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Vision 2030: A New Model for Saudi Community College

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Abstract

A major challenge facing higher education policymakers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is how higher education institutions can support the country in reaching Saudi Vision 2030. The Saudi Vision 2030 is an economic development plan that aims to develop and diversify the economy and reduce dependence on oil. A well-educated and skilled workforce is essential for this and Community Colleges have a key role to play (Vision 2030, 2022b). This research investigates the adoption of the American community college model in the KSA. It outlines the challenges faced by this model, and how it may be enhanced to align itself with Saudi Vision 2030, the Government's new development plan, from the perspective of community college stakeholders.

The literature review explores the concepts of secondary higher education, US community college, the transfer of the USA community college model to international contexts, policy transfer, Saudi community college and Sen's capability approach. The first aim of the literature review was to understand the function of US community colleges in the higher education landscape. What makes the USA community college an attractive choice? The second aim was to examine the Saudi experience in transferring this model, as well as the experiences of other countries in transferring the US model. What challenges do they face? Finally, the third aim was to explore Sen's capability approach as a potential tool for improving the community college model.

A mixed-method multilevel design in which a combination of simultaneously collected qualitative and quantitative data are subsequently analysed. This design has been used to investigate the perspectives of community college stakeholders within the framework of the current Saudi community college model, which features five key elements commonly found in the literature: localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, accreditation and transfer.

The quantitative component consisted of two questionnaires presented online to students and faculty from two different community colleges. These questionnaires were designed to measure the respondents' attitudes towards particular statements using a five-point Likert scale. The results indicate that

students and faculty alike feel that the current Saudi community college model is imperfect insofar as it provides adequate proximity and comprehensiveness; however, with respect to flexibility, faculty members believe that community colleges can do more. As for accreditation and a transfer option, both stakeholders emphasised that these factors were important to take into consideration.

The qualitative component of the design involved input from deans, Saudi education experts from community colleges and business leaders. Two sets of interview questions were developed using a semi-structured interview approach the results of indicate that stakeholders believe the Saudi community college model should be modified to bring it more in line with Saudi Vision 2030.

As a result of this study, three conclusions have been reached. First, the researcher proposes a new community college model designed to promote democracy, sustainability and social justice in the local community. Second, the researcher proposes steps that Saudi policy makers can use when engaged in enhancing a transferred or borrowed policy. These steps take more fully into account the particularities of the Saudi socioeconomic and cultural environment. Third the researcher offers recommendations for Saudi community colleges, the Ministry of Education and the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment.

Dedication

I dedicate My thesis to my family's education godmother, my late grandmother Nora Hamad Al Ghafili, and to all women in the world who believe that education is the soul of life.

Acknowledgment

With deepest gratitude, I begin by thanking Allah, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful, for granting me the wisdom and strength to complete this work to the best of my ability.

I am incredibly fortunate to have had Professor Margery McMahon as my doctoral supervisor. Her unwavering support, guidance, and dedication to excellence have been a constant source of inspiration. Professor McMahon, your ability to ask the right questions has not only shaped my academic journey but will forever be a valuable skill I carry into my professional life. Thank you for being a role model I can aspire to emulate.

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I am also deeply grateful for my siblings, Thamer, Nouf, Najla, Mashaal, Hifa, and Odah. You have instilled in me a constant desire for self-improvement and a commitment to cultivating all that is good in the world. You are my silent cheerleaders, pushing me to strive for excellence.

My heartfelt thanks go out to my nieces and nephews, Noura, Falwa, Noura Al Sharif, Abdulrahman, and Saif. Witnessing your potential and enthusiasm for life fuels my determination to make the world a better place for future generations.

Finally, to my dear friend, Nisreen Mohamed Al Tajal, thank you for being a listening ear throughout this journey. Your unwavering support and patience during countless conversations about this dissertation are deeply appreciated.

I am immensely grateful to the government of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia for their vision and commitment to education. The scholarship program provided me with the opportunity to pursue my academic goals and contribute meaningfully to society. It is my sincere hope that my work serves as a testament to the value of this investment.

To all those mentioned here, and to anyone who has played a role in my journey, my deepest thanks. May Allah reward you abundantly for your contributions.

Susan Albluwi

Author's Declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Name: Susan Albluwi

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List of Abbreviations

CC	Community college
CC	Community college
CTC	Career and technical colleges (CTC)
DACUM	Developing a Curriculum
ESL	English as Second Language
GASTAT	General Authority for Statistics
GDP	Gross domestic product
GED	General Educational Development
GPA	Grade Point Average
IMF	International Monetary Fund (IMF)
ISO	Refer to International Organization for Standardization
IsIs	Islamic State of Iraq and Syria
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
NCAAA	National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment
RCJY	Royal Commission for Jubail and Yanbu
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics Education
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TVE	Technical and vocational education (TVE)
TVTC	Technical and Vocational Training corporation (TVTC)
UK	United kingdom
UN	European Union
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
USA	United State of America
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

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Chapter 1   Introduction

1.1 Background

Higher education institutions play an essential role in the growth of any nation. They are seen as agents of social, economic, and political development (Hanson and Brembeck, 1966). Since the late 1960s, numerous studies have shown a correlation between tertiary education participation and the level of economic development in nations (Meyer et al., 1977); (Koltai, 1993);(Kintzer, 1998); (Raby, 2000); (Bowles and Gintis, 2007). According to Bowles and Gintis (2007), education can determine an individual's economic status, with a strong association between years of college education and individual income. Furthermore, Schultz (1975) stated that education not only boosts an individual's economic development but also improves their ability to navigate changing economic conditions. As these associations have become accepted, citizens have demanded more opportunities from their governments to access higher education. In response, countries have increased their offerings of post-secondary education (Mikhail, 2008).

Developed countries like the United Kingdom (UK), Germany, and the United States (US) recognise the importance of education and have developed many post-secondary education options for their citizens. One of these is the community college, which is a higher education institution that usually offers two-year programmes and diploma. Community colleges offer a variety of programmes and courses at an affordable cost, making higher education accessible to a broader range of people than other institutions, thereby satisfying community demand. As shown in the present research, the historical development of the US community college model demonstrates that such colleges should be responsive to the community's needs and help people to achieve their potential.

The US model is the leading example, as this where the first community college was established. This model, which was initially narrow, has since evolved to become more responsive, making higher education more equitable and suited to the needs of communities. These colleges are distinct in that they help to

develop the economy but also assist people in reaching their potential thereby creating a fairer society.

Meanwhile, developing countries acknowledge the value of upgrading their domestic educational institutions through policy transfers that are often driven globalisation, modernisation, technological advancements, and local demand. In several nations, community colleges have become a popular higher education policy option, as they help governments to meet the needs of their citizens as well as address social and economic challenges. However, introducing these colleges to such countries is complicated, and the model is not always properly implemented. This creates challenges that can prevent community colleges from fulfilling their intended purpose. For example, neoliberalism has posed difficulties for community colleges. This ideology, as will be shown later in this thesis, has impacted on the US model in particular, separating the model from its original function, moving towards serving the market and economy rather than being responsive to community needs. To truly understand the community college model, it is important to focus first on its essence and identify an approach that allows the model to serve its main purpose.

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is one of the largest developing countries in the world and is now spending more money on education than on other sectors. Since 1950, policymakers in Saudi Arabia have engaged in policy transfers. Indeed, the entire higher education system has been developed on the basis of such transfers. In the late 1990s, Saudi Arabia found itself unable to accommodate the demand for higher education. Notably, the proportion of high school graduates accepted into higher education institutions from 1996 to 2004 averaged only 24% (Alkalefa, 2006). To attempt to overcome this challenge, in 2005 Saudi Arabia engaged in a substantial policy transfer when it adopted the US community college model offering two years of higher education. However, since then, the model has not achieved its goals, as the opportunities for certain groups such as adults to pursue higher education are relatively few.

In 2016, the Saudi government announced Saudi Vision 2030, an ambitious economic development plan that would require all government agencies to work towards diversifying the country's economy and reducing its dependence on oil.

Under this plan, the community and the economy are important pillars. Moreover, community colleges are an integral part of Saudi Vision 2030 as they are flexible and modern, can reach many people, and are state-owned. In addition, they can provide the education and training necessary to prepare people for the jobs of the future, which will also be critical to the economy's enduring success. Such colleges can also help to foster a sense of community spirit and provide valuable resources and support to individuals and families alike. However, the model in its current form is not effectively serving these needs (Almannie, 2015). Thus, the present research analyses the problems inhibiting this model and proposes ways to support government institutions to contribute to the achievement of the goals set out in Saudi Vision 2030.

1.2 Saudi Vision 2030 and the Need for a New Saudi Community College Model

In 2017, a new political leader emerged in Saudi Arabia when Muhammad, King Salman's son, was named Crown Prince. Prince Muhammad is one of the youngest state leaders in the world and is the driving force behind change in Saudi Arabia; indeed, it was he who announced Saudi Vision 2030. Saudi Arabia relies heavily on its oil industry, leaving the country vulnerable to downturns in that sector. Therefore, the primary objective of Saudi Vision 2030 is to diversify the economy and produce more skilled and knowledgeable human resources that can compete in an increasingly globalised market. However, this plan faces numerous challenges, which are summarised below (see Table 1-1).

First, Saudi Arabia is in the Middle East, at the heart of the Arab and Islamic worlds. Since 2001, the Saudi government has been leading a continuous fight against terrorism, both domestically and internationally. The emergence of terrorist organisations such as Al-Qaeda and ISIS, which use radical or extreme versions of Islam as their grounds for terrorism, has led some people and countries to criticize Muslim nations as a whole, with others wrongly assuming that all Muslims or Muslim countries are responsible for the rise of terrorism around the world. Saudi Arabia thus finds itself on the frontline of defending Islam and correcting this mistaken view, leading "global campaigns against extremism, at home and abroad, by initiating and financing multiple

counterterrorism centers, policies, and programs" (Al-Qurtuby and Aldamer, 2020, p.58).

Second, Saudi Arabian women have fewer rights than Saudi Arabian men. However, at the beginning of 2016, Saudi Arabia enacted many laws to guarantee certain fundamental rights for women. For example, the Saudi government issued a law in 2018 allowing women to drive cars, which was previously forbidden on Saudi territory. However, initiatives giving women certain rights are considered controversial by many within Saudi Arabia, even if outsiders see them as an encouraging sign that the country may succeed in political and social reforms (Blanchard, 2021). Furthermore, some old-fashioned cultural attitudes and social norms prevail and must be addressed to achieve true gender equality in the country, such as the belief that certain professions or roles are only suitable for men or women. It was argued, therefore, that the Saudi government should reform its education curriculum to reflect the movement of reform and women's empowerment and to gain public support for corresponding changes (Alyam, 2016).

Third, for Saudi Arabia to diversify its economy, its workforce must develop new knowledge and skills, where higher education plays a key role. However, the number of places available in higher education institutions are limited in the country, and most are reserved for recent high school graduates. The General Authority for Statistics (2017) report showed that male and female citizens over the age of 25 who have attained only a secondary education account for 66% and 51% of the respective populations. According to Saudi education law, citizens aged over 25 could not be enrolled into higher education institutions.

Fourth, Saudi Arabia has a high unemployment rate. In 2016, the unemployment rate was over 12%, while more than 83% of people working in the country were expatriates. Of the expat workers, only 25% had educational attainment beyond secondary level(General Authority for Statistics, 2017). Furthermore, only 5% of Saudi citizens aged 15–65 took soft skills training courses (General Authority for Statistics, 2017). In 2021, the unemployment rate for Saudi citizens decreased slightly to 11.7% (General Authority for Statistics, 2022). To develop a more robust workforce, these indicators must be improved.

Table 1-1 Summary of the Main Challenges Facing the Saudi Arabia

Economic challenges	Social challenges	Political challenges
Diversifying the economy	67% of the population is under age 35 (General Authority for Statistics, 2022)	Rising new and young political power
High unemployment rate	Limited places in higher-education institutions	Wars in the region
Opening the country more for the expat population	Empowering women	Terrorism
Opening the country to international investment	New career paths will enter the Saudi labour market for which citizens must be prepared and educated to fulfil	New laws to empower women

Source: Researcher's analysis based literature consulted

Although the concept of community colleges originated in the US, other countries have similar institutions with different names. For example, in the UK, such institutions are called further education colleges or higher education colleges. The first US community college, Public Junior College, opened in 1901 (Brint and Karabel, 1989). Its goal was to provide broader access to higher education courtesy of low tuition fees. Its programmes comprised a mix of academic content to prepare students for further studies and vocational elements to help graduates to enter the labour market.

Since then, the roles and offerings of community colleges in the US have evolved over the years. In general, today, community colleges have multiple features that attract American students. In particular, they meet local needs, have open admissions policies, have convenient campus locations, offer comprehensive courses and flexible timetables, support at-risk students, prepare students for the labour market, and offer low tuition fees (Aljanobi, 2014). Meanwhile, Nevarez and Wood (2010) identified six missions for community colleges in the American context: open access; comprehensive educational programming; serving the community; teaching and learning; lifelong learning; and students' success. Currently, there are 1,043 community colleges in the US, which serve more than 10.3 million students (AACC, 2022), and 39% of all US undergraduate students enrol in community colleges. Thus, community colleges are a vital part

of the US education system (AACC, 2022). All of these features of the US community college model support the country's development by producing an educated and skilled workforce.

In 2005, the Saudi Ministry of Education announced the adoption of the US community college model. However, not all elements of the model were embraced; only the provision of vocational education and the option to transfer from community college to university were enacted in Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, vocational education in Saudi Arabia is poorly aligned with labour market needs, as the programmes offered are nearly identical to those taught in the first two years of university programmes. As Hasseib (2011) noted, most community college programmes are developed by academics, without any collaboration with the labour market. This creates substantial challenges for community college leaders as these programmes are more or less irrelevant to the labour market.

An important element of the US community college model is its open-access policy, but this does not yet exist in Saudi Arabia (see Table 1-2) The admissions policy for Saudi community college students is similar to the one for public universities, with places restricted to students who graduated from high school with good grades. Furthermore, not all community college students are suitably prepared to enter university afterwards. Thus, the community college model in the Saudi context does not serve its primary purpose. Nevertheless, community colleges do offer some opportunities for some excelling students.

Table 1-2 Summary of the Main Elements of the US Community College Model and the Saudi Equivalent

US community-college model	Current Saudi community-college model
Open access	Conditional access
Comprehensive educational programming	Limited opportunity to limited students to transfer to university after graduating
Serving the community	
Unlimited access	Vocational education that is not in line with labour market needs
Flexibility of timeframes	

Source: Researcher's own analysis

The lack of elements of the US community college model incorporated into the Saudi context has limited the role of Saudi community colleges in the economy's development.

Offering open access, comprehensive education programmes, community service, unlimited access, and flexible timetables are all features that, if implemented, could help to support the Saudi government in reaching Saudi Vision 2030. Thus, it is important for policymakers to rethink the Saudi community college model in ways that empower these institutions to perform their intended role. In addition, Saudi community colleges have some attractive features making them a good choice for policymakers. These features are as follows:

- Saudi community colleges are new in the Saudi context compared to conventional higher education institutions, making them more conducive to changes.

- The Saudi community college model is a policy adopted from the US, and thus has some credibility.

- Saudi community colleges are located in all 13 regions of the country; in total, there are 41 community colleges – 23 for males, 14 for females, and 4 co-ed colleges.

- All Saudi community colleges are considered public institutions; there are no private Saudi community colleges.

- Compared to other Saudi higher education institutions, Saudi community colleges have the highest dropout rates, according to Alhataib and Alhabeb (2016) study.

In this research, the development of a new community college model that focuses on building capability and supporting the country to achieve Saudi Vision 2030 is explored and ultimately proposed.

1.3 Capability: An Approach to Overcoming and Challenges and Grasping Opportunities

When creating a new policy or developing an existing one, questions like 'What is the aim of the policy?', 'Who will benefit from this policy?', and 'What are the underlying beliefs of the policy?' are essential. The answers to these questions are often influenced by ideology, which refers to "sets of beliefs that represent a societal phenomenon" (Stieger and Jeke, 2019, p.6). Ideology works to "produce and reproduce beliefs and values that are shared collectively[;] they foster the adherence of individuals to the existing social order" (Stieger and Jeke, 2019, p.6). Indeed, policy is an important reflection of ideology, which plays an important role in shaping education policy.

One ideology that has grown internationally is neoliberalism, which focuses on the free market and individualism. The *free market* refers to opening up a country's resources and trade to contribute to global supply and demand, without limitations or restrictions. Thus, supporting a policy that enables open trade between countries is one of the main goals of policymakers and international organisations that favour neoliberalism, such as the World Trade Organization and the World Bank. However, researchers such as McMurtry (1999) have described the free market as delusional; for McMurty, such a market primarily benefits the global corporate market. According to Kumar and Hill (2009) "it is a system where the rules are flouted by the United States and the European Union" (Kumar and Hill, 2009, p.3).

