, with the formation of the Council of Ministers as a central administrative authority (p. 23). Likewise, Al-Tawail (1986) regards the creation of the Council of Ministers as "the starting point of a modern administrative system in the Kingdom" (p. 10). In addition, the number of ministries was increased. These events, considered together, represent another of the key factors influencing the development of public administration in this period.

With the advent of the Royal Decree of 1953 and the subsequent amendments of 1958, the Council of Ministers was given both legislative and executive authority. The Council possesses legislative authority because it is headed by His Majesty the King and executive authority because the ministers are members of the Council and, at the same time, they are responsible for execution of the laws and decisions issued by the Council in their respective ministries. This
duality in duties is considered to be a great advantage for the Council's decisions.

Ibrahim Al-Awaji (1971) attributes the special significance of the Council of Ministers (CM) to three factors:

First, because it is headed by the King, who is the Prime Minister, the CM combines the State's legislative, executive, administrative and some occasional judicial functions. These include the determination of mandatory policies of the highest priority. Second, the CM is the administrative arm of the King through which his orders are formulated and carried out and to which public complaints are usually submitted for his consideration. Thirdly, it is the main liaison between the bureaucracy and local governments, on the one hand, and the King and his cabinet, on the other. (p. 111)

In the assessment of Al-Mazroa (1980), King Abdul Aziz's establishment of the Council of Ministers represented an "outstanding measure" which "culminated his reign by completing the administrative unification of the country" (pp. 236-237). In the same vein, Al-Hamad (1985) describes the new Council of Ministers as "the corner stone for building highly efficient public administration" (p. 48). In Huyette's (1985) assessment, "the creation of the Council of Ministers inaugurated a new era in the evolution of the Saudi political system, the first step in the transition from Abd al-Aziz's informal and patrimonial style to a more formalized bureaucratic government" (p. 65). As described by Madi (1975), "the establishment of the Council furthermore marked the transition from traditional appeals
directly to the King to the more formal approach to government through an official body" (p. 16). In Lipsky’s (1959) view,

the decree of 1953 represents a genuine initial effort to institutionalize the exercise of the royal prerogative and to separate the exercise of authority from arbitrary decision making procedures that previously existed around the King and his immediate entourage. (pp. 115-116)

According to Al-Awaji (1971), the establishment of the Council of Ministers brought together, for the first time, the various ministries into a single unified body with competent authority over the affairs of the entire government (pp. 111-112). Al-Farsy (1986) views the event as "the last stage in the national consolidation of the Kingdom" (p. 100). As Madi (1975) relates, "with the creation of the Council, the country has a central administration for the first time. All of the provinces were to be ruled in the same manner and authority in each specialized area rested in the ministry itself" (p. 16).

Madi further observes that "With the creation of the Council of Ministers in 1953, the country . . . shifted from a traditional to a more centralized form of government" (p. 19).

Al-Said (1982) elaborates upon this perspective:

The emergence of strong and central institutions hailed a new era and paved the way for significant changes in all areas of national life. The cornerstone of much of this change was the Council of Ministers. . . . Of special interest in this connection was the implicit recognition of the need to identify areas of
responsibility, to separate them, and to delegate authority in accordance with a more formal set of rules and procedures. (p. 102)

According to follow-up statutory rules issued in 1954, the Council consisted of the Crown Prince as a Prime Minister, the Ministers and Royal Advisors as members. Appointment, acceptance of resignation and dismissal of ministers were a royal prerogative upon recommendations by the Prime Minister. (Al-Awaji, 1971, pp. 111-112)

This structure was changed in 1964. Since then, the King serves as Prime Minister and the Crown Prince as Deputy Prime Minister (Nyrop, 1984, pp. 209-210).

The Council was given the responsibility to draw upon the government policy in both domestic and foreign affairs. Madi (1975) explains that "the Council was both a policy-making body and the source of administrative authority, thereby combining legislative and executive functions" (p. 16). In other words, under the decree of 1958, the Council of Ministers functions collectively as a legislative body, while each Ministry functions individually as an executive authority (Elkhatib, 1958, p. 11).

Saaty (1985) assesses the establishment of the Council of Ministers in 1953 as "the first of three steps which led to the basis for the current bureaucracy." The second step was the relocation of government ministries from Jeddah to the more central city of Riyadh. The third, in Saaty’s view, was the further expansion of the Council’s role and responsibilities by the Article 18 charter amendment put forth in the royal decree of 11 May 1958 (pp. 77-78).
Many of the other administrative changes effected in this period resulted from another important influencing factor: the experience of a severe financial crisis beginning about 1956 (Al-Askar et al., 1987, pp. 7-8).

According to Mohammed A. Al-Tawai (1979), up until that time modern budgeting did not exist nor was there any comprehensive control over state revenues or expenditures. Thus "it was extremely difficult to execute or follow up on the government projects" (p. 162).

El Mallakh (1982) notes that

The 1955-[5]7 economic crisis took the form of government budgetary deficits, which necessitated large government borrowing from SAMA (Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency), inflation, balance of payments deficits resulting from the small production-base of the economy which could not, therefore, expand fast enough to meet the increased effective demand, and the concomitant fall in the rate of exchange of the riyal. The crisis was primarily caused by the inability of oil revenues and foreign exchange derived from oil to increase at a rate consistent with the rate at which the level of spending was growing. (p. 141)

As a result of the crisis, according to Al-Sadhan (1980), the Kingdom's treasury was almost empty, capital was leaving the country, and the Kingdom was some SR 400 million (about $100 million) in debt. As the crisis progressed, the riyal lost value, dropping from 4.5 to 7 to the dollar (pp. 78-79).

Desiring to "inject rationality into the economy," Saudi authorities appeared to recognize the necessity of drastic reforms. El Mallakh (1982) relates that "the need
for some sort of economic management, particularly in government financial matters, was prompted by the desire to establish stability in the Saudi Arabian economy" (p. 141). The financial crisis prompted Saudi authorities to seek the advice of international experts, which eventually led to important reforms such as improved budgetary controls and civil service regulations (Al-Askar et al., 1987, p. 8).

Despite massive administrative improvements, however, major deficiencies in the bureaucracy remained. Huyette (1983) relates that, in the 1950s and 1960s the Saudi civil service, "resembling many of its counterparts in the developing countries, suffered from the concentration of power at the top and incompetence at the lower levels." Mid-level employees "lacked the basic skills to work effectively. No one used standard operating procedures, and the concept of management, alien to traditional practice, was absent at all levels of government" (p. 105).

Recognizing such deficiencies, government officials perceived the importance of having skilled personnel in public administration, and thus tried hard to solve these problems with various policies, such as education and training in public administration, development of procedures, and regulations that could enhance the effectiveness of the public bureaucracy in the Kingdom, as discussed later.
The Development of Public Administration:
Phase 3

The third stage of Saudi public administrative
development, according to the analysis of Al-Askar et al.,
extends from the introduction of development reforms in 1958
(1378 H) and continues to the present. The significant
transition from building the structure of public
administration to modernizing it took place during this era.
It is a unique transitional period which is characterized by
comprehensive administrative development in the Kingdom.
Within these decades, there has been a tremendous growth in
the fields of public administration and administrative
reform. There is great governmental attention to the
process of bureaucratization of the public sector. Thus,
there has been an increased demand on professionals in
public administration. Therefore, teaching institutions of
public administration were established during this stage.

In this period, intense economic growth was another
factor influencing the development of public administration.
This further revealed the need for qualified personnel
capable of managing and implementing government policies.
Furthermore, in this period Saudi Arabia’s economic crisis
was solved and the nation’s astronomical growth became even
more amazing. These events are key factors which further
influenced public administrative development in these and
subsequent years. Arthur Young (1983) describes "the
fantastic growth of Saudi Arabia's revenue since income from oil began" by relating that "in only about forty years total revenue has grown about 17,000-fold: from about $7 million in the late 1930s to $118.7 billion, including $108.9 billion from oil (preliminary) in its fiscal year ended May 4, 1981" (p. 102).

The data on the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in the period 1962-1973 (Table 3) attest to the growth of Saudi Arabia's overall economy. The massive increase in wealth is also reflected in the growth of government budgetary appropriations, which are detailed for the period 1959-1974 in Table 4.

As revenue soared, so did the size of the Saudi bureaucracy, as indicated in Table 5, from fewer than 200 employees in 1945 to nearly 62,000 employees by 1960, when it was still expanding rapidly. Palmer et al. (1987) observe that

Having possessed little more than the bare bones of an administrative structure in the mid-1950s, the Arabian kingdom was soon to be overwhelmed by an era of wealth and economic prosperity. . . . The Saudi bureaucracy simply exploded in a frantic effort to keep pace with the demands of an oil economy. (p. 243)

In addition to seeking the advice of international experts, several other steps were taken in 1958 in response to the economic crisis and the challenges of growth in order "to rescue the country from financial disaster and improve the country's tarnished image." These steps represent
### Table 3


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Petroleum Production</th>
<th>Petroleum Refining</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Petroleum Production</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>GDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1962-63</td>
<td>4,049.2</td>
<td>528.6</td>
<td>3,098.4</td>
<td>7,676.2</td>
<td>885.7</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>927.5</td>
<td>8,603.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963-64</td>
<td>4,068.8</td>
<td>586.4</td>
<td>3,445.5</td>
<td>8,100.7</td>
<td>1,057.2</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>1,104.5</td>
<td>9,205.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964-65</td>
<td>4,508.8</td>
<td>658.3</td>
<td>3,424.3</td>
<td>8,591.4</td>
<td>1,177.0</td>
<td>489.1</td>
<td>1,666.1</td>
<td>10,257.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965-66</td>
<td>5,441.1</td>
<td>698.2</td>
<td>4,293.1</td>
<td>10,432.4</td>
<td>1,274.9</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td>1,343.2</td>
<td>11,775.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966-67</td>
<td>6,130.7</td>
<td>759.8</td>
<td>4,674.6</td>
<td>11,565.1</td>
<td>1,366.0</td>
<td>211.4</td>
<td>1,577.4</td>
<td>13,142.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967-68</td>
<td>6,892.8</td>
<td>901.6</td>
<td>5,185.5</td>
<td>12,979.9</td>
<td>1,449.3</td>
<td>227.4</td>
<td>1,676.7</td>
<td>14,656.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968-69</td>
<td>7,269.8</td>
<td>984.7</td>
<td>5,834.6</td>
<td>14,089.1</td>
<td>1,615.2</td>
<td>271.0</td>
<td>1,886.2</td>
<td>15,975.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969-70</td>
<td>8,106.3</td>
<td>1,240.9</td>
<td>6,127.0</td>
<td>15,474.2</td>
<td>1,678.4</td>
<td>246.0</td>
<td>1,924.4</td>
<td>17,398.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71</td>
<td>12,581.3</td>
<td>1,474.2</td>
<td>6,720.5</td>
<td>20,776.0</td>
<td>1,805.1</td>
<td>340.1</td>
<td>2,145.2</td>
<td>22,921.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971-72</td>
<td>16,931.5</td>
<td>1,441.6</td>
<td>7,339.3</td>
<td>25,712.4</td>
<td>2,144.9</td>
<td>400.0</td>
<td>2,544.9</td>
<td>28,257.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972-73</td>
<td>26,980.9</td>
<td>1,926.3</td>
<td>8,174.4</td>
<td>37,018.6</td>
<td>2,590.9</td>
<td>315.0</td>
<td>2,905.9</td>
<td>39,987.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Total Budget Appropriations (Million SR)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>1,272.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959/60</td>
<td>1,508.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960/61</td>
<td>1,656.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961/62</td>
<td>1,990.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962/63</td>
<td>2,294.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963/64</td>
<td>2,686.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964/65</td>
<td>3,112.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965/66</td>
<td>3,961.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966/67</td>
<td>5,025.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967/68</td>
<td>4,937.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968/69</td>
<td>5,535.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969/70</td>
<td>5,966.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970/71</td>
<td>6,380.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971/72</td>
<td>10,782.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972/73</td>
<td>13,200.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973/74</td>
<td>22,810.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


another key factor influencing the development of public administration (Huyette, 1985, p. 68).

Al-Sadhan (1980) notes that the Kingdom's bureaucracy "manifested a serious need for reform." Problems such as poor productivity, over-staffing, inadequate control and coordination, obsolescent work practices, redundant and poorly defined functions, overcentralization, and other problems plagued the public administration system (pp. 79-80). According to Al-Askar et al. (1987), the forces of social and economic development made it necessary to
Table 5

Total Saudi Government Employees 1945-1985

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Personnel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1945</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>61,892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>92,170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>137,970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>204,703</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>229,238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>395,790</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Data not available


introduce management principles in the growing public sector to provide for the efficient rendering of public services (p. 40).

Further Strengthening of Council of Ministers

In response to the administrative crisis, another major reform was enacted during this period. The responsibilities of the Council of Ministers were elaborated in Article 18 of the Charter of the Council of Ministers, per an amendment by Royal Decree No. 380 dated 11 May 1958 (Philby, 1958,
The Council of Ministers shall draw up the policy of the State, internal and external, financial and economic, educational and defense, and in all public affairs; and shall supervise its execution; and shall have legislative authority, and executive authority and administrative authority. It shall be the arbiter in all financial affairs and in all the affairs committed to the other Ministries of the State and other Departments. And it shall be the factor deciding what actions it may be necessary to take therein. And international treaties and agreements shall not be regarded as effective, except after its approval. And the decisions of the Council of Ministers shall be final, except such of them as required the issue of a royal command or decree, in accordance with the rules of this Statute. (Philby, 1958, p. 321)

"The issuance of the regulation of 1958," Al-Awaji (1971) notes, "represents an important development in the function and power of the [Council of Ministers]" (p. 113).

In Saaty's (1985) assessment, Articles 11 and 18 are two of the most important aspects of the 1958 statute. Saaty observes that Article 11 "states the formal composition of the Council of Ministers to include a president (prime minister), a vice-president (deputy prime minister), departmental ministers, ministers of state, and advisors to the king" (p. 78). Using a common definition of bureaucracy as "the administration of government through departments and subdivisions managed by sets of officials following an inflexible routine," Saaty concludes that Article 11 "definitely meets the criteria of a 'bureaucratic' model" (p. 78). That means the hierarchy of
the bureaucracy, with its rules and procedures, is applied in the government structure. The King is at the top of the hierarchy by virtue of his status as the President of the Council of Ministers. Below him are the ministers-members of the council, who are the heads of their respective ministries. Article 18, according to Saaty, "provided that the Council of Ministers should legislate in all major aspects of the state and that they were entrusted with the execution of this policy. Appointments to this Council of Ministers were reserved for royal decree" (pp. 78-79).

Al-Awaji (1971) explains that while the 1953 royal decree did not give the Council effective executive authority, "Article 18 of the regulations of 1958, which gave the Council greater executive and legislative powers, was a serious departure from the earlier situation" (p. 113). From a purely advisory body, the Council of Ministers was elevated to a formal, policy-making position wielding executive and legislative power (p. 113). Huyette (1985) describes the 1958 royal decree as a "turning point" in the development of the Council of Ministers (p. 69). During this period, the development and reform of public administration was also stimulated by the results of officially commissioned studies, which specifically contributed to (a) the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration in 1961 to train public employees to raise their performance and prepare them intellectually and
practically to bear public responsibility, and (b) the creation of programs in public administration in Saudi universities to meet public needs with qualified administrators.

Wells (1976) notes that "Since 1960 the government sector has undergone a transformation in functions, in the level of its operations, and in administrative capabilities" (p. 21). An initial recommendation for improvement came in 1960 from the International Monetary Fund (IMF), which advised the Kingdom to establish a centralized planning agency, to restructure the organization of the state, and to create an effective administrative force. At about this same time an advisor from the United Nations Organization (UNO) proposed similar improvements, such as reorganization of the Kingdom's administrative system, establishment of an institute for public administration, and simplification of governmental procedures and work methods (Al-Askar et al., 1987, p. 8).

A particularly important development occurred in 1962, when the Kingdom contracted the Ford Foundation to undertake a study of the country's administrative system. Among the agency's most important conclusions was a recommendation for the establishment of specialized administrative agencies such as the General Bureau of Civil Service, General O&M Office at the Ministry of Finance, and the High Committee of Administrative Reform (Al-Askar et al., 1987, p. 8).
Madi (1975) recounts that based on the Ford Foundation recommendations, in 1971 the Kingdom’s civil service laws were revised:

The civil service grading system was changed so that classifications could be added as necessary. The new law also called for a more central personnel system concentrated in the General Personnel Bureau. New classification and pay plans were established as well as arbitration and investigation departments. (p. 19)

Osman (1978) notes that the original Ford Foundation plan was "only a blueprint" which was "successful in introducing the concept" of rules for classification of positions. Osman relates that the Ford Foundation plan "has been exposed to lengthy discussion and drastic changes"—in effect being displaced in 1970 by a "more realistic" Public Personnel Law, establishing a merit system and laying out rules for classification and other matters (p. 178).

Al-Askar et al. (1987) note that improvement of management in Saudi Arabia was spurred following reports by the IMF and the Ford Foundation in the late 1950s and early 1960s. According to their analysis,

While the IMF report aimed at helping the Kingdom to overcome its financial difficulties, the Ford Foundation’s report aimed at organizing the government machinery and improving the performance of public management. Both reports drew . . . attention to the significance of fiscal and administrative reform in improving the budgetary processes and reorganizing government agencies, and enhancing the capability of the government machinery as a whole in rationalizing the use of all its resources. (p. 41)
Because of an awareness of the administrative environment, even before the Ford Foundation team started its mission, the High Committee for Administrative Reform and its subcommittee, the Preparatory Committee, were formed to oversee the Ford team’s functions. These committees utilized Saudi professional’s expertise and were entrusted to study the Ford Foundation team’s decisions and their appropriateness for the Saudi culture. The committees were given the power to accept or reject the Ford Foundation team’s recommendations.

The recommendations for administrative reform in the Kingdom which were submitted by the Ford Foundation team were not accepted in the first stage. The Saudi government requested that certain points in the recommendations be modified and adequately adjusted to fit the Saudi environment before implementation. Pointing out the difficulties that faced the applicability of some of the Ford Foundation team’s recommendations, Al-Mazroa (1980) notes:

The administrative reform program during the decade of the Ford Foundation team presence was comprehensive and the four groups of the team worked simultaneously and flooded the staff committee for administrative reform with reports treating many aspects of the whole administrative system, causing confusion and lack of implementation or follow-up, especially when the administrative system was not prepared to consume and assimilate such measures at such a rate. (p. 326)

This delayed the execution of some of the Ford Foundation team’s recommendations due to the fact that they
were unsuitable to the overall norms, culture, and traditions of Saudi society. After phasing out the Ford Foundation team from the Kingdom, the movement of the administrative reform was successfully continued by the Saudi ministries and governmental agencies using native administrative skills and expertise.

The Characteristics of Public Administration in the Recent Era

The continued brisk growth of the Saudi economy in recent decades can be seen particularly in the post-1970 statistics tabulated in Table 6. An especially large surge in revenues is apparent, beginning in 1973-1974. The increase in barrel price, production, and revenue in regard to Saudi petroleum in the 1970s is tabulated in Table 7.

The rapid increase in the development process and the economy in the modern era can be recognized in other indicators. The total Saudi GNP has likewise risen swiftly, as demonstrated in Table 8.

Further Proliferation and Expansion of Government Agencies

A major characteristic of this stage in the development of Saudi public administration has been a significant increase in the "number, size, and aspirations" of government agencies and public organizations, which Al-Askar et al. (1987) repeatedly ascribe to the growth in the Kingdom's petroleum industry (p. 7-8). This massive
Table 6
(Million SR)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Total Actual Revenues</th>
<th>Total Actual Expenditures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970/71</td>
<td>7,954.0</td>
<td>6,924.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971/72</td>
<td>11,116.0</td>
<td>8,130.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972/73</td>
<td>15,325.0</td>
<td>10,159.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973/74</td>
<td>41,705.0</td>
<td>18,595.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974/75</td>
<td>100,103.0</td>
<td>32,038.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975/76</td>
<td>103,384.0</td>
<td>81,784.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976/77</td>
<td>135,957.0</td>
<td>128,273.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977/78</td>
<td>130,659.0</td>
<td>138,027.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978/79</td>
<td>132,871.0</td>
<td>147,400.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


expansion of the administrative infrastructure occurred concomitantly with the expansion of the Kingdom's economic and social development, and the implementation of many of the recommended policies.

Until 1958, there were only eight ministries and a limited number of independent agencies and departments in the Kingdom (Al-Awaji, 1981, p. 23). The small and simple administrative system that was in existence before the establishment of the Council of Ministers later became large and notably advanced. With the establishment of the cabinet and its specified functions, in addition to the significant economic growth resulting from oil revenues, the country
Table 7

Increase in Saudi Oil Price, Production, and Revenues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Price per Barrel</th>
<th>Production (Barrels per Day)</th>
<th>Annual Oil Revenues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1950</td>
<td>$1.75</td>
<td>550,000</td>
<td>$57,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>$1.80</td>
<td>1,320,000</td>
<td>$334,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>$1.80</td>
<td>3,800,000</td>
<td>$1,214,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>$2.29</td>
<td>4,770,000</td>
<td>$1,885,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>$5.04</td>
<td>7,600,000</td>
<td>$4,340,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>$11.25</td>
<td>8,480,000</td>
<td>$22,574,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>$12.38</td>
<td>7,070,000</td>
<td>$24,676,000,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 8

( Constant 1974-75 Riyals)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Petroleum Production</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total GNP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1969-70</td>
<td>58,316,500,000</td>
<td>11,516,700,000</td>
<td>69,833,200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974-75</td>
<td>128,726,700,000</td>
<td>19,990,600,000</td>
<td>148,717,300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979-80</td>
<td>204,765,000,000</td>
<td>37,305,600,000</td>
<td>242,070,600,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

experienced a great expansion in terms of the functions and services of the public sector.

In light of the unprecedented role that the government began to play and the increasing number of services offered to the citizens, new ministries and agencies were needed to undertake responsibility for the nationwide economic development which started with the first Five-Year Plan of 1970-1975. Al-Farsy (1986) describes the situation in these words:

The phenomenal expansion in the government activities, along with the Government's continued effort to enhance the development of the Kingdom and the wide-ranging program for providing better and expanded services to its citizens, has resulted in the establishment of more ministries, departments, and governmental agencies. (p. 105)

The spectacular growth of the Saudi governmental workforce from the 1940s into the 1970s is illustrated in Table 5.

By the mid-1970s, Shaw and Long (1982) relate,

as governmental responsibilities mushroomed to meet accelerated development policies, deputy minister level positions began for the first time to have major responsibilities, and an even younger group of technocrats, usually with U.S. Ph.D. degrees, began to fill these jobs. (p. 75)

The number of ministries jumped from eight to 20 by 1975; in addition, the number of public agencies increased. Many of these agencies, such as the Civil Service Bureau, are equivalent in importance to ministries. In view of the expansion and increase in the number of ministries and agencies, and the creation of new positions within them, the
need for specialists in the field of public administration increased. Because of the diversity of functions of these ministries and public agencies, administration in general became extremely complex, and more graduates with majors in public administration were needed.

Because the number of Saudi students sent abroad for degrees in public administration was proving insufficient, the government began to stress the need for establishing departments of public administration within Saudi universities. Realizing the state of Saudi public administration, more than ten years ago Ibrahim Al-Awaji (1978), one of the leading scholars in the field of public administration in the Kingdom, recognized the need for adequate programs of public administration in Saudi institutions of higher education. Al-Awaji observed that, by comparing the growth and development of administrative agencies in the Kingdom to the small number of specialized programs in Saudi universities, one could detect major shortages in the area of administrative preparation. Al-Awaji emphasized the utmost need at that time to establish an independent college of public administration in each Saudi university. He noted that this represented the minimum requirement of Saudi institutions of higher education to meet the needs of private and governmental administrative agencies in terms of both their traditional and developmental tasks (pp. 61-62).
More recently, the emergent need for administrative personnel with greater competence, expertise, and training has been a major factor in the development of public administration as a field of study. Shaw and Long (1982) indicate that there has been greater recognition of the importance of a competent and efficient force of public administrators to carry out the policies directed at achieving Saudi development goals. Consequently, "the Saudi leadership has . . . been determined to appoint only qualified people to the major administrative positions." Thus, in the 1960s, "the first generation of modern educated Saudis became available and rose quickly to positions of influence" (p. 75).

The pressures of rapid growth, Shaw and Long emphasize, have continued to intensify. They observe that "the press of business brought on by the oil boom and phenomenal growth in the public sector has forced more delegation of authority upon junior bureaucrats." Consequently, "they are exercising responsibility as never before" (p. 76).

The expansion of Saudi public administration in the 1970s and 1980s has been tremendous. By the mid-1970s (1974-75), estimated expenditures were SR 1,291.2 million. The annual growth rate was projected at 10.0 per cent (Saudi Ministry of Information, 1974).
S. S. Huyette (1983) observes that the consequences, similar to those in other developing countries, raise a number of vital questions:

How is the [Saudi] bureaucracy evolving to meet the challenge of modernization? Can the system produce new leaders both at the top and in the lower strata necessary to implement ambitious public policies? Will the bureaucracy absorb the better educated younger generation and satisfy their desires for advancement in the political arena? These issues plague most developing countries and obstruct progress. (p. 105)

In general, these questions can be answered in the affirmative, as is detailed in the remainder of this chapter and in the discussion of educational policy and the emergence of public administration as a field of study presented in Chapter 5.

Administrative Reform and Improvement

In the face of the challenges posed by this phenomenal growth in public administration, the Saudi government has endeavored to respond with a variety of policies and programs directed at enabling the bureaucracy to meet the challenges of modernization—producing new leaders at all administrative levels, enabling the bureaucracy to absorb better-educated younger individuals, and satisfying the desires of these new personnel for advancement in public administration. Al-Askar et al. (1987) relate that the Kingdom has "focused its efforts on reforming its administrative agencies, on overcoming obstacles, and on
addressing organizational and behavioral problems of its administration and public bureaucracy" (p. 3).

Two phases of administrative reform have been identified. The first phase, occurring prior to completion of the government organizational structure, "was directed toward the completion of government agencies and institutions, and developing the state development system."
The second phase of administrative reform, following finalization of the government administrative structure, "emphasized the necessity for reducing the burden of public bureaucracy through the simplification and reduction of procedures and controls, deregulation, implementation of the principles of modern management, and through the use of new technologies" (p. 3).

Noting the rapid increase in the Kingdom's system of public administration, Al-Askar et al. (1987) observe that "In less than fifteen years, rapid transformation was achieved, and the once simple governmental machinery which was limited in scope and functions grew into a huge apparatus" (p. 41). Al-Askar et al. further observe that, Modernization of public administration in the Kingdom based on the recommendations of Technical Assistance Reports (IMF, World Bank, Ford Foundation) was built around orthodox management principles and conventional wisdom--the wisdom which tells us that the introduction of the principles of management in the administration of public services will lead to the rationalization of the use of resources for the achievement of objectives. That is, improving the performance of public organizations, and getting more
output (in terms of productivity) with existing resources (inputs).  (p. 42)

Al-Askar et al. also note that by the third, or present, phase, the Kingdom has "successfully implemented three economic and social development plans" and has proceeded into a fourth.

Along with economic expansion, attention has been directed toward enhancing the Kingdom's administrative functioning—predominantly through expansion and improvement of the Council of Ministers. Al-Yassini (1985) observes that,

The council's policies and decisions are implemented by a complex bureaucratic structure that has evolved throughout the years from a small number of disjointed departments and ministries to the present system, which exhibits phenomenal centralization.  (p. 66)

Until 1951, there were only three ministries. Mohammed Tawfiq Sadeq (1965) cites these ministries, with the dates of their establishment, as follows (pp. 71-84):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ministry</th>
<th>Date Established</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Foreign Affairs</td>
<td>1930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Finance and National Economy</td>
<td>1932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Defense</td>
<td>1946</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Then, between 1951 and 1975, many more ministries were established:

Established 1951-1954
Ministry of Interior
Ministry of Education
Ministry of Agriculture and Water
Ministry of Communications
Ministry of Commerce
Ministry of Health
In addition to these official ministries, Al-Tawail (1986) lists a variety of independent departments and bureaus and explains that "the ministries and independent agencies represent the central organizational units of the government’s administrative system (p. 11). Internally, Al-Tawail notes, each ministry’s organizational structure consists of a number of line and staff departments. Each ministry and government agency is headed by a chief appointed by His Majesty the King and responsible to him. Each minister or agency head is assisted by one or more deputies and assistant deputies to whom directors of main departments report. (pp. 11-12)

Furthermore, Al-Tawail points out, each ministerial post is both political and administrative, "since most decisions in the ministry are made by the minister" (p. 12). In addition, there is a framework of financial responsibility and policy structure: "All ministries and government agencies in the Kingdom are subject to uniform financial and administrative laws and regulations" (p. 12).
Al-Tawail (1986) summarizes the structure of the Kingdom's basic administrative system, as of 1986, as follows:

- Council of Ministers (executive and legislative body)
- 20 separate ministries
- 12 government agencies
- 14 regional municipalities
- 6 municipalities for major cities
- 103 municipalities of different classes
- 45 rural compounds (providing services for rural areas)
- 3 agencies for central control
- 32 public corporations (including 7 universities)
- 5 independent agencies
- 6 agencies for administrative development

Explaining how policy is formulated in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Stevens (1982) relates that, "at the top of the structure is the King, who theoretically makes all decisions. In practice there is a backup of advisors and institutions that play a role in the decision-making process" (p. 28). Below the top, Stevens notes, "in terms of formal structure is the Council of Ministers (p. 28). Al-Awaji (1971) points out that the Council of Ministers is still the only manager of the economic, social, political and administrative affairs of the country with exclusive jurisdiction to legislate laws, initiate measures and policies, and control and insure their execution. It is the most powerful decision-making body and the most effective arm of the King, who maintains the ultimate power in the affairs of the state. (p. 116)

Madi (1975) notes that the Council of Ministers acts collectively as a legislative body and the ministries act individually as executives. Any member of the Council may initiate legislation. The King may approve or veto legislation, but if he takes no action
within 30 days, the president of the Council may decide to promulgate the law. (p. 17)

Administrative Reform and Administrative Development Agencies

Administrative reform is one of the modern administrative idioms that appeared in the post-independence period of developing countries. In the words of Jamil E. Jreisat (1988), "administrative reform is a universal claim of contemporary societies" (p. 85). Administrative reform itself is an organizing administrative process aimed at developing administrative agencies so they become compatible with the modern features of the state. Therefore, the term does not necessarily mean that the current administrative system is corrupt, but that it is a developmental process which characterizes both developing and developed countries.

Administrative reform is important and is needed from time to time so that a country can make sure that its administrative system is updated in light of new developments, both inside and outside the country. Caiden (1969) defines administrative reform as "the artificial inducement of administrative transformation against resistance" (p. 65). The Kingdom never overlooked this important and vital issue, and its attention to administrative reform dates back to 1953 when the Council of Ministers was legally established. This was followed by the establishment of the Supreme Committee for Administrative
Reform, which took responsibility for administrative reform in the Kingdom with its formation in 1963. In addition, the emergence of a number of agencies for administrative development were effective in the development of public administration and the administrative system in the Kingdom.

The concern of Saudi government for administrative reform has been pointed out by Al-Juhani (1985):

Due to the urgent need for administrative reform in the early 1960s, the Council of Ministers authorized the Minister of Finance to find an international firm in the field of public administration to provide experts to assist Saudi Arabia. The Minister of Finance chose the Ford Foundation to prepare a primary study in this regard and, in 1963 an agreement was signed. (pp. 17-18)

Based on that agreement, the Ford Foundation was to assist the Saudi government in the following areas:
(a) "reorganization of administration; (b) finance administration; (c) job classification and personnel administration; (d) development of employees' ability; (e) training programs; and (f) other areas related to the improvement of performance" (Al-Juhani, 1985, p. 18).

In the foregoing discussion, a variety of factors which were influential in the development of Saudi public administration have been identified. These, in turn, created conditions which promoted the systematic study and teaching of public administration, in other words, the development of public administration as a field of study.
The initial underlying factors in this aspect of Saudi Arabia's development are now examined.

As previously discussed, the financial crisis in the mid-1950s produced a deep awareness of the need for administrative reform. This ultimately proved to be a major factor in the development of the study of public administration in the nation. Al-Sadhan (1980) relates that "the Saudi government led by Crown Prince Faisal managed successfully to cope with the adverse effects caused by the fiscal and monetary crisis of the late fifties." However, Al-Sadhan notes, "this was only a beginning of a long and intensive process of reform" (p. 79). Al-Sadhan goes on to relate that

The Saudi Bureaucracy manifested a serious need for reform. Ample evidence supported the contention that implementation of development projects was dependent upon the degree to which government agencies were capable of performing their tasks efficiently. This argument was supported by the existence of several managerial dilemmas which may be viewed as the genesis of the administrative crisis in Saudi Arabia. (p. 79)

Al-Sadhan further emphasizes that the Saudi government was fully aware of the various problems "and was ready to proceed searching for the proper answers." Al-Sadhan notes that administrative reform was the only way to develop a proper system of public administration. "Indeed, reform of the administrative apparatus was viewed with urgency, almost parallel to and inextricably linked to the need for social and economic development" (p. 81).
Corroborating this analysis, Al-Mazroa (1980) observes that

The growth of governmental structure and functions resulting from the increased national revenue and the establishment in 1975 of five more ministries and the approval of the second five-year development plan giving the administrative system more responsibility for implementing programs all contributed to the necessity of administrative expansion. It was obviously necessary to reform the administrative system in order to assimilate these developments. (p. 285)

As a result of the drive toward administrative reform, a number of central agencies and committees have been formed with the role of developing and modernizing aspects of public administration, such as employment laws and regulations, and policies and practices in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The most significant of these are examined in this section.

Civil Service Council

The Civil Service Council was established by Royal Decree No. M/48 in 1977 on the basis of the Council of Ministers, Resolution No. 949 in the same year; it was subsequently modified by Royal Decree No. M/53 in 1983 (Civil Service Council, 1986, pp. 2-3).

The Civil Service Council is a legislative body headed directly by His Majesty the King, who is also the prime minister. His deputy is his crown prince, who with another eight ministers constitute the members of the Council (Civil Service Council, 1986, p. 6).
In collaboration with other involved agencies, the Civil Service Council has responsibility for "the planning and organization of civil service affairs in all ministries, government agencies, and public corporations; and it is responsible for developing the civil service and raising the productivity" (Al-Tawail, 1986, p. 14).

According to the Secretary-General of the Council, the Council is considered to be a policy-making body concerned with the formulation of the overall framework for the functioning of the civil service system in the country. It sets up the general policies of civil service and works toward updating the applied administrative rules and regulations which guarantee the high standards of public agencies (Interview with Abdul Rahman Al-Sadhan, 1989).

Since its establishment, the Council has been active in developing and modernizing the system of public service and assisting the General Bureau of Civil Service to execute its duties efficiently. Hence, the Council has made a significant contribution to the field of civil service in the country through various rules and regulations made and amended as needed.

**General Bureau of the Civil Service**

Al-Tawail (1986) relates that this agency has passed through several developmental stages over the period from 1943 to 1978. First set up as the Department for Personnel
Records in 1953, it was later changed to the Bureau of Personnel and Pensions, then to the General Bureau of Personnel. At the latter stage, it acquired authority to supervise the application of civil service laws and regulations (p. 16). Al-Mazroa (1980) relates that the expansion of the public bureaucracy in the early 1960s "created a need to develop the General Personnel Bureau in order to meet the requirements of the new circumstances" (p. 281).

In 1963 the agency was detached from the Ministry of Finance and attached to the Council of Ministers. In that same year the Council of Ministers Resolution No. 792 gave the Bureau’s president the rank of minister. Al-Tawail further relates that "the Bureau was authorized to announce vacant jobs and specify their qualification requirements, and to propose civil service regulations" (p. 16). Al-Mazroa (1980) also notes that in 1964 the Council of Ministers issued Resolution No. 792 "to upgrade and develop the GPB and expand its jurisdiction to cope with the new responsibilities and policy of the Civil Service." In addition, "the position of the Head of the Bureau was elevated to a ministerial level connected directly to the President of the Council of Ministers" (p. 281). In 1972 the Bureau was given the additional responsibility of administering the newly established civil service merit system. In this capacity, the Bureau was also authorized to
recommend eligible candidates for government positions (Tawail, 1986, p. 17).

Al-Askar et al. (1987) emphasize the crucial role of the General Civil Service Bureau, noting that it is "one of the central agencies which work in the field of developing and updating employment systems and policies" (p. 11). Among the agency's most significant achievements, they list the following:

- Development of procedures and regulations from contracting with expatriates to fill government positions; development and implementation of a comprehensive position classification plan;
- "Simplification of employment procedures at all levels" various educational, research, and informational activities. (pp. 28-29)

Central Department for Organization and Management

Nominally this department was established by Royal Decree No. 19 in 1964; the agency began actually functioning in 1966. According to Al-Tawail (1986) its functions initially included:

- Examining and analyzing work methods in government agencies "in order to improve their effectiveness and to enable them to provide better services to citizens";
- Analyzing and simplifying office procedures in government agencies and encouraging the use of more modern equipment and practices; collaborating with experts from the Ford Foundation involved with the administrative reform program in regard to organization and implementation of the program; advising government agencies "on all matters related to administrative organization, employment and work methods."

In 1967 the agency's responsibilities were further expanded by Resolution No. 1629/18 issued by the Minister of
Finance and National Economy. According to Al-Tawail (1986), some of the major additional duties included:

Improving methods of organization in various agencies at various levels, establishing and publishing adequate performance standards, and determining manpower needs for the given agencies; reviewing proposals for the establishment of new agencies prior to budgetary allocations, and reviewing reorganization proposals or alterations in the responsibilities of existing agencies; preparing draft laws and regulations regarding organization and management, and reviewing existing regulations with a view to development; collaborating with the Institute of Public Administration in creating and organizing training programs; providing various levels of assistance to other agencies; providing financial and budgetary analysis in regard to government employment. (pp. 19-20)

Al-Tawail notes that "the Central Department for organization and management was successful, from the time when it was established until now, in playing an important role in the simplification of work methods and procedures" (p. 20).

Supreme Committee for Administrative Reform

Established by Council of Ministers, Resolution No. 520 in 1963, this agency was given the objective, according to Al-Tawail (1986), of "directing the process of administrative reform, speeding up the process of reorganizing government agencies, and developing the administrative system of the Kingdom" (p. 20). The Committee was given substantial power, as Al-Tawail (1986) relates:
It can take whatever action is needed to achieve reform of the administrative system; its decisions are to be carried out within the limits of this Resolution; and it is delegated the authorities of the Council of Ministers . . . concerning the creation and organization of public agencies. (p. 20)

Al-Tawail relates that "since its establishment, the Supreme Committee has made many achievements which aimed at developing the governmental administrative system and modernizing work regulations and procedures," including preparation of a Five-Year Plan for Administrative Reform.

Central Training Committee

The Central Training Committee was established in 1977 as part of the General Bureau of the Civil Service. Training is always a matter of concern for Saudi officials because of its importance and efficiency in preparing public servants. Due to the remarkable shortage of bureaucrats holding academic degrees in the field of public administration, training is the only means by which the vacuum can be filled. As the sole employer for Saudi graduates, the government concentrated heavily on training, giving it the utmost attention required. Moreover, training is considered part of the duties of civil servants.

Abdul Rahman al-AbdulKader (1980) highlights the evolution and development of training in the Saudi civil service. To him, administrative training in the area of civil service did not take its official character until 1961, when the Institution of Public Administration was
first established. The personnel law of 1970 came to represent the new beginning of civil service with its new concepts and principles. Al-AbdulKader adds that training has its special significance, and is defined by the law of civil service to be a part of the job duties.

In order to accomplish this objective and preserve it from deviation, al-AbdulKader continues, a training committee was formed under His Excellence the President of the Civil Service Bureau. In addition, the committee includes the Director General of the Institute of Public Administration, the Deputy Commissioner of the General Organization for Technical Education and Vocational Training, the Deputy-Minister of the Ministry of Higher Education, and the Deputy-Minister of the Ministry of Finance and National Economy. Among the committee’s responsibilities is formulating training policies for government employees (pp. 225-240).

The Central Training Committee has a variety of functions including the formulation of policy for training public officials, coordination and oversight of training centers, overseeing requests for training government personnel abroad, and approval of scholarships for government personnel (Al-Tawail, 1986, pp. 22-23).

Article No. 34/5 defined the duties of the training committee as follows:
1. Setting overall policies for employees' training;

2. Coordinating the training centers for employees and following up their activities, advising them, and exploring the extent of benefits of the governmental agencies generating from them;

3. Approving and rejecting applications for training abroad, no matter what the training period;

4. Limiting the training period of the employee abroad;

5. Approving the acceptance of training scholarships (Civil Service Bureau, 1988, p. 213).

Al-Tawail (1986) relates that the committee has played an important role in the coordinating training proposals from different government agencies and "integrating them into an annual training plan for the Kingdom." He further notes that the agency has "also played an important role in organizing scholarships for training abroad and in planning and organizing training activities locally" (p. 23).

Manpower Council

Al-Tawail (1986) relates that this agency was created by the Manpower Council Law of 1980, issued by Royal Decree No. M/31 on the basis of Council of Ministers Resolution No. 122 (p. 23). Empowered with comprehensive responsibilities for manpower planning, training, and development, the Manpower Council has pursued four specific objectives:
increasing the total number of Saudi nationals in the labor force; increasing "the productivity of Saudi manpower in all sectors;" distributing the Saudi workforce among the more developed and productive sectors of the economy; minimizing dependence on foreign manpower. (pp. 24-25)

Institute of Public Administration

Established in 1961, according to Al-Tawail (1986), pursuant to Royal Decree No. 93 with subsequent amendments by Royal Decrees Nos. M/39 and M/5, the IPA is legally described as "an autonomous body with a separate legal entity" (pp. 41-42). The IPA's major objectives include:

- increasing the efficiency and performance of public officials; enhancing the effective organization of government bodies; providing the ministries with advice regarding administrative problems; conducting research in administrative issues. (Al-Tawail, 1986, p. 42)

Al-Tawail further notes that creation of the IPA "is considered the first practical step toward administrative reform" (p. 42). In a quarter of a century, "from the time it was established until now, the Institute exerted strenuous efforts in supporting the process of administrative development in the Kingdom" and has accomplished a great deal (p. 42). Al-Tawail provides a long list of the IPA's achievements, mainly in establishing innovative programs of training, providing consultation and publication services, and participating in research and planning (pp. 42-45). In brief, "such achievements mean that top management of the Institute has always kept in mind the goals which were enunciated in the Institute's Law and
has adopted plans and programs for their achievements" (p. 45). The IPA has played an influential role in the development of public administration in training public employees and promoting administrative development toward greater productivity in government agencies.

**Colleges of Administration at Saudi Universities**

The crucial role of the universities in the development and improvement of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has been widely recognized. It stems directly from the Kingdom's emphasis on the development of human resources. As Hassan A. Al-Shaikh (1985), the late Minister of Higher Education, explained,

Development of human resources has been considered as a *sine qua non* for the economic and social development of the country. Education has therefore been identified as a key factor for the training and production of manpower needed for the development and management of the national affairs. High priority has been accordingly given to educational expansion and its qualitative improvement in the successive development plans. (p. vii)

Al-Tawail (1986) relates that

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia recognized the importance of higher education about thirty years ago when it established its first university. The opportunities for higher education have since then expanded, and the numbers of university students have multiplied in line with the increasing number of universities. (p. 45)

The Kingdom's approach to higher education has been dynamic and mindful of what the country truly needs. In his Preface to a major statistical yearbook, Hassan A. Al-Shaikh
(1984), the late Minister of Higher Education, declared that:

The people and the government of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, under the benign guidance of the successive kings and their able ministers and advisers have been making sustained and concerted efforts directed towards the enrichment of life of her citizens, specially through the advancement of knowledge. To achieve this purpose the educational facilities have been greatly expanded in the country, particularly during the past three decades. (p. v)

Minister Al-Shaikh (1985) further elaborated the fundamentals of the Kingdom’s educational policy:

The policy views education—in all its forms, stages, organs and facilities—as geared to achieve Islamic objectives and subject to the requirements and provisions of Islam. It is therefore the Kingdom’s policy to provide and spread education in its various stages. . . . Development of human resources is considered by the State as the springboard to the utilization of all other resources. Development of manpower through education and training is therefore the basis of general development. (p. vii)

Higher education has continuously developed according to the needs of the society which surrounds it. Today the Kingdom’s universities offer degree programs in a wide range of disciplines, including "religion, arts, sciences, technology and administrative and social sciences" (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Higher Education, 1984, p. 23).

Noting that there are currently seven universities in the Kingdom, Al-Tawail (1986) emphasizes that "as institutions of higher education, universities contribute a great deal to the development and progress of the Kingdom through their educational, research, and higher studies
programs and through the specialization they provide." As a result, "universities play a major role in meeting the real manpower needs of the Kingdom" (p. 45). A more detailed discussion of universities in the Kingdom is presented in Chapter 5.

Role of Five-Year Plans

Among the most significant factors contributing to the development of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and its evolution as a field of study was the coordination of national development planning represented by the Five-Year Development Plans. Initiated in 1968, the Five-Year Plans focus on planning and development efforts in a systematic way in every facet of the Kingdom’s development: industrial development, health, human development, education, and so on. The specific goals of these plans are expressed well by Abussuud (1979):

The Saudi government is committed to progress in the light of the general goals and ideals that are specified in the last two comprehensive plans. The ultimate goal is to improve the standard of living of the citizens of Saudi Arabia, their welfare and social security, their education and personal expectations. (p. 109)

Development of manpower resources has been a major element of these plans, and has particularly influenced not only the general development of higher education but the fostering of more competent administrative personnel through the promotion of public administration as a field of study.
The report of the First Five-Year Plan in 1970 declares that,

Some of the factors which will continue to have an important effect on the rate of social and economic development are directly related to the need for increased efficiency and desirable changes in the occupational distribution of the labor force. An economy initially based mainly on agriculture and commerce, and more recently on oil, is now attempting to diversify as quickly as existing constraints will permit, and manpower shortages have at times made it difficult to proceed as rapidly as desired. (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Central Planning Organization, 1970, pp. 23-24)

The report of the Second Five-Year Plan (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Planning, 1976) further declares the Kingdom's objectives in terms of human resource development "so that the Saudi people may profit from as well as contribute to the development of their Kingdom, the enrichment of their individual working skills and intellectual and cultural lives is a primary concern of the Government" (p. 213).

The Third Development Plan (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Planning, 1980) emphasizes the importance of human factors to the Kingdom's development program: "The development of Saudi human resources stands at the heart of the development process" (p. 287). Acknowledging "the rapid growth of Saudi universities over the recent past," the plan also affirms that "This rate of growth illustrates the pace which the higher education system must maintain in order to continue to meet the demand for places within it" (p. 297).
The most recent plan, the Fourth Development Plan for 1985-1990 (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Planning, 1985), points out that "the spectacular growth in educational enrollment in response to the expansion of facilities, teachers and other resources, is one of the most prominent features of development in Saudi Arabia" (p. 52). The report also relates that "The expansion and present diversity in higher education has been realized due to the determined efforts of individual institutions and generous government support" (p. 54). Toward achieving coordination of higher education in the long term, the Fourth Development Plan includes a "comprehensive policy framework" or "master plan" for the development of higher education, which consists of seven major long-term policy measures related to the strategic objectives of the plan (p. 55). "Their main aim will be to make the education system more responsive to the requirements of development and the needs of the labor market in quality, quantity and speed of response" (pp. 55-56).

**Toward Better Administration**

Saudi Arabia’s tremendous growth in bureaucracy has intensified demands for competent administrative manpower which the nation has found increasingly difficult to meet. This has been a particularly significant factor in the emergence of public administration as a field of study.
Huyette (1985) reports that in 1960, Muhammad Tawfiq Ramzi of the United Nations carried out a random survey which found that 95% of Saudi civil servants had completed only elementary school (p. 105). At that time, "the educational system contributed little to government efficiency" (p. 105).

Although, as Shaw and Long (1982) report, "in the 1960s, the first generation of modern educated Saudis became available and rose quickly to positions of influence" (p. 75), the need for additional competent manpower in the civil service became widely recognized in that period. Subsequently, at the end of the 1970s, Othman (1979), could still warn that

Saudi Arabia is a country with unlimited wealth but with very limited human resources. The rate of growth of its bureaucracy, in terms of institutions and personnel, is high but it is not so high because it is always hindered by shortage in qualified and trained personnel whether local or otherwise. (p. 239)

Thus, Othman continued, "the Saudi bureaucracy with its limited human resources is charged with enormous responsibilities stemming from its over-ambitious development plans" (p. 234). Regarding the surge in bureaucratic growth, Othman also warned that such growth in bureaucracy is sometimes mainly quantitative and does not necessarily mean an improvement in its quality. The bureaucratic machinery cannot bear the rapidly increasing demands created and stimulated by the growth of wealth. In Saudi Arabia, the rapid growth of wealth has created an over-optimistic environment without taking into
consideration the capacity of the bureaucracy. (p. 236)

Pointing out that, as in other developing countries, the government in Saudi Arabia is the main employer and instrument charged with social and economic development, Othman observed that "there is a shortage in trained and educated personnel and much of the increase in government employment takes place at the lower levels of hierarchy" (p. 238). Al-Nimir and Palmer (1982), discussing the implications of the "bureaucratic boom" in the 1970s, similarly point out that in that period "individuals from all segments of Saudi society, many with minimal educational and bureaucratic skills, were enticed into the bureaucracy with generous salaries and the promise of job security" (p. 102).

The shortage of indigenous competent manpower also forced excessive reliance on foreign manpower. Palmer et al. (1987) point out that the "explosion" of the Saudi bureaucracy in response to the oil boom forced significant dependence on foreign personnel: "Even today, a large percentage of its personnel are still drawn from Egypt, Palestine, and other neighbouring states which possess a deeper bureaucratic tradition" (p. 243). Providing some quantitative dimensions of this dependence on foreign bureaucratic personnel, Mansour Alsaud (1986) cites data for 1983-84 from the Saudi General Council of Civil Service
which indicate that, of almost 300,000 professional civil service positions, 64.4% were held by native Saudis and 35.6% by foreign nationals (pp. 19-20). Mansour Alsaud goes on to quote an analysis of Congressional Quarterly, Inc., which warns:

"Though a large, foreign work force now has become essential to the Saudi economy, the costs to the economy of maintaining it could undermine the competitiveness of Saudi efforts. And a consensus might develop within Saudi Arabia that the costs to the country's conservative Islamic society were too great." (p. 20)

Mansour Alsaud (1986) likewise notes "the apparent inability of Saudi national manpower to fill the current job vacancies" (p. 20).

As of the late 1970s, Othman (1979) noted that "despite the fact that the country has relied upon foreign sources of employment to meet the need of the bureaucracy, the need for more employees is still unmet" (p. 239). To some extent, this reliance persists even into the 1980s, according to Mansour Alsaud (1986), who has cited a 22% rate of open job vacancies in the number of government jobs available in 1983-84 (p. 19). In conclusion Othman warns that "such shortage in human resources is more serious than the shortage of capital" (p. 239).

It should be noted that although the above mentioned studies were published recently, most of them depended on data from the 1960s and 1970s. They do not take into consideration developments which occurred in the 1980s in
the areas of public administration and civil service as a result of the huge numbers of graduates from Saudi universities and their branches throughout the country. Recent graduates come from all academic majors, such as public administration, business administration, economics, political science, law, computer science, medicine, pharmacy, and other specializations. The reality that cannot be ignored is the tremendous transition which the Kingdom has experienced in its administration during the last two decades. In a relatively short period of time, the Saudi government has significantly raised the efficiency and effectiveness of its agencies by providing them with increased numbers of qualified and skilled personnel.

The importance of these data is that they are clear indications of the unprecedented transitions which have taken place in the Kingdom over the last 20 years, and which have been aimed at creating well qualified national bureaucrats who are capable and competent to undertake the public responsibility and work toward further development of the country.

It is quite evident that the wise policy which the Saudi government began to apply with the advent of the 1960s and which was concerned with preparing the Saudi citizens to participate in building their country has been successful and fruitful. The increasing number of Saudis in public service and the decreasing number of foreigners working in
the Saudi public sector clearly support the effectiveness of this policy (see Table 9). Although a significant number of foreigners continue to work in Saudi Arabia, they are primarily professionals in areas such as specific teaching fields, medicine, nursing, technical professions, and other rare professions in which the Kingdom is working hard to make nationals available. As Huyette (1985) observes, Sa'udi Arabia in the 1980s can be described as a "quasi-developed" as opposed to a "developing" country. The people are achieving high levels of literacy and are gradually replacing foreigners at all levels of employment, the economy has diversified into industry and agriculture using the most modern capital equipment, and an extensive network of highways and communications systems is largely in place (p. 135).

Based on interviews with government officials and faculty members (1989), as far as the field of public administration is concerned, the Kingdom is self-sufficient, and Saudi universities are well qualified to provide the required number of public administrators.

The General Bureau of Civil Service's statistics of 1987 confirm this information and indicate that the number of non-Saudis working on contract with the government reached 12,555 in 1987, which was 3,485, or 22%, less than in 1986. Contracts were terminated for 13,006 workers, representing a decrease of 344, or 3%, for the same year. Contracts were renewed for 3,498 workers in 1987, which was an increase of 1,446, or 70%, from 1986 (General Bureau of Civil Service for 1987, p. 20). This clearly indicates the
Table 9

The Growing Number of Government Employees from 1976-77 to 1985-86

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fiscal Year</th>
<th>In-Cadre Saudi Employees</th>
<th>Annual Percentage Increase</th>
<th>Number of Foreigners</th>
<th>Annual Percentage Increase</th>
<th>Number of Out-Cadre</th>
<th>Annual Percentage Increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1976-77</td>
<td>88,070</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>47,055</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>52,737</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977-78</td>
<td>97,084</td>
<td>+10%</td>
<td>50,976</td>
<td>+ 8%</td>
<td>50,978</td>
<td>- 3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978-79</td>
<td>105,548</td>
<td>+ 9%</td>
<td>57,252</td>
<td>+12%</td>
<td>49,421</td>
<td>- 3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979-80</td>
<td>114,625</td>
<td>+ 9%</td>
<td>64,182</td>
<td>+12%</td>
<td>50,431</td>
<td>+ 2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-81</td>
<td>129,775</td>
<td>+13%</td>
<td>69,397</td>
<td>+ 8%</td>
<td>53,726</td>
<td>+ 7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-82</td>
<td>138,729</td>
<td>+ 7%</td>
<td>72,867</td>
<td>+ 5%</td>
<td>56,875</td>
<td>+ 6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982-83*</td>
<td>182,899</td>
<td>+32%</td>
<td>86,243</td>
<td>+18%</td>
<td>65,079</td>
<td>+14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983-84</td>
<td>191,936</td>
<td>+ 5%</td>
<td>106,124</td>
<td>+23%</td>
<td>66,188</td>
<td>+ 2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984-85</td>
<td>205,857</td>
<td>+ 7%</td>
<td>121,331</td>
<td>+14%</td>
<td>68,602</td>
<td>+ 4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-86</td>
<td>227,927</td>
<td>+11%</td>
<td>129,281</td>
<td>+ 7%</td>
<td>71,811</td>
<td>+ 5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*This fiscal year included faculty members within universities, judicial cadre, and government corporations.

Note. From Civil Service in Numbers 1985-86 (p. 20), by Civil Service Bureau (1986), Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.
significant progress which the Kingdom has made within the past 10 years in becoming self-sufficient. As Shaw and Long (1982) report, "today, the supply of Western-educated Saudis is burgeoning" (p. 75). Gradually, government attention and efforts to encourage manpower training and education have begun to pay off. "In the mid-1970s, as governmental responsibilities mushroomed to meet accelerated development policies, deputy minister level positions began for the first time to have major responsibilities, and an even younger group of technocrats, usually with U.S. Ph.D. degrees, began to fill these jobs" (p. 75). This is corroborated by Al-Yassini (1985) in his observation that "the increase in the number of . . . educated administrators was reflected in the increase in the number of ministerial positions they held." He goes on to point out that "by the 1960s, appointments of . . . educated commoners to cabinet positions had increased in number" (p. 82).

Quandt (1981) likewise affirms this increase in ministerial technical expertise when he observes that "a number of ministers have technical competence and ambitions to shape future policies" (p. 86). "In 1975 the Council of Ministers was significantly strengthened by the inclusion of a number of young, technically competent ministers." Educated in the West, these ministers tended to steer away from "indiscriminate spending on development projects" and sought to "apply standards of rationality to the Saudi
budget" (p. 86). A. H. Somjee (1984) concludes that Saudi Arabia "has also increasingly trained her own men to take up executive, professional, and skilled positions" (p. 154).

The political system of Saudi Arabia provides an environment which fosters the development of future leaders and provides attractive opportunities for their administrative advancement. In this regard, Abussuud (1979) observes that

The Saudi bureaucracy, in the absence of political parties and interest groups, works as an agent for political, social and economic changes. It provides [an] excellent environment for economic entrepreneurship and facilitates professional activities and political leadership at both local and national levels. It provides greater opportunity and advancement for new educated members of society. (pp. 172-173)

In this respect, Al-Suhaibani (1985) points out, the number of specialists doubled and continued to rapidly increase in all fields. The personnel departments were able to fill many vacancies with highly qualified national graduates. This policy helped the developmental process of the country by utilizing national manpower (p. 131).

Al-Suhaibani stresses that through these developments, Saudis can proudly and firmly realize that, in the near future, the nation will witness many positive advances which will have a great impact on employment (p. 131).

Throughout the history of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, leadership has been, and still is, concerned with preparing future Saudi generations to fulfill the responsibilities of
administrative leadership with the capabilities necessary to manage public affairs in the administrative governmental agencies. Experience and leadership are currently evident at all administrative levels in the Kingdom. In addition, many Saudi experts now fill important positions in international organizations. Among these international agencies are the United Nations organizations and some international administrative agencies such as the Arabic Institute of Administrative Sciences, and International Institute of Administrative Sciences, which is headed by Mohamed Abdul Al-Rahman Al-Tawil the General Director of the Institute of Public Administration which has recently been reorganized by Saudi experts (Interview with AbdulRahman Shakawy, 1989). This involvement is further evidence of the willingness of the Saudi political system to produce knowledgeable administrative leaders who are able to manage the government’s affairs at all administrative levels.