The motive for policymakers adhering to neoliberalism is to maximise profit. However, the public good is overlooked (Kumar and Hill, 2009) as neoliberalism promotes the privatisation of key sectors, such as healthcare and education, to maximise profits and competitiveness and remove government control. Thus, policymakers who support such privatisation may act with disregard for the social or economic effects of doing so.

Education – and especially higher education – is a vital sector under neoliberalism. Following the free market principles, it must be reregulated and redirected toward enhancing human capital. Notably, education has been affected by the neoliberal agenda, which has shifted the purpose of education from serving the public good to serving the economy. The idea of learning for the sake of learning has waned. As ElKhaya (2018) noted, based on her teaching experience, students often asked her if what they learned would benefit them in the workplace and that, if not, they did not believe it was worth learning.

Furthermore, neoliberalism specifically affects the quality of *higher* education. Under neoliberalism, higher education institutions measure success in terms of economic returns (Titus, 2008); (Sharrock, 2000); (Lusk and Fearful, 2015); (Saunders and Ramirez, 2017). According to Al-Haija and Mahamid (2021), a high-quality higher education institution under neoliberalism is regarded as one that equips the "students with training and vocational skills that enable them to pursue a future career, and that would contribute to the development and strengthening of the state's financial resources" (p. 23). Under the neoliberal ideology, higher education institutions are considered commercial enterprises. Thus, the relationship between students and teachers changes to one of customers and employees, whereby the student is a paying customer who seeks a high-quality service. However, a high-quality university is not necessarily in their eyes one that offers excellent education, but rather the one with the highest employability rate. Furthermore, educators are evaluated according to whether students are satisfied, rather than on their actual knowledge or teaching ability (ElKhaya, 2018).

Critics of neoliberalism have called for an alternative approach. Rather than focusing on advancing the free market agenda, policymakers and researchers

have been encouraged to search other ways that support social justice or the community. Of note, Sen (1993, 1997, 1999b), is considered the founder of the capability approach, which offers an alternative way of tackling development. For Sen, wellbeing is not measured by the possession of resources; instead, it is measured by the extent of the freedom and options that individuals have enabling them to pursue a rewarding life. Sen defines capability as "a person's ability to do valuable acts or reach valuable states of being; [it] represents the alternative combinations of things a person is able to do or be" (Sen, 1993, p.30). Thus, capability is a people-centred approach.

Sen does not offer an express list of capabilities that an individual must have to achieve wellbeing. However, scholars after him who have further developed the capability approach, like Martha Nussbaum, have tried to do so. For example, Nussbaum (considered a co-founder of the capability approach) devised a list of capabilities that an individual must have for wellbeing, including the following:

- Being able to live a life of normal length.

- Having good health, adequate nutrition, suitable shelter, opportunities for sexual satisfaction, choice in reproduction, and mobility.

- Being able to avoid unnecessary and non-beneficial pain and to have pleasurable experiences.

- Being able to use all human senses, to imagine, think, and reason, and to have the educational opportunities necessary to exploit these capacities.

- Having attachments to things and persons beyond themselves.

Education is considered a foundational capability that one must have in order to develop other capabilities. Moreover, Sen views education as the road that individuals walk to develop "autonomy and judgement about how to exercise" their autonomy (Walker, 2005, p.108).

Nevertheless, using the capability approach as a foundation to develop higher education policy is not yet common practice in Saudi Arabia. In this research

however, I have used the capability approach as a foundation to develop a new model for Saudi community colleges.

1.4 The Aim of this Study

The main objectives of this study are to analyse the current community college model in Saudi Arabia and to propose a new model inspired by Sen (1999a) capability approach to promote local development and align with the goals of Saudi Vision 2030. To achieve these aims, the study investigates the current challenges and opportunities of community colleges in Saudi Arabia while also exploring the US community college model and other international experiences of transferring this model. This study sets out to propose a new model and recommend policies to the Saudi Ministry of Education

1.5 Research Questions

- In line with the capability approach, what elements must be present in the Saudi community college model to enhance local development?

- From the perspectives of students, faculty members, deans, education experts, and local business leaders, to what extent do Saudi community colleges implement localisation, comprehensiveness, and flexibility?

- What are the perspectives of students, faculty members, deans, education experts, and local business leaders concerning the importance of the transfer and accreditation elements of a community college?

- What must be done to enhance the implementation of the five elements (localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, accreditation, and transfer) in the Saudi community college model?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This research was initiated both to satisfy my personal interest in policy transfer and community college initiatives in Saudi Arabia, and to provide a much-needed contribution to fill the gap in research on community colleges in the Saudi

context. This study makes several valuable additions to the existing higher education research and practice in the Saudi context. In summary, this study is significant for the following reasons:

- There is currently a gap in the literature on educational policy transfer in the Saudi context. Accordingly, this study aims to contribute to the literature by analysing the process of transferring the US community college model to Saudi Arabia.

- This study provides for a better understanding of the challenges associated with the US model's implementation in Saudi Arabia.

- This study is consistent with the goals of Saudi Vision 2030, which aims to develop vital sectors to enhance the country's overall development. Indeed, higher education is considered one of the main sectors when it comes to providing different government sectors with well-prepared workers.

- To the best of my knowledge, no previous studies have investigated the perspectives of Saudi stakeholders on the community college model. Therefore, this study aims to explore these perspectives and provide new insights.

- The study contributes to the literature by focusing on the adoption of elements inspired by the capability approach, thereby contributing to global efforts to provide alternative methods through which to develop education systems.

- The study identifies several key elements that should be considered when transferring policies. By incorporating these elements, policymakers can ensure that policies are transferred and implemented effectively and efficiently

1.7 Literature Review Strategy

One of the most important elements in any study is the literature review, which is "a process of reading, synthesizing, and interpreting…the existing work in an area" (Polonsky and Waller, 2019, p.2). The timing of the literature review in the research process depends upon the selected research methodology. According to McGregor (2018), if the researcher chooses a quantitative methodology, they should conduct the literature review before undertaking the study. The purpose of the literature review in such cases is to "(a) introduce a problem, (b) describe in detail the existing literature about the problem, and (c) provide direction for the research questions and hypotheses, and it may (d) introduce any theory being used to interpret the results" (McGregor, 2018, p.3). If the researcher adopts a qualitative methodology, the literature review process should begin *after* the empirical study has been conducted. Albeit even in the latter case, the "authors should do some preliminary reading before the study begins" (McGregor, 2018). In qualitative studies, the literature review is used to interpret and discuss the findings (McGregor, 2018). Meanwhile, if the researcher chooses a mixed-method approach, they should conduct literature reviews at both the beginning and end of the research (McGregor, 2018).

In this study, I used a mixed-method approach. Therefore, I conducted the literature reviews at the beginning and end of my thesis. The first of these reviews served as the opening step in my research journey, helping me to comprehend the research problem and relevant theories In addition, the reviews informed the formation of the research questions and aided in identifying research gaps. The same approach was followed for both reviews, with the second literature review conducted during the interpretation, discussion, and writing phases. Specifically, the literature reviews involved five steps.

The first step was to identify keywords related to the research aims and questions. These keywords served as essential components in conducting a successful literature review and in searching for relevant articles, books, and other sources of information related to the research topic. Identifying the correct keywords helped to narrow down the search, save time, and find the most relevant sources of information. For each chapter, I composed a separate

set of keywords and various thesauruses linked to reference indices, especially the Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors, were relied on. Table 1-3 presents some of the keywords used for each chapter.

Several keywords emerged in the process. For instance, the literature review began by focusing on neoliberalism, leading me to related terms, such as human capital, knowledge economy, and globalisation. Other keywords were added to the list when they were repeated in the literature. In addition, when searching for a keyword and finding a related article, I replaced the keyword with the name of the author or title of the article. As McGregor (2018) noted, searches can include the "author name, article title, date, or subject" (p. 5). For example, in the policy transfer chapter, the name Dolowitz (2003) was repeated in the literature, and his work was frequently cited. Thus, searches were undertaken using his name.

Table 1-3 Keywords Search

Chapter	Keywords
Chapter 2	Saudi Arabia Higher Education Career And Technical Education Post-Secondary Education Community College Vision 2030
Chapter 3	Policy Transfer or Borrowing Policy Learning Policy Model- Policy Transfer Models The Life of Policy Policy To Export Education And Neoliberalism Ideology Classical Liberalism
Chapter 4	US Community College Historical Development of Community College Human Capital and Community College Neoliberalism And Community College Community College and Economic Growth Mission of Community College KSA Community College KSA Community College Mission KSA Community College and Economic Growth
Chapter 5	Post-Secondary Education Vietnam Community College - Post-Secondary Education- Economic – Political System. Jordan Community College- Post-Secondary Education- Economic – Political System. Arabic Region
Chapter 6	Capability Approach Capability Approach Function Capability Approach and Human Capital Capability And Higher Education Capability And Community College
Chapter 7	Methodology Research Paradigm Research Design Quantitative Data Qualitative Data Pilot Study Ethic And Research

In the second step, I selected the appropriate databases through which to conduct a comprehensive literature review. In particular, the following online databases were used:

- ERIC (Education Resource Information Centre), an online library of education research and information, sponsored by the Institute of Education Sciences (IES) of the US Department of Education.

- Google Scholar.

- The Saudi Digital Library, a national online library database.

- The University of Glasgow library.

- The British Education Index, which provides information on research, policy, and practice in education and training in the UK.

- The Professional Development Collection, which is a specialised collection of nearly 520 high-quality education journals, including more than 350 peer-reviewed titles, designed for professional educators.

- Sage research methods datasets.

The third step consisted of selecting and evaluating the material found in these searches. According to McGregor (2018), online literature can be evaluated based on five criteria: "authority (provenance provided), accuracy, objectivity (especially ad-free), currency (entry is regularly updated), and coverage/ease of access (no fees or additional software required for viewing)" (p. 8).

Selecting the literature for the study proved difficult with the following criteria used to evaluate materials:

- The studies had to be written by experts in the field, who could be identified by the number of times their work has been cited and the number of articles they have written.

- The studies had to be peer reviewed and, if possible, the journal's requirements for publication and the reviewers' names were to be reviewed.

A prudent starting point was deemed to be the most recent 8–10 studies, as these offered the latest information in the field (Wiersma and Jurs (2009). Sometimes, materials were taken from encyclopaedias while others were from the latest articles, books, and conferences.

The fourth step entailed arranging the literature. According to McGregor (2018), there are many ways to do this including historical, chronological, conceptual, theoretical, thematical, and methodological. In this research, I took a historical approach, presenting the evolution of ideas over time.

The fifth step entailed drafting the manuscript. During this phase, I articulated my ideas and the study's findings in a cohesive and logical manner. To optimise the efficiency of the writing process, I used Endnote, a software that enables the organising and managing of references and citations, thereby reducing the effort and time spent on manual citation formatting.

1.8 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis comprises nine chapters.

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the background and historical context of the research topic. This chapter presents a clear map of the thesis, including its aims and main questions. It also introduces the literature review strategy and explains the significance of the study.

Chapter 2 offers an overview of Saudi Arabia, highlighting key events and discussing the social, political, and economic factors that have shaped the country.

Chapter 3 covers the journey of transferring the US community college model to a different context. It aims to clarify some international experiences of adopting the US community college model in various countries. To do this, the chapter begins by exploring the US community college model, focusing on its unique characteristics and advantages compared to other higher education institutions. Initially, the chapter provides a brief history of community colleges in the US, dating back to the early 20th century. It then moves on to discuss the role of

community colleges in modern society, highlighting their accessibility and affordability for students from diverse backgrounds. The chapter then addresses the transfer of the US community college model to Vietnam, Jordan, and Saudi Arabia. The different countries' experiences highlight gaps in implementation and a disconnect from the model's primary function of serving local communities.

Chapter 4 presents the research framework. The chapter analyses two key concepts, namely policy transfer theory and the capability approach, which together serve as a lens through which I explored the research phenomena. The chapter concludes by exploring the potential for a novel community college model inspired by the capability approach.

Chapter 5 outlines the methodology, research design, and data collection techniques used for the thesis. In particular, a mixed-method approach was utilised to explore a variety of stakeholders' perceptions and attitudes towards elements of the new community college model, which were developed based on the initial literature review.

Chapter 6 provides a quantitative analysis of a survey conducted among two stakeholder groups, namely community college students and faculty members. The aim here was to understand the extent to which the three first elements (localisation, comprehensiveness, and flexibility) are present in current practices at the colleges and whether these elements are important to include.

Chapter 7 presents the data collected from semi-structured interviews with three groups of stakeholders (community college deans, education experts, and business leaders). A thematic approach was taken here to develop an understanding of the extent to which the five elements (localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, accreditation, and transfer) are currently present in community colleges.

Chapter 8 synthesises and analyses the collected data to propose a new model for Saudi community colleges. It also includes key recommendations for to construct this model.

Chapter 9 presents conclusions, and summarises the key findings of the research.

Chapter 2   Research Context: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides general background information on where the present research is situated, namely Saudi Arabia. Understanding the context of Saudi Arabia in which the research phenomena occur is an important step on the research journey, which ultimately seeks to enhance community colleges in Saudi Arabia. This chapter discusses the political, geographical, economic, and educational history and environment of the country as well as the nation's development up to the launch of Saudi Vision 2030. It also details the challenges facing Saudi Arabia, including the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic and the Saudi government's response in accordance with Saudi Vision 2030. In addition, the chapter introduces the landscape of the higher education system in Saudi Arabia to arrive at a better understanding of community colleges in the country.

2.2 The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is the largest country in the Middle East. It is strategically located at the confluence of Europe, Asia, and Africa, and part of the world's oldest trade routes. Relatedly, Saudi Arabia is often considered the cradle of historical civilisation (Invest Saudi, 2021). According to the Saudi Commission for Tourism and Antiquities (2013), the first humans settled in Arabia 1.2 million years ago. Moreover, the Arabian Peninsula included Mesopotamia, Syria, and Mediterranean civilisations.

As of 2019, according to (UNESCO, 2022), there are five World Heritage Sites in Saudi Arabia:

- Al-Ahsa Oasis, an evolving cultural landscape (2018);

- Al-Hijr archaeological site (Madâin Sâlih, 2008);

- At-Turaif District in ad-Dir'iyah (2010);

- Historic Jeddah, the gate to Makkah (2014); and

- Rock art in the Hail region (2015).

These sites all prove the existence of a series of civilisations that culminated in the birth of Islam, the second-largest religion in the world. The Islamic religion originated in Mecca and Medina, two of the oldest cities in Saudi Arabia, located on its west coast, and the two most important cites in the Islamic world. The significance of Mecca in particular is based on the presence of 'The Sacred Mosque' in the city. According to Islamic beliefs, the name of the mosque derives from the fact that Allah forbade fighting within it, and it is therefore believed to be the most sacred place on earth. Also of great significance is the Prophet's Mosque, known in Arabic as al-Masjid an-Nabawi, located in Medina (Al-Hindi, 2021).

Throughout history, many nations and empires have controlled Mecca and Medina. The Ottoman Empire was the last imperial power to rule over these cities. It controlled most Arab countries until early 1916, when the Sheriff of Mecca formed an alliance with the British Empire and led the Arab Revolution against Ottoman rule (Al-Khatib, 2017). In 1916, the Sheriff announced the beginning of the Hashemite Kingdom of Hejaz (Al-Khatib, 2017). In 1924, the Sharif of Mecca was overthrown by the Saud family, and in 1932, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was founded (Mosel, 1976).

The founder and first monarch of Saudi Arabia was King Abdulaziz bin Abdul Rahman, who successfully unified the country and established a state based on Islamic principles that continues to this day. Later, King Salman considered that his last son would rule the Kingdom, as all his remaining brothers were too old and unable to take over after his death. Therefore, he announced his son as Crown Prince in 2017.

In Saudi Arabia, Arabic is the official language, and Islam is both the national religion and the foundation of the country's constitution. Saudi Arabia is divided into six regions: Eastern, Central, Northern, Northwest, Midwest, and Southwest. These regions consist of 13 provinces spread out over approximately 2 million

square kilometres (Al-Rushaid, 2010). Indeed, Saudi Arabia is nearly five times the size of the UK. However, most of its land is uninhabitable desert. Saudi Arabia shares a border with Jordan, Iraq, and Kuwait to the north, and with Bahrain, the United Arab Emirates, and Qatar, as well as the Arabian Gulf Sea, to the east. To the south, it is bordered by Oman and Yemen, and to the west lies the Red Sea. Riyadh is the capital city and is located in the heart of the country.

Figure 2-1 Map of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (CIA, 2013)

2.3 Economic Development

The Saudi economy is one of the largest economies in the Arabic region. Saudi Arabia is one of the leading players in the global oil market, and is the only Arab state with G20 membership and the world's largest oil exporter. However, 50 years ago, the Saudi economy was quite different. Its economic development can be broken down into three phases: (1) before the discovery of oil; (2) after the discovery of oil; and (3) after oil.

The first phase lasted from 1932 to 1938, during which the country had a subsistence economy. Despite Saudi Arabia's large size and diverse resources within each region, the country perennially faced the problem of water scarcity, weakening the economy. During this phase, most economic activities were based on the tribal economy of nomadic people, who raised camels, sheep, and goats (Ochsenwald, 2007). In some regions, the economy was based on rudimentary agricultural production. In coastal regions, economic activities primarily centred around pearling, fishing, importing and exporting goods, and shipping (khoury and Kostiner, 1990). At that time, Saudi Arabia was regarded as an underdeveloped nation, which received financial assistance from countries such as Egypt, Iraq, and Sudan (Gellner, 1954). However, this all changed in 1938 when the Saudi government announced the discovery of oil by an American company that would later become Aramco.

After this discovery, the second phase of economic development began. Saudi Arabia's status changed from a country in need of support, to a leading oil producer. From 1938 to 1950, the Saudi government worked to adjust to this newfound wealth and explore how they could use it to modernise the nation. Thereafter, in 1952, the Saudi government collaborated with the United Nations to devise a modernisation plan. This collaboration was furthered after 1965, when the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) was established (Al-Rushaid, 2010). Notably, Saudi Arabia adopted the first Five-Year Development Plan, which focused on setting national priorities, strategies, and goals for the Saudi government, public institutions, and other participating organisations (Al-Rushaid, 2010).

The Ministry of Economy and Planning was responsible for preparing, coordinating, and evaluating the implementation of the first Five-Year Development Plan, albeit all government agencies were involved in the process. Each agency was responsible for preparing and submitting their own five-year operational plans to the Ministry, which set out to ensure that the agencies implemented their plans according to the submitted schedule. Since the publication of the first five-year plan in 1970, the Saudi government has launched a further nine such plans. All have aimed to serve the objectives of economic and social development policy, assisting the country in maintaining its

Islamic values while raising the living standards of citizens and providing economic security and social stability. The achievement of these objectives has been based on increasing the gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate, developing human resources, and diversifying sources of national income (Alakkad, 2018).

The implementation of such development plans enables governments to concentrate their resources and efforts on attaining distinct social and economic objectives. The first three five-year development plans in Saudi Arabia, lasting from 1970 to 1984, focused on building the country's infrastructure. During this time, the country's first oil boom occurred, sparking a drastic increase in oil prices. This helped the country to embark on ambitious plans in transportation, electricity, water, housing, and human resource development. One of the most remarkable achievements before the third plan was the Saudi government's purchase of Aramco (Aramco, 2022), the company responsible for all oil production in the country. This acquisition served to further develop industry in the country and accelerated the completion of the first twin industrial cities in the country: Jubail on the east, coast and Yanbu on the west coast. With all these advances, the Saudi government realised that they needed to establish a sufficient skilled workforce. To address this shortcoming, foreign workers were recruited while attempts were also made to ensure that the most skilled Saudi citizens obtained public sector jobs (Al-Asfour et al., 2017). Overall, a reliance on a foreign workforce became a key strategy to accelerate the development of the country's infrastructure.

The next three development plans took place between 1985 and 1999. During this period, the Saudi government faced many economic and political challenges. In particular, the economic challenges arose from a sharp decline in oil prices and an unexpected increase in the national population. On the political side, the start of the second Gulf War in 1990 saw the Saudi government realise the need to increase the military budget (Alakkad, 2018). Encountering these diverse challenges, the Saudi government started to look to the private sector as a potential partner that could play a role in development. Thus, it focused on establishing strong public-private partnerships (Al-Rushaid, 2010). These partnerships led to the recruitment of yet more foreign workers. A

serious issue in the labour market then emerged, with 80% of jobs in the country held by foreigners (Al-Rushaid, 2010). This inspired the establishment of a Saudization policy in the sixth development plan (Al-Rushaid, 2010).

Coined by the Saudi government in 1970, *Saudization* refers to a development strategy aimed at training Saudi citizens to replace foreign workers. This strategy was first implemented in 1994, persuading private sector actors to recruit more citizens (Al-Asfour and Khan, 2014). According to this regulation, all private companies with more than 20 employees had to reduce their number of non-Saudi employees by 5% annually (Sadi & Al-Buraey, 2009, p. 70). If any company failed to do so, it would lose certain types of government support, visa applications for its new recruits would be frozen, and existing work permits of current expatriate workers would not be renewed (Al-Asfour and Khan, 2014, p.244). Despite this move, the unemployment rate among Saudi citizens remained relatively unchanged in these years.

The following three development plans spanned from 2000 to 2014. These addressed the workforce problem and sought to diversify the economy. At the beginning of this period, Saudi Arabia again had to address many economic and social challenges, starting with the 9/11 terrorist attack in the US. Fifteen of the 19 terrorists were Saudi citizens who were followers of the terrorist organisation al-Qaeda (Paracka, n.d.). This led to international criticism of the Saudi education system, which was accused of fostering anti-Western sentiment. At the national level, the private sector criticised the country's education system for producing unqualified workers. Meanwhile, Saudi citizens also criticised the education system in general, and especially the higher education system. Their main complaint was that local higher education institutions were not fit for purpose. From 1996 to 2004, the average percentage of high school graduates accepted into higher education was only 24%, unveiling a need for educational reform (Alhataib and Alhabeb, 2016).

All of these factors prompted the Saudi government to become more determined to make real changes, especially by transforming the economy into a knowledge-based economy, or "one where the generation and utilization of knowledge contribute significantly to economic growth and wealth creation" (Amirat and

Zaidi, 2020,p 1145). With the beginning of a second oil boom in 2003, the Saudi government took a more aggressive approach to solving these challenges. Thus, for the first time, the Saudi government adopted a long-term planning perspective (Al-Rushaid, 2010). In particular, the seventh plan set out goals for as late as 2020. Here, a clear emphasis was placed on the private sector as a partner in the development of the country, and a privatisation policy was introduced to citizens (Al-Rushaid, 2010).

In recent years, Saudi Arabia has shown a commitment to human capital in the education sector, making significant investment. From 2012 to 2013, the Saudi government spent more than USD 54.4 billion on education, meaning that 25% of the state budget went on education (Al-Asfour and Khan, 2014). Before 2000, there were only eight universities serving the population, all of which were located in large cities. Therefore, students had to relocate from their hometowns to attend. Thus, the Saudi government set the goal of increasing the number of public universities to 29, and opening new ones in small towns. It also sought to encourage the private sector to open more universities and colleges. Today, there are more than 15 private universities and 23 private colleges in Saudi Arabia (MOE, 2022a). The Saudi government also started a mammoth scholarship programme for its citizens to study abroad. Since implementing this programme, over 500,000 Saudi citizens have pursued higher education abroad (Al-Asfour & Khan, 2014).

Meanwhile, to develop the labour market, the Saudi government announced the establishment of the Human Resources Development Fund (Hadaf). Hadaf is a governmental authority that supports efforts to employ more Saudi nationals in the private sector. The Saudi government also introduced a new Saudization programme called the Nitaqat programme in June 2011, while it also passed new laws to empower women to enter the labour market, such as by removing the need for a guardian's approval to be employed. However, it has not been able to substantially reduce the unemployment rate. In 2022, the unemployment rate among Saudis was 10.1% in the first quarter, as evidenced by the Labour Market Statistics Q1 published by the General Authority for Statistics (GASTAT) (General Authority for Statistics, 2022).

During this period, the Saudi economy became the 20th largest economy in the world, with a GDP of USD 528.3 billion largely due to its oil revenue (Aljarboua, 2009, p.1774). Today, oil revenue accounts for approximately 90% of the state budget, evidencing a failure of the Saudi government's five-year plans to diversify the economy. Ultimately, Saudi Arabia's economy still heavily depends on the production of oil, which remains its primary resource. However, due to a significant decrease in oil prices in 2015 and the historical analysis of fluctuations in oil prices, there is a pressing need for the country to adopt a new approach to planning and development. This requires shifting from a reliance on traditional industries to the development of alternative sources of economic growth, such as education and innovation.

Since 2010, with the rise of massive civil resistance movements, many Arab countries' governments have implemented changes to address the concerns of protesters and safeguard their political position. Around this time, the Arab world "experienced intense uprisings and massive civil resistance that was termed the Arab Spring" (Hagedorn and Mezghani, 2013, p.101). Many political studies have shown that the Arab Spring was largely influenced by high rates of unemployment across the region. With this wave of regional change, the Saudi government recognised the urgent need to take action. In addition, the Yemen War, which began in 2015, presented a new challenge for neighbouring Saudi Arabia. Meanwhile, the passing of King Abdullah and the accession of King Salman ushered in a new era of work and planning culture in Saudi Arabia. This was largely due to King Salman's reliance on his young son, Prince Muhammad, who later became Crown Prince. All of these factors laid the foundations for a new approach to government planning. Acknowledging the need for a more strategic effort, the Saudi government publicly announced Saudi Vision 2030.

2.3.1 Saudi Vision 2030

As a result of decreasing oil prices, in 2016, Saudi Arabia launched Saudi Vision 2030, which promotes an economic blueprint seeking to transform the country from an oil-based economy to a more diversified one. Its aim is to fundamentally reform the Saudi economy and society based on the following three pillars: Saudi Arabia's status as the heart of the Arabic and Islamic worlds; Saudi Arabia

becoming a global investment powerhouse; and the country emerging as a global hub connecting Asia, Europe, and Africa. Moreover, Saudi Vision 2030 is organised around the following three themes: a vibrant society; a thriving economy; and an ambitious nation. Each corresponding theme has two overarching objectives (Vision 2030, 2022b): strengthening Islamic and national identity, and offering a fulfilling and healthy life (vibrant society); growing and diversifying the economy, and increasing employment (thriving economy); and enhancing government effectiveness, and enabling social responsibility (ambitious nation).

These overarching objectives are designated as level-one objectives, each of which is then divided into level-two and level-three objectives.

- Thriving economy

  - Level-one objectives

    - Increase employment

  - Level-two objectives

    - Develop human capital in line with labour market needs

  - Level-three objectives

    - Build a life-long learning journey

    - Improve equality of access to education

    - Enhance fundamental learning outcomes

    - Align educational outputs with labour market needs

    - Expand vocational training to meet labour market needs (Vision 2030, 2022b).

Saudi Vision 2030 has 96 objectives. The Saudi government has also launched corresponding realisation programmes, with their own goals and objectives. They aim to translate Saudi Vision 2030 into action plans through which outcomes can be measured. These programmes revised every five years, and there are currently 12, including the National Transformation Programme, the Privatization Programme, the National Industrial Development and Logistics Programme, and the Quality-of-Life Programme.

Saudi Arabia has long been committed to planning for development, as shown by its successive five-year development plans. Standing out from these previous plans, Saudi Vision 2030 employs a unique methodology that prioritises accountability while also adhering to the five-year timeframes of older development plans.

In the process of devising Saudi Vision 2030, the Saudi government made significant decisions to change its own structure. New entities were formed and existing ones were merged. Some of the new government entities include the National Centre for Performance Management and the General Entertainment Authority. Meanwhile, among examples of existing entities merged were the Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Social Affairs, which merged to become the Ministry of Labour and Social Development. The Saudi government has also placed the Ministry of Higher Education under the Ministry of Education. Fundamental social changes ensued as part of a full-scale economic reform, including granting women the right to drive and travel without male permission and opening the country up to tourism. Saudi Vision 2030 acts as a point of reference for the country's future decisions, with which all projects should be aligned.

To diversify its sources of finance, the Saudi government introduced tax law and began opening the country up to international tourism. While, historically, Saudi Arabia had not taxed its citizens, in 2018, it imposed a 5% value-added tax on most goods and services. This new law has since increased the diversity of the country's finances as shown in the country's yearly budget. However, as Bogari (2020) has shown, although the value-added tax has economically benefitted the country, it has also had a negative social impact.

Regarding tourism, the country had previously received tourists, but mainly religious pilgrims. In 2019, by opening the country up to tourism more broadly, the tourism sector contributed 10.3% of the total GDP of the country (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2019).

2.4 The Education System in Saudi Arabia

As Saudi Arabia is one of the largest Islamic countries in the world and the home of the two holy mosques, the education system in Saudi Arabia is rooted in the Islamic religion. Under Islam, education is seen as an essential element of human life. Muslims must learn about spiritual, mental, and physical aspects, and they should learn their rights, duties, and responsibilities in life to reach their highest potential (Al-hariri, 2015). Moreover, Islam values teachers' role in the community and urges others to respect them (Alkhannani, 2016).

Education has always been the heart of any Islamic community, and the most famous formal education system in the Arabic Peninsula was Kuttab (Wiseman et al., 2008), which can be traced back to as early as the first century of Islam. The primary function of Kuttab was to memorise the Qur'an and other religious texts. Meanwhile, the responsibility of teaching fell on the Sheki, who led prayers in the community (Rugh, 2002). Typically, a Kuttab school was located either in or near a mosque. The Kuttab admitted girls and boys, either in separate locations or together (Rugh, 2002). Most of the students were aged under six. Indeed, most Saudi regions used Kuttab to teach their children, even in the Hijaz region, where the Ottomans ruled. While the Ottomans had their own formal education system, locals did not send their children to study there, as most parents feared that their children would be conscripted into the Ottoman army.

After the unification of the country in 1932, the Saudi government began to promote education and control every aspect of it. It also recognised the necessity of implementing explicit regulations for private education. In 1938, the Saudi government published the first detailed public system for private schools. Meanwhile, the private schools were regulated before the public education system, reflecting a peculiarity of the Saudi context. In 1951, the

Saudi government created the Ministry of Knowledge, which was responsible for national education (Alsuwaida, 2016).

The importance of education to the Saudi government was emphasised by the appointment of Prince Fahd (who would later become King) as the first Minister of Education. At that time, formal education was only provided to men. Thereafter, in 1960, King Saud announced the launch of education for girls (Alsuwaida, 2016). Citizens were divided on this development. Some welcomed and appreciated the decision and sent their girls to school, while others rejected and even fought against it. The Saudi government did not reverse the decision, but also did not want to exacerbate tensions. Thus, education for girls was not made mandatory at the time. The Saudi government did everything in its capacity to convince men in the community to accept the idea of sending girls to schools, such as by creating a segregated education system that still exists today. Furthermore, female education was led by religious men, who were responsible for creating the curriculum (Alsuwaida, 2016). Thus, the Saudi government created the General Presidency for Girls' Education in 1960 which was responsible for all female education in the country. At the same time, the Ministry of Knowledge was responsible for male education (Alsuwaida, 2016).

In 1970, the Saudi government moved to adopt a more organised structure, especially in its collaboration with UNDP, to create the first Five-Year Development Plan (Al-Rushaid, 2010). At that point, the Saudi government was ready to create an education policy that would guide the education sector in the country, and thus published the Saudi Education Policy Document, outlining the guidelines, directions, and objectives for national education. This document was rooted in Islamic philosophy, and the objectives of the educational policy are as follows: "understanding Islam correctly and completely, implanting and spreading the Islamic doctrine, providing students with Islamic values and instructions, acquiring knowledge along with different skills, developing constructive behavioural tendencies; advancing society economically, socially, culturally, and enabling students to become useful in the construction of their society" (MOE, 1976 cited in, Gahwaji, 2013, p.335). However, some Saudi scholars such as Alharbi and Madhesh (2018) have criticised the policy, particularly as no changes have been made to it since it was published in 1976.

In 1976, the Saudi government established the Ministry of Higher Education "to supervise, plan, and coordinate KSA's needs in the area of higher education with a view to providing national cadres who are specialised in administrative and scientific areas and who would serve the national development objectives" (Barnawi, 2020, p.1454). For many years, there were only nine universities serving the country, including Umm ALQURA University (1952), Al-Imam Ibn Saud Islamic University (1953), King Saud University (1957), the Islamic University of Madinah (1961), King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals (1963), King Faisal University (1964), King Abdulaziz University (1967), and Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University (1975). Initially, higher education was not attractive to Saudi citizens. Thus, to make higher education more attractive, the Saudi government provided an allowance of about USD 200 per month to any student entering a higher education institution, leading to an increase in the number of students enrolled in higher education. However, the number of students who graduated from high school increased, the Saudi government became unable to accommodate the demand for higher education.

In 2001, the 9/11 terrorist attacks in the US triggered many international discussions about the Saudi education system. When it became known that the majority of the attackers were Saudi citizens who followed the al-Qaeda terrorist organisation, there was global criticism of the Saudi education system. In response, the Saudi government implemented a series of changes to the education system. In 2002, the General Presidency for Girls' Education was taken over by the Ministry of Knowledge. However, schools remained segregated. Soon, the Saudi government renamed the Ministry of Knowledge to the Ministry of Education.