Summary of Chapter Four

A variety of exceptional factors have influenced the development of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. From the earliest period of the nation’s development until the discovery and first production of oil in the 1930s, the predominant influencing factor was the drive by King Abdul Aziz Al-Saud to consolidate the Kingdom. The development of Saudi Arabian public administration was
particularly shaped by (a) the absence of any pre-existing colonial administrative structure, (b) the existence of some administrative structure and experienced bureaucracy in the western regions of the Kingdom, and (c) shortages of indigenous Saudi manpower adequate to fulfill bureaucratic roles, thus resulting in extraordinary reliance on manpower from outside Arab states.

Based on the analysis and evidence presented, it can be readily concluded that, since the 1930s, the preeminent influence in the development of public administration in Saudi Arabia has been the tremendous and rapid growth brought about by the astronomical increase in petroleum production and revenues. As a handbook by the Foreign Area Studies of the American University relates,

The institutions of public administration underwent enormous changes during the half-century following the founding of the kingdom. The advent and monumental growth of the kingdom’s oil wealth hastened the creation of new institutions and the standardization of bureaucratic procedures. (Nyrop, 1984, p. 208)

Similarly Al-Nimir and Palmer (1982) emphasize that the Saudi bureaucracy is of recent origin, having achieved substantial size and complexity only during the last twenty years. The oil boom of the post war era and particularly the 1970s precipitated a concurrent bureaucratic boom. (p. 102)

The formation of the Council of Ministers in 1953 and the expansion of its authority in 1958 shaped the progress of public administrative development. Public administration in Saudi Arabia has developed in an indigenous fashion with
unique features responsive to the social and cultural characteristics of the country.

Al-Sadhan (1980) summarizes the major influences and processes well:

The Saudi nation-building process underwent several major stages of evolution. First came the consolidation of the fragmented sheikdoms into a cohesive national unity. Then came the creation of a number of institutions and systems to implement the objectives and programs of the new nation. Unlike most governments of the Third World and particularly in this region, the Saudi bureaucracy evolved in absence of a colonial legacy. It grew largely from local resources and in response to local needs. (p. 77)

Al-Yassini (1985) summarizes the process of Saudi Arabia’s public administrative development with the observation that,

The development of an oil economy in Saudi Arabia has ushered in a period of increased government activities that necessitated the expansion of state jurisdiction. It led to the creation of a complex administrative structure to implement these policies. (p. 79)

Through the postwar and most recent eras, the continued rapid pace of economic and societal expansion has created severe pressures for a competent bureaucratic infrastructure. While training in higher education institutions abroad has fulfilled some of this need, the overriding need has arisen in the past several decades for an adequate indigenous system of training, particularly in higher education, to close remaining gaps in bureaucratic expertise and proficiency.
In response to the previously cited questions raised in her study, Huyette (1985) concludes that, although more remains to be accomplished, much progress has been made:

Clearly there have been important changes in the Saudi political system, most notably the expansion of higher education, the increasing ability of Saudis to manage the technical aspects of a modern society, and the shift away from ascriptive qualifications toward education and training as the prerequisites for mobility within the civil service. Without major social upheaval, Saudis have adapted rapidly to a changing social and physical environment, away from the simple economic and social life of the small rural village to the complex existence of modern urban areas. (p. 119)

Moreover, Huyette notes,

political institutions are still adapting to the changes of the 1970s and 1980s. The growth of the Council of Ministers and the development of the Sa’udi bureaucracy have provided prestigious employment for Sa’udi professionals, establishing a new source of elite status for those with training and ability. (p. 136)

Huyette particularly recognizes the role of the Kingdom’s leadership in this process of progressive change, observing that "the Sa’udi leadership has proven capable of creating new political institutions and absorbing a younger generation of elites into the political process" (p. 137).

Thus, Huyette contends, while there is "a lingering need for standardization of procedures, better management, and increased efficiency," the Saudi bureaucracy "faces the future with numerical sufficiency." Saudi leaders of the future will have to respond to some remaining challenges of modernization and will have to discover "their own balance
between the demands of a modern state and their cultural and religious heritage" (p. 119).

Discussion in this chapter has followed the development of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia through its various stages since the unification of the country until today. In addition, it makes possible the formulation of a response to Research Question 1, which asks: What factors have led to the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration and the birth of public administration programs at major Saudi universities? The factors which led to significant interest in public administration as a field of study have been highlighted. An analysis of the most important factors yields the following observations:

1. The historical development of public administration was accompanied by a number of events and elements that had tremendous impact on the forming of the administrative machinery of the Kingdom in a gradual fashion. The building of Saudi administration was not sudden, but came in a step-by-step process as a result of the emerging needs of the domestic society. With the gradual development of Saudi administration, the administrative system in the Kingdom developed over the years from a simple and smaller form of machinery to a larger, more advanced, and sophisticated one.

2. The tremendous growth in the size of the Saudi bureaucracy confronted the government with a permanent
demand for manpower, and made it necessary to seek professionals from neighboring Arab countries. The government felt that it was important to control the increasing number of non-Saudi employees, and it therefore began the process of training and preparing highly qualified Saudi citizens in the field of public administration to undertake public responsibility. There was a fundamental shift in a relatively short period of time when the highest administrative positions began to be filled by Saudis. Today, most top-ranking bureaucrats in the country are Saudis who have a doctorate or master's degree in public administration. Saudis at all levels who do not have academic degrees in public administration are subject to intensive training at the Institute of Public Administration in the Kingdom.

The existence of relatively large numbers of individuals with academic degrees in public administration has led to notable changes in existing concepts, rules, and laws necessary to match the progressive development of Saudi administration. There is a notable advancement in the functioning of the Saudi administrative system. Today, the widespread use of computers among governmental agencies has facilitated the advancement of administrative procedures to an unprecedented level and, at the same time, has saved time and made the exchange of information among the various public agencies more efficient. All recent surveys
conducted in the Kingdom show that there has been a great increase in employees' productivity. The notable administrative awareness and consciousness which has developed is largely due to the involvement of professional newcomers and bureaucrats in the public sector.

3. The high level of economic growth which the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has experienced in the last two decades has been one of the prominent factors leading to the previously noted attention to public administration as a field of study—especially to produce qualified bureaucrats who are able to take control of the management of the Saudi economy.

4. The ambitious Five-Year Plans whose seeds were first planted in 1968 were among the particularly important factors which contributed to the need for the academic major in public administration and the procurement of competent administrators to carry out those plans. It should be noted that, from the start, these Five-Year Plans concentrated on human resource development and education in general, and on administrative elements in particular.

5. Administrative reform and administrative development agencies have been significant. There is no doubt that the administrative reform which the Kingdom witnessed after the monetary crisis of 1956 played a very important role in the process of administrative reform and resulted in the emergence of many specialized administrative agencies—the so-called "Administrative Development
Agencies." The agencies have also been effective in the development of public administration in the Kingdom. These agencies include the Institute of Public Administration, the Colleges of Administrative Science at major Saudi Universities, the Supreme Committee for Administrative Reform, the Civil Service Council, the General Bureau of the Civil Service, the Central Department for Organization and Management, the Manpower Council, and the Central Committee for Training and Scholarship.

6. The last factor, higher education in the Kingdom, has developed with increased need. It is not static; on the contrary, it takes domestic needs into consideration and works toward creating all specialized fields including public administration. Specialization in the field of administration is vital because it supplies the government with its need for cadre. There is a clear analogy between the demand in the public sector for qualified personnel who are well trained and prepared in the field of public administration, and the demand in the private sector for those qualified in the area of business administration. Therefore, the universities in the Kingdom became interested in public administration as a part of their duty as the supplier of local human resources.

Faculty members at the universities and officials in governmental agencies generally agree that the economic growth and development experienced over the past two decades
and the ambitious Five-Year Development Plans contributed to the development of all aspects of public administration, including pressuring Saudi universities to meet the requirements and demands of the increasing growth of the bureaucracy. Responding to the urgent need of government agencies for a large number of professionals in public administration with qualified administrative skills, the universities established the major of public administration and began working toward its development. The universities spared no effort in producing as many graduates with majors in public administration as possible and in preparing Saudi generations who are well trained and qualified to satisfy the societal needs of the Kingdom. Indeed, the discovery of the enormous oil wealth in the Kingdom and the incredible development that followed directed the attention of institutions of public administration to the continuous and increased need of the country for the administrative cadres to march with the Kingdom toward progress, prosperity, and the best future in the next century.
CHAPTER 5

DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
AS A FIELD OF STUDY

The preceding chapter presented the development of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia along with factors that have contributed to the development of public administration as a field of study. This chapter describes the evolution of public administration in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia.

The Development of Higher Education and the Educational System in Saudi Arabia: Historical Background

In order to discuss the development of public administration as a field of study, it is important to first consider the development of higher education and the educational system in Saudi Arabia because the public administration program is part of higher education. "Education," Abd-elwassie (1970) has observed, "is essential for building any successful society. It contributes to the development of mankind towards perfection and provides society with the means to construct its own pattern of life" (p. 1). Former Saudi Deputy Minister of Education (now Minister of Pilgrimage and Endowments) Abd-elwassie contends that a nation's educational system involves an intimate
cultural interrelationship between the given society and each individual within it:

Education, therefore, is a social and moral function operated by society for the building of the personality of its individual members in order to enable them to continue developing their society as well as their own personalities and their potentialities. Education is an activity based on social awareness and intended to produce desired changes in human behaviour as required by the ideal pattern of society. Its scope extends from the values, elements, objectives and dimensions of the culture of the society to the individuals constituting the society who manifest its culture and are responsible for its survival and development. (p. 3)

The basis for education in Saudi Arabia is rooted in Islam. Education has always held a pre-eminent role in Islam and in the priorities of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. This preeminence is reflected in the Kingdom's statement of its educational goals, which are to bring about proper, integrated comprehension of Islam, plant and propagate the Islamic creed, provide students with the Islamic values, precepts and ideals, make them acquire knowledge and various skills, develop constructive behaviour attitudes, advance the society economically, socially and culturally and prepare the individual to be a useful member of his society. (Directory of Higher Education, 1987, p. 13)

As Mahmoud Saleh (1986) notes, "Saudi Arabia follows an Islamic philosophy of education and the seed of its educational system [is] founded in Islam" (p. 18). As he further points out, "Islam exalts the human mind and promotes free thought and inquiry when it commands the acquisition and propagation of learning" (p. 18). He notes that
The word 'Our'an' itself is derived from the word 'reading' and the first verse of the Our'an is a call to read and write. Islam dictates learning to be an obligation of every Muslim man or woman. Education therefore is valued, encouraged and supported by Islam. (p. 18)

Saleh emphasizes that "stress on spreading human knowledge among people is found in the Our'an as a central theme in the sayings of the prophet Muhammad and forms the foundation of the Islamic philosophy of education" (p. 18).

Hamad Ibrahim Al-Sallom (1988) summarizes the sources of the education policy and goals in the Kingdom into four basic principles:

1. Islamic and Arabic culture. It represents the principal source from which the education in the Kingdom derives its goals. The educational policy in the Kingdom was derived from Islam, which Saudi citizens adopt as a faith, worship, conduct, constitution, rule, and system of life.

2. Social and economic conditions and developmental requirements. Saudi society has its own features. The most important feature is that it is an Arabic Islamic society, deeply attached to the customs, traditions, and system of the Arabic Islamic life. It is a society which is heading toward progress and rapid development in the fields of organization, administration, services, international participation, and its own modern civilization.
3. **Century's directions, needs, and features today and in the future.** The Kingdom is a part of the international society and is affected by it both negatively and positively. The rapid scientific and technological development in the world has made Saudi Arabia aware of the necessity to encourage education, and extensive use of sophisticated modern technologies in the field of education, to achieve the national educational objectives in the most efficient and effective ways.

4. **Needs of Saudi citizens.** Saudi citizens are the center of all educational efforts and goals. Many educational goals were inspired by the society's needs (pp. 21-22).

   The fact that the implementation of this central theme of Islam is at the root of Saudi Arabia's educational policy is reflected in the Ministry of Education's original policy statement on the "purpose and general objectives of education" (KSA, MHE, MCEP, 1974):

   The purpose of education is to have the student understand Islam in a correct comprehensive manner, to plant and spread the Islamic creed, to furnish the student with the values, teachings and ideals of Islam, to equip him with the various skills and knowledge, to develop his conduct in constructive directions, to develop the society economically, socially and culturally, and to prepare the individual to become a useful member in the building of his community. (sec. 28)

   From the beginning, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has approached the need for education with an effort to
incorporate the latest developments in techniques and technology while simultaneously promoting Islamic religious, moral, and cultural traditions. Discussing the development of the Kingdom's educational program, Young (1983) points out that underlying all Saudi educational development plans "is care to safeguard Islamic religious and moral values while taking advantage of modern technology" (p. 107).

Regarding the Kingdom's educational policy, Al-Mani and Sbit As-Sbit (1981) recount its strong moral foundation:

Educational policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia states that the aim of education is the correct understanding of Islam and the inculcation and dissemination of the Islamic creed; the imbuing of the student with Islamic values, doctrines and ideals; the imparting of the various types of knowledge and skills; the social, economic and cultural development of society; and the preparation of the individual to be a useful participant in the building of his society. (p. 14)

The approach to education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is unique in many respects: not only is it an Islamic approach, but it reflects the specific cultural characteristics of the land as well. Al-Zaid (1982) points out that

Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia actually represents a different model in contrast with the educational systems applied to other Islamic countries, because it is clearly bound by a deliberate Islamic policy and is characterized by comprehensiveness and diffusion within a period of time considered to be a record in comparison with the time taken by similar countries. It is thus heading quite noticeably for a perfect whole in as far as the diversity and levels of its programmes and the availability of means are concerned, requiring the adoption of stands for
scientific reshaping and reorganization so as to let it always take the proper course. (p. 13)

Early Development of Education in Arabia

Abd-elwassie (1970) relates that, centuries ago, education in the Arabian peninsula "remained haphazard until the message of the prophet Mohamed came from the Holy City of Makkah like a light in the wilderness" (p. 3). Abd-elwassie emphasizes that "this was an amazing advance in human thought at a time when the whole world lived in the darkness of ignorance" (pp. 3-4). He notes that "educational institutions were, in fact, limited to small and widely scattered literacy 'Kottabs', which were frequented by a minority of the people and most of what they learned was forgotten soon after they left the class" (p. 4).

More modern educational subjects and methods were not introduced into the Arabian peninsula until the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, when a handful of philanthropic private schools were established (Abd-elwassie, 1970, p. 4; Al-Zaid, 1982, p. 15).

Upon the unification of the nation by King Abdulaziz, however, the status and level of education began to change. "It was then," Abd-elwassie (1970) recounts, "that schools were opened in an organized form based on a well planned system" (p. 5). Moreover, "the spread of schools all over the country necessitated the creation of an education
department in 1924 . . . and this was the dawn of a system of education covering both primary and secondary levels" (p. 5). Al-Zaid (1982) notes that "the Saudi General Department of Education can be considered a forerunner to other educational organizations that were to follow one after the other" (p. 21). In 1926 the Saudi Scientific Institute was founded in Makkah with the goal of "turning out teachers and providing government departments with officials" (p. 21). Al-Zaid also points out that "this Institute is considered as the first educational establishment for post-elementary studies" (p. 21). In 1933 a judicial section was added to it, possibly representing "the beginning of the idea of founding a Shari'a (Religious Law) College in the country, which came into being 17 years later" (Abd-elwassie, 1970, p. 21).

An initial act to establish specialized educational programs occurred in 1936 with the establishment of the Basic School for Foreign Scholarships (Madrasat Tahdeer Al-Ba’thaat, also known as the External Missions Preparation School). Specialization was divided into arts and sciences (Al-Zaid, 1982, pp. 21-22). A major program of theological education was started in 1945 with the establishment of the Taif School of Islamic Fundamentals (Daar Al-Tawheed Bil-Taif, or Taif School of Theology). This school is regarded as a "unique educational phenomenon" not only because of its objectives and programs, "but also in respect of its methods
of teaching, flexibility and the serious scientific climate dominating all of its activities and in-class and out-of-class programmes" (p. 22).

These educational achievements, though important, were small in comparison with what was to occur in later decades. In the early post-World War II era, prior to the massive escalation of the Kingdom's educational programs, Young (1983) relates, the educational status of the nation was quite modest. According to Al-Zaid (1982), the number of elementary schools in Saudi Arabia in 1950 was only 196, with 942 teachers and 23,835 students (p. 29).

Abdulwahed (1981), noting that this "traditional system of education" was administered "through such institutions as the family and the mosque," points out that the family-based educational process has had a significant cultural impact. This traditional system of education provided the society with a pragmatic knowledge of Arabian history, the Qur'an, poetic literature, and native geography (p. 24).

Abdulwahed provides a more detailed description of the traditional mosque-based educational system, at the center of which was the kuttab, or Quranic elementary school, situated in or near the mosque and often presided over by the local imam. The curriculum of the kuttab is based on memorization of the Qur'an, with secondary emphasis on reading and writing. The prestige attached to religious learning is reflected in strong pressure upon the villager and urban dweller to see that his sons acquire at least some formal knowledge of the Qur'an. (pp. 23-24)
The Development of Higher Education in the Recent Era

Today there are four agencies for administering education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: (a) the Ministry of Education; (b) the Ministry of Higher Education; (c) the General Presidency for Girls Education; and (d) the General Organization for Technical Education and Vocational Training. In addition to these, various other ministries and departments within the government have organized programs of education to secure the technical manpower required.

Underlying the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia's commitment to education has been recognition of the country's need to develop its human resources and manpower potential. It is important to note that education, at all levels, is free for all citizens. As the Kingdom's Second Development Plan affirms, "all the people of Saudi Arabia will have access to educational and training facilities at all levels."

Undoubtedly the Kingdom's first great step toward major educational expansion was the transformation, in 1953, of the Department of Education into the Ministry of Education. By this time there were 316 elementary schools with nearly 44,000 students. Moreover, there were three secondary schools with an enrollment of approximately 500 students (Abdulkader, 1978, pp. 56-58). This signalled the
development of a massive program of educational systems in the Kingdom.

According to the Directory of Higher Education, the first components in the structure of higher education were instituted through the establishment of the College of Al-Sharia in 1949 (1369 H). Thus, this institution is considered the first institution of higher education in the Kingdom (Directory of Higher Education, 1987, p. 19).

Furthermore,

Education and training—free of charge at all levels—will continue to expand and improve in quality, with the aim not only of eradicating illiteracy and promoting learning, but also to teach new skills, to stimulate research and the use of production and distribution techniques, and to inculcate the spirit of honest hard work. (KSA, MP, 1976, p. 4)

In addition, the government provides students with incentive salaries at the university level to encourage them to achieve high levels of education in order to participate effectively in the development process. Education is fully financed by the government.

As Abdalwahed (1981) stresses, "the rate at which Saudi Arabia's potential for development can be realized will depend to a large degree on manpower planning and the development of human resources" (p. 4). Elaborating further, he notes that "rapid growth in Saudi Arabia has brought with it a growing demand for manpower at all levels and this pressure has led to the employment of large numbers of foreign personnel in many important areas of the economy,
particularly those requiring high levels of education and training" (p. 3). However, this massive level of foreign employment is recognized as "only a partial and temporary solution to the country's manpower problems" (p. 3). Saudi Arabia's long-term solution for easing the manpower shortage is based on the rapid expansion of the educational system" (pp. 3-4). Thus, Abdalwahed emphasizes,

Manpower planning in Saudi Arabia is designed to reduce foreign manpower and replace it as rapidly as possible in order to minimize and control the foreign cultural onslaught. This is essential to Saudi control of the modernization process. The purpose of economic growth is not merely to promote the material well-being of the Saudi people, but also to secure their independence as a nation and their individual spiritual well-being. (p. 2)

The ultimate objective, Abdalwahed observes, is focused on the efficient development of human resources. "Manpower planning may have several objectives; but, in the final analysis, it aims at providing new work opportunities and at directing human resources toward better utilization and higher efficiency" (p. 2). And, he affirms, "it is educational policy which determines the quantity and quality of production as well as the levels of production which should be emphasized" (pp. 2-3).

The goals of the Kingdom's First Five-Year Plan placed strong emphasis on the development of the nation's human resources, stressing that a major component in the effort to achieve the plan's ambitious economic development goals included "developing human resources so that the several
elements of society will be able to contribute more effectively to production and participate fully in the process of development" (Central Planning Organization, 1974, p. 17). This determination was reaffirmed in the Second Five-Year Plan, which projected labor force needs of 2.3 million personnel against an increase of the Saudi labor force to only 1.5 million (Abdalwahed, 1981, p. 18). Thus, as Al-Abdulkader (1978) observes, the plan considered human resources development to be "a basic strategy and one of the ultimate national goals . . . which ought to be accomplished by education, training, and rising standards of health and living" (p. 180).

The Kingdom's focus on human resources development was carried forward in the Third and Fourth Five-Year Development Plans, with primary emphasis on education and training. The Third Development Plan formulated four strategic goals: "to improve the quality of education and training, to make the education and training system more responsive to the needs of the economy, to increase the efficiency via improved administration and management, and to facilitate balanced quantitative growth of the system" (Sindi and Alghofaily, 1982, p. 63). The Fourth Development Plan (1985) projects "a network of programs and agencies [to] contribute to the guidance, development, and deployment of human resources," including general education; higher education; training (serving "occupational and training
needs in both public and private sectors); various policy, regulatory, and service bodies "concerned with manpower policies, employment services and the responsibilities and rights of employers and employees in both public and private sectors"; and science and technology in terms of their "contribution . . . to human welfare and economic development" (p. 267).

The Kingdom's efforts to expand education have been ambitious, aggressive, and somewhat successful. In 1958, Saudi Arabia joined other members of the Arab League in agreeing to a uniform educational system including elementary, intermediate, and secondary education cycles and an ambitious program of higher education. In 1960, the opportunity for public education was extended to female citizens through the creation of the Administration of Public Education for Girls.

The development of education represented major investment items in the Kingdom's First and Second Five-Year Plans. By the 1970s, tremendous strides had been made. As Table 10 indicates, government budgetary allocations for education have expanded enormously since the 1950s. This in turn is reflected in phenomenal strides in terms of facilities, teachers, and--most important--students, as Tables 11 and 12 denote.

Knauerhase (1975) summarizes the dimensions and impacts of the Kingdom's educational policies by pointing out that
### Table 10

**Growth in Saudi Budget for General and Higher Education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Education Budget (SR)</th>
<th>Higher Education Budget (SR)</th>
<th>Higher Education as % of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1953</td>
<td>12,817,000</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>45,672,000</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1958</td>
<td>87,000,000</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>137,012,200</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>408,300,000</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>549,766,000</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>597,458,000</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>664,900,000</td>
<td>100,700,000</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>1,591,500,000</td>
<td>235,800,000</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>3,760,284,000</td>
<td>742,800,000</td>
<td>19.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>13,977,500,000</td>
<td>2,717,200,000</td>
<td>19.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>15,155,000,000</td>
<td>4,571,700,000</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>17,396,000,000</td>
<td>5,539,000,000</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>29,740,700,000</td>
<td>10,361,000,000</td>
<td>34.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>28,653,900,000</td>
<td>11,079,000,000</td>
<td>38.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>19,625,300,000</td>
<td>4,571,500,000</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Between 1959 and 1973/74 the Kingdom’s total expenditures for education increased at an annual rate of 92.7 percent (p. 216). This increase has produced some remarkable successes:
Table 11

Growth in Total Education Facilities in Saudi Arabia in the 1980s

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kindergartens</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>377</td>
<td>436</td>
<td>492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Schools</td>
<td>6,289</td>
<td>6,792</td>
<td>7,259</td>
<td>7,717</td>
<td>7,813</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate Schools</td>
<td>1,727</td>
<td>1,922</td>
<td>2,098</td>
<td>2,320</td>
<td>2,390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Schools</td>
<td>638</td>
<td>717</td>
<td>803</td>
<td>891</td>
<td>930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Insts.</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Insts.</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Insts.</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult Ed. Schools</td>
<td>3,307</td>
<td>3,227</td>
<td>3,014</td>
<td>3,259</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insts. of High. Ed.</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL SCHOOLS</strong></td>
<td><strong>12,436</strong></td>
<td><strong>13,239</strong></td>
<td><strong>13,829</strong></td>
<td><strong>14,881</strong></td>
<td><strong>14,886</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In terms of the number of students enrolled the achievement has been impressive: Total enrollment rose more than fourfold, from 143,000 pupils in 1960/61 to 793,300 in 1972/73, at an annual rate of 24.9 percent. (p. 216)

Young (1983) indicates the level of commitment and the accomplishments of the Kingdom's educational program by the period of the Third Five-Year Plan:

The Third Development Plan allocated to education about a sixth of total outlay, providing for expansion at all levels. As of 1980-81 there were about 1.5 million students in 8,223 schools and 3,684 students in vocational training centers. Adult education was also being pushed, with 142,370 male and female students. There were also six universities comprising 54 colleges and institutes. These institutions will have opportunity to carry forward the historic Arab and Islamic achievements in both pioneering and spreading
knowledge in the fields of mathematics and other branches of science. (p. 107)

Table 12

Growth in Total Education in Saudi Arabia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1936</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4,385</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1944</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>27,128</td>
<td>1,084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>469</td>
<td>52,839</td>
<td>2,288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>299,461</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>438,868</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>2,987</td>
<td>532,327</td>
<td>28,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>583,092</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>5,500</td>
<td>844,308</td>
<td>58,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>977,972</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>10,306</td>
<td>1,472,560</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>12,436</td>
<td>1,681,695</td>
<td>95,122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>13,829</td>
<td>1,972,328</td>
<td>126,368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>14,886</td>
<td>2,258,039</td>
<td>154,550</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Commitment to Higher Education

The Kingdom’s broad goals regarding higher education are stated in the Saudi Arabian Education Policy as follows:

Higher education is the practical specialization stage with all its kinds and levels, to take care of those who are capable and talented, to develop their talents, to meet the various needs of the community at the present and in the future with a view to cope with the useful development which achieves the nation’s

As many of the preceding data and observations have already indicated, a major component of the Kingdom's program of educational development has been the promotion of higher education. Mazboudi (1988) notes that as the Kingdom's first Minister of Education, His Royal Highness (now King) Fahd ibn Abdulaziz prepared a long-range plan which set a series of ambitious educational goals for the nation: "Making . . . education available throughout the Kingdom at all levels"; "laying the ground work for the establishment of one, or more universities, as a nucleus to insure the availability of higher education to all Saudi students"; "increasing the number and expanding the fields of studies for the exchange students programs to satisfy the needs of the Kingdom for qualified academicians in the educational sector as well as in the public sector"; and "achieving a gradual self-sufficiency in terms of qualified Saudi instructors for the different educational level(s)" (pp. 11-12).

The commitment to higher education is reflected in the tremendous growth of higher education's budget. As Table 10 indicates, the budget for higher education has grown not only absolutely, but also as a percentage of the Kingdom's total budget for education--reflecting the Kingdom's perception that effective human resources development
requires a concentrated effort to foster the development of Saudi personnel with the higher levels of expertise represented by college degrees. The significant increase in the education budget in the 1980s, shown in Table 10, was a result of the huge spending on building new university campuses and other educational facilities in the country. As soon as construction was complete, the educational budget returned to its normal size. The cut which naturally took place in the budget of higher education did not affect the overall governmental expenditures in the education sector. The growth of higher education in the Kingdom is further indicated by the tremendous increase that has occurred in the number of higher education students and teachers, as presented in Table 13.

The policy of encouraging study abroad is further explained by another government report (Ministry of Higher Education, 1980):

The Kingdom has been liberal in providing increased opportunities to its citizens who expressed their keen desire to pursue higher education abroad. In view of the limited capacity of our universities in the past for absorption of all those seeking admissions particularly in certain specialized disciplines, the tempo of sending the students abroad has been maintained and even increased. (p. iv)
Table 13

Growth in Higher Education in Saudi Arabia
(Total Students and Teaching Staff)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1958</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>2,529</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>5,419</td>
<td>418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>6,942</td>
<td>573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>14,882</td>
<td>1,354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>26,437</td>
<td>1,741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>47,900</td>
<td>4,791</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>64,290</td>
<td>6,943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>80,469</td>
<td>8,559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>102,709</td>
<td>9,724</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Government Policy for Higher Education and Teaching Public Administration

Support for Study Abroad

A major component of the Kingdom's higher education policy has been to encourage and support qualified students to pursue degree programs abroad. As Suliman B. Sindi, Director General for the Development of Higher Education explains, in his Introduction to a major statistical report (Ministry of Higher Education, 1978),

The accelerated socio-economic development activity brought to realization that there was an acute shortage of qualified manpower in the country. The universities in the Kingdom were at initial stages of the development. We, therefore, had to rely considerably
on foreign training so as to provide critically needed qualified manpower both to staff the university and to make them available to other government establishments and private organizations. (p. iii)

However, Sindi (1978) also reflects the Kingdom’s realization at this time that higher education abroad was only a stopgap measure:

It would thus be seen that though the programme of foreign training is important for providing qualified manpower, for the socio-economic development of the country it cannot meet the massive need in this respect. It is imperative, therefore, for the Kingdom to consolidate and expand its own universities and other training institutions without which the country will remain dependent not only on insufficient foreign training programmes but also on a fantastically large expatriate manpower. (p. iv)

In accordance with this strong government policy, study abroad by Saudi students, backed by government policy and financing, increased dramatically, especially in the late 1960s and mid-1970s. According to a report by the Ministry of Higher Education (1980), the total number of students abroad increased by 447% from 1969/70 to 1979/80; the number of graduates abroad in this decade was 3,110 (p. iv). This tremendous growth can be seen in Table 14.