The Saudi government also launched an enormous scholarship programme, designed to compensate for the lack of available spaces in higher education institutions. That programme started in 2005, with young men and women being sent to continue their higher education in developed countries (Al-Asfour and Khan, 2014). The external scholarship programme has already given over 500,000 Saudis the opportunity to study abroad (Al-Asfour and Khan, 2014). Nevertheless, even with the scholarship programme, the Saudi government has still not been

able to handle the increasing demand for higher education. Thus, it permitted the private sector to open private colleges and universities.

In 2007, the King Abdullah Project for General Education Development (Tatweer) was established, leading to many initiatives in the education sector (Tayan, 2017). Tatweer, which in Arabic means 'to develop,' aims to reform public education by supporting the Ministry of Education (Tayan, 2017). Of note, improving quality in education, curriculum reform, teacher development, and implementing new technologies are at the core of the Tatweer initiatives.

The Tatweer project has the following four targets: "(1) enhancing teachers' skills; (2) improving curricula; (3) developing school activities; and (4) improving school facilities and infrastructure" (Allmnakrah and Evers, 2019, p.27). Examples of the project's initiatives include the Prince Sultan Centre for Support Services for Special Education, the Sanad City for Special Education in Makkah, the Tatweer Program for School Feeding, and the Tatweer Buildings Company (which specialises in building schools). The Saudi government has thus far allocated approximately USD 2.4 billion to Tatweer projects. Meanwhile, several scholars have drawn a connection between Tatweer and neoliberal ideologies (Wiseman et al., 2013), with many citizens criticising the reforms on social media and in conventional publications. Although globalisation has largely pushed the Saudi government to embark on such reforms, it has always adopted measures that do not contradict Islamic beliefs (Al-Shaer, 2007).

2.4.1 The Stages of Saudi Education

Through the ages, the education system in Saudi Arabia has grown from the Kuttab to a well-developed framework, with 26,377 public schools and 4,377 private schools, as well as 29 public universities and 38 private universities (MOE, 2022a). The schools and higher education institutions are segregated by gender at both student and staff level. Thus, the quality and type of education offered to males and females differs, even though Islam does not distinguish between men and women when it comes to education rights (Al-hariri, 2015). According to Islam, both men and women must learn and grow to achieve their potential (Al-hariri, 2015). In the case of the Saudi education system, the

imposed segregation has negatively affected girls. For example, girls do not have the same options in higher education as boys, girls cannot apply for some of the programmes offered by industry-specific colleges or even military colleges.

There are three stages in the Saudi education system. The first is the pre-school education stage which name ;Riyad Alatfal, where parents can send their children under six years old. The second is the general education stage, which comprises the following three levels:

- Elementary education: six years (age 6 to 12);

- Intermediate education: three years (age 12 to 15);

- Secondary education: three years (age 15 to 18).

All levels of general education are free, however it is only mandatory at the elementary level. Moreover, the Saudi government provides schools and associated facilities, books, transportation, and medical supplies for students. There are three kinds of school in the Saudi system: public, private, and international. All of these follow the same general policies, curricula, and methods of instruction (Tayan, 2017).

The third and final stage of education is higher education. Here, there are four levels: diploma, bachelor's degree, master's degree, and PhD. Education at this stage is free for Saudi citizens, however admission to public universities is competitive. Furthermore, students receive a stipend of approximately USD 200 per month to help them cover living costs during their studies (Elyas and Picard, 2013).

2.4.2 Education and Saudi Vision 2030

Education in general plays a vital role in the pursuit of Saudi Vision 2030, which sets out a developmental model based on human capital and investment as the means of realising economic development (Al-Malihan, 2019). Thus, the Saudi government has established several initiatives to support different entities in this effort, one of which is is the National Transformation Program.

As the plans of every Saudi ministry must align with Saudi Vision 2030, the Saudi government launched the National Transformation Program as a tool to help government entities achieve relevant goals. The Programme, similar to the aforementioned development plans, is deployed every five years. The first version ran from 2016 to 2020. Taking into account Saudi Vision 2030, the Ministry of Education analysed the following main challenges facing the education system (Ministry of Education, 2019):

1. Unequal opportunity, whereby some student categories suffer from a lack of education, services, and/or programmes.

2. Weak educational environment, and hindrances to innovation and creativity.

3. Students lacking personal and critical thinking skills.

4. Negative stereotypes surrounding working in education.

5. Declining curriculum quality, dependence on classical methodologies, and insufficient assessment skills among teachers.

6. Lack of compatibility in educational and training outputs with labour market requirements.

7. Shortage of investment in private education, and an absence of support services in the education sector as a whole.

Correspondingly, the Ministry of Education published eight goals to overcome these challenges (Vision 2030, 2022a):

1. Securing quality, fair, and comprehensive education and developing lifetime educational opportunities for all.

2. Improving the recruitment, rehabilitation, and development of teachers.

3. Enhancing the educational environment, stimulating innovation and creativity.

4. Boosting the financial resources of the education sector.

5. Developing the curricula and methods of education and assessment.

6. Improving students' values and skills.

7. Strengthening the education system's ability to meet development requirements and labour market needs.

8. Increasing private sector participation in education and training.

Accordingly, many initiatives have been introduced as a result of this strategic planning, including the following (Vision 2030, 2022b):

- **Privatisation of three large public universities:** In 2020, the Saudi government announced that three of the largest public universities in the country would gain autonomy over their academic approach, finances, and administration. Specifically, these three universities were King Saud University, King Abdulaziz University, and Imam Abdul Rahman Bin Faisal University, with plans to privatise more universities in the future.

- **Privatisation of schools:** This plan started with giving 15 schools autonomy over their academic approach, finances, and administration. The corresponding regulations aimed to enhance the quality of education. However, due to difficulties brought on by the COVID-19 pandemic, in 2020 the Saudi government announced the cessation of this plan (Al-Zahrani, 2020).

A new secondary school programme was also launched in August 2022, consisting of the following five main academic and career pathways: general; computer and engineering sciences; health and life sciences; business administration; and Shariah. Each pathway offers a unique learning experience and prepares students for different careers.

In the area of higher education, the effect of neoliberalism can be clearly seen. A recent study by (Almaraee, 2016) analysed policies implemented in Saudi higher education between 2010 and 2014, and linked these to globalisation. In his article, he did not distinguish between globalisation and neoliberalism; instead, he used the concepts synonymously. According to Almaraee (2016), the development in Saudi higher education that reflect a neoliberal agenda are the following:

- Creating a new agency to evaluate education, namely the Education and Training Evaluation Commission, the aim of which is to improve educational quality by setting standards and offering accreditation once these are met.

- National higher education institutions, such as King Abdulaziz University and King Saud University, establishing deanships called 'knowledge creation and business incubators.'

- Increasing the capacities of universities and colleges for STEM programmes and rising enrolment therein, while at the same time reducing, cancelling, or limiting admissions to programmes with limited labour market demand, such as psychology, geography, and social and humanitarian programmes.

All these policies, he claims, have been implemented "[in response] to the requirements of new global economy and the knowledge society" (Almaraee, 2016, p.6). In Almaraee's article, he highlighted the problem of the Saudi labour market having a significant influence on higher education institutions' decisions and programmes. He argues that since the labour market often involves a "service provider, who gets high tech from a third party (advanced market) instead of participating in manufacturing or production" (Almaraee, 2016, p.7), the professions and career paths available therein do not require highly developed skills or knowledge. Furthermore, he adds that "companies in developing countries are not interested in R&D processes" (Almaraee, 2016, p.7). Thus, from his perspective, education cannot develop the market or 'level up' the quality of services.

Recently, the Saudi government has accelerated its embrace of the neoliberal agenda in higher education. In particular, on 17 July 2022, the University Affairs Council published new guidelines for universities (MOE, 2022b) as follows:

- Universities must publish a semi-annual report on their website showing how many of their graduates have been employed in the labour market, as well as whether graduates' jobs correspond with their field of study and are part-time or full-time and the monthly salaries.

- Doubling the enrolment rate of 2020 in specific colleges (i.e. those focusing on health, engineering, technical education, and business administration) according to the capacity of those colleges and in a manner that improves educational process outcomes and contributes to meeting labour market needs. At the same time, enrolment should be reduced by at least 50% in disciplines not compatible with labour market needs.

- Universities must start offering professional certification to raise university students' skill levels, to then be reflected in their professional adequacy for the labour market. Moreover, all universities must add professional certification indicators to their annual reports.

Supporting students' participation in international assessment.

2.4.3 Saudi Arabian's Response to COVID-19 – First Test of the New Vision

At the end of 2019, humanity began to face its most serious healthcare challenge in centuries: the COVID-19 pandemic. The coronavirus was especially dangerous because of its contagiousness, and it quickly spread globally. In addition, COVID-19 created many economic and social challenges. Given the implementation of social distancing policies, countries had to develop new measures to help people to navigate their daily lives while minimising the negative impacts of the pandemic.

In this regard, the Saudi government took several measures to protect the country and its citizens. As one of the world's leading oil producers, the economic impact of the pandemic could have been significant, especially when oil prices decreased. While some of these measures were met with disapproval from citizens, others were viewed positively. One example of a negatively received step was the increase in value-added tax from 5% to 15% (KPMG, 2020). This rise was imposed as the primary tool to mitigate the economic challenges created by the pandemic, such as the loss of oil revenue and the increased cost of healthcare.

Meanwhile, one of the more positively received initiatives was a set of support packages targeting the private sector, totalling almost USD 61 billion (KPMG, 2020). For example, the Saudi government announced that it would pay 60% of the salaries of Saudis employed in the private sector for three months, with a cap of USD 2.39 billion (KPMG, 2020). Eventually, on 16 June 2022, the Saudi Arabian government announced the end of the most precautionary and preventive measures related to combating the COVID-19 pandemic.

Saudi Arabia implemented a three-phase approach to controlling the spread of the coronavirus, beginning with a lockdown from 2 March 2020 to 27 May 2020. This was followed by a transitional phase, referred to as 'the edge,' from 28 May 2020 to January 2022. Currently, Saudi Arabia is still in the final phase of returning to normality, which began in February 2022.

Figure 2-2 The Saudi Three-phase Approach to Control the Spread of the Covid-19

The lockdown phase began after the first case of COVID-19 in Saudi Arabia was confirmed on 2 March 2020. Two days later, the Saudi government suspended the entry of all tourists into Saudi Arabia. Soon after, the Saudi government suspended in-person classes at schools and universities, and launched

countrywide remote education. On 15 March 2020, borders were closed and international flights were halted, after which all government entities' offices, except for those running vital sectors such as health, security, and military, were shut down, with a remote working implemented. On 17 March 2020, all mosques in the country were closed. Thereafter, a 24-hour curfew and lockdown went into effect on 23 March 2020 in large cities, including Riyadh, Tabuk, Dammam, Dhahran, Jeddah, Taif, and Khobar. On 6 April 2020, the curfew and lockdown in certain cities were extended until May. Due to the COVID-19 lockdown, entities in all sectors were forced to adopt new ways of operating to ensure that work could still be completed.

'The Edge' phase lasted 20 months, from 28 May 2020 to January 2022. During the first two months of this phase, the Saudi government permitted some economic and commercial activities during the non-curfew period. However, businesses that could not realistically enforce social distancing, such as hair salons, were not allowed to open. The Saudi government also banned travel between regions and cities by private car, even during non-curfew hours.

At the beginning of the third month of this phase, the Saudi government changed the curfew in all regions of the country, except for the city of Makkah, from 24 hours to 6:00 a.m. to 8:00 p.m. It also allowed prayers to be held in all mosques, except in the holy city of Makkah, adhering to preventive measures published by the Ministry of Health. The Saudi government also permitted employees at ministries, government agencies, and private sector companies to return to their offices in accordance with the controls set by the Ministry of Human Resources and Social Development, and in coordination with the Ministry of Health and relevant authorities. Regarding travel, the Saudi government lifted the suspension of travel between regions by various means of transportation in accordance with preventive measures published by the Ministry of Health.

The following month, the Saudi government announced a return to normal living conditions in all regions and cities, exception for the city of Makkah, with an emphasis placed on following preventive measures published by the Ministry of Health. At the same time, the Saudi government published guidelines to protect

the highest-risk groups from infection, especially the elderly and those with chronic illnesses and respiratory diseases.

The suspension of international flights continued including for the Umrah (the 'minor pilgrimage' undertaken by Muslims when they enter Mecca) until May 2021, when the Saudi government reopened the borders. However, even then, every traveller had to show proof of full COVID-19 vaccination (two doses) and a negative PCR test to enter the country.

During this 20-month phase, the Saudi government emphasised that all citizens and residents of the country had to take all possible measures to limit transmission of the disease, such as by wearing masks, washing hands, sterilising, and social distancing (Nasrallah, 2020). It published regulations for individuals and organisations to follow accordingly. To ensure widespread compliance with the health guidelines, the Government instituted the following fines for infractions (Nasrallah, 2020):

- Those not wearing a face mask or failing to adhere to social distancing rules were to be fined SR 1,000.

- Those refusing temperature checks when entering public- or private-sector buildings were to be fined SR 1,000.

- Establishments failing to provide disinfectants and sanitisers at designated slots were to be fined SR 10,000.

- Establishments failing to sterilise shopping carts and baskets after each use, or those that did not measure the temperature of both employees and visitors at the entry points of shopping centres and malls faced a fine of SR 10,000.

Phase three began in February 2022, and this return to normality is still ongoing. At the beginning of 2022, the Saudi government stated that to be considered fully protected from the virus, an individual was required to have had three doses of a vaccine. Thus, if citizens wanted to travel either domestically or

internationally, they had to show proof of having received three doses of a COVID-19 vaccine. However, from the beginning of March 2022, international travellers were no longer required to provide a vaccination certificate or a negative PCR test.

In March 2022, the Saudi government lifted most other restrictions, including social distancing policies and requiring people to wear face masks and submit to temperature checks when entering the premises of private or public organisations.

In July 2022, Saudi Arabia welcomed more than one million Muslims to participate in the Hajj (pilgrimage) to Mecca. This was the largest Hajj season since the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, and it was successfully concluded without further outbreaks.

The COVID-19 pandemic posed significant challenges to countries and sectors worldwide, with Saudi Arabia no exception. However, it also accelerated the acceptance of online working and teaching, leading to the development of novel communication methods between governments and the public.

The Saudi Arabian government's response to the pandemic spanned two years and involved three phases, each reflecting the level of preparedness and severity of measures taken to control the disease's spread. The Ministry of Health held weekly press conferences to provide transparent updates on new cases and policies related to the virus. The main objective of these press conferences was to create a credible platform from which citizens could learn about the virus from experts. Effective communication and cooperation were imperative elements in ensuring the success of these efforts.

The COVID-19 pandemic was a significant global challenge, and for Saudi Arabia it was the first test of Saudi Vision 2030 and how it empowers government agencies to be responsive and meet public expectations. The Saudi Arabian government was dedicated to ensuring that its response aligned with the goals of Saudi Vision 2030 and enhancing the quality of governance to meet community needs and counter new challenges.

2.4.4 Education's Response

Since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, the Saudi government took many steps to limit its negative effects. Even though no education system in the world could have been fully protected from the challenges posed by the virus, the Saudi case was especially challenging as its young population made education one of the largest sectors in the country. This section of the thesis provides a general introduction to how the Saudi government responded to the pandemic, providing background information on the efforts made to minimise the impact on education. Doing so aims to establish a better understanding of the challenges faced by the education sector during the pandemic and the corresponding government measures.

The first step was shutting down schools and universities at the beginning of the pandemic, with online and remote learning solutions subsequently adopted. The National Education Portal, an electronic platform facilitating interaction between teachers and students, recorded more than 53 million visits by the end of June 2020. The portal enabled over eight million teaching hours, the issuing of three million pieces of digital content, and the opening of over three million virtual classrooms. In addition, the portal offered various tools, such as 'Ein channel,' an educational channel on YouTube that received 61 million views by the end of June 2020 (Saudi Press Agency, 2020). On Saudi TV, 20 television channels were launched with recorded lessons to accommodate all types of students in all parts of the country to ensure access to all students, especially those without internet access (Saudi Press Agency, 2020).

One of the main challenges of remote learning is trying to ensure that all students have access to it regardless of age, digital literacy, and economic status. Thus, the Saudi government created new tools to ensure access for all students. For example, the Ministry of Education launched a virtual kindergarten application, serving 260,000 children between the ages of three and six (Saudi Press Agency, 2020), while the Future Gate website was launched to provide an innovative and interactive communication platform for middle school and high school students to engage with their teachers directly.

To facilitate student access to online learning, the Ministry of Education collaborated with the Ministry of Communications and Information Technology to provide 100,000 SIM cards and 30,000 tablets for students, while telecommunications companies also provided free internet data packages (Saudi Press Agency, 2020). Any students or parents who did not know how to operate a computer could also contact their school and make an appointment to come to school and participate in one-on-one sessions.

Despite the Saudi government's comprehensive response to the COVID-19 pandemic, the negative effects of the virus persist.

2.5 Post-Secondary Higher Education Models in Saudi Arabia

Technical and vocational education (TVE) has long been an engine for developing human resources in Saudi Arabia. Indeed, the Saudi government invests heavily in this area, creating institutions that provide and oversee TVE. In particular, these institutions are the Technical and Vocational Training Corporation (TVTC), the Royal Commission for Jubail and Yanbu (RCJY), and the Ministry of Education (through community colleges). In this section of the thesis, only the TVTC and the RCJY are explored, as the community colleges are examined in Chapter 3.

The TVTC and the RCJY are considered public agencies, meaning they were established to follow up on, or direct, specific projects. They both have the autonomy to create their own rules and regulations, which sometimes differ from civil service regulations. According to Al-Khamis (2001): "The main difference between these agencies and the ministries is that financial oversight of these agencies is imposed only after spending, which gives them some flexibility over ministries" (p. 39). This thesis does not cover all organisations offering TVE in Saudi Arabia. For example, the military colleges that offer TVE and organisations owned and operated by big companies are not included, even though the TVTC supervises some of them.

All such organisations offer TVE to high school graduates . According to the Ministry of Education, in 2017, a total of 252,000 high school graduates entered higher education. Of these students, 75% went to regular universities and

colleges, 18% went to technical and vocational colleges, and 7% went to community colleges (Al-Thumairi, 2018).

Each institution has its own goals and programmes. Meanwhile, Saudi citizens to have graduated from high school can apply to an institution providing they meet the relevant criteria that the institutions publish every year. In addition, each institution has its own policies regarding admissions, and none of them are subject to supervision from formal government organisations. However, the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment (NCAAA), which aims to encourage, support, and evaluate the quality of higher education institutions and the programmes they offer, is working on creating a unified standard for the evaluation of programmes offered by these organisations (NCAAA, 2016). This lack of a standardised evaluation system presents a challenge for policymakers and stakeholders seeking to assess the effectiveness of TVE and ensure that schools are providing high-quality education to their students.

2.5.1.1 Technical and Vocational Training Corporation

The Technical and Vocational Training corporation (TVTC) is the largest government organisation that offers and supervises vocational training throughout the country. Before the establishment of the TVTC, TVE was delivered in an unstructured manner through three ministries. These three ministries were: the Ministry of Education, which operated technical secondary schools focused on industrial, agricultural, and administrative training; the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, which performed vocational training; and the Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs, which ran - institutes assisting in construction (TVTC, 2022).

In 1980, the Saudi government decided that having one organisation leading human resources development would be more effective, especially as that same year it concluded the purchase of Aramco and needed a professional and skilled workforce more than ever. To this end, the Saudi government announced the establishment of the TVTC and the Saudi Manpower Council to support the development of the economy. In 1983, the TVTE started to build colleges,

creating three career and technical colleges (CTCs) offering industrial programmes through the Department of Mechanical Technology, the Department of Electrical Technology, the Department of Oil and Minerals Technology, and the Department of Automotive Technology (TVTC, 2022).

CTCs were initially just for men, but, in 2007, female CTCs were opened, with different programmes and departments. Females still cannot enrol in some of the industrial programmes in CTCs despite being allowed to work in factories. Some of the institutions whose programmes are unavailable to women include the Department of Electrical Technology, the Department of Oil and Minerals Technology, and the Department of Automotive Technology. However, some programmes are offered to women by the Department of Administrative Technology, the Department of Fashion Design and Production of Clothing, and the Department of Women's Beauty Technology.

The CTCs offer the same benefits and services to male and female students (Al-Khamis, 2001) including: furnished housing and social services; daily transportation; a monthly stipend of SR 1000 for the study period; health services (including comprehensive medical care and other urgent medical services); specialised technical books as well as books of general subjects and some other research materials, references, and periodicals; and opportunities to receive vocational loans.

For several decades, the TVTC has been reforming the CTCs to align with the Saudi Arabian government's expectations and vision. The most significant such reform occurred in 2007, when the TVTC eliminated the theoretical, academic-oriented education component of the CTCs and replaced it with a competency-based curriculum. Here, the TVTC studied the market by using developing a curriculum (DACUM) methodology, and even changed the names of the roles in education from 'teacher' to 'trainer,' and from 'student' to 'trainee.'

This reform pushed many teachers who hold doctorates to leave their colleges for academic universities. According to Almaraee (2011), more than 120 teachers left the organisation, which weakened the outcomes for students. Relatedly, the number of students enrolling started to decline because many knew that if they

graduated from these colleges, they would not be able to continue their studies elsewhere. The education in these colleges is now considered non-academic, and limited to training courses (Almaraee, 2011). Consequently, the affected students were unable to continue their pursuit of a bachelor's degree, as no university would accept them. In addition, the private sector expressed dissatisfaction and called for increased collaboration, while some companies noted that the curriculum had been developed as a set of training courses to fulfil the needs of specific businesses (Almaraee, 2011). Thus, the TVTC has been and still is the subject of criticism in newspapers, and many educational leaders believe that the CTCs should be put under the Ministry of Education, arguing that this would allow the curriculum to be modified in a way that would give students a chance to obtain a bachelor's degree.

All of these factors drove the TVTC to open a new form of college in 2013 to save its reputation and justify the Saudi government's high investment therein. Here, to protect itself from critics, it created a company called Colleges of Excellence with the stated aim to deliver high-quality TVE and training courses to Saudi youth to meet the demands of the local job market while also meeting economic development requirements. The company aims to increase the capacity and quality of TVE in Saudi Arabia by collaborating with the most reliable providers of TVE around the world (Colleges of Excellence, 2022). Some of these international providers include Oxford Partnership, Laureate Vocational, and Lincoln College. However, the research data are not yet sufficient to show whether the Colleges of Excellence has reached its goals or improved the quality of TVE in Saudi Arabia.

For the last 15 years, the Consultative Assembly of Saudi Arabia (Majlis Ash-Shura), which is the formal advisory body of Saudi Arabia, has consistently criticised the TVTC which it sees as an inefficient government organisation. In many sessions, the Assembly has asked to close the TVTC and place the colleges under the Ministry of Education. In 2016, the Saudi government named the Minister of Education as the chairman of the TVTC. Crucially, most education leaders saw this move as a starting point in transferring the TVTC to the Ministry of Education. The TVTC operates 140 colleges, with 38 of them offering classes to females throughout the country (TVTC, 2023). The TVTC also offers short

courses to prepare trainees for the labour market, and it supervises the institutions opened by the private sector to offer workplace training (TVTC, 2023).

2.5.1.2 Royal Commission for Jubail and Yanbu (RCJY)

In 1975, HM King Khalid issued a royal decree (number M/75) announcing the establishment of the RCJY, stating "A Royal Commission shall be formed to execute the necessary infrastructure plan for the preparation of Jubail and Yanbu Cities as industrial areas. The Commission shall have an independent legal personality." Accordingly, two industrial cities were to be built to support the country economic development. Jubail is situated in eastern Saudi Arabia, while Yanbu is in the west. From the beginning, the two cities built their own higher education systems differing from that of the rest of the country. Industrial colleges were opened in 1989 to support these cities' development by providing a professional and skilled workforce. These two colleges are male only and thus do not offer any industrial programmes to women. At the same time, the colleges are considered the most successful in Saudi Arabia.

There are three main reasons behind these colleges' success (Alyani and Al-Ghanim, 2014). First, every student has the opportunity after graduation to complete a bachelor's degree at Jubail University, Yanbu University, or any other university. Second, most (90%) students secure a job immediately after graduation (Alyani and Al-Ghanim, 2014). Third, the colleges adopt a flexible framework allowing strong collaboration between them and factories, which help to build the curricula and determine programmes.

For these reasons, admission to these colleges is highly competitive. Each year, both colleges only accept up to 2,000 students. As such, the Consultative Assembly of Saudi Arabia has requested that these colleges be expanded to accept more students. However, that would in turn require the factories to increase their capacity.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a brief background of Saudi Arabia, focusing on its development plans and the evolution if its higher education system. As a country that aims to diversify its economic resources, higher education is essential in supporting government development initiatives. This is evident from the focus placed by many policymakers on developing the higher education system as part of their initiatives. Therefore, community colleges can play an important role in meeting the ambitious goals of Saudi Vision 2030. The following chapter presents a literature review to assist in understanding the phenomenon of community colleges in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter 3 Transferring the US Community-College Model to Different Contexts

3.1 Introduction

A community colleges is a type of higher education institution that provides opportunities distinct from those offered by other institutions. This chapter explores the unique US community college model, showcasing its strengths and complexities (including open access, flexibility, and comprehensiveness), together with the challenges other countries have faced when adopting this model. Embracing foreign models always involves difficulty, and thus understanding countries' experiences of doing so is crucial in the successful implementation and development of the education system.

This chapter starts by presenting an overview of the US, reviewing its community college model, and discussing its historical development, unique characteristics, as well as the human capital theory in relation to community colleges. It goes on to present two countries' specific experiences of adopting the US community college model, as well as the obstacles encountered during implementation. The first country examined here is Vietnam, which was the first to implement the US model, followed by Jordan, the first Arab country to do so. It is important here to acknowledge that different variations of the US model have been adopted in numerous education systems worldwide. However, these two particular cases offer especially valuable insights into the challenges and potential of adapting a Western model to fit vastly different cultural and social contexts. After examining these two examples, the chapter then overviews the Saudi community college model, covering the journey towards the adoption of the model and associated challenges. In the process, reference is made to official Saudi government documents and literature from journals published in Arabic and English.

Thereafter, a comparative analysis is conducted of the Vietnamese, Jordanian, and Saudi community college models. The chapter concludes with a summary of the various critical points dealt with and highlights both the significance of the community college model and its limitations.

3.2 The US Community College Model

The community college is an American invention whereby post-secondary higher education is offered to bridge the gap between high school and university. In 1901, the first community college was established in Illinois with the mission to provide higher education programmes to disadvantaged students. Built upon this spirit, with the aims of ending poverty and narrowing ethnic and gender inequalities, the community college model has since spread around the world and has given more opportunities to underprivileged communities in higher education (Dassance, 2011).

Most scholars recognise community colleges as educational institutions, but views on certain elements of their definition vary. For example, Cohen et al. (2014) defined community colleges as "any non-profit institution[s] regionally accredited to award the associate in arts or the associate in science degree as its highest degree" (Cohen et al., 2014, p.5). Meanwhile, Stafford (2006) classified community colleges as "accredited two-year institutions of higher education dedicated to serving the educational and workforce needs of their local communities" (Stafford, 2006,p.3).

Ultimately, there is no universal definition of a "community college," as their missions constantly change in response to socioeconomic developments. In general, a community college typically refers to a tertiary education institution offering two-year programmes to give educational opportunities to students either to prepare for a working career or to complete their higher education after high school, taking into account local needs. The next section of this chapter delves further into the explanation of community colleges and provides some insights into their historical development.

3.2.1 The Historical Development of the Mission of Community Colleges

Community colleges are generally distinguished by the type of degrees they offer and their overall missions. In the course of developing community colleges in the US, these aspects have continuously been modified to meet the needs of

communities. With an increase in the number of high school graduates wanting to enter higher education institutions, the demand for higher education as a whole rose in the US. Moreover, as the second industrial revolution progressed, the demand for a skilled workforce also increased. In response, an educational leader and pioneer in Illinois, William Rainey Harper, the President of the University of Chicago, and J. Stanley Brown, the Principal of Joliet High School, opened the first community college in 1901, named Joliet Junior College (Beach, 2011). Its goal was to prepare students for university by providing them with an additional two years of secondary-level schooling, after which they could transfer to the University of Chicago. Subsequently, this approach quickly spread across the US (Beach, 2011).

When community colleges first emerged, and for the next 46 years, community colleges were known as 'junior colleges.' In the main, they were established to offer more affordable access to higher education. These colleges offered a "2-year university preparatory institution to be housed in high schools, or in some cases in separate facilities near or on university campuses" (Beach, 2011, p.5). Eells (1931), one of the earliest scholars to study junior colleges, defined these as university branch campuses providing lower-level teaching either on the main campus or in a separate facility. He also noted that the junior colleges were supported by state funding and controlled by state boards (Cohen et al., 2014).

In 1922, the American Association of Junior Colleges defined junior colleges as "institution[s] offering two years of instruction of strictly collegiate grade" (Sydow and Alfred, 2012, n.d.). Then, in 1925, the definition of junior colleges was expanded to include elements making them more inclusive and responsive to "the larger and ever-changing civic, social, religious, and vocational needs of the entire community" (Beach, 2011, p.8). In 1925, Leonard V. Koos, author of the first academic book on the development of community colleges, "The Junior-College Movement," conceptualised the junior college as "an "isthmus" that connected elementary and secondary education to higher education and advanced professional training" (Smith, 1985as cited in, Beach, 2011,p.10). Koos (1925) emphasised that the mission of the junior college was much greater than merely transferring students to university and was also to serve as a vocational institution that would prepare students for specific occupations (Koos, 1925).

A fundamental principle and goal underpinning junior/community colleges was that "all individuals should have the opportunity to rise to their greatest potential" (Cohen et al., 2013, p.10). Pedersen (2000), who studied the history of community colleges in the US from 1900 to 1940, viewed these institutions as a reflection of a "national movement intent on fundamentally transforming an elitist higher education into a democratic and socially-efficient system of advanced learning" (Pedersen, 2000, p.124). One of their ways of meeting this goal was to offer everyone access to higher education regardless of their social status (Cohen et al., 2013).

Despite the prevalent adoption of community colleges across the US, many scholars criticised their mission. One such critic was John Frye, who studied the purposes of the early junior colleges by analysing the content of publications from 56 colleges between 1920 and 1921, and noted that they were "accompanied by no clear mission, set of criteria, nor theoretical framework" (Frye, 1992 as cited in, Levin and Kater, 2018, p.3) However, the spread of community colleges in the US continued regardless.

In 1944, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, the then US President, signed the G.I. Bill. The purpose of this bill was to provide immediate rewards to practically all World War II veterans. These rewards included dedicated payments for tuition and living expenses to enable attendance at high schools, colleges, or technical institutions. This resulted in an increased demand for enrolment in community colleges (Adams, 2000). Thereafter, in 1947, the growth of financial support for higher education pushed Roosevelt's successor Harry S. Truman to establish a commission (known as the Truman Commission) to analyse the country's education system, the first commission of its kind. Notably, the American educator George F. Zook chaired the commission.

Crucially, the Truman Commission Report established a network of public community colleges (Burke, 2008), which were free of charge for all youth. In the wake of World War II, the report emphasised the importance of education in fostering democracy, as well as increasing equality and opportunities for citizens regardless of their race, gender, or religion (Burke, 2008). Of note, the report helped to popularise the term "community college" (Meier, 2008, p.155).

Furthermore, the commission emphasised the role of US community colleges as higher education institutions serving distinct education needs by offering transfers to university and vocational training, responding to the demands of local communities, which helped community colleges to be seen as an instrument of American democracy (Meier, 2008). In addition, the commission legitimised community colleges and helped them to enter "the take-off stage as a significant education and training force in American society as well as a successful consensus social movement" (Meier, 2008, p.21).

Essentially, the Truman Commission Report paved the way for many new higher education policy initiatives in several states, as access to higher education was regarded as "more than a privilege" and instead as "a citizen's right" (as cited in Beach, 2011, p.22). Thus, by the 1960s most states had developed public community college systems. Some of the relevant literature shows that a new college opened nearly every week during the 1960s (Meier, 2008), which were "the true boom years for the community college movement" (Vaughan, 2006, p. 9).

One empirically based policy study conducted by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, known as the Open-Door College, reviewed the expansion of the community college model throughout the 1960s. The study recommended the continued rollout of community colleges across the nation. It also focused on the location of community colleges, stating that they should within commuting distance for all citizens. However, the study noted that community colleges were failing to help students to transfer to university, as only about 33% of community college students were able to do so at the time. Accordingly, the study suggested that community colleges should accept only high school graduates and otherwise qualified individuals. However, this approach contradicted the principle of equality, when many minority groups in the 1960s in the US had relatively low high school completion rates (Beach, 2011, p.24).

With the rise of the civil rights movement, many parents realised that college was a necessity rather than a luxury for their children. Thus, many community colleges started to accept more "racially discriminated, economically disadvantaged and academically underserved populations who had received

poor-quality secondary education" (Beach, 2011, p. 37). Most of these students were not prepared for college life though, leading the rate of student transfer to university to decrease.

The curricula in community colleges at that time were either vocational or based on liberal arts. McGrath and Spear (1991) described the liberal arts curricula in community colleges as weak versions of college-level academia. Some viewed the curricula as a means of setting students up for failure, and that "by the late 1980s and early 1990s, the academic crisis of the community college became clear" (Beach, 2011, p 37-38). Relatedly, many researchers, such as (Koos, 1925, as cited in McGrath and Spear, 1991), argued that transferring students to university should not be the only function of community colleges.