In much of this period, most of the students studying abroad were pursuing undergraduate studies, as the distribution of graduates by level of degree, tabulated in Table 15, indicates. However, the Kingdom’s policies began to emphasize and encourage graduate, rather than undergraduate, studies in an effort to provide more native Saudi professionals with the expertise represented by
Table 14

Saudi Students Studying Abroad

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Starting Students</th>
<th>Total Students</th>
<th>Students Abroad as % of All Higher Educ. Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1969-70</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971-72</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972-73</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973-74</td>
<td>947</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974-75</td>
<td>2,122</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-76</td>
<td>2,141</td>
<td>8,280</td>
<td>27.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976-77</td>
<td>2,408</td>
<td>8,035</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977-78</td>
<td>1,459</td>
<td>9,096</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978-79</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>9,919</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979-80</td>
<td>959</td>
<td>10,035</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-81</td>
<td>1,220</td>
<td>11,921</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-82</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>12,521</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982-83</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7,558</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983-84</td>
<td>2,170</td>
<td>10,092</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


advanced degrees and to expand the number of Saudis qualified to become higher education faculty members. The Ministry of Higher Education (1980) explains that

Most of the students abroad are pursuing post-graduate studies or at bachelor’s level in specializations which are not available in the Kingdom’s universities or only limited facilities are available in them. (p. iv)
Table 15

Types of Degrees Awarded to Saudi Students Abroad: 1970-1980

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor's</td>
<td>1,707</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's</td>
<td>858</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


However, the ministry report goes on to note that

As a matter of policy, the majority of students are sent abroad for studying at post-graduate level, (Master and Doctorate) with a view to strengthening the teaching faculties in the Saudi universities and to achieve gradually self-sufficiency in this respect upon return of the national students from abroad with prerequisite specializations and experience. (p. iv)

A subsequent report (KSA, MHE, DGDHE, 1981) predicted that the number of students studying at the bachelor level was expected to decrease in the future "as increased facilities for study at this level have now become available in the Kingdom's own universities" (p. 224). The report elaborates further:

However the number of students [sent abroad] for advanced study (at master and doctorate levels) is not expected to decline at least until the time the Kingdom's universities are able to develop their teaching facilities in scientific and technological subjects. (p. 224)
The Ministry of Higher Education (1980) summarizes an overall view of the Kingdom's policy as follows:

In the earlier years the Kingdom had to depend heavily on foreign training at the higher education level. In 1975-76 about 6000 Saudis started higher education—4000 in the universities of the Kingdom and 2000 abroad. Thus about 35 per cent of all the new entrants to higher education started their studies abroad in that year against 65 per cent starting their higher education in the universities at home. The situation has changed gradually. In 1976-77, 26 per cent of the total starting higher education were abroad while the remaining 74 per cent were at home showing a significant improvement over the previous year of 1975-76. By 1980-81, the situation changed drastically. Only 8 per cent of 12,162 who started higher education that year were studying abroad while 92 per cent were in the universities and other institutions of higher education at home. In fact this proportion, or about, might and should continue in the future years. This will help provide the professional and other highly qualified manpower trained from all over the world for socio-economic development of the country and help develop and keep the standards of education and training in the universities of the Kingdom second to none in the world. (p. xiii)

The trend toward domestic higher education is further corroborated by the data in the last column of Table 14, which clearly indicate that the proportion of students abroad, as a percentage of all Saudi higher education students, has been declining. In a period of less than ten years, in fact, it dropped by approximately half.

Expansion of Domestic Institutions of Higher Education

By the early 1980s, Hassan A. Al-Shaikh, late Minister of Higher Education (1981), was able to point to expansion
of the Kingdom's domestic facilities for higher education as a major reason for the shifting policy focus:

In keeping with the Islamic principles of justice and equity, the Government of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia liberally provides ever-increasing opportunities and facilities to its citizens for improving and enriching their individual lives and the collective welfare of their nation through education and training at home and abroad. The facilities for education at home have vastly increased. Side by side with developments achieved in the nation's education at its own institutions, a massive programme for educating our young men in the institutions of high repute in the countries of the west as well as in the Arab and Islamic countries has been in progress for the past few decades. In recent years large numbers of Saudi young men have benefited from this programme and they are now holding key positions in the Government, the universities and other organizations. The concerted efforts of the Government and the keen desire of Saudi young men to pursue higher education are taking the nation steadily towards self-sufficiency in high level manpower needed by the country for running its institutions. (p. 226)

The shift toward greater numbers of domestic students has been suggested in several preceding tables. The same trend in terms of teaching staff is also apparent in Table 16, which clearly indicates that the Kingdom has been achieving success in its efforts to develop indigenous Saudi professional teaching expertise in its universities.

Universities in any country are the main source for providing government agencies and the society at large with well-trained manpower. This fact was recognized early by Saudi authorities, and led to the establishment of King Saud University in Riyadh in 1957—considered the first university of its kind in the country. The Kingdom's
Table 16

Growth in Saudi Higher Education Enrollment and Teaching Staff

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Saudi Students</th>
<th>Number of Saudi Teachers</th>
<th>% of All Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1958</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>5,663</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>7,899</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>12,672</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>22,412</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>33,132</td>
<td>1,278</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>36,525</td>
<td>1,610</td>
<td>33.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>47,833</td>
<td>2,701</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>63,940</td>
<td>3,410</td>
<td>39.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>85,307</td>
<td>4,305</td>
<td>44.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


expansion policy resulted in the establishment of a significant number of institutions of higher education in the country. The major Saudi universities are as follows.

King Saud University

The Kingdom's first university, King Saud University, was established in 1957 in Riyadh with an initial enrollment of only 21 students (Saegh, 1983, p. 166). By 1987 the enrollment had risen to over 32,070 students and the institution's faculty had increased to over 2,700. The university has 16 colleges, one of which is concerned with
Administrative Sciences (King Saud University, *Statistical Year Book 1988*, pp. 48, 80).

**King Abdulaziz University**

Created in Jeddah in 1964, King Abdulaziz University consists of 10 colleges. The current enrollment exceeds 14,000 and faculty numbers more than 1,700 (Masoud, 1986, pp. 359-362).

**King Faisal University**

Established in Al-Hasa, in 1975, King Faisal University consists of six colleges (two in Dammam), including a College of Administrative Sciences. Student enrollment currently exceeds 2,600, with over 700 faculty members (Masoud, 1986, pp. 359-362).

**Um al-Qura University**

Established in Makkah in 1982, Um al-Qura University presently with its College of Education includes nine colleges. The current student enrollment is more than 9,000, and the total number of faculty is about 1,300 (Masoud, 1986, pp. 359-362).

**Islamic University**

Established in Madinah in 1961, Islamic University consists of five religious colleges. The university has graduated more than 3,800 students. The total number of
faculties is currently more than 300 (Masoud, 1986, pp. 359-362).

Al-Immam Mohammed ibn Saud Islamic University

Established in Riyadh in 1974, Immam Mohammed ibn Saud University has 12 colleges. The institution currently has more than 9,700 students and 900 faculty (Masoud, 1986, pp. 359-362).

King Fahd University for Petroleum and Minerals

Formerly the University of Petroleum and Minerals, this institution was established in Dhahran in 1963. Today it has six colleges with over 4,000 students and more than 500 faculty (Masoud, 1986, pp. 359-362).

While not exclusively directed to public administration, the curricula of the university's College of Industrial Administration includes coursework in the study of public administration. The objectives of the college, as stated in one of the university's bulletins (KSA, MHE, UPM, 1979), are to provide educational and research programs which are "designed to prepare students for managerial and professional positions in business, industry, government, the armed forces, and a variety of other organizations" (p. 93).

The university emphasizes "the development of professionals rather than technicians." The Industrial Management program provides an undergraduate degree:
Bachelor of Science in Industrial Management. Accordingly, the program's curricula "have the premise that undergraduate students should not become highly specialized" (p. 93). Therefore,

the College offers undergraduate degrees that provide a broad academic background. Within the broadly-based program there are possible opportunities for concentration in several disciplinary areas. (p. 93)

The program is intended "to meet the needs of students who are preparing for management careers in business, industry, government, military units, or other such fields." The university asserts that graduates of the program are adequately prepared and qualified for positions in public administration as well as in other areas: "Graduates find immediate job opportunities in all sectors of enterprise in the Kingdom, and they are qualified for a variety of positions within the organizations by which they are employed" (p. 93).

Establishment of Ministry of Higher Education and Additional Progress

A momentous step in furthering the development of higher education in the Kingdom was taken in 1975 with the establishment of the Ministry of Higher Education. In view of the expansion of higher education, which created a need for a higher administrative and coordinating body, this ministry was created and given responsibility for "the coordination, cooperation, and general direction among the
existing universities and for study abroad" (Al-Abdulkader, 1978, pp. 62-63).

Knauerhase (1975) describes tremendous increases that occurred in enrollment in institutions of higher education in the 1970s. For example, he notes, King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah experienced an enrollment increase of more than 1,500% between 1968/69 and 1972/73 (p. 220).

Shaw and Long (1982) similarly corroborate the Kingdom's success in pursuing its higher educational goals. For example, they relate that

In the 1960s and the 1970s, thousands of college students were sent abroad on government scholarships, many to the United States. At the same time, Saudi universities were established and expanded. (p. 81)

They further point out that during the Second Development Plan, the number of higher education students rose from 16,000 to 42,000, in addition to the 30,000 students studying abroad (p. 26).

The Kingdom's Master Plan for Higher Education, as described in the Fourth Development Plan (Ministry of Planning, 1985), is aimed at achieving "coordinated development of higher education over the long term"; it indicates that over the first three years of the Fourth Development Plan period, a "comprehensive policy framework" will be developed:

This policy framework, or 'Master Plan' for higher education development, will be formulated through joint planning by representatives of all the Universities, the Girls Colleges, and the Ministry of Higher
Education. The Ministry of Planning will manage the process as a national effort (p. 55).

The basis for this Master Plan consists of seven "major long-term policy measures, all of which are related to the strategic principles of the Fourth Development Plan" (p. 55). The principal objective of these policy measures is "to make the system more responsive to the requirements of development and the needs of the labor market in quality, quantity and speed of response" (pp. 55-56). The specific activities proposed to accomplish this objective include the following: "defining spheres of responsibility among the universities and other agencies with post-secondary teaching or research responsibilities"; "specifying criteria for the expansion or contraction of both facilities and programs of instruction and research"; "establishing criteria and procedures for periodic accreditation of degree-granting programs"; "rationalizing admission policies and practices"; "specifying standards for maintaining status as a student"; "rationalizing the system of student subsidies for university study both within the Kingdom and elsewhere"; "determining the form and structure for executive control of higher education development" (p. 56).

Government Policy Toward Research and Study in Public Administration

This section focuses on the analysis of the role of Saudi government policy with respect to the teaching of
public administration in Saudi institutions of higher education. The Kingdom's general support of higher education, discussed in the previous section, represents a major factor indicating the role of the government in supporting public administration as a field of study. As indicated, the magnitude of the government's support for higher education has been substantial.

It should be noted that the policy of the Saudi government toward teaching public administration has always been positive. With respect to furthering the teaching of public administration as a field of study, government policy has consisted of authorizing the establishment of public administration programs and departments in various Saudi universities. This has been bolstered with programs of research, scholarships and other funding mechanisms, and additional supportive activities. Like all other academic fields of higher education, the government provided the field of public administration with all financial support. In addition, the government paid special attention to public administration and spared no efforts in enabling its employees to get scholarships for studying public administration abroad. Furthermore, the government made training in public administration an integral part of the duties of public office. The teaching and training in the institutions of public administration are given a full moral and financial support by the government. The public
employee receives financial compensation during training and counts his training period double toward promotion. To some, this unlimited and open support for the public employees sometimes had a negative side. Obtaining benefits from the available financial incentives seems to have been the main goal for some bureaucrats rather than the improvement of their administrative knowledge and functioning (Interview with government officials, 1988-89).

The government's concern with specialization and training in the field of public administration is quite clear in the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration, the majors of public administration in the Saudi universities, and the Central Training Committee and scholarships for study abroad which were formed to undertake the responsibility of setting the policy of training and scholarships which aim at raising the level of the employees' efficiency and job's functioning. In addition, the government offers encouragement for research, conferences, and seminars which are concerned with advancing the field of public administration and updating its qualities. Besides urging public servants to attend domestic, regional, and international conferences and seminars to enhance their bureaucratic capabilities, the government provides them with adequate financial incentives. This is a clear-cut indication of the positive policy of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia toward the teaching of public
administration, and toward developing an efficient and advanced administrative system within the country.

The administrative policy of the government has significantly favored research and study in the field of public administration, and has encouraged it with financial assistance. A center for administrative research has been established in each college of administrative sciences in the country. An independent department for research and consultation in the field of administration was also established in the Institute of Public Administration. All of these centers aim at developing public administration in the Kingdom and supporting the freedom to conduct research and to publish. Although these centers do not meet the original high expectations, they are a good beginning toward development. There is no doubt that one day these centers will play an important role and achieve very satisfactory results in the development of administration in the country.

The Five-Year Plans, which include the future programs and projections of the government, have continually emphasized the educational goals and various specializations needed to implement these ambitious plans— including specialization in public administration. There has been heavy concentration in public administration, in particular, because it is the field that provides the government with the qualified professional personnel who can take charge of
the process of growth and development necessary in a newly-established state such as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

**Government Policy: Summary**

Those who are familiar with higher education policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia can testify that it is a policy which is strongly supportive of higher education. This is clear in the financing of higher education because the budget of higher education represents a large portion of the government budget. The Saudi government has been extremely generous in its spending on education and has given it great attention. Within a relatively short period, seven universities with many professional colleges have been established. In addition, students have been sent abroad to specialize in virtually all academic majors, including the area of public administration.

By the mid-1980s the Ministry of Higher Education reported that, with a total of seven universities and 73 colleges,

The process of development and expansion of most of the colleges was continuing as evidenced by increased enrollments, introduction of more disciplines, particularly at the graduate level, more qualified teachers and improved physical facilities like new buildings [on] the campuses, increase laboratory and library and catering facilities. (KSA, MP, 1984, p. 5)

The major universities, with their locations and associated colleges, are listed in Table 17.
Table 17

Major Saudi Universities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>No. of Colleges</th>
<th>Location of Colleges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>King Saud University (originally Riyadh University)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Riyadh 12; Abha 2; Unaiza-Qasseem 1; Buraida-Qasseem 1; Madinah 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamic University</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Madinah 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King Fahd University for Petroleum and Minerals (originally University for Petroleum and Minerals)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Dhahran 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King Abdulaziz University</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Jeddah 8; Madinah 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Imam Mohammed ibn Saud Islamic University</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Riyadh 7; Abha 2; Buraida-Qasseem 2; Madinah 1; Ahsa 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King Faisal University</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Dammam 2; Ahsa 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Um al-Qura University</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Makkah 6; Taif 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls Colleges</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Riyadh 3; Dammam 2; Jeddah 1; Makkah 1; Abha 1; Buraida-Qasseem 1; Tabuk 1; Madinah 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

His Majesty King Fahd has emphasized the important role of the government in education and his own high expectations:

By the Grace of God and His Support to us we have now, seven universities, thousands of schools of all levels, elementary, intermediate, and secondary, throughout the Kingdom. Our students can now pursue their higher education and graduate in such fields as Islamic law (Shar’ia), Medicine, Engineering and Economy as well as many more fields of education which makes us dutifully proud. (Mazboudi 1988, p. 13)

Clearly, Saudi Arabia has made great achievements in the field of higher education. This is due to the overwhelmingly consistent policy of strong and adequate support that the Saudi government has provided to higher education— in particular, the large proportion of educational budgetary allocations targeted for higher education. This is firmly rooted in the Kingdom’s view—well stated in the Third Development Plan— that "the development of Saudi human resources stands at the heart of the development process. The national development plan aims at the formulation of policies necessary for the development of these human assets" (Ministry of Planning, 1980, p. 287).

Consequently, the seven universities are currently offering degrees in virtually all major fields. In addition, many students continue to be sent abroad with scholarships to gain educations in a variety of fields. Through both graduate and postgraduate work, the students help to meet the country’s needs for skilled manpower.
The Emergence of Public Administration as an Academic Major at Saudi Universities

The urgent need for establishing a program in public administration and the development of such a program in Saudi Arabia were discussed previously in Chapter 4. This need indicates, without a doubt, that establishment of such a program domestically is essential. This is because public administration is both a product and a reflection of a country's customs, culture, and values. As Park (1979) has noted, "public administration can be considered the vehicle by which values and customs are continually formulated, executed, modified, and processed into reality" (p. 4).

Riggs (1982), noting that the study of public administration in large developed Western nations such as the United States has become focused on issues peculiar to the specific country and less universal in application, recognizes the importance of establishing indigenous academic programs in public administration. He points out that

A new generation of specialists in public administration found fewer opportunities for international experience at a time when the Western-inspired institutes and schools of public administration in the Third World had begun to supply their own personnel and to establish their own research programs. The resulting parochialism generated a widespread feeling that the important issues in public administration are those to be confronted at home, while the study of administration overseas is either exotic, unsound, or fruitless. (p. 406)
Instead of focusing on Western public administration programs, Riggs observes, there has been movement toward emphasizing domestic, self-sufficient public administration programs in indigenous institutions of higher education in the various countries; he notes that

"a process of universalization has been occurring abroad. The new institutes, schools, and departments of public administration have matured, and their faculties are now offering their own advanced degrees."

_Osama Abdulrahman (1978), Dean of the College of Administrative Sciences at King Saud University, affirms that "the role of universities in academic education for Public Administration is essential." Mohammed Al-Tawail (1981), General Director of the Institute of Public Administration, reflects the official viewpoint and policy well in his observation that "universities are [an] important source for providing government agencies with their administrative manpower needs." He goes on to stress that

"there is an urgent need to establish autonomous colleges for public administration including all specializations needed by the government administrative system to enable such colleges to be the main source of administrative qualified manpower on the one hand, and to be centers for administrative research and consultancies on the other hand."

_The objectives for the study of public administration in Saudi Arabia relate directly to the objectives of Saudi higher education. According to E. M. Faheem (1982), these goals involve responding to the need for a system_
which reflects the aspiration and needs of the country; a system which is indigenous in characteristics and which utilizes local materials and resources; a system which is capable of restructuring the local culture and creating the basis for social awareness. (p. 593A)

Turki K. Al-Sudairy (1986), President of the General Civil Service Bureau, relates these educational goals to Saudi Arabia's need to develop an indigenous workforce, capable of independently managing and operating Saudi industries, agencies, and other organizations: "The philosophy of Saudization is geared to the fact that economic and social development cannot be attained without a proper and efficient administrative machinery. Manpower is the most important resource and tool in this respect" (p. 247).

The government of Saudi Arabia has long recognized the importance of establishing a program of public administration within its own national and cultural environment. The government of Saudi Arabia formulated two policies: (a) sending students abroad to have their education in public administration, and (b) establishing programs of public administration at major Saudi universities.

This policy—in the long and short term—provides the country with needed bureaucrats and with faculty members who are competent teachers of public administration in the country's institutions of higher education and thus form an indigenous national faculty to meet the Kingdom's acute needs. This policy is clearly stated in the introduction of
169

Hassan Al-Shaikh, the late Minister of Higher Education, in the Preface to the Ministry’s Statistical Yearbook, 1982-83, similarly declared that

the all round development taking place in the Kingdom has necessitated the action for training qualified and highly educated manpower in all fields of knowledge. Sustained efforts have, therefore, been made to achieve this objective by educating the nationals within the country and abroad. The seven universities in the Kingdom have played an important role in meeting the demands for higher education in various parts of the country. (p. iii)

This policy was also stated in a recent bulletin of the Department of Public Administration of King Abdulaziz University (1988), which points out that the department was established in 1971 due to the need for national qualified employees in the public sectors. Hundreds of Saudis have graduated from this department to participate in operating the development wheel through different sectors and fields in the state. As a result of the contemporary urgent needs for academic professionals and public employees, coping with the current changes, the department has designed a program for the Master degree in public administration in 1988. (p. 1)

The extensive program of student study abroad has also had a major impact on the establishment of programs of study...
of public administration. After returning home, Saudi students who studied abroad—especially those who obtained higher degrees in administration—comprised the main support for the establishment of programs of public administration in Saudi universities. These students who had been abroad can be classified into those who worked on their bachelor’s degrees and those who completed their master’s and doctoral degrees. The latter were especially influential in the development of public administration, both in practice and in theory. These graduates created a new generation of public administrators in Saudi Arabia. Both groups had a great impact on the development of the Saudi bureaucracy and on founding programs for the study of public administration.

Five of these universities have programs of public administration and business administration. Three offer bachelor’s degrees in Public Administration: King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah, King Saud University in Riyadh, and Imam Mohammed ibn Saud Islamic University in Riyadh. The next section describes the development of public administration programs in each individual university in greater detail.

Public Administration at King Saud University

The first efforts in establishing the field of study of public administration can be traced to 1959, when the College of Commerce, the second college in King Saud
University, was established. The college is considered to be the first one in the Kingdom to offer courses in public administration.

The college originally consisted of only two divisions: (a) Accounting and Business Administration; and (b) Economics and Political Science (Directory of Higher Education, 1987, p. 95).

There was no specific identity for public administration and, therefore, it was taught within the area of business administration or law. Osama Abdulrahman Othman (1979), the former dean of the college, relates that public administration remained one area under the auspices of the Division of Law in the College of Administrative Sciences (p. 68). This was not something strange in a developing country like Saudi Arabia: from its birth until the present, public administration does not have a clear-cut identity as is found in developed countries such as the United States, and it is taught within the areas of political science or business administration. This is corroborated by the observations of Short (1958), who notes that

With relatively few exceptions, specialized instruction in public administration is given at the graduate level. Undergraduate instruction, when offered, tends to provide a broad, general education in the social sciences with the opportunity for some specialization in public administration, usually as a part of an undergraduate major in political science. (p. 25)
Graduate instruction in public administration "in a substantial majority of institutions, is offered as a field of specialization in departments of political science" (p. 25).

Osama Abdulrahman Othman (1978) indicates that public administration was not originally a prosperous and preferable major in the Arab countries. The reason for this is that public administration is a field that is derived from various sources. At the same time, it is a new major which sometimes if not fully comprehended, and as a result it has not always been accepted. Therefore, it is extremely difficult for this new major to have the same appeal that other more familiar majors have in Arab universities. This led to the combination of public administration with other areas of study.

Osama Abdulrahman Othman (1978) relates that public administration is a subject which could not find a fertile ground in Arab countries and it surpasses the unqualified most of the time. And the main reason is that public administration is a topic which is derived from many sources. At the same time, it is a new subject. Sometimes, it could not be understood nor could be accepted in other times. It was very difficult for this offspring to develop in Arab universities and to stand equally with other established subjects. Therefore, it either remains under the compulsory protection of other departments or is attached to them by force. (p. 67)

By the same token, public administration in King Saud University had to face the same dilemma. Osama Abdulrahman Othman (1978) recounts that King Saud University,
during its beginnings, was in the limits of this framework. It seemed to have imported the same experience from the Arab countries, and public administration was considered as a subject under the sponsorship of the Law Department in the Faculty of Commerce. It continued to be like this for a long time despite the changes in curricula which are carried out from time to time. (p. 68)

The first serious attempt to teach public administration in the College of Commerce in King Saud University occurred in 1971, when the majors of accounting and business administration were separated to form two independent departments. In the same manner, the separation of political science and economics resulted in two departments: (a) the Department of Political and International Relations, and (b) the General Department, including Economics, Administration, and Accounting (Higher Education Directory in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1987, p. 95).

A decision was made by the Higher Council of King Saud University in 1978 to rename the College of Commerce to become the College of Administrative Sciences. The new name gave a significant boost to the college and indicated that its scope had become more comprehensive. It came to embrace new areas of specialization which were not available before. The bachelor's degree was offered in fields such as Economics, Business Administration, Public Administration, Accounting, Political Science, Laws and Regulations, and Quantitative Research; at the same time, public
administration became an independent department (Directory of Higher Education in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1987, p. 95).

In an Introduction to the 1979-1980 Bulletin of the College of Administrative Sciences, Osama Abdulrahman Othman, dean of the college at that time, stated that the college was implementing a new educational plan which used a system of courses that has been adopted internationally a long time before. In addition to the system of courses, the new plan provided the previously-mentioned seven areas of specialization.

Dean Othman added that the issue was not establishing new majors or expanding existing ones, but rather coming up with new and more advanced courses or materials that enhance the educational quality of the college and help update its programs and make them compatible with modern educational and scientific developments. This should enable the college to improve its ability to graduate more individuals who are qualified to undertake responsibility with adequate training and solid professional knowledge. The college also made a pledge to have its academic programs further updated from time to time in order to ensure that they match or meet the latest modern requirements in the science of administration (Bulletin of the College of Administrative Sciences for the Year 1980-1981, p. 7).
In the introductory statement of the Bulletin, Othman notes that this is considered to be a new beginning in the history of the college. It is a significant development which will have a great impact in the future in meeting the increasing needs of the Kingdom for professionals in the fields of administration, economics, political science, and accounting.

Othman (1978) notes that the curricula prepared at the college are designed to increase the number of public administration subjects and to provide more opportunities for students to specialize in the field. The College of Administrative Sciences currently offers specializations in economics, business administration, public administration, accounting, political science, law, and quantitative methods. The Department of Public Administration was established in 1977 with the main goal being "to prepare students to pursue careers in government and public institutions through providing them with the necessary knowledge and skills" (King Saud University, College of Administrative Sciences, 1984, p. 31). Its more specific objectives include the following: providing "the appropriate educational climate which will stimulate the students' commitment to economic and social development in Saudi Arabia"; developing and providing "academic programmes relevant to the needs of the Saudi society"; conducting research projects in problem areas of Saudi public
administration which can make a contribution to administrative reform "as well as preparing students for social responsibilities" (p. 31); and providing consultancy, as required, in administration for public institutions of the Saudi government.

The Department of Public Administration states that its main objective is "to prepare students to pursue careers in government and public institutions through providing them with the necessary knowledge and skills." Specific objectives include:

1. To provide the appropriate educational climate which will stimulate the students' commitment to economic and social development in Saudi Arabia.
2. To develop and provide academic programmes relevant to the needs of the Saudi society.
3. To conduct research projects in [problem] areas in Saudi public administration, which [contribute] to administrative reform as well as preparing students for social responsibilities.
4. To provide consultancy, whenever required, in Administration, for public institutions of the Saudi government. (Bulletin College of Administrative Sciences, 1985, p. 31)

Only an undergraduate curriculum is presently provided in this department, although a graduate program to provide a master's in public administration is in progress (King Saud University, Student Directory for Academic Guidance, 1988, p. 22; and interviews with faculty members, 1989).

According to the college's Bulletin, the undergraduate curriculum includes such specific courses as: Principles of Public Administration; Administrative Organization in Saudi Arabia; Local Administration; Organization and Methods;
Administrative Leadership; Development Administration; Islamic Administration; Administrative Development Thoughts; Research Methods; Decision-Making; Public Personnel Administration; Position Classification and Performance Appraisal; Purchasing and Warehouse Administration; Administrative Development; Comparative Public Administration; Theories of Bureaucracy; Selected Topics in English; Administrative Controls; Public Corporations; Public Policy Analysis; Administrative Behavior; Public Budgeting; Organization Development; Program Planning and Evaluation (Bulletin College of Administrative Sciences, 1985, pp. 32-36). A total of 126 hours are required for completion of the undergraduate degree program, including 22 hours of university-required courses, 15 hours of college-required courses, and 89 hours of department-required courses (King Saud University Student Directory for Academic Guidance, 1988, p. 6). The college adopted the system of credit hours beginning with the 1979-80 academic year as it is applied by the entire King Saud University Colleges (Directory of Higher Education, 1987, p. 95).

Since 1980 the College of Administrative Sciences has offered a graduate program in Health and Hospital Administration, within the Department of Public Administration, leading to a Master of Health and Hospital Administration (MHHA) degree. The university regards this program as part of its
firm commitment to fulfill its national mission in contributing towards the supply of urgently needed specialized manpower on the one hand, and its ambition to broaden the existing scope for graduate studies, a stimulus for innovation and creativity, within the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, on the other (King Saud University, 1984, p. 83).

As stated by the college's Bulletin, the program's main goals include the following:

1. to prepare broad-based, scientifically trained administrators to develop and man the rapidly expanding national health services in the Kingdom.
2. to provide a forum, a focal point, where health issues with special relevance to the national setting, and appropriate strategies to solve them, are regularly reviewed and appraised.
3. to facilitate the enrichment of the individual who seeks to advance his knowledge and expertise in the provision of health care services by enabling him to learn theory, practice and skills of modern management and administration. (pp. 83-84)

The MHHA curriculum includes a variety of "learning experiences" involving coursework, field work, administrative residency, research, thesis, and seminars. At least five semesters of work--approximately 2.5 years--are necessary to meet all requirements. Because courses are presented in English, competency in English is required; an intensive English course is offered, and all students must devote their first semester to English study.