However, the problem of limited funding intensified with the economic crisis of the 1970s, when higher education institutions became direct competitors with each other. Funding was being issued only to institutions offering programmes with clear economic justification and social value (Beach, 2011). Thus, the institutional efficiency of community colleges became central to the debate, and colleges attempted to become more efficient by adopting a new strategy, namely expanding into new markets by "promoting [themselves] as [institutions] that could meet the specific needs of the local community and provide any services local customers might want" (Beach, 2011, p.31).

In 1981, Brookings Institution researchers David W. Breneman and Susan C. Nelson published an influential report predicting the economic impact of community colleges. The researchers asserted that the outcomes of community colleges were debatable and that most high school graduates would be better off choosing a 4-year college or university course to obtain a baccalaureate degree rather than a community programme (Beach, 2011). Breneman and Nelson anticipated the 1980s to be a decade in which community colleges would experience a decline in enrolment (Breneman and Nelson, 1981).

In the 1980s and 1990s, community colleges started to offer vocational education as their "only viable core function," considering that the "traditionally academic-oriented transfer function had been "diminished," and

because most community college students had more "immediate goals" rather than a bachelor's degree" (Beach, 2011, p.36). Clowes and Levin (1989) argued that vocational education was the main function of community colleges in the 1980s and 1990s.

Community colleges have, over the years, generally responded to community needs by expanding their functions. Moreover, with technological developments, economic challenges, and increasing immigration in the 1990s, community colleges started to offer new services, like non-credit contract training, small business development, general educational development (GED), and English as a second language (ESL) (Beach, 2011, Raby and Valeau, 2017).

Many community colleges partnered with local, regional, and national businesses and industries to "create a number of alternative credentials that provide greater flexibility and opportunity for students and employers" (O'Banion, 2019, p.222). Indeed, policymakers and scholars started to view community colleges as economic development partners. According to Fain (2014): "Because of their geographic accessibility and affordability, community colleges have routinely – and rightly – been identified as the U.S. higher education institution most capable of and responsible for [the U.S.'s] economic and employment rebound" (Fain, 2014 cited in, O'Banion, 2019, p.217). Some community colleges even began broadening the types of degrees they offered to include baccalaureates, which some scholars viewed as a source of mission conflict (Dougherty and Townsend, 2006). However, it was observed by Cohen et al. that "by 2010, community colleges in eighteen states were approved to offer the baccalaureate. The authorizing legislation typically allowed workforce-oriented degrees in high-need fields" (Cohen et al., 2013, p. 24).

In sum, community colleges in the US developed in three stages: (1) focusing on transfer as their primary mission; (2) emphasising vocational education as their primary mission; and (3) embracing community service and economic development activities as their primary mission. For each stage, scholars have defined the role of community colleges based on the community's social and economic needs. Furthermore, when defining the mission of community colleges, scholars have tended to focus on either curricula (e.g. vocational),

purpose (e.g. economic development or social mobility), and role (e.g. workforce preparation and transfer) (Levin, 2000).

Vaughan (2006) suggested a general mission for community colleges as "serving all segments of society through an open-access admissions policy that offer equal and fair treatment to all students; providing a comprehensive educational programme: serving the community as community-based institutions of higher education; teaching and learning; fostering lifelong learning" (Vaughan, 2006, p.3)

The evolution of community colleges in the US highlights their increasing comprehensiveness and responsiveness to the needs of the communities they serve. It is therefore imperative to examine the historical development of community colleges with the context firmly in mind as this has played a significant role in shaping their transformation.

3.2.2 The Defining Characteristics of Community Colleges

Community colleges have specific characteristics that distinguish them from other higher education institutions, such as a commitment to open access, the comprehensiveness of their educational programmes, and being community based (Vaughan, 2006). To understand the unique nature of community colleges it is important to ascertain their mission (Dougherty and Townsend, 2006). According to Dougherty and Townsend (2006), there are three ways of determining the mission of a community college, namely public statements, programmes offered, and the impact of the given college.

With regard to the second of these three ways, according to Bailey and Morest (2004), community college programmes comprise three dimensions. The first dimension is known as the core, where the focus is on remedial and degree programmes leading students toward academic or occupational associate degrees. The second dimension can be either vertical or horizontal. To clarify, the vertical dimension encompasses relationships with high schools and institutions offering four-year programmes, which may involve dual enrolment and technical preparation. Meanwhile, the horizontal dimension involves

strengthening ties with local communities by offering community-oriented services that enhance educational opportunities. Examples of such services include non-credit contract training, small business development centres, off-campus GED, ESL classes, and summer camps for children (Bailey and Morest, 2004). The third dimension entails measuring the outcomes of community colleges, and this has been the primary method used by critics of community colleges to highlight their apparent shortcomings.

Cohen et al. (2013) stated that the functions of community colleges can be defined in terms of their main offerings, such as: (1) collegiate education or academic transfer; (2) career education or vocational-technical training; (3) remedial or developmental education; (4) community services; (5) continuing education; and (6) general education.

Cross (1985) argued that five elements characterise the typical community college, namely being comprehensive, vertical, horizontal, and remedial, and having integrated foci. In this regard, comprehensive programmes include transfers to university courses, vocational programmes, community education, and compensatory education. Meanwhile, community colleges with a vertical focus build relationships between community colleges and the labour market and universities, with an emphasis on transfer functions or degrees. At the same time, colleges with a horizontal focus reach out to the community by prioritising community services, local partnerships, and lifelong learning. The remedial element refers to offering continuous support to prepare both traditional and non-traditional students for university-level studies, while having integrated foci means that all of these four elements are present and complement one another.

Nevarez and Wood (2010) identified the following six missions of community colleges: open access; comprehensive educational programming; community services; teaching and learning; lifelong learning; and student success.

Open access

Open-access policy is considered a core mission of community colleges, distinguishing them from other higher education institutions. Open access refers

to offering access to higher education to all students regardless of their age, ethnicity, social status, disability status, learning objectives, or level of preparedness and prior educational experience. Thus, community colleges are known as "democracy's colleges," "open door colleges," or "the people's colleges" (Griffith and Connor, 1994, Cohen et al., 2013). Vaughan (2006) stated that providing such access is achieved by "maintaining a low tuition rate, removing barriers for the underserved, having a college within commuting distance, providing support service including counselling, academic advising, and financial aid, providing distance education, and offering comprehensive programs" (Vaughan, 2006, p.4).

Vaughan (2006) also claimed that commitment to open access is the most misunderstood concept associated with community college policy. He emphasised that each student accepted into a certain programme must possess the required competencies. However, community colleges, through an open-door policy, offer different services and programmes to help students to develop pre-competencies enabling them to be accepted into different programmes. Courtesy of open access, the admissions policies of community colleges became the most inclusive in the history of higher education in the US. To be that inclusive, community colleges must provide comprehensive programmes and services for all communities, including transfer, vocational, developmental, and continuing education, as well as community service programmes for individuals unable to enrol at university (Bragg, 2001).

Comprehensive Programmes

Applying an open-access policy drives community colleges to offer different programmes to respond to the diverse needs of students. These programmes include remedial education, transfer programmes, vocational-technical education, and job skills (Cohen, 1993). When community colleges first began, the main programmes they offered were transfer programmes, which were essentially the same as the first two years of a university degree programme. However, over time, the programmes became more comprehensive. In fact, policymakers now view community colleges as a gateway to help citizens to

enter higher education and prepare for the labour market. As such, many community colleges embrace a more comprehensive mission.

Community Services

Community colleges are community-based institutions, which means they are committed to serving the needs of a designated geographical area. However, the meaning of "community needs" has changed over time, resulting in changes to the missions and programmes offered by community colleges. Notably, localisation is an important part of a community college's identity as an institution, and the majority of community college students live within driving distance of the college they attend (Cohen et al., 2014). Thus, community colleges play an important role in local economic development, especially during difficult economic periods. Through collaboration with stakeholders in their communities, community colleges help to generate new businesses and train workers for in-demand jobs.

Teaching and Learning

When the first community college opened in 1901, its goal was to give universities more opportunities to focus on research by abandoning freshman and sophomore classes (Cohen et al., 2013). This helped to generate new knowledge (Nevarez and Wood, 2010), and thus teaching is an important element in the function of community colleges.

The objective of teaching in community colleges is to provide students with knowledge and to develop their skills. As such, teachers in community colleges must be devoted to their fields and keep up with new trends. According to Vaughan (2006): "The most important challenge for community college teachers is to develop the ability to adjust styles of teaching to the diverse learning styles of students" (Vaughan, 2006, p.7).

Lifelong Learning

Globalisation and technological changes play major roles in changing the way business is conducted, affecting skills and academic requirements, and

emphasising the need for discipline-specific knowledge. Education was viewed as "an activity a person engages in for a certain number of years, and when that person graduates, he or she would never return to the classroom," but this view is no longer valid for many reasons such as the evolution of technology (Vaughan, 2006, p.8). Accordingly, community colleges are committed to offering educational development programmes that support individuals to grow regardless of their stage of life. Meanwhile, in the last 20 years, the demand for lifelong learning has increased because of economic crises forcing people to change careers, and this demand will only continue to grow.

Student Success

Every student who applies to a community college has different goals. Some may of these may be to transfer to university, to prepare for a job, to earn a certificate, or to be retrained in a given field. Regardless of a student's goals, once accepted into a community college, the institution is devoted to helping them to achieve their goals (Nevarez and Wood, 2010). Accordingly, community colleges provide students with support services including advice and counselling.

Faculty

The faculty of a community college forms the backbone of its success (Rodriguez and Rima, 2020). Specifically, there are two kinds of faculty at community colleges, full-time and part-time. Meanwhile, the main task of a faculty is to teach, and research is not deemed important to their members. Community colleges therefore need a faculty that is adept at devising instructional strategies (Raby and Valeau, 2009). Compared to university faculties, those at a community college have a relatively low level of educational attainment. However, community college faculties are more diverse (Cross and Carman, 2022), which stems from their commitment to helping *all* students to achieve their academic and career goals.

3.2.3 The Current US Community College Model: The Impact of Human Capital Theory on Community Colleges

Community colleges have experienced substantial transformations throughout history, mirroring the shifts in the attitudes and needs of the communities they serve. In 1960, with the rise of the civil rights movement, community colleges started to multiply all over the US. This spread was led by political leaders influenced by Schultz, who published an article titled "Capital Formation by Education" in 1960. In this article, Schultz introduced the concept of human capital, heralding a new era in the perceptions of policymakers and the public regarding education (Holden and Biddle, 2017).

Schultz stated that education plays a role in boosting economic development. His work also helped to link the community college model to economic growth, demonstrating that the success of community colleges was determined by their capacity to enhance human capital. As such, initiatives such as vocational training and workforce development became primary functions of community colleges (Levin, 2017). Overall, economic development is complex and multidimensional, involving diverse stakeholders including close business partnerships, and the role of community colleges in regional economic development has revolved around workforce development, business development, community services, and community resources (Nickoli, 2013).

From 1980 onwards, community colleges in the US began to publish annual economic impact studies. Notably, scholars studied these publications to understand the types of activities in which community colleges were engaged as well as their economic impact. One of these studies was conducted by kingry (1985), who found that community colleges engaged in 23 economic development activities to develop local economies (see Appendix 1).

These 23 activities enshrined the function of community colleges as institutions for developing human capital, including training for individuals who had recently obtained or lost jobs. Furthermore, the listed activities emphasised the role that community colleges played in helping businesses to recruit candidates by offering job placement services, career assessment, and career consultation.

The list also highlighted the role performed by community colleges as resource centres.

In another study, Selman and Wilmoth (1995) constructed a list of economic development activities that community colleges could engage in to develop local economies, with a heavy focus on leadership. For example, the first three listed activities emphasised the importance of building a master plan for economic development that is understood by all main stakeholders. Elsewhere, kingry (1985) listed 29 activities that community colleges should participate in to boost the economy, including the provision of training and resource centres.

Some studies have shown a clear link between community colleges and the economy. For example, Dougherty and Bakia (1999) grouped community college activities that could contribute to economic development into three categories: (1) offering contract training to local businesses, with the goal of improving the professional and academic skills of current or prospective employees by providing training under contract to employers or government agencies; (2) offering small business development activities, aiming to assist new and existing small businesses to modernise their production technologies and improve their management and marketing through the provision of secure facilities and administrative assistance at a low cost; and (3) assisting in local economic development planning, through working with local economic development agencies to retain existing industries and attract new ones to the area.

Meanwhile, the impact on community colleges exerted by neoliberal ideology can be summarised as follows:

- The success of a community college is determined by how much money new graduates earn and the extent of their economic productivity. Thus, community colleges function as business enterprises (Maisuria and Cole, 2017).

- Community colleges have shifted their mission from meeting the needs of learners to meeting the needs of businesses (Levin, 2000). Accordingly, educational programmes without economic returns are unlikely to be

offered at community colleges, such as philosophy and literature. In contrast, STEM education is viewed as essential. Therefore, the business sector's influence on curriculum design could harm the democratic approach that distinguishes community colleges from other institutions.

- According to Ayers (2005), controlling education institutions according to market needs is a form of colonisation, where moral behaviour is not rewarded, and where economic benefit is more important than social justice. In line with this approach, corporations make decisions based on profits rather than human development or equality.

3.3 Vietnam

Vietnam was the first Asian country to adopt the US community college model. It did so in 1981, while before that South Vietnam had implemented it in 1970 (Raby and Valeau, 2009). Prior to reunification in 1976, Vietnam was divided in two, with North Vietnam controlled by a socialist government, and the South run by a capitalist government.

In 1968, South Vietnam initiated a transformation in its higher education system, shifting from an elitist approach to a more inclusive one. Here, the capitalist Saigon government invited US consultants and specialists, and sent faculty members to the US to receive training and gain practice in managing community colleges (Raby and Valeau, 2009).

In 1971, the Saigon government established the first community colleges in South Vietnam. By 1974, there were three community colleges in the country (Raby and Valeau, 2018). The aim of establishing community colleges in Vietnam was to offer career-oriented programmes to furnish the workforce with the skills needed in the community. There was also a goal to provide a general academic programme mirroring the first two years of four-year university programmes to enable students to transfer into bachelor's degree programmes at the National University.

Introducing these community colleges was hindered by various problems, including with regard to securing investment in infrastructure, equipment, libraries, and management structure (Raby and Valeau, 2018). The US community college model has over the years been financed by the community, tuition fees, government funds, public contributions, donations, aid, and funds from individuals, agencies, private organisations, and government agencies inside and outside the US. South Vietnam sought to fund their colleges similarly, with the US providing most of the international support, largely due to their involvement in the Vietnam War (Raby and Valeau, 2018).

In 1976, when Vietnam was reunified, the education system in the south of the country was reformed to align with that of the socialist north where community colleges were criticised for being a US invention. Indeed, some Vietnamese political and educational leaders considered community colleges to be instruments used to propagate American culture and education. Soon, all community colleges in Vietnam were closed (Raby and Valeau, 2018).

In the late 1980s, Vietnam's economy was under pressure as its ally the Soviet Union began to collapse. In 1986, the National Congress of the Vietnamese Communist Party announced a new socio-economic reform plan to address economic challenges (Raby and Valeau, 2018). The plan included "shifting from a centrally planned economy to socialism-oriented market economy, approving the existence of individual ownership, facilitating the enlargement of goods and services production, and implementing an open policy in an international relationship" (Raby and Valeau, 2009, p.95). This in turn initiated dialogue regarding the potential reinstatement of the US community-college model.

In the early 1990s, in pursuit of establishing diplomatic relations and exchange programmes, the Vietnamese government dispatched a delegation to North America. The delegation was supported and sponsored by the US Committee for Scientific Cooperation with Vietnam and the American Association of Community Colleges, and included visits to community colleges in Wisconsin and Illinois as well as the Canadian province of British Columbia. Among the main goals of the visit was to reform the higher education system in Vietnam to serve the country's new economic plan (Raby and Valeau, 2018).

The Vietnamese government was determined to create opportunities for all citizens in higher education, regardless of their location, to provide a properly educated and trained local workforce. However, as opening new institutions would have been too expensive, the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) decided to transform some existing higher and vocational education institutions into community colleges.

The MOET started by opening nine community colleges as a pilot programme (Raby and Valeau, 2018). Thus, in 2002, nine community colleges – Hai Phong, Ha Tay, Quang Ngai, Ba Ria-Vung Tau, Tien Giang, Dong Thap, Tra Vinh, Vinh Long, and Kien Giang – opened across Vietnam (Raby and Valeau, 2018). These colleges offered various programmes ranging in duration from one month to two years, teaching basic higher education and giving opportunities to local students to transfer to universities after graduating. They also offered programmes on professional training, supplementary education, computer applications, and foreign languages (Raby and Valeau, 2009).

However, the Vietnamese government encountered some issues when implementing the US community college model. The first issue was related to the legal framework and overlapping regulation (Nguyen and Chau, 2020); (Raby and Valeau, 2009). According to Nguyen and Chau (2020), most of the community college programmes were the same as those offered by universities, which confused students. Furthermore, most Vietnamese community colleges were situated near main cities, which limited their accessibility for some parts of the population.

The second issue was that not all of the nine pilot community colleges provided the option to transfer to university. This was in part due to professional colleges already being in place. To be accepted into professional colleges or universities, it was necessary to pass exams, which were not made available to community college students (Raby and Valeau, 2009).

The third issue was that teachers and lecturers in community colleges were in short supply and had relatively low qualification levels. In addition, the management philosophy of a multi-level, multi-subject educational organisation

was somewhat new to the country and required significant training and support (Nguyen and Chau, 2020).

Nevertheless, these obstacles did not prevent the spread of the US community college model in Vietnam. From 2000 to 2012, the number of community colleges increased from nine to 18 (Nguyen and Chau, 2020). According to Dang Ba Lam: "the main motivation to establish the community-college model in Vietnam [was] the awareness of the government, local administration, and institutions of the positive impact of the community college on national socio-economic development" (Raby and Valeau, 2009, p.100). It is expected that the expansion of Vietnam's community colleges will continue in the coming years. According to Raby and Valeau (2009), to develop the Vietnamese community college model, it must improve the quality of teachers and lecturers, and the MOET must urgently devise a relevant legal framework to facilitate the smooth running of such institutions.

Vietnam has adopted the US community college model courtesy of educational aid from the U.S. government. In general, the provision of this aid has had both positive and negative effects (Nguyen and Chau, 2020). While educational aid can play a significant role in promoting access to education and improving learning outcomes, it can also have unintended consequences, such as aid dependency and unequal power dynamics.

In Vietnam, according to Nguyen and Chau (2020), the aid from the US made the Vietnamese government "passive" in its plans to reform education, as it came to rely on the solutions and ideas brought by the US (Nguyen and Chau, 2020, p. 307). Some scholars consider this form of aid a type of neo-colonialism, with the aim of "spread[ing] colonial power to developing countries, promot[ing] a neoliberal agenda, and impos[ing] Western values and priorities" (Anwaruddin, 2014). Meanwhile, according to Anwaruddin (2014): "neo-colonial powers adopt similar strategies of domination and dictate the education policies in the so-called developing countries in various ways such as providing loan money and technical assistance for educational reforms" (p. 145).

The motivations of policymakers in adopting the US community college model in both Vietnam and Saudi Arabia are similar. Despite stark differences in their geographical and political contexts, both countries face comparable educational challenges and have invested heavily in the education sector to overcome them. Both countries are faced with a lack of capacity in higher education institutions to meet the demand for higher education and provide a workforce ready to overcome economic challenges.

Under such pressure, privatisation has gained popularity in both countries. Indeed, the governments of both countries have issued laws that allow public education institutions to collect tuition fees from students. Although the fees are fairly low, they still represent a barrier to access and have hindered the equality of opportunities (Kelly, 2000). The solutions adopted in both countries indicate that they are focused on general global issues rather than on understanding the needs of their respective communities.

As concluded in the previous section, which focused on the US, the role of community colleges is supposed to be serving the community. However, in the implementation of community colleges in Vietnam, some challenges have prevented this. In particular, Vietnamese community colleges have become dependent on the US for resources and ideas or solutions (Nguyen and Chau, 2020). In addition, the legal framework has prevented these colleges from being independent and compromised their capacity to better serve and include communities.

When examining community colleges, it is important to take into account their resources and authority to effectively serve their communities. Ultimately, policymakers should focus on the main functions of community colleges, which are to remove barriers to higher education and to serve communities.

3.4 Arabic Region

Since December 2010, the Arabic region has "experienced intense uprisings and massive civil resistance" (Hagedorn and Mezghani, 2013, p.101). During the Arab Spring, many citizens in the regions blamed their government for high

unemployment, poverty, regional inequalities, and general political unrest. The civil resistance movement that swept the region started in Tunisia where protesters shared a united goal to overthrow the government, with similar efforts replicated in nearby countries. The political powers in each country reacted differently to such civil resistance. Some countries experienced dramatic change, such as Egypt, Libya, Tunisia, and Algeria all of which underwent regime change.

Thereafter, the success of new political powers would be measured by how well they can address their respective country's problems, so many new governments urgently started to search for solutions. According to Hagedorn and Mezghani (2013), in 2012, the US community college model was proposed to the Tunisian government through the US Embassy. The latter marketed the model to the Tunisian government by emphasising the vocational aspect of the model and its ties to business and industry. It expected this approach to be compelling given that the revolution started because of the suicide of a college-educated man, Mohammed Bouazizi, after he became unemployed (Spangler and Tyler, 2011). In 2013, an educational delegation from Tunisia was invited to experience the US community college model to learn about the mission, institutional financing, and how to create partnerships with industries (Hagedorn and Mezghani, 2013).

At the same time, in 2013, the U.S. Department of State launched the Thomas Jefferson Scholarships enabling Tunisian students to study at US community colleges. Subsequently, more than 400 Tunisian youths have studied in the US through this scholarship in the last five years. The stated aim of the scholarships was "to build the workforce capacity of a diverse group of young technical institute students from across all regions of Tunisia" (U.S.Department of State, 2022, n.p.). However, the real goal here seemed to be to show the new Tunisian government what could be achieved if it decided to adopt such a model. However, doubting this approach, Hagedorn and Mezghani (2013) stated: "It is naive to suggest that community colleges or any other single entity can single-handedly solve a problem as complex as the societal, political, and economic issues confronting Tunisia" (p. 106).

Hagedorn and Mezghani (2013) asserted that if the US community college model was to be implemented in Tunisia, it should be devised by Tunisian policymakers and educators, stating that: "The American partners may be eager to assist, and they must remain cognizant that the power and the authority to enact change, to establish new institutions, and to create a stronger link between education and the workforce lies with Tunisians" (Hagedorn and Mezghani, 2013, p.109). Furthermore, they suggested a careful needs assessment and market analysis if the community college model is to succeed in Tunisia (Hagedorn and Mezghani, 2013).

Meanwhile, Egypt encountered a situation similar to that of Tunisia regarding the introduction of the US community college model. In 2018, under the initiative of the US Embassy in Egypt, an American educational delegation visited Egypt. The aim was to introduce the community college model to Egypt's Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MHESR) (Omran, 2018). Eventually, nine Egyptian universities signed agreements to establish the US community college model on their campuses, thereby enabling more collaboration between the two countries (Omran, 2018).

The US community college model has also been introduced in Saudi Arabia and Jordan. These states are similar in that they are faced with a high youth unemployment rate and have limited places available in higher education institutions. Accordingly, the decision to adopt the US community college model in both countries was driven mainly by a need to overcome these challenges. Jordan adopted the model in the early 1990s, before Saudi Arabia followed suit in the mid-2000s (Raby and Valeau, 2018).

3.4.1 Jordan

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is located in the Middle East, at the crossroads of Asia, Africa, and Europe, with a land area of 89,213 square kilometres, and a population of 9,531,712 (about 56.4% of whom are under the age of 25) (European Union, 2017, World Bank, 2019). While politically Jordan is considered stable, economically it is not (Jordan's Economic Update, 2019). Jordan has "limited natural resources, and potash and phosphate are its main

export commodities" (European Union, 2017,p.1). Like most Arab countries, Jordan faces a high unemployment rate, with limited job creation (World Bank, 2019). Moreover, a 2011 report about poverty in Jordan showed that 14.4% of Jordanians were living below the national poverty line (World Bank, 2019). Furthermore, Jordan has had to absorb a high number of Syrian refugees in recent years.

In terms of higher education, Jordan was one of the first Arab countries previously under British colonial rule to change its rigid education system. Part of this strategy entailed sending Jordanian students to obtain degrees in other countries. Since the 1950s, many educators in Jordan have obtained scholarships to study in the US and other countries (Al-Tal et al., 1993). To facilitate the scholarship programmes, the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research in Jordan established a dedicated department (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2022).

Post-secondary education in Jordan first started in 1951, when most of the institutions offering this kind of education adopted the European polytechnic model (Al-Tal et al., 1993). Later, in 1980, when doctoral students returned from the US, the community college model was introduced and expected to succeed for three main reasons. First, the university system in Jordan at that time was limited outside big cities with many people struggling to access higher education. Second, in the 1980s, Jordan launched an ambitious national plan for economic development, and institutions similar to community colleges were seen as a way of helping this plan to materialise (Al-Tal et al., 1993). Third, Jordanians viewed education as an essential element for personal development and social prestige. Thus, increasing access to higher education would, they thought, help to change the social structure of the country (Al-Tal et al., 1993).

The pioneering Jordanian educators implementing the US community college model regarded it as a solution to many challenges. In particular, they viewed the model as an opportunity to offer increased access to higher education at a low cost, and as a chance for people to secure desirable jobs. By 1990, there were 52 community colleges in Jordan, albeit that number has since declined to 41 (Jordanian Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2022). There

are two kinds of community college in Jordan – public and private. The Ministry of Higher Education, through the Council of Higher Education, controls both types and has authority in the following areas: "(a) establishing missions, principles, goals, and policies; (b) planning manpower needs; (c) licensing postsecondary institutions; (d) approving fields of study, including program specializations; (e) establishing general policies for admitting students; and (f) providing financial support for publicly controlled institutions" (Al-Tal et al., 1993, p.56).

According to Al-Tal et al. (1993), maintaining the purpose of the US model proved challenging during its introduction to Jordan. Specifically, the Jordanian education system struggled to put in place an open-access policy and to provide students the option to transfer to university. To be accepted into a community college in Jordan, students are required to score 60% or higher on a final comprehensive high school examination. Thus, this examination plays a significant role in shaping the future of Jordanian students. In addition, according to the Ministry of Higher Education, to transfer from a community college to a university, students must pass a comprehensive exit examination in addition to scoring 70% or higher on their final comprehensive high-school examination. This means that even if a student scores 90% on the comprehensive exit examination in community college but had earlier scored 50% on the final comprehensive high school examination, they would be denied admission to university.

In the US community college model, remedial education has an essential function. However, in Jordan, none of the community colleges offer remedial courses even though the colleges accept students of differing aptitude (Al-Tal et al., 1993). Furthermore, the Jordanian community college model does not fulfil the function of community service. Instead, the primary role of community colleges in Jordan is to accommodate high school graduates, not to transfer graduates to university to finish their higher education or to get a job. Indeed, the unemployment rate among the community college graduates has consistently been very high in Jordan (Al-Tal et al., 1993) (Rawashdeh, 2019).

Regarding the limitations of the Jordanian model, Al-Tal et al. (1993) argued that the Ministry of Higher Education should be less centralised. He claimed that the development of community colleges in Jordan "is now dawn upon Jordanian and Arab intellectual leaders" (Al-Tal et al., 1993, p.62). They asserted that giving community college leaders more flexibility in planning and choosing a suitable curriculum would enable them to communicate better with communities, understand their needs, and work more effectively as a result. Furthermore, Al-Tal et al. (1993) suggested that the Ministry of Higher Education reduce the number of public community colleges to raise their quality. The researchers believed that private community colleges would be adequate to accommodate newly graduated students, arguing that reducing the number of community colleges would help the Ministry of Higher Education to concentrate on improving standards.

There have been limited English-language studies on the Jordanian community college model compared to those provided in the Arabic language (Younis, 2016, Alqsyr, 1993, Alhusun et al., 2000), but they highlight the continuation of the same problems.

In 2017, the Economic and Social Council of Jordan published the Reforming Higher Education Report, which suggested establishing a royal charter for the autonomy of higher education institutions. This charter would guarantee full independence for higher education institutions from any national authorities except the judiciary and the law (Economic and Social Council in Jordan, 2017). However, this charter has not yet been approved by the Jordanian government.

Meanwhile, the Evaluation Report on the State of Vocational and Technical Education and Training in Jordan (2017) emphasised the importance of decentralising community colleges to improve their quality and efficiency. The report also drew attention to the social stigma that community college students face and how this discourages students from applying to these institutions.

To increase the efficiency of community colleges in Jordan, the report outlined a strategy suggested by Al-Balqa' Applied University in 2017 for developing study plans and programmes in community colleges to respond to changes in the

community. According to the strategy, each programme would cover specific professional competencies, including functional, emotional, supervisory, scientific, administrative, and knowledge-economy competencies. The report also emphasised the important role of the private sector in achieving this. However, to involve the private sector, further work by the community colleges is needed. A study by Rawashdeh (2019) showed that there was "no integrated framework to ensure effective involvement of the private sector and other social partners in TVET at different levels" (p. 18). Thus, the lack of involvement of the private sector in the community college model remains an issue in Jordan.

Jordan's community colleges are relatively well established, but they still have a long way to go to reach their potential. Of note, Jordan's community colleges are more akin to the European polytechnic model than the US community college model. Currently, the US community college model is not being fully implemented in Jordan, and reform is needed. The reasons behind the failure to satisfactorily adopt the US model in the Jordanian context are similar to those found in Saudi Arabia and Vietnam (centralised system, limited educational programmes, and a lack of access), preventing the colleges from serving their main function.

3.5 Saudi Community Colleges

Saudi policymakers have long considered policy transfer a vital tool in developing the national education system. Accordingly, the aim of this section of the thesis is to gain a full understanding of the journey of transferring the US community college model into the Saudi context. Three questions guide the analysis: why, when, and how?

In the Saudi context, the Saudi government formally adopted the US community college model in 2005 to offer all high school graduates a place in higher education institutions. By that time, the demand for higher education had increased to a point that exceeded capacity. For many years already, policymakers had sought solutions (Bubshait, 1997; Alshtry, 1998) and arrived at the US community college model, arguing that this model would accommodate higher education demand and reduce the high unemployment rate.

Indeed, in 1998, the Saudi Ministry of Education began a pilot programme of three community colleges in regions with no universities or colleges. The pilot colleges were opened in Jizan, Ha'il, and Tabuk to provide local communities the option to pursue higher education and avoid mass student migration to large central cities like Jeddah, Riyadh, and Dammam. The programme was designed to test the US model in an environment where it was most needed. Then, in 1999, before knowing the outcomes of this pilot programme, a fourth community college was opened in Hafr al-Batin. Eventually, the Saudi Ministry of Education insisted on adopting the model for two largely financial reasons. First, each student, after enrolling in community college would lose some financial rights, including the right to free access to national universities to complete a bachelor's degree, the right to receive an international scholarship, and the right to a monthly salary provided by the Saudi government for every college and university student.

Second, most community colleges would be housed within existing universities, meaning that the administrative staff and teachers would already in place, thus removing the need to recruit and train new employees. In 2005, the Saudi Ministry of Education formally announced plans to open more community colleges in all 13 regions of the country.

To make community colleges an attractive option for high school graduates, the Ministry of Education decided that most of them would be affiliated with national universities (Aljanobi, 2014). With lower requirements for entry than universities, this option began to appeal to young people. For most students, entering national universities – even in the form of a community college – is meaningful, especially if they have no other higher education options. However, although most students to enrol in community colleges did so with the intention of completing their education after graduation, community college graduates found it difficult to improve their work and social status. Moreover, public universities do not offer credit transfer options, even though such universities effectively control the community colleges.

3.5.1 The Official Community College Document

An examination of the official Saudi Ministry of Education records reveals that Saudi Arabia has deliberately and openly incorporated the US community college model into its own education system. The oldest official document to name the characteristics of Saudi community colleges was published in 2002 (Comprehensive Report on Community Colleges, 2002). It outlines the goals and functions of community colleges as well as the kinds of degrees they offer. According to the document, the main goals of the Saudi community college model are to enable open access to education, provide comprehensive programmes (including vocational and transfer programmes as well as remedial education), and serve the community.

The document also presents the following main functions of the Saudi community college model:

- Increasing higher education access for high school graduates.

- Offering transfer programmes, whereby after studying for two years at a community college, students can continue their studies at any university in the same programme. The length of the programmes ranges from two to three years.

- Providing vocational programmes to prepare students for specific local jobs. The length of this programme is usually two years.

- Delivering lifelong learning including a range of short courses that support community development in subjects such as computer skills and culture.

- Offering career and academic guidance counselling to help students to succeed, whether they choose to enter the labour market or complete their higher education at university.

This document also explains the kinds of degrees that community colleges can offer, which are associate of arts, associate of science, and associate in applied

science. Community colleges also offer two so-called tracks - transfer and vocational - which students usually choose after their first year.

The opening of the Saudi Association of Community Colleges, announced in 2014 by King Saud University, marked another milestone in the adoption of the US community college model. The organisation focuses on supporting the growth of the Saudi community colleges and was established to build a professional network with community colleges in the US through the American Association of Community Colleges (SACC, 2022). According to the Saudi Association of Community Colleges, , in general, Saudi community colleges serve the essential function of offering high school graduates higher education in an environment similar to a university (SACC, 2022).