Other MHHA degree requirements include completion of at least 40 credit hours (including 30 hours of coursework); completion of two summer terms (4 credit hours) of administrative residency at a hospital or health organization; and completion of a thesis.
The curriculum consists of core and elective coursework as follows:

1. 26 hours of core courses in such subjects as Ecology of Health; Comparative Health Systems; Management Information Systems; Program Planning and Evaluation; Financial Administration in Health and Hospital; Health and Hospital Administration; Biostatistics and Epidemiology; Research Methods in Health and Hospital Administration; Organizational and Social Dimensions of Health Care; and Economics of Health.

2. At least four hours of elective coursework in such subjects as Control Mechanisms, Uses of Quantitative Methods and Computers in Health and Hospital Administration, and Accounting for Health Institutions.

Public Administration at King Abdulaziz University

King Abdulaziz University started as a private institution of higher learning founded in Jeddah in 1964 by a group of concerned citizens in the western region of the Kingdom who deeply felt the future importance of education in the Saudi society. In 1971 the university became a public institution based on the resolution of the Council of Ministers (Yearbook of King Abdulaziz University, 1988, p. 19).

The university was the first in the country to recognize the significance of the academic major of public
administration by establishing an autonomous department of public administration within the College of Economics and Administration which was one of the first four colleges on the university’s campus.

According to a recent Bulletin of Department of Public Administration, 1988, the creation of the department in 1971 was expressly "due to the need for national qualified employees in the public sectors" (p. 1). The program was the first Bachelor-level degree program in public administration not only in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia but in the entire Middle East. Othman (1978) points out that the public administration program here "was established from the beginning as a detached department which stands equally with other departments" (p. 69).

The Bulletin states that "hundreds of Saudis have graduated from this department to participate in operating the development wheel through different sectors and fields in the state" (p. 1).

In 1988, a graduate-level degree program was initiated "as a result of the contemporary urgent needs for academic professionals and public employees, coping with the current changes" (KSA, MHE, KAAU, 1988, p. 1). Thus, beginning in 1988, a master’s degree in public administration was offered (p. 1).
The curriculum for a bachelor's degree in Public Administration includes the following (King Abdulaziz University, 1988, pp. 3-10):

1. 14 hours of university-required courses in Islamic Education and Arabic Language;

2. 54 hours of college-required courses covering such subjects as Scientific Research Methods, Economics, Law, Accounting, Management, Administration, Political Science, Mathematics, Statistics, Computer Principles, English Language, Saudi Arabian Political System, Quantitative Analysis, Organizational Behavior, Islamic Administration, Islamic Economics, Zakat Accounting, and Petroleum Economics;

3. 35 hours of department-required courses (specialization) in subjects such as Organizational Theory and Development, Civil Service, Local Government and Administration, Public Policy, Administrative Development Planning, Information System in Public Administration, Operation Research in Public Administration, Development of Public Administration in Saudi Arabia, Development Administration, Public Budgeting, and Research;

4. 9 hours of department-elective courses such as Decision-Making, Public Relations, Development Training, Organization and Methods, Manpower Development, Administrative Leadership, Job Classification in the Public Service, Public Corporations, Public Utilities
Administration, Administrative Organization in the Islamic State, Comparative Public Administration, International Public Administration, Administrative Control, Reading in Public Administration, Rural and Urban Planning and Administration, Management of Resources and Environmental Protection;

5. 15 hours of required courses from other departments such as Government Accounting, Public Finance, International Relations, Administrative Law, and Programming Language.

6. 9 hours of general elective courses. A total of 136 hours are required for a bachelor's degree in public administration, with a cumulative C average.

The curriculum for a master's degree in Public Administration includes the following (King Abdulaziz University, 1988, pp. 3-10):

1. 18 hours of required courses in Public Administration, Research Methodology in Public Administration, Human Behavior in Public Organizations, Islamic Conduct in Public Administration, Public Budgeting, Computer Applications in Public Organizations;

2. 9 hours of elective courses, including such topics as Organizational Thought, Comparative Politics, Decentralization, Administrative Analysis, Strategies of Organizational Development, Current Issues of Civil Service, Administration of Public Utilities, Government Regulations in Saudi Arabia, Comparative Systems of Local Government and
Administration, Planning and Development Administration, Public Policy and Decision-Making.

A total of 36 hours are required, including 9 hours of thesis, with a cumulative B average, for a master's degree in public administration.

**Public Administration at Imam Mohammed ibn Saud Islamic University**

At Imam Mohammed ibn Saud Islamic University, a curricula of public administration is offered in three of the university colleges: (a) the College of Arabic Language and Social Sciences in Abha, (b) the College of Arabic and Social Sciences in al-Qaseem, and (c) the College of Sharia and Islamic Studies in Al-Hasa. None of these colleges offers a degree in public administration except the College of Arabic Language and Social Sciences in Abha, which confirms a degree in public administration. The college was opened with the College of Shar'ia and Arabic Language in the South Region in 1976 and then a Royal Decree was issued to divide the College into two Colleges in 1981: The College of Arabic Language and Social Sciences and the College of Shar'ia and Religion Foundations. These colleges were established so that students in the Southern region can obtain an education in their areas with no hardships. In the College of Arabic Language and Social Sciences, public administration and business administration are combined in one department which is called the Administration
Department. Studies in this department are general at the first and second levels and then fall into two sections: (a) the Public Administration Section, and (b) the Business Administration Section (Directory of Higher Education, 1987, p. 405).

Although the university began teaching public administration after the establishment of the Departments of Public Administration in King Saud University and King Abdulaziz University, the university may not have benefited from their experience. It is noted that public administration is not dealt with as a specialized area in the colleges of the university. Public administration is still offered alongside business administration under the umbrella of administration.

When it realized the need for offering public administration, the university should have benefited from the experiences of the other universities. However, this might be due to the lack of coordination among the Saudi universities. Thus, public administration is combined with business administration, with the exception of one college, which offers public administration only at the third term and higher. As for the first and second terms, public administration is still only offered under business administration.
Summary

Indeed, the attention paid to the program of public administration, whether by the government or the universities, was significant. The development of the field of public administration was much faster in the Kingdom than in other developing countries. In a short period, Saudi universities, and the Institute of Public Administration were successful in establishing the public administration program and in moving it into far-reaching and advanced dimensions. Though there was no independent status for the field in the beginning, tremendous efforts by Saudi officials and academic scholars provided the beginning of a clear-cut identity for the major of public administration.

The establishment of the program of public administration was a part of the direct responses to increased needs for governmental administrators and resulted from the economic growth which occurred in the Kingdom. The expansion in governmental administration led to specialization in the various kinds of business and contributed to the necessity of securing the required number of bureaucrats. Thus, the government followed several paths to ensure an adequate supply of qualified administrators. One path which the government took was sending Saudi students abroad at the government’s expense to specialize in public administration. By obtaining advanced training in this manner, competent teachers were available for Saudi
universities once they had returned home. This insured that administrators would be well trained to undertake the public responsibilities. The government spared no effort to make public administration programs available at Saudi universities in order to meet the domestic needs. The significant role played by the Institute of Public Administration through its training program in the field of public administration for both current and new bureaucrats successfully achieved the objectives of the previously-mentioned governmental plans and policies.

The Institute of Public Administration

Recognizing its needs for development programs to prepare competent human resources capable of raising the level of performance and efficiency in government agencies working in various development fields, and as part of its efforts in administrative reform, the Saudi Arabian government, in 1961, established the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) through Royal Decree No. 93 dated 24/10/1380 AH (10 April 1961) upon recommendation of Resolution No. 522 dated 12/10/1380 AH (29 March 1961) of the Council of Ministers (KSA, IPA, DPD, 1985, p. 14; KSA, IPA, 1988, p. 4).

The purpose of the IPA is "to promote the efficiency of government civil servants" as well as to prepare them academically and through practical experience to exercise
their responsibilities and utilize their authority in a manner that ensures a high-quality level of administration and to contribute to the effort to develop the nation's economy. The Institute of Public Administration also is responsible for participating in the administrative reorganization of governmental agencies and providing consultation on administrative issues and problems brought to its attention by various ministries and governmental agencies. The IPA also carries out research relevant to administrative issues and assists in cementing cultural relationships in the field of public administration (IPA, 1988, pp. 4-5).

In reporting the progressive role of the IPA, Knauerhase (1975) notes that

The institute is probably the best-run government office in the Kingdom, and it has been highly effective in the training of civil servants. By the use of the most modern teaching devices the IPA trains typists, teaches English, and runs numerous classes on administrative reform. Its effort is not concentrated on lower-echelon employees only. Special seminars and special courses for middle- and upper-government officials keep those men informed of the latest developments in their area of expertise and also help them to refresh their skills. (p. 320)

Donald and Alice Stone's (1978) assessment of the Institute of Public Administration portrays its role well:

The Saudi Arabian Institute of Public Administration is one of the most comprehensive degree granting institutions in the world. In terms of scope of programs, diversity of staff, number of students, physical facilities, and support by government, it provides a model for international emulation. (p. 170)
The Institute of Public Administration performs three functions: training, consultation, and research. A brief examination of these responsibilities is worthwhile.

Training

The Institute of Public Administration's training function conforms with its objectives and its basic thrust to foster improved administrative development. Consequently, during the years since the agency was founded, its training programs have flourished and multiplied. Individual employees who receive proper training are better able to carry out vital roles in the Kingdom's development process. Training therefore has been a major focus of the IPA's activities. This function has been subject to continuous evaluation in the light of the Kingdom's changing requirements and preferences (IPA, 1985, p. 28).

The IPA offers a large variety of training programs, both in-service and preservice in nature, ranging in duration from six months to one year. In this respect, the institute's objective is to elevate the efficiency of civil servants by providing training opportunities in several categories (IPA, 1985, pp. 28, 35). These include:

1. Executive development programs: involved in training top-management personnel;
2. Pre-service training programs: focusing on qualifying new graduates from a variety of educational levels to occupy specific government positions;

3. In-service training programs: involved with providing services to currently employed civil servants needing to sharpen their skills and improve their efficiency in their diverse work areas;

4. Special training programs: aiming to meet specific training needs and oriented toward similar groups of employees in the same agency or ministry (e.g., training for customs or passports personnel);

5. English Language Center (ELC): established by recognizing the heightened importance of the English language and aimed toward enabling personnel to achieve English-language competence in their different work areas.

A new training direction upon which the Institute of Public Administration intends to embark in the very near future is the extension of the institute’s training resources to employees in the private sector (Interview with Abdulrahman Shakawy, 1989).

Consultation

One of the Institute of Public Administration’s most important means of fostering administrative development desired by the Saudi government is its consultation activities. As one of the government’s major centers of
administrative development, the IPA has been entrusted with this function in pursuance of its responsibility, explicitly stipulated in the second article of the institute's original statute, to develop and promote the efficiency of Saudi government agencies.

Accordingly, the IPA's General Department of Consultations is responsible for providing specialized technical consultation services to ministries, central organizations, and public corporations upon their request. Typically rendered upon request, much of this consultation is aimed at simplifying these offices' procedures in carrying out their designated activities. The IPA's consultant services cover a wide variety of areas, including rules and regulations, organizational issues, work procedures, clerical activities, computer science issues, and microfilming tasks (IPA, 1988, pp. 10-11).

Research

As another of the primary functions of the IPA, directly related to its overall objective of promoting the administrative development of the Kingdom's government agencies, research has been accorded special attention. Since 1980 the IPA's General Department of Research has carried out its research activities (IPA, 1988, pp. 12-13).

The objectives of the General Department of Research are to conduct research that serves the needs of
administration, to assist in solving administrative problems, to contribute to administrative development, and to administrative efficiency of government organizations. According to the IPA, the department "endeavours to disseminate contemporary Arab and international concepts by publishing books, translating new management concepts and theories into Arabic" (IPA, 1988, p. 13). The General Department of Research also provides facilities and gives advice on methodology, subject areas, and technical issues to assist researchers in conducting basic research activities in the optimal scientific manner through the use of up-to-date technology (IPA, 1988, p. 13).

IPA: Summary

In some respects—particularly in providing training services, consultation, and research in public administration—the Institute of Public Administration plays an even more important role than the nation's universities. This is corroborated by the results of the survey and interviews conducted for this study. Responses indicate that the IPA's role has been especially important in the development and improvement of public administration in the country through its role in conducting seminars, providing training programs, contributing to the reorganization of government structure, and in other ways.
The role of the Institute of Public Administration in the developmental process of the Kingdom has been without a doubt unique and indispensable. The successes recorded by the Institute prompted officials to consider expanding its benefits to the non-governmental arena. In an interview, Deputy General Director of the Institute of Public Administration for Training AbdulRahman Shakawy (1989) spoke about future responsibilities which the Institute will undertake. There is a plan underway to establish a training program for employees in the country’s private sector, which will be carried out by the Institute of Public Administration soon.

The plan is considered to be an unprecedented step in the history of the Institute, and in the entire Arab world. This indicates that the Institute of Public Administration is a flexible organization and agent of change which takes into consideration the changeable environment and the necessity for updating to meet the needs of both public and private sectors. It is also a clear indicator that the Institute is fulfilling its responsibility as a training institution, and that its available resources allow it to expand training to new areas. This is in accordance with the government’s policy which allows the participation and sharing of the private sector in the process of development in the Kingdom, as represented by transferring the ownership and management of some organizations of public utilities
from the government to the private sector. If executed, this new step would undoubtedly be considered a tremendous advance of national development.

The Role of Institutions of Public Administration in the Development of Public Administration

The programs of public administration and the Institute of Public Administration have had a significant role in the development of the field of public administration in a relatively short period. Since its emergence in the Kingdom, the public administration major has contributed to developments and changes and has touched areas that were not known before. Some of these include the following:

1. The graduation of well-qualified individuals majoring in public administration from Saudi universities, able to participate in the comprehensive developmental process and progress which are under way in the Kingdom, has been a major contribution.

2. The establishment of centers for administrative research in all colleges of administrative sciences, such as the Center of Administrative Research in the College of Administrative Sciences in King Saud University, the Center of Administrative Research in the College of Economics and Administration in King Abdulaziz University, and the Department of Research in the Institute of Public Administration, has been another major contribution. These centers are concerned with research which aims at developing
and improving public administration in the Kingdom, by discussing and solving administrative and consulting problems facing public administration in the Kingdom.

In the field of research, it was noted that the Kingdom began to witness an active movement in this respect. According to the interviewed faculty members, publishing and research reached unprecedented levels in most fields, and all universities require their faculty members to write and publish in their own fields in order to be promoted to a higher academic rank. Most of the research and publications, however, were not up to the required academic standards, in terms of educational quality. Some members of the world of Saudi academia indicated that most of these studies were not satisfactory, and that some were aimed at gaining promotion rather than developing public administration (Interview with faculty members, 1988-89). Nevertheless, the research and studies conducted by faculty members in the administrative field are considered to be important to public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Many studies have been published in professional journals of public administration. In addition, the books written by Saudi scholars and published in the Kingdom are striking example of the country's dedication to becoming a leader in the world of research.

The third objective for Saudi universities is community service. This gives a clear indication that Saudi
universities are concerned with societal needs and are aware of this mission. The Saudi universities realize that their positive role is not restricted to teaching and graduating qualified professionals in public administration and conducting research, but as educational institutions which should care about society's needs and respond to them by serving their surrounding communities.

Indeed, there is significant attention by Saudi universities to Saudi society and its needs. King Saud University, for instance, established the Division of Community Services. Faculty members in the Department of Public Administration highlighted the important role of their department and its active participation in various training seminars in public administration. Similarly, King Abdulaziz University and Iman Mohamed Ibn Saud Islamic University have notable activities also in serving Saudi society.

However, some Saudi officials have indicated that the Saudi universities, in spite of with all the services mentioned, have fallen short of what they were expected to achieve in the field of community services. In a country such as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, where the government dedicates its financial and moral resources to the institutions of higher education on an unlimited scale, the societal services offered by these institutions are not equal to the level of governmental assistance.
Nevertheless, the role of Saudi universities is considered to be positive and satisfactory in the field of Saudi community services.

The founding of professional journals in the field of public administration has been another significant development. These include such journals as the *Journal of Public Administration* issued by the Institute of Public Administration, the *Journal of Administrative Sciences* issued by the College of Administrative Sciences in King Saud University, and the *Journal of Economics and Administration* issued by the College of Economics and Administration in King Abdulaziz University. These journals aim at contributing to administrative education and awareness among personnel and scholars in the field of public administration, and bureaucrats in the area of administration.

Another significant accomplishment has been the establishment of libraries whose holdings include books on public administration and international journals in public administration. For example, the library of the Institute of Public Administration is considered one of the best in terms of publications and organization. The library includes almost all books and journals in the field of public administration. Also, the College of Administrative Sciences in King Saud University has a professional library that was later combined with the main library at the
university. The College of Economics and Administration in King Abdulaziz University has its own library that serves faculty, students, and interested scholars in the city of Jeddah.

In view of the previously stated role and contributions of the Saudi universities, it seems obvious that they have exerted, and still exert, tremendous and efficient efforts in the development of the field of public administration. The Saudi universities have three major missions: teaching, research, and community service. These universities actively participate through these three missions in the process of national development and administrative progress of the Kingdom.

In the teaching area, which is considered to be the main function of the university, the Saudi universities are quite successful. This is self-explanatory through the successive generations of Saudi graduates in various academic majors, including public administration and business administration. All Saudi officials who were interviewed strongly supported this argument.

In regard to the second mission, which is research, there was significant awareness by Saudi universities of the importance of research and of their inevitable role in this area. Therefore, the universities were responsive and established a research center in every college so that the universities can fulfill their academic mission in
developing scientific research. In this area, the colleges of public administration are active and have positive roles in participating in the development of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Saudi universities pay remarkable attention to the subject of community services and continue to develop services in order to reach the desired level.

The Adaptation of Western Administration to the Local Administrative Environment

This section focuses on ways that Saudi Arabian institutions of higher education of public administration have adapted the discipline of public administration. Every country has its own administrative environment which is different from all others and which reflects its traditional customs and values. In this respect, the Saudi administration is to a considerable extent distinctive and unique. The administration in the Kingdom has its own domestic characteristics which are deeply rooted and closely connected to religion, customs, and traditions. In the words of Somjee,

Saudi Arabia is a unique example of how a traditional elite has survived in power either by means of acquiring new skills and ways of transacting the modern economic and administrative business, or by employing skilled persons to work within a framework strictly controlled by her own values. (pp. 153-154)

The principles applied and adhered to in Saudi society make the administration there different from that in the
rest of the world. Since the Islamic Shar'ia is the applied constitution and the law of the land, all the various aspects of life, including the functioning of the administration, are bound to abide by the Islamic faith. The Islamic religion urges its followers to obtain all kinds of education, whether social or scientific, as long as there is no contradiction with the mainstream of Islam or violation of the overall framework of principles and values of the Islamic faith.

The development of public administration in any country cannot be fully understood unless the local environment and society are taken into account. As a part of the educational system in the Kingdom, Saudi public administration was strongly affected in character, as well as in function, by the Islamic and local culture. Even in developing its administrative system, the Saudi government was always very careful in borrowing from the Western experience in the field of administration. Though it had to adopt much of the modern idioms applied in the Western world in the area of public administration, it was always consistent in taking those which fit the Islamic conception and Saudi society.

In interviews with faculty members in Saudi universities on the subject of how to adapt Western theories in public administration to the Saudi environment, the general response encountered was that the administrative
theories borrowed from the West are introduced in a way which makes them fully adjusted to Saudi society and the values and ethics of Islam. This is done through studying the local administration and administrative organizations of the Kingdom, and through domestic laws and regulations and applied procedures. In other words, understanding the local Saudi environment for public administration, and connecting it to the administrative theories in the West is a step in the right direction for the functioning of the public agencies.

The programs of public administration in Saudi universities provide access to various courses such as Islamic Administration, focusing on the organization and management of public affairs in the Muslim state; Fundamentals of Islamic Administration; Saudi Arabian Political System; Development of Public Administration in Saudi Arabia; Local Government and Administration; Local Administration, focusing on the various forms of local government including an analysis of local-central relationships and the organization and functions of Saudi local administration; and seminars in public administration in the Kingdom which focus on current issues and problems in Saudi public administration (King Saud University, College of Administrative Sciences, 1985, pp. 32-36; King Abdulaziz University, Department of Public Administration, 1988, pp. 3-6). These courses provide students with an adequate
competence and understanding of government operations when they enter government service.

Some analysts such as Hazam Al-Mutairi (1987) have called attention to the existing emphasis on Islamic ethics and values in the application of Western theories in Saudi public administration. Saudi concentration on ethics and values in public administration is not something new; however, they have become a focus of Western public administration during the past decades.

The policy of higher education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia gives Saudi universities the freedom of contact and cooperation with international universities in all fields of study. In return, Saudi universities have the responsibility of adjusting and adapting borrowed ideas and concepts to make them acceptable to the Saudi local environment. The policy of higher education states that "Saudi universities shall cooperate with international universities with respect to scientific research, discoveries, inventions, adoption of appropriate encouragement means and exchange useful research with them" (Directory of Higher Education, 1987, p. 14).

Therefore, the program of public administration, in particular, and the university education, in general, have been largely influenced by Western educational systems, especially that of the United States of America. There is an active educational cooperation between King Saud
University and King Abdulaziz University and some American universities. Hence, it could be safely said that the American educational system has had a notable impact on Saudi education, including the field of public administration, through the Saudis who graduated from American universities and through the process of cooperation and coordination between Saudi and American institutions of higher education.

Effectiveness of Programs of Public Administration at Saudi Universities in Preparing and Providing Future Bureaucrats

This section describes the extent to which Saudi institutions for study and training in public administration provide the Saudi government with needed civil servants and administrators is analyzed, as is the adequacy of the preparation of graduates of Saudi institutions for undertaking public responsibility.

Based on the interviews with faculty members and government officials, if the principle of specialization is to be applied in the public sector, the number of graduates in public administration would not be sufficient to meet the government’s need for administrators. But the public policy of recruitment was to appoint all the universities’ graduates in the public agencies, regardless of their specialization. This situation, however, has changed with the application of the principle of the classification
system, which divides the governmental positions into several groups. The new policy was not to affect bureaucrats who had joined the public sector before implementation of the new system, and some of them have received training in the Institute of Public Administration and are capable of taking the responsibility of their jobs. Therefore, in view of the present recruitment policy, the number of graduates of public administration is currently sufficient to meet the government's need for employees, and the graduates of both public administration and business administration are treated on the same basis upon their appointment in government.

In the mid-1980s Al-Suhaibani (1985) predicted that the large number of students enrolled in Saudi universities, colleges, and institutes who were expected to graduate in the near future would have a positive impact on employment. During the next five years, Al-Suhaibani expected that Saudi universities would graduate more than 30,000 students in the field of humanities, literature, or Shar'ia law; about 3,500 in medical science; about 10,000 in agriculture and engineering science; and about 6,500 teachers. He also expected that around 10,000 would graduate from foreign institutions in many different fields. There could be no doubt, Al-Suhaibani emphasized, that these graduates, would fill many gaps in the Civil Service and end many personnel
problems which were stemming from manpower shortages (p. 131).

Realizing that the preparation of public administration graduates is very important for the efficient functioning of the administrative machine, the Saudi government gave this vital issue its full attention. The principal objective behind the establishment of the programs of public administration was mainly to graduate national qualified employees competent enough to participate in operating the period of development through which the Kingdom is passing.

The conclusion drawn from several interviews with governmental officials is that graduates of public administration have the administrative background. However, this does not mean that they are qualified to automatically assume the jobs; it is absolutely necessary for them to be trained and acquainted with the nature of the job in order to be able to undertake the responsibilities. In other words, graduates in administration need training during service, even in developed countries. In all these countries, graduates of public administration must be trained on the job before they assume their responsibilities as employees.

Likewise, the faculty members interviewed emphasized the need for training of graduates of public administration. Like those graduates from other universities, public administration graduates from Saudi universities are
qualified educationally. Before earning academic degrees, they have various courses in public administration, and they are required to conduct research. Thus, they are qualified to undertake the responsibility of their jobs as far as their academic preparation is concerned. However, faculty members agree that graduates can need training and preparation to be ready to undertake any given position.

The Contact and Coordination Between Governmental Agencies and Universities

The contact and coordination between Saudi universities and governmental agencies could be described as formal and informal. Formal contact takes place through the bureaucratic channels, which seems to concentrate on the work needs more than coordination between the concerned units because the contact between the universities and the governmental agencies is restricted to three principal public agencies—the General Civil Service Bureau, the Ministry of Finance and National Economy, and the Ministry of Planning. In spite of the close connection of these three public agencies to Saudi universities, the universities' relation to them is based on the fulfillment of their academic missions.

The relationship between the universities and the General Bureau of Civil Service is confined to the Bureau's need for some specializations and the number of personnel
needed by the Civil Service in future years. The Ministry of Planning concerns itself with combining the universities' future plans with the overall plans of the government. The connection between the universities and the Ministry of Finance is purely financial. Like all other public agencies and departments, these universities are wholly financed by the government. Thus, the characterization of the university-agency contact as formal can be fully understood from this angle (interview with faculty and officials, 1989).

Based on interviews with faculty members, the effective and efficient contact is the informal one. The personal contact between a faculty member and a governmental agency in which the faculty member is a part-time administrative consultant is more fruitful. This kind of contact seems to be widely spread between faculty members and governmental agencies because it is faster and more profitable financially to both of them. In addition to the financial benefits gained by the faculty member, the organization's needs can be met quickly and the long waiting that usually takes place through the known bureaucratic procedures of the universities can be avoided (interview with faculty and officials, 1989). Consequently, the resolution of the Council of Ministers No. 403/6749 dated 1983, was issued to organize the process of consultation provided by faculty
members to the governmental agencies as part-time consultants.

Summary of Chapter Five

The emergence of public administration as a field of study in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was not an accident, but rather a direct result of the continuing growth of the bureaucracy in public agencies. The marked expansion of governmental services was, of course, accompanied by the founding of new ministries and agencies to assume increased public responsibilities and to confront growing administrative problems. As M. T. Sadik states, "the rapid growth of the Administration which paralleled the introduction of social welfare and economic programs designed to build a modern progressive state is a major factor responsible for accelerating problems of our administration" (1966, p. 149).

It was, therefore, important to ensure the necessary cadre would be well prepared to take charge of the expanded public sector. This led to the development of public administration as a major in the academic programs of the universities, and to the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration to train public employees to carry out the governmental services efficiently. These efforts within the country to supply qualified administrators were complemented by the students who studied abroad to acquire
an education in public administration. Thus, it can be concluded that the evolution of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia took two forms: (a) the establishment of public administration as an academic field of study in the major Saudi universities, and (b) the sending of Saudi students abroad to major in public administration. This was due to the concern of Saudi leaders for individual citizens, and the leaders’ perception of them as valuable elements in the developmental process of the country.

As noted throughout this study, there has been significant governmental attention to the development of Saudi national education since the establishment of the Kingdom. Higher education in general and public administration as an academic field in Saudi universities in particular were given great attention by the government and strong support from the highest authorities. As the first Minister of Education, King Fahd ibn Abdulaziz dedicated all his efforts toward the expansion of educational opportunities, services, and quality, and he is still doing so in the role of King.

This support has resulted in the establishment of seven universities and their branches spread all over the Kingdom, which serving as an effective, accessible vehicle for providing higher education to Saudis. Further confirming the Saudi government’s commitment to higher education was
its establishment of an independent ministry to oversee and coordinate higher education in the Kingdom.

The government’s concern about public administration as a specialization is evident in its policy which aims at developing sufficient numbers of qualified administrative cadres able to take responsibility for handling public affairs and meeting public needs. Due to the absence of political differentiations in the Kingdom, bureaucracy plays a vital role in making administrative decisions as well as implementing them. Thus, bureaucracy seems to be a quite effective instrument through which the process of development and progress of the country can be achieved and governmental policies carried out.

Highly aware of this important role of the nation’s bureaucracy, the Saudi leadership has spared no efforts in strengthening its administrative apparatus and according it high levels of responsibility for carrying out the national goal. In this regard, the Saudi government has supported public administration as a major field of study at Saudi universities, and by sending Saudi students abroad for study likewise has fully backed public administration as a profession in the Kingdom’s government agencies.

In response to the research question related to the role of the Saudi government policy with respect to the teaching of public administration in Saudi institutions of higher education, it can be concluded that the government’s
attitude has been positive and highly supportive. The significant growth of this field in a relatively short period provides clear evidence of strong governmental support.

It is evident that the policy of the Saudi government towards the field of public administration is influential. A preeminent manifestation of this support can be seen in the government's approval of establishing public administration programs in most Saudi universities and providing them with adequate financial resources. Further evidence is represented by the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration for training government employees in the field of administration, the granting of scholarships in public administration, the encouragement of scientific research in the administrative field, and, finally, the founding of research centers for public administration at several Saudi universities.

To answer the research question concerning how Saudi institutions of higher education and training in public administration have adapted the discipline of public administration, it has been noted that initially the development of public administration in Saudi Arabia proceeded in a somewhat awkward and stumbling fashion. As in other developing countries, only lately has there been significant attention paid to public administration. Generally, the most significant development has occurred
during approximately the last decade, with the establishment of independent departments at King Abdulaziz University in 1971 and King Saud University in 1978, and the specialization of public administration at Amman Mohammed ibn Saud Islamic University in 1981.

When Saudi universities established their programs of public administration, they benefited from the experiences of other Arab as well as Western countries in designing such programs. However, it is understandable that Saudi universities endeavored to preserve the local environment—public administration in the Kingdom—in adapting Western principles of public administration to Saudi society.

Addressing the research question regarding the quantity and quality of graduates of Saudi programs of public administration and the level of their professional readiness, this study has clearly indicated a successful mission by Saudi public administration programs to meet the Saudi government's needs for qualified personnel.

Finally, in regard to the research question concerning the adequacy of coordination between institutions of public administration and governmental agencies in Saudi Arabia, the results of this study tend to indicate that the degree of such coordination is currently somewhat less than desired. An adequate and acceptable level of mutual contact and cooperation has not yet been reached.
These conclusions and overall responses to the research questions investigated in this study tend to be further corroborated by the results of the interviews and survey conducted as part of this research project. The results of the survey and interviews are presented and discussed at length in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 6

THE PROGRAMS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
AT SAUDI UNIVERSITIES:
SURVEY RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter provides further analysis of the research questions investigated in the course of this study in light of the results of the survey and interviews conducted as part of this research. The survey and interviews provided valuable primary data which were used in determining the effectiveness of Saudi programs of public administration for preparing future bureaucrats.

The perceptions of faculty members and practitioners ranged from the development of public administration in the Kingdom to the adequacy and feasibility of programs of public administration in the Kingdom’s universities and the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) for preparing Saudi bureaucrats. These perceptions afford an overview of the quality and quantity of Saudi graduates of these public administration programs.
Development of Public Administration in Saudi Arabia

Survey participants were asked to select choices to indicate factors that "have contributed to the development of the field of public administration in Saudi Arabia." As the survey results in Table 18 indicate, factors identified by respondents as contributing to the development of the field of public administration in Saudi Arabia include the Kingdom's rapid socioeconomic growth, the 5-Year Development Plans, efforts to solve the nation's administrative problems, the growth of the bureaucracy, and the government's desire to ensure the availability of administrators. In addition, a sizable proportion of the respondents in both groups selected research/recommendations of institutes, colleges, and universities as a factor. This choice tends to indicate that the activities of the IPA and Saudi universities are perceived by most of the respondents as playing major roles in developing the field of public administration.

Government Policy Toward Research and Study in Public Administration

The Saudi government's role in recognizing the importance of establishing a program of public administration within Saudi institutions of higher education tends to be corroborated by the perceptions of the respondents to the survey conducted as part of this
Table 18

Factors Contributing to Development of the Field of Public Administration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percent Respondents Including as Choice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Directors n = 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapid socioeconomic growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-Year Development Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efforts to solve administrative problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research/recommendations of institutes, colleges, universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensuring availability of administrators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth of bureaucracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

study project. These individuals were asked to indicate "the role of Saudi government policy with respect to the teaching of public administration in Saudi institutions of higher education." The views of both personnel directors and faculty members on the role of Saudi government policy for teaching public administration in institutions of higher education are presented in Table 19. Clearly, substantial proportions of both groups feel that the government's financial support has been adequate. In addition, a significantly larger proportion of the personnel directors appear to feel that the Saudi government has played a particularly strong role in recommending changes in curriculum,
Table 19

Role of Saudi Government Policy on Teaching Public Administration in Institutions of Higher Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \text{Percent Respondents Including as Choice} )</th>
<th>( \text{Personnel Directors} \ n = 58 )</th>
<th>( \text{Faculty Members} \ n = 30 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adequate financial support</td>
<td>77.6</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommending changes in curriculum</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requesting specific courses</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicating government public administration needs</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The faculty members were also asked to indicate, on a scale from one to five, how strong a role each of a list of entities plays in "initiating the establishment of Saudi university-level educational programs in public administration"; these entities included university officials, the Civil Service Bureau, the Ministry of Planning, the Ministry of Higher Education, other government agencies, and other entities. Based on the coding of each participant's response (with "No role" coded 1, "Decisive role" coded 5, and non-responses excluded), averages of the scores regarding each entity's role are presented in Table 20. As seen from the table, university officials were rated...
highest, followed by the Ministry of Higher Education and the Civil Service Bureau.

Table 20

Role of Various Entities in Establishing Saudi University Programs in Public Administration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entity</th>
<th>Average Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
<td>n = 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University officials</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Service Bureau</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Planning</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Higher Education</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other government agencies</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While the differences in responses between personnel directors and faculty member groups appear to be significant, the contrary is true of faculty members whose responses indicate the non-intervention of the government in the issue of changing the curriculum or making changes in the program of public administration. This is natural because personnel directors believe that the university, as a governmental agency, is subject to all changes which the government sees as necessary. In fact, the universities in the Kingdom do have autonomous identities in the area of setting and developing curricula and in their conformity with the rise in changing and progressive needs. This is
universally known as academic freedom and is applied worldwide. Faculty members are the best to realize this fact, which they indicated in the interview. To faculty members, the council within each division is the only body entitled to propose the needed changes, taking into account, of course, the government's needs and priorities.

The results are elaborated further by the score percentages for each entity which are shown in Tables 21 through 26. In these tables, the breakdown by percentage of each score or rating awarded by respondents is given.

Table 21

Role of University Officials in Establishing Saudi University Programs in Public Administration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| No role          | 7.7 |
| Weak role        | 11.5 |
| Strong Role      | 7.7 |
| Very strong role | 50.0 |
| Decisive role    | 23.1 |
| Average Score    | 3.7 |

Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 4; response n = 26.

Role of Institutions of Higher Education and Training in Development of Public Administration

Many of the factors illuminating the role of institutions of higher education and training in promoting
Table 22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role of Civil Service Bureau in Establishing Saudi University Programs in Public Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very strong role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisive role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 11; response n = 19.

Table 23

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role of Ministry of Planning in Establishing Saudi University Programs in Public Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very strong role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisive role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 11; response n = 19.

The development of the field of public administration in Saudi Arabia tend to be corroborated by the perceptions of the respondents to the survey conducted as a part of this
Table 24

**Role of Ministry of Higher Education in Establishing Saudi University Programs in Public Administration**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very strong role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisive role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** Total $n = 30$; non-response $n = 6$; response $n = 24$.

Table 25

**Role of Other Government Agencies in Establishing Saudi University Programs in Public Administration**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very strong role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisive role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** Total $n = 30$; non-response $n = 12$; response $n = 18$.

study. In addition, respondents' perceptions provide further insight into the role played by public
Table 26

Role of Other Entities in Establishing Saudi University Programs in Public Administration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very strong role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisive role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 20; response n = 10.

Responses to the request to select choices to indicate "the most important contribution(s) of various institutes, colleges, and universities in developing the area of public administration," are provided in Table 27. Clearly, large proportions of the respondents felt that Saudi institutes, colleges, and universities have played a positive role by providing more qualified staff, conducting research in public administration, and providing useful recommendations for the Kingdom's public administration policy. This result can be interpreted as a consensus with respect to the affected research questions.
Table 27

Most Important Contributions of Institutes, Colleges, and Universities in Developing Field of Public Administration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percent Respondents</th>
<th>Personnel Directors n = 58</th>
<th>Faculty Members n = 30</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Providing more qualified staff</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research in public administration</td>
<td>93.1</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Useful recommendations on public administration policy</td>
<td>86.2</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survey participants in both groups were also asked to indicate factors responsible for application of the Civil Service Bureau's classification system. As the results in Table 28 indicate, the majority of both groups agreed that the policy resulted from the desire to ensure suitability of the specific position with the employees' degree. This result can be interpreted as the predominant consensus from the standpoint of addressing the relevant research questions. However, while about two-thirds of the faculty members felt the policy was also due to the availability of graduates in public administration to fill positions, this factor was cited by only 15.5% of the personnel directors.

Perhaps the response of the personnel directors stems from their understanding that the principle of the job classification system is to have the right person in the
Table 28

Reasons for Civil Service Bureau’s Recent Job Classification System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Percent Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Availability of graduates in public administration to fill positions</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure suitability of position with degree</td>
<td>74.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations/research of institutions of higher education</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure jobs for individuals completing PA programs</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Including as Choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Directors n = 58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members n = 30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indeed, both responses seem to be true, because suitability should be ensured between positions and degrees. The application of a classification system should include both the availability of graduates in public administration and the suitability of degrees to available positions.

Both groups were asked to assess the impact of the field of public administration, as taught in universities, on the productivity of the Kingdom’s public bureaucracy. As the results in Table 29 indicate, responses to this question
showed more variation than did responses to the other questions. With "very great" rated as 1 and "none" rated 6, the average scores indicate that personnel directors rated the impact higher than did faculty members: the average score of personnel directors is roughly between "great" and "fair," whereas that of faculty members is "fair." The majority of both groups of respondents generally rated this impact as "fair" or "great"--and this can be interpreted as the predominant consensus from the standpoint of addressing the relevant research questions.

Table 29

| Impact of Public Administration Taught in Universities on Productivity of Public Bureaucracy |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response |
| Personnel Directors | Faculty Members |
| Very great | 7.4 | 3.6 |
| Great | 53.7 | 32.1 |
| Fair | 33.3 | 46.4 |
| Weak | 3.7 | 17.9 |
| Very weak | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| None | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Average Score | 2.4 | 3.0 |

*Total n = 58; non-response n = 5; response n = 53.*

*Total n = 30; non-response n = 2; response n = 28.*

Personnel directors were also asked to select and rank in order of importance factors identifying the role of
universities and the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) in developing Saudi public administration and in improving public service. Based on the averaged rankings (weighted scores), indicated in Table 30, the three factors selected most often by respondents were the training and graduation of qualified personnel in public administration by these institutions (identified by 93.1% of the respondents), provision of administrative consultations to Saudi ministries and agencies (identified by 82.8%), and research in public administration (identified by 89.7%). The presentation of proposals to develop civil service systems was also identified as a factor by more than half the respondents.

Table 30

Role of Universities and IPA in Developing Public Administration and Improving Public Service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personnel Directors</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Weighted Average as Choice Score</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training/graduation of qualified personnel in public administration</td>
<td>93.1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative consultations to ministries &amp; agencies</td>
<td>82.8</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research in public administration</td>
<td>89.7</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proposals to develop civil service systems</td>
<td>56.9</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Faculty members were asked additional questions dealing with the impact of public administration training and education on Saudi Arabia's civil service system and bureaucracy. When asked to indicate how much improvement had occurred in the civil service "due to the study of public administration in the universities and training by the Institute of Public Administration," 48.3% assessed improvement as "fair," as indicated in Table 31. A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very much" = 1 and "not at all" = 6. "Fair" was rated as 3 in scoring, and the average rating of 3.0 stands precisely at this point.

Table 31

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extent of Improvement in Civil Service Due to Study of Public Administration and Training by IPA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Very much</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Much</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fair</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Little</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Very little</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Not at all</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Score</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 1; response n = 29.*

Faculty members were also asked to assess the impact of the field of public administration, as taught in
universities on the development of the Kingdom's public bureaucracy. A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very great" = 1 and "none" = 6. As Table 32 indicates, a majority of 51.7% selected "fair". This assessment is also borne out by the average score of 3.0, which stands precisely at "fair" (rated with a value of 3 in tabulating responses).

Table 32

| Impact of Public Administration Programs on Development of Public Bureaucracy |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Percentage Distribution          | of Choice by Response           |
| Faculty Members                  |                                 |
| Very great                       | 3.4                             |
| Great                            | 27.6                            |
| Fair                             | 51.7                            |
| Weak                             | 17.2                            |
| Very weak                        | 0.0                             |
| None                             | 0.0                             |
| Average Score                    | 3.0                             |

Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 1; response n = 29.

Personnel directors were asked to assess the impact of public administration programs in universities on the development of the Kingdom's civil service systems. A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very strong" = 1 and "none" = 6. Responses are presented in Table 33.
Table 33

Impact of Public Administration Programs on Development of Civil Service Systems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Total n = 58; non-response n = 7; response n = 51.

Based on the average score of 2.3, the respondents generally assessed this impact as moderate to strong. A majority of 60.8% rated the impact in the range of "strong" to "very strong," while only 7.8% gave the impact a rating of "poor."

As seen from these responses, personnel directors perceived public administration programs as having a somewhat greater impact on improving the quality of Saudi civil service than did faculty members. Nevertheless, the two groups do seem to agree that these programs have a generally favorable impact on public administration and have played an important role in providing qualified personnel. This can be interpreted as the consensus of opinion with respect to the affected research questions.
Adaptation of the Discipline of Public Administration to the Local Administrative Environment

This section focuses on ways that Saudi Arabian institutions of higher education in public administration have adapted the discipline of public administration—particularly Western public administration approaches and theories. In order to gain further insight into the adaptation of the discipline of public administration, personnel directors and faculty members included in the survey were asked to respond to several questions on this issue. Pointing out that "the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has not inherited a colonial administration like other developing countries," one question requested respondents to indicate the extent to which Saudi Arabia's system of public administration has been influenced by other administrative systems. A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very much" = 1 and "none" = 6.

As shown in Table 34, members perceived a somewhat stronger influence (score 2.0, "much") than personnel directors (score 2.6, "fair" to "much"). Faculty members (82.2%) perceived such influence as "much" to "very much" whereas only 53.8% of the personnel directors perceived the influence as "much" or "very much." Likewise, 13.5% of the personnel directors assessed such influence as "very little," whereas none of the faculty members assessed the influence as less than "fair."
Table 34

**Influence of Foreign Administrative Systems on Saudi Public Administration**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
<th>Personnel Directors(^a)</th>
<th>Faculty Members(^b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very much</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very little</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Total \(n = 58\); non-response \(n = 6\); response \(n = 52\).

\(^b\)Total \(n = 30\); non-response \(n = 2\); response \(n = 28\).

Although the differences in responses between the personnel directors and faculty member groups appear to be significant, it can be concluded that the general consensus of both groups of respondents is that foreign systems have had a moderately strong influence on the development of Saudi public administration.

In a subsequent question, respondents were asked to indicate which countries' administrative systems, in their opinion have influenced Saudi Arabia's system. As the results in Table 35 indicate, the largest percentages of responses in both groups indicated that Egypt and the United States have the greatest influence. This can be taken as the general consensus. Personnel directors were evenly
divided between the two countries (although a slightly greater percentage of the personnel directors indicated the U.S.). However, the majority of faculty members identified Egypt as having the greatest influence, followed by the U.S.

Table 35

**Foreign Administrative Systems Influencing Saudi Public Administration**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Personnel Directors</th>
<th>Faculty Members</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>69.0</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>70.7</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Britain</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To gain further insight from those actually working with public administration as a field of study in Saudi Arabia, faculty members were asked additional questions in regard to the adaptation of public administration as a discipline. This group was asked to select from several choices (or provide their own opinions) as to how Saudi institutions of higher education and training in public administration have adapted the discipline of public administration. As the responses presented in Table 36 indicate, the majority of the respondents indicated that, to some extent, Saudi public administration curricula has been
modelled after curricula in developed countries; however, a somewhat smaller majority also indicated that Saudi Arabia's public administration program was developed in a manner totally unique to Saudi conditions. This suggests that most respondents perceive Saudi programs to be somewhat modelled on those of developed countries, but adapted with features unique to Saudi Arabia. Somewhat more than one-third (36.7%) of the respondents indicated that Saudi public administration curricula was developed from scratch, without an attempt to model other countries; and only one-fifth (20.0%) felt that Saudi programs were simply an imitation of public administration programs in major developed countries.

Table 36

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adaptation of Discipline of Public Administration by Saudi Institutions of Higher Education and Training</th>
<th>Percent Respondents Choosing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n = 30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imitation of public administration programs in major developed countries</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of curricula from scratch without attempting to model others</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modelling PA curricula in developed countries to some extent</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing program totally unique to Saudi conditions</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In a related question, faculty members were asked to indicate to what extent the teaching of public administration is "affected by Western ideas." The results, presented in Table 37, suggest that faculty members feel that Western ideas have had a substantial influence. A majority (57.7%) selected either "very much" or "much." A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very much" = 1 and "not at all" = 6. The average score of 3.0 represents "Fair" (a rating which was chosen by 34.6% of the respondents). It is significant that none of the respondents indicated "not at all," and can be concluded that virtually all of those who responded to this question (i.e., the predominant consensus) acknowledged that the teaching of public administration in Saudi Arabia has been influenced by Western ideas to some extent.

The general response of faculty members in personal interviews to the question of how to adapt Western theories in public administration to the Saudi environment was that Western administrative theories are introduced in a way which makes them fully adjusted to Saudi society and the values and ethics of Islam. This is done through studying the local administration and administrative organizations of the Kingdom, and through domestic laws and regulations and applied procedures. In other words, understanding the local Saudi environment for public administration and connecting
Table 37

**Extent of Influence of Western Ideas on Teaching of Public Administration**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Score</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 4; response n = 26.*

it to the administrative theories of the world provide the right direction for the functioning of the public agencies.

The faculty members were also asked to compare their own departments' public administration programs with those of the U.S.: "In comparison with the United States, how would you evaluate the field of public administration within your department?" A 1 to 3 scale was used to score responses, with "above average" = 1 and "below average" = 3. Based on the percentage of respondents and the average score, as shown in Table 38, it can be concluded that the perception of most faculty members (i.e., the predominant consensus) were that the programs in their own departments were about average when compared with those of the U.S.
Table 38

**Evaluation of the Quality of the Field of Public Administration within Respondent’s Department**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** Total $n = 30$; non-response $n = 2$; response $n = 28$.

This section describes the extent to which Saudi institutions for study and training in public administration provide the Saudi government with needed civil servants and administrators. In addition, the adequacy of the preparation of graduates of Saudi institutions for study and training in public administration, in terms of undertaking public responsibility, are also analyzed. Data regarding these issues are derived from the survey conducted as part of this research.

In the survey of personnel directors and faculty members performed in this research, somewhat similar questions were asked of each group. The personnel directors were requested to indicate whether they thought that Saudi
universities "provide the Government with its needs [for] qualified bureaucrats in public administration." Personnel directors were asked to choose one of four responses: Saudi universities provide the government with its staff needs; The number of public administration graduates is in excess of those needed; The universities provide the country with a "fairly adequate number"; or "There is still a shortage of public administration specialists." A 1 to 4 scale was used to score responses, with "Provide government with needs" rated 1 and "Shortage in PA specialists" rated 4. The percentages of the personnel directors responding to each choice are presented in Table 39.

Table 39

| Meeting of Government Needs for Staff in Public Administration by Saudi Universities |
|-----------------------------------------------|----------------|
| Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response |
| Provide government with needs                  | 24.6 |
| Number of PA graduates in excess                | 31.6 |
| Provide fairly adequate number                  | 21.1 |
| Shortage in PA specialists                      | 22.8 |
| Average Score                                  | 2.0  |

Note. Total n = 58; non-response n = 1; response n = 57.

Faculty members were asked to rate how well institutions of public administration "provide the public
sector with its personnel needs," by selecting from six choices. A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very much" = 1 and "not at all" = 6. Their responses are shown in Table 40.

Table 40

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extent that Institutions of Public Administration Provide Public Sector with Personnel Needs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 4; response n = 26.

It can be seen that the assessments of these two groups of respondents, using different questions and selections, are generally similar. Of the personnel directors (see Table 39), a majority (77.3%) indicated that Saudi universities either met or exceeded the government's needs for "qualified bureaucrats"; only 22.8% perceived a "shortage in public administration specialists." Of the faculty members surveyed (see Table 40), a majority (96.1%) rated the provision of personnel needs to the public sector
by institutions of public administration as "Fair," "Much" or "Very much." Only 3.8% rated this function as "Very little," and no respondents selected "Not at all." The average score of 2.0 corresponds to an average response of "Much" in the scoring system used. Thus it can be concluded that these institutions are providing the government with its needs for personnel.

Respondents were also asked to rate the extent to which they felt specialization in public administration and training by the Institute of Public Administration have improved Saudi public service. Six choices were provided, ranging from "very much" (given a score of 1) to "not at all" (given a score of 6). Results are shown in Table 41.

Table 41

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Improvement of Public Service Through Specialization/Training in Public Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n = 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Here some divergence of perception between the two groups can be recognized. Personnel directors assessed the degree of improvement higher (average score of 2.3, between "well" and "fair") than faculty members (average score of 3.0, "fair"). And, while 19.0% of the personnel directors rated the improvement as "very much," none of the faculty members did so. On the other hand, although 20.7% of the faculty members rated improvement as "little," none of the personnel directors selected a rating below "fair." It can be concluded that academic specialization in public administration and training by the IPA are producing some improvement in Saudi civil service.

The personnel directors were also asked to identify specifically what civil service improvements might have occurred in their own ministries or agencies "as a result of the entry of public administration graduates into civil service and also training in the Institute of Public Administration." Their responses are shown in Table 42.

From the responses indicated in Table 42, it can be seen that the top areas of improvement identified by the greatest proportions of respondents (taken as the predominant consensus) are the employment of new technology, administrative awareness, and innovation in work. It is plausible to infer from this that public administration graduates' exposure to new technology and techniques, and conveyance of these innovations to the public sector, are
Table 42

Areas of Improvement in Civil Service Resulting from Entry of Public Administration Graduates and IPA Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percent Respondents Including as Choice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n = 58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Administrative awareness               | 67.2 |
| Punctuality                            | 32.8 |
| Timely performance of duties           | 46.6 |
| Respect of those dealing with ministry or agency | 48.3 |
| Higher productivity                    | 48.3 |
| Innovation in work                     | 63.8 |
| Employing new technology               | 74.1 |
| No change                              | 1.7  |
| Other                                  | 1.7  |

perceived as major resources and benefits for the improvement of the civil service by personnel directors.

Both personnel directors and faculty members were asked to indicate how well prepared university graduates specializing in public administration are to carry out public responsibilities. Six choices were provided, ranging from "very well" (given a score of 1) to "not at all" (given a score of 6). Results are shown in Table 43.

Perceptions of the two groups on this issue were once again close, with the personnel directors' assessment slightly higher. Majorities in both groups—75.5% of the personnel directors and 69.0% of the faculty members—indicated that public administration graduates are well
Table 43

Preparation of Public Administration Graduates to Carry Out Public Responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
<th>Personnel Directors(^a)</th>
<th>Faculty Members(^b)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very well</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>69.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poorly</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poorly</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{a}\)Total n = 58; non-response n = 5; response n = 53.

\(^{b}\)Total n = 30; non-response n = 1; response n = 29.

Prepared to undertake public responsibilities. This can be interpreted as the predominant consensus from the standpoint of addressing the issues of the research questions.

These results are corroborated by responses received on another question which asked the participants of both groups, based on each individual's own experience and observation, to rate the level of performance and productivity of administrative personnel having three different academic backgrounds: (a) a public administration degree, (b) a university degree without training in public administration, and (c) a university degree with some public administration training. A 1 to 5 scale was used to score...
responses, with "very poor" = 1 and "excellent" = 5. The results are presented in Table 44.

The results indicate more favorable ratings by both groups toward having public administration training, and this can be assumed to be the general consensus.

The average scores, based on the rating values given above, can be interpreted into a breakdown of the consensus opinion of each group. In regard to the rating on personnel having public administration degrees, the consensus of opinion of personnel directors was "above average" to "average" and that of the faculty members was "average" to "above average." In regard to the rating on personnel having university degrees without public administration training, the consensus of personnel directors was "average" to "poor" and that of the faculty members was also "average" to "poor." Finally, in regard to the rating on personnel having university degrees with some public administration training, the consensus of the personnel directors was "above average" to "average," while that of faculty members was "average" to "above average."

Personnel directors were asked two questions related to the adequacy of the preparation of graduates of Saudi institutions for study and training in public administration to assume public administrative responsibilities. The first question asked whether the respondents thought that knowledge obtained by public administration graduates is
Table 44

Performance and Productivity of Administrative Personnel According to Educational Background

Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personnel Directors</th>
<th>Faculty Members^a</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total n = 58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION DEGREE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choice</th>
<th>Average Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above average</td>
<td>65.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

UNIVERSITY DEGREE WITHOUT PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION TRAINING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choice</th>
<th>Average Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>1.8^b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above average</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

UNIVERSITY DEGREE WITH SOME PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION TRAINING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choice</th>
<th>Average Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>0.0^d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above average</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^aTotal n = 30; non-response n = 3; response n = 27.
^bTotal n = 58; non-response n = 1; response n = 57.
^cTotal n = 30; non-response n = 11; response n = 19.
^dTotal n = 58; non-response n = 1; response n = 57.
^eTotal n = 30; non-response n = 7; response n = 23.
adequate to assume the functions of an administrative position in the government. A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very adequate" = 1 and "not adequate" = 6. With an average score of 2.6, as indicated in Table 45, the average response (i.e., consensus) can be interpreted as "adequate to fairly adequate."

Table 45

Adequacy of Public Administration Graduates’ Knowledge for Assuming Administrative Positions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardly adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Total n = 58; non-response n = 2; response n = 56.

The large divergence of opinions of personnel directors in Tables 43 and 45 is generally related to the preparation of graduates of the programs of public administration. The question in Table 43 is more general and requires the preparation of graduates for taking public responsibility. The answer of the personnel directors was that the 75.5% of
graduates who are qualified to bear the responsibility of their jobs.

As for Table 45, the question is specifically centered on the preparation of graduates, theoretically as well as academically. Graduates of public administration need training so they can gain the required practical experience which is supplementary to academic knowledge. This training is considered to be from the personnel directors' point of view, indicating a shortage in the information the graduate received during university study. This is why the opinions of the respondents in both tables became significantly divergent.

The second question asked respondents, based on experience, to rate the suitability of the information and experience obtained by Saudi university graduates in public administration in terms of the local work environment. A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very suitable" = 1 and "not suitable" = 6. With an average score of 2.5, as indicated in Table 46, the average response (i.e., consensus) can be interpreted as "suitable to fairly suitable."

The survey data suggest that, while there may still be shortages in some areas of public administration specialization, Saudi universities are generally succeeding in the mission of providing the Saudi government with its needs in terms of qualified bureaucrats in public
Table 46

Suitability of Public Administration Graduates’ Information/Experience for Local Work Environment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardly suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Total $n = 58$; non-response $n = 2$; response $n = 56$.

administration. The evidence also suggests that Saudi institutions of public administration have been generally successful in meeting the personnel needs of the public sector.

The data also indicate that specialization in public administration and training by the Institute of Public Administration have improved Saudi public service. Deployment of new technology, improvement in administrative awareness, and the introduction of more work innovations are major civil service improvements that have occurred in Saudi ministries and agencies as a result of the entry of public administration graduates into civil service and also training in the Institute of Public Administration. It can be concluded from the survey data that public administration
graduates' exposure to new technology and techniques, and conveyance of these innovations to the public sector, are major resources and benefits for the improvement of the civil service.

The data also suggest that university graduates specializing in public administration are well prepared to carry out public responsibilities. Administrative personnel with public administration training also appear to exhibit higher levels of performance and productivity.

Graduates of Saudi institutions for study and training in public administration appear to be fairly adequately trained to assume public administrative responsibilities. It can be concluded from the survey data that the knowledge obtained by public administration graduates seems adequate to prepare them to assume the functions of an administrative position in the government. The information and experience obtained by Saudi university graduates in public administration in terms of the local work environment likewise seems fairly suitable. However, room for improvement appears to exist.

The Contact and Coordination Between Teaching and the Practice of Public Administration

In this section, the adequacy of the contacts and coordination between the teaching and practice of public administration in Saudi Arabia are evaluated. A basis for
evaluating the adequacy of the contacts and coordination between the teaching and practice of public administration in Saudi Arabia are provided by the survey data. These data facilitate an assessment of the effectiveness of the cooperation and coordination between Saudi public agencies and Saudi universities concerning academic majors which need to be emphasized in public administration, and the extent of connection or contact between faculty members and bureaucrats in governmental agencies.

In the survey of personnel directors and faculty members, both groups were requested to indicate the adequacy of the cooperation and coordination, in their opinion, between Saudi public agencies and Saudi universities concerning academic majors which needed to be emphasized in public administration. A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very good" = 1, "very poor" = 5, and "other" = 6. Responses are provided in Table 47.

Faculty members were asked how much connection or contact they perceived between themselves and bureaucrats in governmental agencies. A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very much" = 1 and "not at all" = 6. Responses are provided in Table 48.

From the responses to both questions, it can be concluded that both groups feel that communication, coordination, and cooperation between those engaged in the educational/training programs and those actually involved
Table 47

Cooperation and Coordination between Saudi Universities and Public Agencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personnel Directors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Total n = 58; non-response n = 19; response n = 39.

Table 48

Extent of Respondent's Connection/Contact with Bureaucrats in Government Agencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very much</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very little</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 3; response n = 27.*
in public administration in government agencies could stand to be improved. In their responses to the first question, the average for personnel directors was 3.4 ("fair" to "poor") and for faculty members 4.0 ("poor"). In response to the second question--regarding their own experience--the average score of faculty members was also 4.0 ("poor").

Both groups were asked to indicate the most preferable academic majors for administrative positions in the public sector. The results are provided in Table 49.

Table 49

Most Preferable Academic Majors for Administrative Positions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percent Respondents</th>
<th>Personnel Directors</th>
<th>Faculty Members</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Including as Choice</td>
<td>N = 58</td>
<td>N = 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public administration</td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business administration</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>63.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political science</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 49, it can be seen that there are some similarities of opinion (e.g., high percentages of both personnel directors and faculty members cited public administration, and relatively small percentages cited engineering). However, there is also divergence; for example, one-half (50.0%) of faculty members appear to feel
that political science is a preferable major, whereas less than one-fifth (19.0%) of the personnel directors cite this subject. This further indicates the need for systematic coordination between the two groups to develop education/training programs most suited to the public needs.

The faculty members were asked several additional questions relating to cooperation/coordination. First, they were asked to rate how much public needs affect the design of the academic curriculum of public administration. A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very much" = 1 and "not at all" = 6. Results are shown in Table 50.

Table 50

Affect of Public Needs on Academic Curriculum of Public Administration

| Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response |
|-----------------------------------------------|---|
| Faculty Members                               |   |
| Very much                                     | 7.7 |
| Much                                          | 30.8 |
| Fair                                          | 23.1 |
| Little                                        | 19.2 |
| Very little                                   | 15.4 |
| Not at all                                    | 3.8 |
| Average Score                                 | 3.0 |

Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 4; response n = 26.

The faculty members were requested to indicate how much research in their own departments is applied to the field
and practice of public administration. A 1 to 6 scale was used to score responses, with "very much" = 1 and "not at all" = 6. Results are provided in Table 51.

Table 51

Application of Research in Respondent's Department to Improvement of Field and Practice of Public Administration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 4; response n = 26.

Finally, faculty members were asked to indicate whether efforts are being made to bring theory closer to actual practice. A 1 to 4 scale was used to score responses, with "yes" = 1, "no" = 3, and "other" = 4. Results are provided in Table 52.

As seen from these responses, faculty members feel that the influence of public needs on development of academic curricula in public administration is only "fair." They feel that little research in their departments is applied to the field and practice of public administration. This
Table 52

**Efforts to Bring Theory Closer to Actual Practice**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Distribution of Choice by Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maybe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average Score</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Total n = 30; non-response n = 4; response n = 26.

And the average response to whether efforts are being made to bring theory closer to actual practice is only "maybe." This clearly indicates a greater need for coordination between university public administration programs and the needs of the public sector.

**Summary**

Conclusions and responses to the research questions investigated in this study are elaborated by the results of the interviews and survey conducted as part of this research. These results as well as the results of the historical research previously reported enable a number of specific conclusions to be drawn in regard to the research questions.

1. Both the historical research and the survey results indicate that establishing a program of education and
training in public administration domestically has been essential, and the activities of the IPA and Saudi universities fulfill major roles in developing the field of public administration. According to both research activities, major factors contributing to the development of the field of public administration in Saudi Arabia include the Kingdom’s rapid socioeconomic growth, the Five-Year Development Plans, efforts to solve the nation’s administrative problems, the growth of the bureaucracy, the government’s desire to ensure the availability of administrators, and research/recommendations of institutes, colleges, and universities.

2. The Saudi government’s role in establishing a program of public administration within Saudi institutions of higher education has been substantial. The role of Saudi government policy on teaching public administration in institutions of higher education has been highly supportive. The government’s financial support has been adequate. The Saudi government has played a particularly strong role in recommending changes in curriculum, requesting specific courses, and communicating government public administration needs. University officials have played the strongest role in initiating the establishment of Saudi university-level educational programs in public administration, followed by the Ministry of Higher Education and then the Civil Service Bureau.
3. Saudi institutions, the Institute of Public Administration, colleges, and universities have made important contributions in developing the area of public administration by providing more qualified staff, conducting research in public administration, and providing useful recommendations on the Kingdom's public administration policy. The application of the Civil Service Bureau's classification system resulted from a desire to ensure suitability of specific positions with each employee's degree. In addition, there is some evidence that this policy was also initiated because of the availability of graduates in public administration to fill positions.

Public administration training/education has had a fairly important impact on Saudi Arabia's civil service system and bureaucracy. The field of public administration taught in universities has likewise had a fairly significant impact on the development of the Kingdom's public bureaucracy.

The field of public administration, as taught in universities, has had a fair impact on the productivity of the Kingdom's public bureaucracy. In terms of specific ways in which universities and the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) have had an impact in developing Saudi public administration and improving public service, major factors were the training and graduation of qualified personnel in public administration, provision of
administrative consultations to Saudi ministries and agencies, research in public administration, and the presentation of proposals to develop civil service systems of these institutions.

The public administration program taught in universities has had a moderate to strong impact on the development of the Kingdom’s civil service system. These programs appear to have had a generally favorable impact on public administration and have played an important role in providing more qualified personnel.

4. While the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has not inherited a colonial administration, the evidence suggests that Saudi Arabia’s system of public administration has been influenced by other administrative systems. Egypt and the United States appear to have provided the greatest influence.

Saudi public administration curricula have been modelled after curricula in developed countries; however, some aspects of the Kingdom’s public administration program have also been developed in a manner totally unique to Saudi conditions. Basically, Saudi programs have been somewhat modelled on those of developed countries, but adapted with features reflecting the culture, society, and other features of Saudi Arabia. In particular, it can be concluded that the teaching of public administration in Saudi Arabia has been influenced by Western ideas to some extent. The
quality of public administration programs in Saudi departments are about average in comparison with the U.S.

5. While there may still be shortages in some areas of public administration specialization, Saudi universities are generally succeeding in the mission of providing the Saudi government with its needs for qualified bureaucrats in public administration. Generally, Saudi institutions of public administration have been successful in meeting the personnel needs of the public sector.

Specialization in public administration and training by the Institute of Public Administration have improved Saudi public service. Deployment of new technology, improvement in administrative awareness, and introduction of more work innovations are major civil service improvements that have occurred in Saudi ministries and agencies as a result of the entry of public administration graduates into civil service and also training in the Institute of Public Administration. Public administration graduates' exposure to new technology and techniques, and conveyance of these innovations to the public sector, are major resources and benefits for the improvement of the civil service.

University graduates specializing in public administration appear to be well prepared to carry out public responsibilities. Administrative personnel with public administration training also appear to exhibit higher levels of performance and productivity.
Graduates of Saudi institutions for study and training in public administration appear to be fairly adequately trained to assume public administrative responsibilities. On the whole, the knowledge obtained by public administration graduates seems adequate for them to assume the duties of administrative positions in the government. The information and experience obtained by Saudi university graduates in public administration in terms of the local work environment also seem fairly suitable. However, room for improvement appears to exist.

6. Cooperation and coordination between Saudi public agencies and Saudi universities in regard to the academic majors which should be emphasized in public administration appears to be poor. On the other hand, the extent of connection or contact between faculty members and bureaucrats in governmental agencies is based on personal relationships and contacts. Based on results of this study, it appears that this relationship leads not so much to the improvement and development of the field of public administration, but to the advancement of the individual careers of faculty members. The conclusion from the evidence is that communication, coordination, and cooperation between those engaged in the educational/training programs and those actually involved in public administration in government agencies could stand significant improvement.
The most preferable academic majors for administrative positions in the public sector appear to be public administration, and to some extent political science. On the other hand, engineering does not seem to be a highly useful academic major for a public administrative position. The strong divergence in some respects between the views of faculty members and personnel directors on the issue of appropriate curricula further suggests the need for systematic coordination between the academic (theoretical/educational) area and the administrative (practical) area to develop education/training programs most suited to the public needs.

The influence of public needs on the development of curricula of public administration are indicated. The degree to which research in university departments is currently applied to the field and practice of public administration is rather limited. Furthermore, the research conducted for this study has not clarified to what extent efforts are being made to bring theory closer to actual practice. In any event, a greater need for coordination between university public administration programs and the needs of the public sector seems strongly indicated.
CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS
AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The development of public administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was an integral and inseparable part of the overall process of national growth and development in the country. Unlike other developing countries, the Kingdom never had an experience with colonialism. Thus, lacking the foreign administrative expertise, the Saudi government had to build its administrative system from scratch. As a result, Saudi national public administration is characterized by unique features which are deeply rooted in the principles and values of Islam. Consequently, the programs of public administration were created within the framework of these principles.

Summary

This study has focused on the identification and analysis of key factors in the evolution and development of public administration as a field of study in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The study has applied an historical-descriptive, and analytical research approach to examine a number of research topics.
Based on historical research, factors that contributed to the evolution and development of the field of public administration, and factors that led to the creation of public administration programs in major Saudi universities and the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration have been analyzed. In order to understand factors that contributed to the emergence of public administration as a field of study in Saudi universities, an examination of the development of public administration in the Kingdom was necessary.

The historical development of public administration in Saudi Arabia involved a number of events and elements that had tremendous impact on the gradual development of the Kingdom’s administrative infrastructure. This was not a sudden process, but evolved step-by-step as a result of the emerging needs of Saudi society.

Since its emergence in the early twentieth century, Saudi public administration has passed through three stages. The first stage started in 1902 and ended in 1932. The second stage lasted from 1933 through 1957. The third stage began in 1958 and continues into the present.

After recapturing Riyadh, the present capital, and declaring the previously divided land to be unified as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the late King Abdulaziz Al-Saud quickly founded a national administration which he perceived as necessary to accompany the process of nation-building.
The establishment of a contemporary administration, able to meet the century's challenges, was one of the chief objectives of King Abdulaziz throughout his rule.

This period is viewed as a transitional stage which had a tremendous impact on the developmental process of Saudi public administration. Because the society was traditional and fragmented in nature, the administrative system was a somewhat primitive apparatus.

The first stage, in the years following King Abdulaziz's unification of the nation, was characterized by relatively simple administrative structures. The rapid social development which the country witnessed over the two decades following the proclamation of the kingdom had a significant impact on public administrative development. With this gradual development of Saudi administration, the administrative system in the Kingdom grew from a relatively small and simple form of organization into a larger, more complex infrastructure. By the late 1950s and early 1960s, governmental attention to administrative reform had begun, initially in response to the fiscal crisis of the late 1950s.

One of the foremost factors influencing the development of the field of public administration was the Kingdom's explosive economic growth and resultant social and economic development. As a consequence of this growth, the tremendous expansion of the bureaucracy quickened the pace
toward the development of a modern system of public administration and created an urgent need for qualified administrators.

Implementation of the ambitious Five-Year Plans (whose development actually began as early as 1968) was a particularly important factor which contributed to the need for an academic major of public administration in Saudi universities and for finding competent administrators to carry out those plans. From the start, the Five-Year Plans concentrated on human resource development and education in general, and on administrative elements in particular.

Shaping the development of public administration has also been a significant objective of administrative reform and administrative development agencies. The emergence of many specialized "Administrative Development Agencies" has been effective in the development of public administration in the Kingdom. These agencies include the Institute of Public Administration, the Colleges of Administrative Science at major Saudi universities, the Supreme Committee for Administrative Reform, the Civil Service Council, the General Bureau of the Civil Service, the Central Department for Organization and Management, the Manpower Council, and the Central Committee for Training and Scholarship.

The last factor to have an impact on the development of public administration in the Kingdom has been the government's strong support for higher education, which has
developed with increased need. Dynamic in character, the higher educational system has taken domestic needs into consideration and has endeavored to foster a variety of specialized fields, including public administration. Universities in the Kingdom became interested in public administration as a part of their duty to supply local human resources to the country. The development of programs of study of public administration in Saudi universities can be viewed as a part of the overall development of higher education in the Kingdom.

The establishment of degree programs in public administration at Saudi universities in more recent years has begun to provide an adequate number of graduates with degrees in public administration to fulfill the country's administrative needs.

In their desire to further develop the public administration major and in anticipation of its far-reaching dimensions in the twentieth century, Saudi authorities did not restrict the study of public administration to local universities. Instead, the government granted scholarships for many Saudi students to obtain specialization abroad in public administration and other related fields. Therefore, according to the report of the Ministry of Higher Education, the number of Saudis studying outside the country during the 1970s increased by 447%. Those who were sent abroad to study public administration included both students and
practitioners. In order to raise the Saudi bureaucracy's professional level and administrative expertise, the government decreased the number of undergraduates sent abroad and increased the number at the graduate level. It was determined that, in order to build stronger backgrounds for future Saudi administrators, students should receive their undergraduate study in Saudi universities. This undergraduate preparation was intended to enhance their abilities in local administration and make them more familiar with the functioning of local institutions.

As the focus of public administration became more domestic in nature, the establishment of public administration as an academic major at Saudi universities gained high priority with the Saudi government. The idea was to minimize the dependence of Saudi Arabia on foreign universities as a source of administrative manpower for its government agencies. An additional goal of the Saudi government was the establishment of independent colleges for public administration which was intended to make the Kingdom self-sufficient in terms of academic programs of public administration.

Among the seven universities in Saudi Arabia today, five have programs of public administration and business administration. King Saud University was the first to embrace the teaching of public administration as an academic field of study. Courses in public administration were
offered in its college of commerce when it was established in 1959. However, public administration did not originally have a specific identify and was combined with business administration and law. Unlike programs in other developing countries, Saudi universities did not provide separate departments for the study of public administration during this time. Although there were courses in public administration beginning with the establishment of the College of Commerce in 1959 at King Saud University in Riyadh, it was not until 1977 that an independent department of public administration was created there.

Based on a decision of the Higher Council of the University in 1977, the College of Commerce was renamed the College of Administrative Sciences. And this vital area of study became an independent department. The hour system of courses was implemented in an ongoing effort to improve the major of public administration.

In spite of all the attention to public administration by King Saud University, the curriculum was only offered at the undergraduate level. In 1980, the College of Administrative Sciences began offering graduate programs in health and hospital administration. As time passed, King Saud University actively endeavored to establish a graduate program in the area of public administration at the master degree level.
King Abdulaziz University likewise exhibited substantial interest in the field of public administration. From its establishment in 1971, the Department of Public Administration in the university concerned itself with preparing qualified employees for the public sector in the Kingdom. The department was the first and in the entire Arab world to grant the bachelor’s degree in public administration in Saudi Arabia. Hundreds of Saudi graduates from King Abdulaziz University currently hold high-ranking administrative positions in various governmental agencies.

Similar developments have occurred at Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University, where three colleges now offer curricula in public administration. These are the Colleges of Arabic Language and Social Sciences in Abha and al-Qaseem, and the College of Sharia and Islamic Studies in Al-Hasa. However, public administration is offered alongside business administration in these colleges and is not an independent major in the university.

The role of the Institute of Public Administration has also been highly visible in preparing public servants who are capable of efficiently undertaking the responsibilities of Saudi governmental agencies. Three functions have been of concern to the Institute since its establishment in 1961: training, consultation, and research. The Institute of Public Administration has played a significant role in the development and improvement of public administration in the
Kingdom through seminars and training programs which contribute to the reorganization and upgrading of the governmental administrative force.

Through research and consultation, the Institute of Public Administration has undertaken another major contribution. Although research in public administration has reached substantial levels, there remains a need for improvement in the quality of research conducted. Because of their awareness of this need, leaders at the Institute of Public Administration have attempted to improve the quality and standards of research. The institute has also been active in providing consultation services.

The teaching of public administration was not the only domain of this academic field. The founding of professional journals and the establishment of libraries with books and periodicals in public administration have also been important developments in the field. Professional journals provide both university students and bureaucrats with necessary information on current issues, practices, and techniques in public administration.

Saudi government policy has always been supportive toward research and study in public administration. The government has provided generous financial resources for the development of public administration. The government has also encouraged research conferences and seminars designed for updating study in the field of public administration.
In addition to financing the establishment of a center for administrative research in each university, the government has also supported freedom in research and publication. The government has further emphasized the importance of public administration and its readiness to finance its advancement.

The emergence of public administration as an important academic field in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has been a direct outcome of the country's overall socioeconomic development since its founding by the late King Abdulaziz. The effectiveness and efficiency of public administration as an academic program was confirmed by interviews with government officials and faculty members. Although the Kingdom has not yet reached the level of Western advanced countries in terms of administrative apparatus, it is hoped that this goal can be reached soon with the persistent and constant supervision of Saudi officials over the field of public administration.

The massive growth in the magnitude of the Saudi bureaucracy confronted the nation with a permanent demand for manpower and initially led the government to seek professionals from neighboring Arab countries. However, realizing that something had to be done about the increasing number of non-Saudi employees, the government accelerated its efforts to provide training and preparation of adequately qualified Saudi citizens in the field of public administration to undertake public responsibility. Because
of this acceleration of efforts, a basic shift occurred in a relatively short period when the highest administrative positions began to be filled by Saudis. Thus most top-ranking Saudi bureaucrats in the country today have a doctorate or master’s degree in public administration. In addition, Saudis who do not have academic degrees in public administration are expected to undergo intensive training at the Kingdom’s Institute of Public Administration.

The relatively large increase in the number of individuals with academic degrees in public administration has led to important modifications in existing public administration concepts, rules, and laws necessary to keep pace with the progressive development of Saudi administration. A major advance in the functioning of the current Saudi administrative machinery is evidenced by the widespread use of computers in governmental agencies. This has had an impact on administrative procedures. At the same time it has increased efficiency and facilitated the exchange of information among the various public agencies, thus producing a great increase in employees’ productivity.

Understanding of their administrative role and a sense of responsibility among members of the bureaucracy have increased significantly due to the involvement of new professionals in the public sector.

In this study, the role of the Institute of Public Administration and of colleges and universities in the
development of public administration was examined through personal interviews and surveys of both university faculty members and personnel directors in Saudi government offices. From these primary data, the factors which led to significant interest in public administration as a field of study have been highlighted.

Answers by faculty members at the universities and by officials in governmental agencies were similar. Those interviewed agreed that the economic growth and development experienced by the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia over the past two decades and the ambitious Five-Year Plans contributed to developmental transition in all public aspects, including pressuring Saudi universities to meet the requirements and demands of the growing bureaucracy. Because of the urgent need of government agencies for a large number of professionals in public administration with qualified administrative skills, the universities established the major of public administration and encouraged its development. The universities graduated as many students as possible with majors in public administration in order to prepare well-trained and qualified Saudis to satisfy the societal needs of the Kingdom. The enormous wealth resulting from the production of oil in the Kingdom and the incredibly rapid development that has occurred have caused the various institutions of public administration to focus their attention on the continuous and increasing need of the
country for administrative cadres to march with the Kingdom toward progress, prosperity, and the best possible future in the next century.

Discussion

Compared to other developing countries, the Saudi administration implemented significant changes in a relatively short period of time and against substantial odds. In this regard, A. H. Somjee has observed that "Saudi Arabia has witnessed extra-ordinary changes in the last two decades due to the vast changes in her economic and administrative life" (p. 154). With the wealth from the discovery of the oil in the late 1930s, the Saudi government had the necessary financial resources to start a comprehensive campaign for building the country and its administration. As the oil revenues continued to rise, authorities were persistent in their efforts to move the country into far-reaching and advanced dimensions:

The continuous expansion of the administrative system throughout its modern history illustrates the norm and the trend in the evolution of public bureaucracy in the Kingdom. The pattern of expansion is tied closely to the level of increase in government revenue, due to the ever expanding oil exports. Whenever the government sustained a substantial increase in its revenue, more avenues of expenditures for public projects and services were visualized and new departments were created to handle the new responsibilities. (Al-Mazroa, 1980, p. 254)

The impact of the Five-Year Plans, initiated by the late King Faisal Ibn Abdulaziz in 1968, has been felt in
every aspect of Saudi society. It was King Faisal who first realized the urgent need to move Saudi Arabia from its traditional character to a contemporary one. According to King Faisal, Islam has never had a problem with progress, and working toward better life is in total compliance with Islamic traditions and laws. This is further clarified in King Faisal's speech:

"Our religion ... requires us to progress and advance and to bear the burden of the highest tradition and best manners. What is called progressive in the world today, and what reformers are calling for, be it social, human or economic progress, is all embodied in the Islamic religion and laws." (Al-Farsy, 1980, p. 60)

In other words, many elements, mostly stemming from the heart of Saudi society, continue to help shape the features and character of the Saudi people and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The role of the Five-Year Plans was, therefore, tremendously important in the process of progress and development in Saudi Arabia. The attention paid by the Saudi government to the field of public administration stems from a deep belief in the importance of public administration as a tool to carry out the public policy as outlined in its ambitious Five-Year Plans. Hence, from the beginning, these Five-Year Plans concentrated on finding qualified Saudi administrators able to execute the plans. This policy has obviously been fruitful in making
specialized Saudi personnel available in the field of public administration.

Much refinement and emphasis on quality has occurred, as Othman Al-Ahmad (1988) has related; consequently, as early as the 1970s, the Civil Service Bureau began to assume the responsibility of recruiting university graduates into the public sector indiscriminately and without regard to their specialization (pp. 257-258). Today, personnel development policies and regulations have matured so that appropriate specializations are encouraged and preferred. There are currently three Saudi universities teaching public administration in addition to Saudi universities which graduate professionals in business administration and computer science. The government policy, from the start, has been to make sure that graduates are recruited by the public sector upon graduation.

The Institute of Public Administration has taken an active role in the development of public administration in the Kingdom. The Institute has three training centers which undertake the responsibility of intensive training for public employees in both pre-service and in-service capacities. The head center is in the capital, Riyadh, another center is in Jeddah in the western region, and the third is in Damman in the eastern region. These three centers train employees and conduct research and consultation. The Institute has even expanded its training
role to include training the public employees of other Arab countries. It should be noted that the Institute is considered to be the best in the training field, in both the Arab world and the entire Middle East.

The Institute of Public Administration has in fact played a more important role in the development of public administration than even the Kingdom's universities. Thus, it can be said that the Institute's role in public administration has somewhat overshadowed the role of the universities. This has occurred for the following reasons:

1. It was the first to be established in the field of public administration.

2. Its character as a training apparatus concerned with the practice of public administration highlighted its mission as a work-oriented center; this made it more efficient and effective.

3. The authority and power granted to the Institute enabled it to successfully undertake its responsibilities.

4. The Institute's attention to problems of administration, and the seminars that have been conducted dealing with these problems, has left little space for universities in this area.

Administrative reform in the Kingdom had a distinct effect on the development of the national administration. The economic crisis of 1956 directed governmental attention to the necessity of reforming all government administration.
The interest of the Saudi government in advancing the administrative system in preparation to meet ongoing challenges made leaders realize the urgent need to reform administrative agencies and raise the quality of their services. Al-Mazroa (1980) has noted that:

It was realized that to execute such policies the administrative system needed major reform to help modernize the ways its functions are handled and reorganize its structure. To expedite this intention, an outside expertise was sought, hence, the agreement between the government of Saudi Arabia and the Ford Foundation of America was signed in 1963 to assist the administration with the implementation of a program in public administration involving administrative reorganization; fiscal management, personnel classification, and management; personnel development; training programs; and various other activities aimed at improving the functioning of the administrative system. (p. 273)

After the Ford Foundation submitted its recommendations to the Saudi government, the mission of administrative reform was delegated to individual ministries and governmental agencies. This was primarily due to the large number of Saudis available with the required professional experience and competence to handle the process of administrative development in their respective agencies.

According to Al-Mazroa (1980):

The post-1973 administrative reform is handled by the ministries and public agencies themselves, through their specialized staff of O and M departments, the Central Department of O and M in the Ministry of Finance and National Economy, the High Committee, and the Preparatory Committee for Administrative Reform. (pp. 326-327)
Administrative reform in Saudi Arabia has achieved its objectives in the process of national development and, especially, in the field of public administration. Through their various agencies, the ministries successfully carried out the Ford Foundation recommendations which were approved by the Saudi government. This led to an increased level of employee performance and productivity, and the improvement of the services of public agencies.

According to the interviews, it should be noted that the improvement and development of the Saudi bureaucracy cannot be solely considered the achievement of the public administration graduates of Saudi universities. As mentioned earlier, the great numbers of Saudis who completed their university study in public administration in the United States, especially at the master's level, have had the lead throughout the 1960s and 1970s in developing the field of public administration in the Kingdom. They had their own significant role in changing the laws of civil service and developing them in conformity with the overall development of the Kingdom. Therefore, what they did was a great contribution to their country and its national administrative system, which made them thoroughly deserve the title of "first generation of public administration" (interview with government officials and faculty members, 1989).
The increasing administrative efficiency and effectiveness in the Saudi public administration over the last 20 years is largely indebted to the new generation of Saudi professionals in public administration who entered the public sector full of enthusiasm and willingness to serve the government and society. This resulted in the continuing improvement of public administration in the Kingdom and pushed the Saudi administrative system far ahead, toward progress and development.

Conclusions

The aim of this study was to examine (a) the development and evolution of public administration as an academic field of study in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, and (b) the influencing factors leading to the establishment of programs of public administration at Saudi universities.

Assessing the factors that influenced the evolutionary and developmental process of public administration required going back in history to the late 1950s and early 1960s. This period marked the beginning of governmental concern for the administrative reform to cope with the fiscal and monetary crisis which has prevailed since the late 1950s. Another factor that helped develop the field of public administration was the nation's economic growth and development. The rapid social development which the country witnessed during the decades following the proclamation of
the Kingdom was also a significant factor. Finally, it was
the vast bureaucratic expansion which necessitated the
development of a modern system of public administration.

The conclusions inferred from this research indicate
that the development, expansion, and advancement of public
administration in the Kingdom, as a result of national
economic growth, was one of the principal factors which led
to the founding of programs of public administration to meet
the urgent local need for administrators in the governmental
agencies in Saudi Arabia. Being the only source to
undertake the responsibility for public services, the
government successfully polarized all national and foreign
qualifications. The progress made by the Saudi government
in building its administration and in advancing it in a
short period was a direct result of its tremendous efforts
to overcome various challenges. Though its mission was not
easy, the results achieved were greater than expected.

By comparing the number of graduates of public
administration programs in the country and the available
vacant positions in governmental agencies, one can conclude
that the Kingdom has become self-sustained. In other words,
the Saudi universities are currently qualified to meet the
public sector’s need for personnel.

Despite the notable Western impact on Saudi public
administration and the application of modern administrative
means borrowed from the west, public administration in the
Kingdom still preserves its distinguished characteristics which are derived from the Islamic faith and societal traditions which are deeply rooted in Saudi society.

One of the most important factors in administration which seems to be almost nonexistent in developing countries is coordination. Generally speaking, coordination among the governmental agencies has not yet reached the desired and necessary level. Each agency continues to function in isolation, in spite of the fact that the agencies need to coordinate their efforts and could benefit from the experiences of each other. Without doubt, the absence of coordination and cooperation result in the duplication and overlapping of functions rather than maintaining and strengthening the existing services.

The administrative changes which the Kingdom has witnessed over the last decade have contributed to a significant improvement in the quality of public services and an increased administrative awareness of the bureaucrats. This is due to governmental effort to strengthen the bureaucracy which is considered its sole means for carrying out the comprehensive developmental process.

Based on the evidence and analysis presented in Chapters 4 through 6, the concluding responses to the basic set of research questions were developed.
Question 1: What factors have led to the establishment of the Institute of Public Administration and the birth of public administration at major Saudi universities?

First, the extremely rapid socioeconomic growth of the nation, which exerted pressures and demands and caused a tremendous expansion of the bureaucratic infrastructure, was a major underlying factor. Support by the government—especially by his Majesty King Fahd who is the first Minister of Education—nurtured the growth of an indigenous program of higher education and, ultimately, programs of public administration in Saudi universities. Likewise, government support helped create the Institute of Public Administration and sustain its strong involvement in the professional upgrading of Saudi bureaucrats.

Question 2: What has been the role of public administration programs in various Saudi institutes, colleges, and universities in developing the area of public administration?

These programs have made substantial contributions to the development of public administration in Saudi Arabia by providing better-trained personnel, sponsoring seminars for exchanges of information, and providing research and consultation services to address important government administrative needs.
Question 3: Do Saudi institutions for study and training in public administration provide the Saudi government with needed civil servants and administrators?

The data—historical/literary and survey/interview—indicate that these programs are providing the government with needed personnel. Further investigation is needed, however, to determine how well, qualitatively and quantitatively, these personnel are matched to the specific positions available.

Question 4: What has been the role of Saudi government policy with respect to the teaching of public administration in Saudi institutions of higher education?

The evidence and the perceptions of the survey respondents, indicate that the Saudi government has been strongly supportive of public administration programs. This role has been especially strong in policy and financial support.

Question 5: Are the graduates of Saudi institutions for study and training in public administration adequately prepared to undertake public responsibility?

Improvements in overall civil service performance seem to support the perceptions of survey respondents that graduates are adequately prepared. However, as previously noted, further investigation is required to determine exactly how well the qualifications of public administration
graduates are matched to the requirements of specific government posts.

Question 6: How have Saudi Arabian institutions of higher education and training in public administration adapted the discipline of public administration?

The evidence and survey results indicate that Western--particularly the United States--concepts of public administration have been adapted by blending these concepts with Islamic public administrative concepts and with the special cultural features of Saudi Arabia. The influence of Egyptian administration also seems influential.

Question 7: How adequate are the contact and coordination between the teaching and practice of public administration in Saudi Arabia?

One of the most striking conclusions from this study is the recognition of a need for further improvement in communication, cooperation, and coordination between actual public administrative practice in the Saudi government and the educational programs of public administration in Saudi institutions of higher education. Greater communication and coordination between governmental agencies and universities should be emphasized.

The survey clearly indicates the notable successes that government policies recorded in the field of public administration in the Kingdom. Governmental planning in all areas, especially in the administrative field, was the prime
factor behind the successful development of the field of public administration which began in the early 1960s.

The role played by the Institute of Public Administration and Saudi universities had a great impact on the development of the civil service system and bureaucracy. Through its training centers, which offered a large variety of training programs in both pre-service and in-service, the Institute of Public Administration helped achieve the ambitious Five-Year Development Plans. Similarly, the universities contributed to the achievement of these governmental plans by providing public agencies with the needed personnel.

In spite of the fact that Saudi public administration is deeply rooted in its society due to the lack of colonial administration experience, the survey revealed that a certain sort of Egyptian-American administrative influence on Saudi public administration exists.

The curricula of public administration in the Kingdom have been partly modelled after curricula in developed countries. Nevertheless, some features of Saudi public administration curricula appear to be totally colored by the unique characteristics of the Saudi environment. This fact is widely recognized by Western scholars of public administration who stress the reality that public administration is a product and a reflection of the customs, culture, and values of a given country.
A final conclusion drawn from the findings indicates that authorities in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia continue to support public administration as a specialization, both inside the country and abroad. In addition, the highest Saudi officials spare no effort in improving the administrative system and in updating its basis and rules as the need arises.

Recommendations

Based on the results of a survey of personnel directors and faculty members and interviews with selected government officials conducted in the course of this research, it is recommended that greater coordination be implemented between universities and government agencies. Through improvements in coordination, enhanced access to and exchange of information would be beneficial to the future of public administration in the Kingdom.

Another recommendation is that Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University combine the scattered departments of public administration, business administration, and economics into one independent college to be called the College of Administrative Sciences. This would be similar to other Saudi universities which have already established independent colleges for administration.
Recommendations for Further Research

From this study, the need has been indicated for subsequent research to further assess the quality of public administration programs. A promising approach to this task might involve surveying perceptions of graduates of these academic programs using a standard follow-up questionnaire-based program evaluation survey.

In addition, research more closely focused on cooperation/coordination deficiencies and needs between university public administration departments and public-sector agencies might also prove valuable. Such research could also involve the IPA, and could be implemented using a questionnaire-based survey, individual interviews, or a combination of both. From such research, areas and procedures for tangible improvement could be pinpointed.
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Ministry of Higher Education
Educational Attaché To The U.S.A.

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Ministry of Interior
General Directorate of Organizing And Programs
Department of Human Resource Development

Letter no: 21/251
Date: 2/5/1980

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

The General Directorate of Organizing and Programs at the Ministry of Interior testifies that its employee Mr. Swailem Audeh Al-Huwaity is studying for a Ph.D. in Public Administration in the United States. The student is conducting research on the Development of the field of Public Administration in Saudi Arabia. We would appreciate it if you could cooperate with him so that he will be able to collect the information required to accomplish his studies on time.

Deputy Assistant Ministry of Interior for Organizing and Programs

Hamad Ben Saad Al-Salihy

Cultural Attaché
Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission
Washington, D.C.

Hamad I. Al Salih

Date: 2/1/80
No: 4457

P.O. Box 23537 • Washington, D.C. 20007 • (202) 337-9450 • Tele: 440697 ELMIAH
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
General Civil Service Bureau
Date: 2/15/1989

Testimony

The General Civil Service Bureau testifies that Mr. Swailem Audeh Al-Huwaity visited the Civil Service Bureau to collect data for his dissertation which is about the Development of Public Administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. He met with the following officials:

1- Vice President of Civil Service Bureau for Development
2- Secretary General of Civil Service Council
3- General Director of Planning and Civil Service Development
4- General Director of Employment
5- General Director of Administrative and Finance Affairs

Vice President of Civil Service Bureau for Development

Abdul Rahman Ben Abdul Mohsen Al-Abdul Kader

Cultural Attache
Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission
Washington, D.C.

Hamad I. Al-Sallam

Date: 1/31/89
No: 161
Testimony

The Department of Public Administration in the College of Administrative Sciences, King Saud University testifies that Mr. Swailem Audeh Al-Huwaity visited the Department to collect data for his dissertation which is about the Development of Public Administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Mr. Al-Huwaity also met the Chairman of the Department as well as its faculty.

The Head of the Department of Public Administration

Dr. Hani Yousef Khashoggi

Cultural Attache
Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission
Washington, D.C.

Hamad I. Al-Sallam

Date : 7/3/89
No : 159
TESTIMONY

The Department of Public Administration in the College of Economics and Administration at King Abdulaziz University testifies that Mr. Swalem Audeh Al-Huwaity visited the Department to collect data for his dissertation which is about the Development of Public Administration in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Mr. Al-Huwaity also met the Chairman of the Department as well as its faculty.

Chairman of the Public Administration Department

Dr. Ali Ben Bashor Al-Saflan

Cultural Attache
Saudi Arabia Cultural Mission
Washington, D.C.

Hamad I. Al-Sallam

Date: 7/3/87
No : 140
Director of Personnel

Dear Sir:

The questionnaire attached herewith is a part of the information required to complete the doctoral dissertation which I am preparing about the development of public administration as a field of study in the Kingdom. This questionnaire aims at evaluating the competence of graduates of public administration programs in Saudi Universities, the role and contributions of these programs, and training in the Institute of Administration to improve job performance and productivity in governmental service, and the response of these programs to meet the government's needs for qualified cadres in the field of public administration.

Directors of Personnel are chosen in this study because they deal with the processes of appointment, promotion, competence reporting, and other procedures pertaining to personnel in their ministries or governmental agencies.

Your answers to this questionnaire will effectively contribute to knowledge about the important aspects of this research. Such answers should stem from the reality of your experience, not from what they should be. I am fully confident that your answers will be precise because they are—as you are—the only means which can ensure the success of this study and, subsequently, its purpose.

I would like to point out that all information mentioned in this questionnaire is rendered in trust and confidence, and no one will have access to it except the researcher, and it will be used for the purposes of this research only.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Swailem Audah Al-Huwainty
Ministry of Interior
Directorate General of Passport

Address:
P.O. Box 1479
Riyadh 11431
Saudi Arabia
Questionnaire Designed for Directors of Personnel in Ministries and Governmental Agencies
(Translated from Arabic)

1. Please indicate the factors which you think have contributed to the development of public administration as a field of study in the Kingdom and arrange them according to their importance in your viewpoint.

( ) Rapid socioeconomic growth
( ) Development objectives in the Five-Year Development Plans
( ) Efforts exerted to solve acute administrative problems
( ) Research and recommendations of various institutes, colleges, and universities
( ) Desire to ensure the availability of administrative staff graduated from Saudi colleges and universities with scientific degrees in public administration
( ) Bureaucracy growth or expansion
( ) Others

2. What in your opinion are the most important contribution(s) of institutes, colleges, and universities in developing the area of public administration? Arrange them according to their importance in your viewpoint.

( ) Provide the government with more qualified staff in the field of public administration
( ) Involvement in public administration research
( ) Make useful recommendations relating to government policies in public administration
( ) Others
( ) Comments:

3. In your opinion, what is the role of the government of Saudi Arabia with respect to the teaching public administration in institutions of higher education in the Kingdom?

( ) Provide suitable financial support
( ) Recommend making changes in curricula
( ) Request teaching specific courses in the field of public administration
( ) Communicating government public administration needs
( ) Others
( ) Comments:
4. What is the role played by Saudi universities towards the achievement of development plan objectives with respect to human resources in the Kingdom? (Explain)

__ No role ___ Weak role ___ Great role
__ Very great role ___ Decisive role

5. What is the extent of success achieved by Saudi universities with respect to development plan objectives in terms of human resources? (Explain)

__ Unsuccessful ___ Successful (1 - 25%) ___ Successful (25 - 49%) ___ Successful (50 - 75%) ___ Successful (75 - 100%)

6. Relying on your experience and observations, please indicate the performance level and productivity of administrative staff who have the following backgrounds (express your opinion):

Degree in public administration:

__ Very poor ___ Poor ___ Average ___ Above average ___ Excellent

University degree with no training in the field of public administration:

__ Very poor ___ Poor ___ Average ___ Above average ___ Excellent

University degree with training in the field of public administration:

__ Very poor ___ Poor ___ Average ___ Above average ___ Excellent

7. What in your opinion is the impact on the development of civil service systems in the Kingdom of public administration programs as taught in universities?

__ Very great ___ Great ___ Fair ___ Weak ___ Very weak ___ None

Remarks: ________________________________
8. What in your opinion is the impact of public administration programs as taught in universities on developing the productivity of staff in the public bureaucracy in the Kingdom? (Explain)

___ Very great ___ Great ___ Fair
___ Weak ___ Very weak ___ None

9. To what extent in your opinion are graduates of universities in the specialization of public administration prepared to carry out public responsibilities? (Explain)

___ Very well ___ Well ___ Fair
___ Poorly ___ Very poorly ___ Not at all

Remarks: _______________________________________________________

10. To what extent do you think that the specialization in public administration and training provided by the Institute of Public Administration have improved public service? (Explain)

___ Very much ___ Much ___ Fair
___ Little ___ Very little ___ Not at all

Remarks: _______________________________________________________

11. What improvements in your opinion have occurred in civil service in your ministry or agency as a result of the entry of public administration graduates into civil service and also training in the Institute of Public Administration?

( ) Administrative awareness
( ) Punctuality
( ) Timely performance of duties
( ) Respect of those dealing with the ministry or agency
( ) Higher productivity
( ) Innovation in work
( ) Employing new technology in work environment such as computer and microfilms
( ) No change
( ) Others (specify)

Remarks: _______________________________________________________
12. In the last few years, the Civil Service Bureau applied the system of job classification. Please indicate the true reason for this policy:

( ) Availability of graduates with specializations in public administration to fill administrative positions in the government

( ) Ensure suitability of position with the type of degree

( ) Recommendations made in the field of administration requirements study and research by higher education institutions

( ) Ensure the availability of positions for those who have completed university programs in public administration

( ) Other

13. Do you think that Saudi universities provide the government with its needs in terms of qualified bureaucrats in public administration?

( ) Provide the government with its needs in terms of staff required in the field of public administration

( ) Number of public administration graduates is in excess of the needs of the government

( ) Provide the country with a fairly adequate number

( ) There is still a shortage of public administration specialists

14. What majors are more preferable for those occupying administrative positions in the public sector?

( ) Public administration

( ) Business administration

( ) Economics

( ) Political science

( ) Engineering

( ) Other

Remarks: ____________________________
15. What subjects at the university level are more useful for preparing qualified administrators in civil service in the Kingdom?

( ) Budget
( ) Organizational theory
( ) Personnel administration
( ) Comparative public administration
( ) Project evaluation
( ) Planning
( ) Research methods
( ) Law
( ) Others

16. Would it be better for administrators who have graduated with university degrees in public administration to restrict their studies only to public administration, or would you agree to let them study other sciences such as politics, economics, business administration?

___ Strongly agree ___ Agree ___ No opinion
___ Strongly disagree ___ Disagree

17. If you agree that public administration students should study these sub-sciences, please show the importance of the following disciplines which are useful in practical life:

- Political science
  ___ Very important ___ Important ___ Not important
- Economics
  ___ Very important ___ Important ___ Not important
- Business administration
  ___ Very important ___ Important ___ Not important
- Other disciplines (specify): __________________________

18. Do you think that the knowledge obtained by public administration graduates is adequate to enable them to assume the functions of an administrative position in the government?

___ Very adequate ___ Adequate ___ Fairly adequate
___ Hardly adequate ___ Not adequate
19. From your experience, what is the suitability to local work environments of the information and experience obtained by public administration graduates from Saudi universities?

   ___ Very suitable  ___ Suitable  ___ Fairly suitable
   ___ Hardly suitable  ___ Not suitable

20. Do you find differences in public administration education between graduates from Saudi universities?

   ( ) No differences in the education level in the field of public administration
   ( ) There are differences in the education level in the field of public administration
   ( ) Please specify differences if any:

21. If in your opinion, there is a variation in public administration education, please arrange universities according to priority:

   ( ) King Saud University
   ( ) King Abdulaziz University
   ( ) King Faisal University
   ( ) Imam Mohammed Ibn Saud Islamic University

22. Who are more qualified to undertake public service—public administration graduates from Saudi universities or graduates of foreign universities?

   ( ) Public administration graduates from Saudi universities
   ( ) Public administration graduates from Arab university
   ( ) Public administration graduates from foreign universities (Western, including USA)
   ( ) Express your opinion of choice:

23. What in your opinion is the role which universities and the Institute of Public Administration have played in developing public administration and improving public service in the government? Please arrange them according to importance in your viewpoint.

   ( ) Training and graduation of qualified personnel in the field of public administration
   ( ) Provision of administrative consultations to ministries and governmental agencies
   ( ) Performing research in the field of public administration in an attempt to solve administrative problems in the governmental sector
24. What is the extent of cooperation and coordination between public institutions (ministries and governmental agencies) and Saudi universities with regard to academic majors required in the field of public service and majors which they actually need?

___ Very good  ___ Good  ___ Fair
___ Poor  ___ Very poor  ___ Other

Please explain your opinion:

25. As is known, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia did not inherit an administrative system from a colonial administration as happened in some other developing countries. To what extent was public administration influenced by other administrative systems?

___ Very much  ___ Much  ___ Fair
___ Very little  ___ Little  ___ None

26. With which administrative system of the following countries is public administration in the Kingdom influenced?

___ Egypt  ___ United States  ___ Britain  ___ France
___ Other
___ Other
___ Other

Remarks: _______________________________________

Information pertaining to the scientific background

Degree(s) obtained

Service period in the field of public administration

Length of service in current position

Comments:
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته، وبعد.

تُشيد الإدارة العامة للتنظيم والبرامج بوزارة الداخلية بأن الموفق / سالم عودة الحميدي أُحدَّثي
الوزارة في أمريكا للدراسة وتحصين الدكتوراه في الإدارة العامة، وله ما يعهد في مجال تطوير خطة الإدارة
العلمية في المملكة العربية السعودية (٥٤٠)، حيث أن النظر يسهم إلى جميع المعلومات بحثًا لذا أمل
شاهدته وبيانه محتواً نتائج من إنهاء بلغة في الوقت المُحدد.

شكراً للجميع على نِعَامكم.

وكيل وزارة الداخلية الشاهد للتنظيم والبرامج

حمد بن سعد السالمي
يشدد الدوام العام للخدمة المدنية بأن موعد مغادرة مجمع قسم
نشرة الدوام لجميع المعلومات التي تتوفر في الدوام، وتدور موضوع
حتى تطور بقية الإدارة العامة بالملحق، والتقى بكل من:

- مساعدة نائب الرئيس لتطوير الخدمة
- مساعدة أمين عام مجلس الخدمة المدنية
- مساعدة مدير عام التوفيق
- مساعدة مدير عام التخطيط وتطوير تكنولوجيا الخدمة
- مساعدة مدير عام الشؤون العالية والإدارة

ولقد رود واسطة الخدمة المتحدة والمجالات الفنية والتوافق والخدمة المدنية
والإحصائيات المتعلقة بذلك وبناءً على فهمه أعلنت هذه الشريدة

نائب الرئيس لتطوير الخدمة

عبد الرحمن محمد الحسن العبد الصادق
يشيد نسم الادارة العامة كلية العلوم الادارية جامعة الملك سعود، بأن السيد/ سليم عودة المزني قد تألق وتميز في فصل العام الدراسي الثاني، الذي جمع ورائطه التي بدوره وسيلة ضمت طريق لحق الادارة العامة بالبلدية، والذي توجه، فسم الادارة العامة أوصى هيئة التدريس:

وقد زود بالخطب والتعليقات التي تنطق بالشموخ

وأنّه على النوم incarcerated

الشروط في قسم الادارة العامة

هاني يوسف ماتريسي

Riyadh 11451, P.O.Box 2429 Tel.: 201019 KSU SJ
يشهد قسم الإدارة العامة بكلية الاقتصاد والإدارة بجامعة الملك Falcon عبد المحسن بن العبد / رئيس قسم الإدارة العامة بالجامعة المذكورة بالملكة عدة معلومات عن موضوع بخصوص نادي العقدة، وهو الذي ينتمي إلى نادي العقدة. وقد منح نادي العقدة حقوقه في التخطيط بالقسم.

والرقم الموافق...
بعد الله الرحمن الرحيم

مرجبي مدير شؤون الموظفين

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته.

الاستفادة المرفق هو جزء من المعلومات اللازمة لأكمل ازروحة
الدكتور/ة التي أقوم بعدادها عن تطوير نظام الإدارة العامة في المملكة
والذي يهدف إلى تقديم مستوى خدمات خريجي برامج الإدارة العامة من
جامعات المملكة وكذلك دور ومساهمة هذه البرامج والتدريب في مهندس
إدارة على تحسين الأداء الوظيفي والأنشطة في العمل الحكومي واعدة
تلبية هذه البرامج لاحتياجات الدولة من الموظفين في مختلف الإدارة
العامة.

لقد تم اختيار مدير شؤون الموظفين لهذه الدائرة لكونه
يتمتع بعملية التحفيز والتدريب وتقدير الأداء وغير ذلك من
الإجراءات الختامية بشأن الموظفين في الوظائف أو الوظائف التسليسية
يشجعها، ولذا فهو أكثر الأشخاص معرفة ودراءة بهذه الأمور.

إن اتخاذكم على هذا الاستمجان سوف يساهم بصحة فعالية في معرفة
الجوانب المهجة لهذا البحث، كما أرجو أن تكون اتخاذكم من
الواقع الذي تعيشونه وليس كما يجب أن يكون، ولدي السلكية العليا بأن
اتخذكم دقة كبيرة لأنها تعلمون في بيئات اليوم الذي سيستعمل
نها هذه الدائرة وبالتالي النهاية منها.

كما أود أن أشهروا هذا أن جميع المعلومات المذكولة في هذا
الاستمجان سوف تكون موضع التعاون والإلمام ولن يطلب عليهما أي أسس أو
البحث وسوف نستخدم للعمل فيما بعد فقط.

شكرًا لكم على تعاونكم سهلاً بما فيه خدمة الوطن العام.

أيوب

مدير شؤون الموظفين

وزراء الداخلية

المنصورة:

السعودية

مرج مريدي:

الرياض:

السعودية

1433

01 1439

الإสถبان الموجه إلى مديرية علاقات الموظفين
في الوزارات والمجالس الحكومية

1. في نفس المواعيد التي تتعقد أنفسها قد ساهمت في تحقيق نجاح الإدارة العامة في المملكة وربطها حسب الأهمية في نظرتها.

   - التنمو الاجتماعي والاقتصادي الموسع
   - أهداف التطوير في خطة التنمية الخمسية
   - الجهود المبذولة لحل المشاكل الإدارية الحادة
   - البحوث وتوصيات المهندسات والكليات والجامعات المختلفة
   - الرفعة في تأكيد وجود العناصر الإدارية المتخرجنة من الكليات والجامعات الحكومية بدرجات مميزة في الإدارة العامة
   - توفير أو تم البيروقراطية
   - ألفية الرؤية

2. ما هي رأيك أهم مساهمة (معاهد) المعاهد والجامعات في تحقيق نجاح الإدارة العامة وربطها حسب الأهمية في نظرتها؟

   - تزويد الدولة بأفراد أكثر تأهيلًا في قل الادارة العامة
   - الاهتمام بالبحث في مجال الإدارة العامة
   - وضع توصيات مفيدة بشأن سياسة الحكومة في الإدارة العامة
   - تعليقات
2 - ماهو دور القيادة في إنجاز أهداف الخطة التنظيمية من الموارد البشرية؟

- لا دور قوي دور قوي جداً دور قوي

- أي مدى نجحت جامعات المملكة من إنجاز أهداف خطة التنمية من الموارد البشرية؟

- لم تنجح ناجحة ناجحة ناجحة

- اعتماداً على تجربته ونشاطه فعلاً أثر في مستوى الآداء وانتاجية

- الموقفين الإداريين من الذين لديهم الخلفيات التشريعية ( مبينًا

- رأيته في ذلك؟ )
(أ) درجة علمية في الإدارة العامة:

ضرير جداً بعيداً متوسطً فوق المتوسط مستمر

(ب) درجة جامعية بدون أي تدريب في حقل الإدارة العامة:

ضرير جداً بعيداً متوسطً فوق المتوسط مستمر

(ج) درجة جامعية مع بعض التدريب في حقل الإدارة العامة:

ضرير جداً بعيداً متوسطً فوق المتوسط مستمر

7 - إلى أي مدى في رأيك يبدأ تأثير سادة الإدارة العامة (كمية تدريس في الجامعات) على تطوير طبيعة الخدمة المدنية في المملكة؟

(لا أرى ذلك)

(ضرير جداً)

(متوسط)

(ممتاز)

ملاحظات:

(لا أทราบ)
8 - لن يَدِعْ أي مِدِّي في رَأْيِهِ تَأَثِير صادة الإدارَة العامة ( كَسْمَا تَدِرُس
في الجامعات ) على تطوير انتخابية الموظفين في الخدمة في الخدمة
في المملكة ( فَلَنَّ ولِرَايْهِ ) : 

( ) كبير جدا ( ) كبير ( ) متوسط ( ) ضعيف
( ) ضعيف جدا ( ) لا تأثير

ملاحظات : 

فَلَنَّ ولِرَايْهِ أو الشروط.

9 - إلى أي مدى ترى أن فريق الغامضات في خصص الإدارة العامة فَلَنَّ ولِرَايْهِ
ืّ هُم لتحمل المسؤولية العامة ( فَلَنَّ ولِرَايْهِ ) : 

( ) جيد جدا ( ) جيد ( ) متوسط ( ) ضعيف
( ) ضعيف جدا ( ) مطلقة

ملاحظات : 

10 - إلى أي مدى تعتقد أن الشخص في خصص الإدارة العامة والخديمة
الذي يَتَبَحَّر معهد الإدارة العامة قد من الخدمة العامة
( مَوْنَخَا بِرَايْهِ ) : 

( ) كثير جدا ( ) كثير ( ) متوسط
( ) قليلا ( ) قليلا جدا ( ) مطلقة

ملاحظات : 

308
12 - قام ديوان الخدمة المدنية في السنوات القليلة الماضية بتطبيق نظام تصنيف الوظائف.

فغل أثرًا على سبب المنهج لهذه السياسة:

- وجود مهندسين في تخصصات الإدارة العامة لتقليل الوفاضف
- الإدارة بالحكومة
- فлан ملاحظة الوظيفة للدرجة العلمية
- التدريبات التي تمت في مجال بحث وتلخيص مبادرات الإدارة
- العملية التي قامت بها مؤسسات التعليم العالي
- فлан اتحاد وفاضل للفنادق الذين كنوا سراً مه gerne دراسة الجامعية في تخصص الإدارة العامة

أسباب أخرى:
32 - هل تعتقد أن الجامعات الحكومية تزود الدولة باحتياجاتها من الموظفين في الإدارة العامة؟

- تزود الدولة باحتياجاتها من الموظفين اللازمين في تخصص الإدارة العامة.
- عدد الخريجين في عقل الإدارة العامة يزيد عن حاجتها للدولة.
- إلى حد ما تزود الدولة بالعدد الكافي.
- لا يزال هناك نقص في المتخصصين في الإدارة العامة.

14 - ما هي المواد الأكثر تفعيلًا لرائدات الذين يحتفلون منصب إداريًا في القطاع العام؟

- الإدارة العامة
- إدارة الأعمال
- الاقتصاد
- العلوم السياسية
- الهندسة
- أخري
- أخري
- أخري
- أخري
- ملاحظات:
16. هل كان من الأفضل للإدارات الذين يخرجون بدرجات جامعة في الإدارة العامة أن تفتتح دراستهم على الإدارة العامة فقط أم توافق على أنهم يدرسون علوم أخرى كعلم السياسة / الاقتصاد / إدارة الأعمال.

   ( ) موافق جداً ( ) موافق ( ) لا أرى ( ) غير موافق
   ( ) غير موافق بالمرة

17. إذا كنت موافقاً على أن طالب الإدارة العامة يجب أن يدرس هذه العلوم الفرعية بين درجة الأهمية التي تراها لكل علم من هذه العلوم والتي تفيد في الحياة العملية،

   أ. العلوم السياسية ( ) مهم جداً ( ) مهم ( ) غير مهم
   ب. الاقتصاد ( ) مهم جداً ( ) مهم ( ) غير مهم
   ج. الإدارة العامة ( ) مهم جداً ( ) مهم ( ) غير مهم

علوم أخرى ذكرها: __________________________
312

14 - هل ترى أن المعلومات التي جعل عليها طريقي الإدارة العامة
أتمها دراسته بالجامعة العامة لзвته مهام وخفية الإدارة في
الدولة؟

( ) كافية جدا ( ) كافية
( ) كافية إلى حد قليل ( ) غير كافية

19 - من خلال غزارة معلومات الملاحظات والظروف التي يحصل
عليها طريقي الإدارة العامة من جامعتين المملكة لبيعه الإدارة
العملية؟

( ) ملموعة جدا ( ) ملموعة
( ) ملموعة قليلة ( ) غير ملموعة

20 - هل ترى طريقي في درجة التعليم في حال الإدارة العامة
الخريجين من جامعتين المملكة؟

( ) أنوى فروق في مستوى التعليم في عدل الإدارة العامة
( ) أنوى فروق في درجة التعليم في حال الإدارة العامة
( ) فلأذكر الفروق إن وجد

21 - إذا كان هناك تفاوت في درجة التعليم في حال الإدارة العامة رتب
الجامعتين الثانية حسب الأولوية في اعتباره؟

( ) جامعة الملك سعود ( ) جامعة الملك فيصل
( ) جامعة الملك عبد العزيز ( ) جامعة الإمام محمد
من سعود السعودية
22 - أzyma ترى أكثر تأهلاً لتولي الخدمة العامة: خريج الإدارة العامة من جامعات المملكة أم خريج الإدارة العامة من الجامعات الأجنبية؟

١) خريج الإدارة العامة من جامعات المملكة
٢) خريج الإدارة العامة من الجامعات العربية
٣) خريج الإدارة العامة من الجامعات الأجنبية

( ) العربية بما فيها أمريكا
( ) فعلاً وفق رأيكم في الخيار السابق.

٢٣ - ما هي الدور الذي ترى أن الجامعات ومعهد الإدارة العامة فائدة به من أجل تطوير الإدارة العامة وتخفيف مستوى الخدمة العامة في

( ) تدريب وتخرج الموظفين في مجال الإدارة العامة
( ) تقديم استشارات ادارية للوزارات والمصالح الحكومية
( ) إجراء بحوث في مجال الإدارة العامة لمحاولة حل المشاكل
( ) الإدارة في القطاع الحكومي
( ) تقديم الاقتراحات لتطوير أنظمة الخدمة المدنية لحمايتها
( ) التطور الشامل في المملكة والمنظمات الحديثة
( ) غير ذلك الذكر

٢٤ - ما مدى التنسيق والتعاون بين المؤسسات العامة (المؤسسات العامة، والوزارات الحكومية) والجامعات السعودية بشأن المواد الأكاديمية المطلوبة في خس الخدمة العامة والتي تحتاج تأكيد؟

( ) ضعيف جداً ( ) متوسط ( ) جيد ( ) عالي

( ) فعلاً اقترح أو وضح رأيكم.
25 - كما هو معروف لم ترت المملكة العربية السعودية إدارة استعمارية مثلما حدث في بعض الدول النامية الأخرى. فلدى أي مدى تأثرت الإدارة العامة بالنظم الإدارية الأخرى؟

| ( ) كثيرا جدا | ( ) كثيرا | ( ) متوسط | ( ) قليلا جدا | ( ) قليلا |

تعليقات:

فلا اطرح أور أو ورغ رأيك:

22 - ما هي النظم الإدارية العامة بالدول الأًثبية تأثرت الإدارة العامة في المملكة العربية السعودية؟

| ( ) مصر | ( ) الولايات المتحدة | ( ) بريطانيا |

| ( ) فرنسا |

| ( ) أخيراً |

| ( ) أخيراً |

| ( ) أخيراً |

| ( ) أخيراً |

تعليقات:

ملحقات:

- معلومات خاصة بالخلفية العلمية
- الدورة / الدرجات العلمية الحامل عليها
- فترات الخدمة في مجال الإدارة العامة
- فترات الخدمة في المنصب الحالي
- تعليقات:

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(10)
REFERENCE LIST

NOTE: In the text, reference style has followed the conventional pattern of [(lastname(s) of author(s)), (year), (pages)], and the full reference is included below. In some cases, long organizational names, with subordinate divisions or departments and other identifying information, have necessitated abbreviations in the text. In this listing of references, the full organizational names have consistently been provided. Abbreviations commonly used in the text for longer references include the following:

CLAD Committee on Latin American Development
CDS Central Department of Statistics
CPO Central Planning Organization
DGHEDE Directorate General of Higher Education Development
HCEP Higher Committee for Educational Policy
IGSNP International Group for Studies in National Planning
IIAS International Institute of Administrative Sciences
ISDC Industrial Studies and Development Centre
KAAU King Abdulaziz University
KSA Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
MFNE Ministry of Finance and National Economy
MHE Ministry of Higher Education
ME Ministry of Education
MI Ministry of Information
MP Ministry of Planning
UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization


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Interviews conducted at Riyadh and Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, December 1988 through February 1989.

Al-Abdulkader, AbdulRahman A. Vice President of Civil Service Bureau.

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