3.5.2 Reality as Shown Through Past Studies

Since the first pilot programme of community colleges in Saudi Arabia, only 25 studies have been published on them and their development. Most of these studies have been published in Arabic academic journals. Meanwhile, four of them were published before the Saudi government even announced the adoption of the US model, namely those of Tarabzune (1983), Abu-Talib (1988), Bubshait (1997), and Alshtry (1998), all of whom recommended the model's introduction to the Saudi context. The other studies were all published after the Saudi government announced the official opening of community colleges in all 13 regions of the country. These studies are by Aghbari (2002), Alhabeb (2005), Bahramz (2005), Hamed (2006), Alshammari (2006), Rawaf (2008), Alhabeb and Alshammari (2008), Alssaeati (2008), Saaty (2009), Alrshoud (2009), AlSabhan (2009), Hasseib (2011), Almutawa (2011), Dawood (2013), Ruwaily (2013), Almannie (2015), Alahmadi and Aljabri (2015), Ewigleben (2016), and Alhataib (2016). In analysing these studies, the following five main areas emerged:

- **Open access.** All community colleges, regardless of their location in Saudi Arabia, do not offer open access; they have admissions policies similar to those of public universities but with fewer restrictions. Unlike the US community college model, students need a 70 grade point average (GPA) along with their high school diploma to be accepted.

Programmes. There are three kinds of programmes offered by Saudi community colleges: transfer, vocational, and short. A transfer path from community college to university is not offered by all community colleges, and where it is offered there are limitations. Most public universities do not have a credit transfer policy, even though these universities essentially control the community colleges. Meanwhile, students accepted into community colleges lose their right to free access to national universities to complete their bachelor's degree. Moreover, to be accepted for transfer, students still need grade point average three out of four to be accepted and transferred to the university. At the same time, the vocational track is weak in community colleges because the programmes are developed by academic faculties, and not through collaboration with representatives of the labour market. Many studies have recommended that colleges undertake a systemic method of managing this collaboration. According to the 2012–2013 annual report on community colleges in Riyadh, Jeddah, and Dammam, none of the short courses support lifelong learning, except at Jeddah (Alhataib and Alhabeb, 2016). In general, most programmes offered in Saudi community colleges are similar in name and curriculum to those offered in universities, and sometimes the same university faculty members teach them (Alhataib and Alhabeb, 2016).

- **Mission.** The Saudi Association of Community Colleges has stated that the primary function of community colleges is to offer high school graduates higher education in an environment similar to university (sacc.org.sa, 2019). However, the current model does not prepare students to enter the labour market. There is also no system in place in community colleges to regulate or support community college leaders or faculty members in understanding the market's needs.

- **Faculty.** The faculties of community colleges are either overeducated or undereducated relative to their needs. For example, Rawaf (2008) found that 61.8% of faculty members held a bachelor's degree, 19.6% held a master's degree, and 3% held a PhD. Rawaf (2008) also found that 52% of them had two years of teaching experience, while the rest did not have any. Moreover, Rawaf recommended changing the hiring criteria to increase the number of faculty members with a master's degree and

requiring that they have a minimum of five years of teaching experience (Rawaf, 2008).

- **Dropout**. Between 2009 and 2010, 10 community colleges had a 25% dropout rate, and four had a 40% dropout rate. Meanwhile, some studies have reported that the dropout rate in Saudi community colleges is more than 53%. According to Ruwaily (2013), the dropout rate in 2013 in Riyadh, Jeddah, and Dammam collectively was 84%. The reasons given for this high rate were economic, social, and academic (Ruwaily, 2013). In an economic regard, most community college students do not receive government funding. Socially, community college students are still generally perceived as lesser than university students, especially because most community colleges do not offer transfer programmes (Almufeez, 2018). Indeed, the social stigma surrounding students who graduate with a two-year degree is so strong that many students stopped applying for them even in places where no other higher education options exist. For example, in community colleges for women, enrolment dropped from 500 students to 50 in Al-Mandaq and Yanbu, and from 300 students to approximately 100 in Al-Hanakiyah. In 2009 and 2010, the dropout rate exceeded 50% in 10 colleges, and 80% in four colleges (Alahmadi & Aljabri, 2015). One solution to this problem adopted by the Saudi government was to upgrade some community colleges to universities. For example, the community colleges in Jizan, Ha'il, and Tabuk all started out as community colleges and were then changed to universities (Alahmadi & Aljabri, 2015).

- **Administration and management.** All community colleges are under the management of public universities. In addition, as community colleges are controlled by university leaders, there is a tendency toward abstract education rather than vocational training.

Most of the 25 studies were quantitative, with little in-depth analysis. In general, they were exploratory, with scholars wanting to explain the phenomenon from their perspective. Most of the research questions asked what and how, but only a few asked why. In addition, only a few studies focused on

small towns, with most of the studies conducted on community colleges in large cities.

3.6 The Need for Reform to Enhance the Implementation of the US Model

Higher education institutions have faced many challenges over the past 50 years, including globalisation, technological advancements, and political changes. In addition, demand for higher education and the need for skilled labour has also increased (Zwerling, 1986, Cohen et al., 2013).

Since traditional universities have largely been unable to accommodate all these changes, alternatives have been sought worldwide. One often appealing way for countries to develop their education sector is by adopting models from other countries. This is often referred to as policy transfer or policy learning (Chapter 4). The US community college model has frequently been adopted by other countries with a view to overcoming local challenges in higher education (Raby and Valeau, 2009).

Raby and Valeau (2009) identified the strengths and weaknesses of the US community college model, and its global applicability. The model promotes equality and flexibility, but when implemented in certain countries it suffers from a social stigma courtesy of being deemed less prestigious than university, especially in countries without transfer programmes. The abovementioned researchers also observed that the market plays a major role in the success of the model's implementation, as "(a) market forces create a need for postsecondary institutions whose skilled technicians are in demand to support technological, vocational, and industrial development; (b) adult and continuing education is legitimised as postsecondary education; and (c) post- secondary education is equated with social and economic mobility" (Raby and Valeau, 2009, p.8).

Neither Jordan, Vietnam, nor Saudi Arabia have succeeded entirely in implementing the US community college model. None of these countries offer open access or transfer functions, which are important factors that distinguish

the American community colleges from other higher education institutions. Moreover, in these countries a strong local market demand is lacking, which plays a significant role in aiding community college graduates to find employment successfully. Therefore, as mentioned earlier, it is essential to understand the political and policy context of each country before adopting policies from other countries. It is also crucial to empower community colleges with the authority and independence to ensure they can focus on their main functions.

This raises some crucial questions. First, why have these countries struggled to implement the fundamental components of the US model? Second, how can community colleges be empowered to overcome these challenges to serve their local communities effectively?

3.7 Conclusion

As demonstrated in this chapter, each country has its own unique political, economic, and social environment. These differences make it difficult for one country to adopt the same policy established in another country. As has been unveiled in this thesis, embracing the US community college model cannot succeed without thoroughly investigating how community colleges operate in their original context. Notably, the US community college model has undergone significant changes, evolving from focusing on preparing students for transfer to university (transfer function) to a more comprehensive approach that also offers vocational training and other educational options to serve the needs of communities. Today, their original function is being compromised by neoliberal ideology, particularly human capital theory, whereby services and programmes of community colleges primarily serve market needs. This shift has had a profound impact on the role of community colleges in society as a whole.

The chapter has also provided an overview of how Vietnam, Jordan, and Saudi Arabia have implemented the US community college model. It has analysed the journey taken by these three countries, focusing on the challenges faced and the strategies employed in the implementation of the model. While the US community college model has been adopted in several countries worldwide, this

process is rarely smooth and there are still significant challenges that policymakers must contend with. One major obstacle is the neoliberal agenda that affects the global development of community colleges. Indeed, this raises some questions about how such a model can be developed in different contexts successfully. Taking into account the challenges outlined here, the next chapter proposes an approach and explains practical elements that policymakers could adopt to ensure that community colleges fulfil their main function of serving communities.

Chapter 4   Research Framework

4.1 Introduction

In the dynamic landscape of higher education, navigating complex challenges and fostering meaningful change requires robust theoretical frameworks. This thesis investigates how the Saudi community college model, which is considered an example of policy transfer from the US , can be developed using the capability approach. Therefore, the study draws upon two key frameworks: policy transfer theory and the capability approach. By critically examining insights gleaned on these institutions including some limitations, this thesis aims to present a novel community college model inspired by the capability approach.

This chapter comprises three parts. The first part covers policy transfer, which is one of the theoretical foundations used to evaluate the research problem and findings. In this part, I explore the essential concepts related to policy transfers, such as policy borrowing and policy learning, as well as the main differences between them. Furthermore, I also explain the kinds of approaches education scholars generally apply when dealing with policy transfers. At the end of this section, I highlight the critical challenges facing an education system that attempts to use policy transfer as a tool for transformation, when that policy is driven by a neoliberal agenda.

The second part of this chapter addresses the capability approach, which serves as one of the theoretical foundations I use to evaluate the research problem. Ultimately, the capability approach here forms the backbone for the creation of a new community college model. In this part, I present a definition of the capability approach and outline the criticisms that have been levelled against it. This part also examines the main difference between the capability approach and neoliberalism and why educators need to work hard to promote the former. The third part of the chapter reveals the proposed new community college model, inspired by the capability approach, while the fourth and final part concludes

4.2 Part One: Policy Transfer

This thesis focuses on the Saudi Arabian community college system, which is based on the US community college model. Acknowledging the significance of policy transfer, this part provides an analysis of policy transfer to offer insights into the journey of transferring the institution of the community college into Saudi Arabia. Accordingly, this part is structured into five sections, each offering valuable insights into policy transfer and the potential barriers that sometimes arise during the process. It presents an overview of policy transfer in the scholarship by highlighting key historical moments and influential figures in the field, as well as discussing its complexity and related terminology, including policy borrowing and policy learning. Over the last two decades, this field has undergone significant expansion in scope and the number of associated terms. To demonstrate how policy transfer can be analysed, the third section of this part presents two policy transfer models: the Dolowitz and Marsh model; and the Phillips and Ochs (2003) model.

The final section of this part provides an analysis of the critical challenges to be overcome in promoting the adoption of policy transfer as a primary tool in creating or developing policies. Overall, by examining these challenges, this part as a whole allows for a better understanding of the policy transfer process and the difficulties that may arise in developing effective strategies in the Saudi community college model.

4.2.1 The Emergence of Policy Transfer in Research

The literature on policy transfer, or policy borrowing, is dominated by comparative research in two disciplines: political studies and education studies. While both address the same concept, the historical evolution of policy transfer differs from one group of scholars to the next. Indeed, there is no agreement among scholars as to when exactly policy transfer first emerged, however most scholars believe that it dates back to the Ancient Greek philosopher Plato.

The beginning of educational policy borrowing can be traced back to 1816, when the French educator Marc Antione Jullien, known as the father of comparative education (Finegold et al., 1993), was searching for effective educational

practices to transfer into other systems. Accordingly, he designed a questionnaire that is considered the origin of educational policy borrowing (Finegold et al., 1993). Following his work, in the 19th century, educators began to explore more education systems with the view of borrowing new ideas. Noah and Eckstein (1969) *Toward a Science of Comparative Education* investigated 19th-century educationists who travelled to other countries in search of innovative ideas and practices to be borrowed (as cited in Phillips, 2005). According to Phillips (2005), although the book is considered the first of its kind, it lacked a systematic approach to describing the journey taken by the educators. In general, it was common in the 19th century to describe the strengths of borrowing practices but without analysing the context of the borrower (Finegold et al., 1993).

Michael Sadler (1861–1943) was one of the first educators to advocate against borrowing certain education policies for contextual reasons, writing "we should not forget that the things outside the schools matter even more than the things inside the schools, and govern and interpret the things inside" (Beech, 2006, p.6). His work, along with that of other pioneers in the field, such as Brian Holmes and Robert Cowen, has driven researchers to focus more on the context in which an educational policy is to be introduced. Such work has exposed the comparative studies undertaken on the subject as being limited in scope (Steiner-Khamsi, 2014).

Sadler's work is also widely credited as being the first to use systematic comparative research to study education policy (Crossley and Watson, 2009). Steiner-Khamsi (2014) pointed out that there are two approaches to policy borrowing in education: the normative approach, and the analytical approach. Most of the early scholars addressing policy borrowing in education used the normative approach, where the goal is to identify the best-performing education systems from which lessons or best practices are learned and taken (Steiner-Khamsi, 2014). The researchers who have deployed the normative approach have favoured the comparative method to identify the best education systems. Indeed, they have actively promoted the adoption of policy borrowing. Steiner-Khamsi (2014) asserted that this approach is commonly used by scholars, and that the number of scholars using it has been increasing, possibly due in part to

the expanding role of international organisations, such as the World Bank (Minkman et al., 2018).

In contrast to the normative approach, the analytical approach looks beyond values and principles and analyses why policy borrowing occurs in the first place by asking questions like when, why, and how (Steiner-Khamsi, 2014). It also takes into account the social, political, and economic contexts in which transferred or borrowed policies are implemented. Notably, conducting research through only one of these two approaches may be limiting for researchers. Thus, according to Steiner-Khamsi (2014), to varying extents, most researchers combine both approaches as "it would be wrong to assume that the two positions – normative and analytical – are mutually exclusive" (Steiner-Khamsi, 2014, p.155).

Policy transfer first emerged in political studies in the 1960s, where it was common for scholars to use comparative policy analysis (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996). Meanwhile, the rise of policy analysis has played a pivotal role in facilitating the diffusion of policies. Studies on the latter have explained that it is based on timing, as well as geographical and resource similarities between the context of the original country and the borrower (Clark, 1985, as cited in Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996). In the 1980s, many scholars started to criticise diffusion studies (Benson and Jordan, 2011), with many claiming that this research tradition offered little insight into the substance of new policies and was instead focused more on the method than the content (as cited in Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996).

Many scholars of policy transfer in education have cited political literature in their works. Therefore, this section addresses both the educational and political literature to better understand the limitations and potential of policy transfer in education. For instance, early studies on policy transfer in education were primarily focused on promoting norms and principles. However, recent trends in both educational and political fields have seen a move towards conducting comprehensive analysis and gaining a deeper comprehension of the contextual factors involved in policy transfer.

4.2.2 Definition

A significant challenge in policy transfer is the inconsistency in terminology employed by different scholars when referring to policy borrowing or transfer. With that in mind, the following terms are explained in this research: policy transfer; lesson drawing; policy borrowing; policy travelling; policy change; and policy learning. This section presents definitions of these terms as well as other terms related to the research. Defining policy transfer or policy learning can be difficult, as there are many different interpretations of these terms, each based on the given scholar's discipline, beliefs, and thoughts. Some scholars, such as Zangmo (2018), view policy learning as a part of policy transfer. According to Zangmo: "Educational policy learning is an extension of educational policy borrowing" (p. 17). Other scholars have held that the two concepts are distinct, which creates confusion for new researchers. Therefore, in general, it is essential to define certain terms to understand the meaning of policy transfer as a whole.

Policy diffusion: This refers to "one government's policy choices being influenced by the choices of other governments" (Shipan and Volden, 2012, p.788). Therefore, since lesson drawing, policy learning, policy transfer, policy travelling, and policy borrowing all entail importing from other governments, they can be considered subcategories of policy diffusion (Rietig, 2014); see (Figure 4-1).

Figure 4-1 Policy Concepts
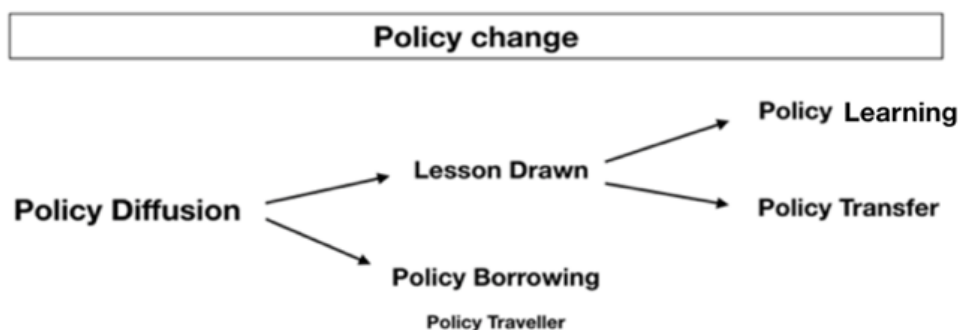
Note: Researcher's own analysis.

Lesson drawing: This is a concept coined by Rose (2004), who saw the act of engaging in policy transfer as both rational and voluntary (Dolowitz and Marsh,

1996). Lesson drawing focuses on understanding the conditions of exported and imported policies (Rose, 2004). According to Rose (2004, p.8), there are 10 steps that every policymaker should follow when engaging in lesson drawing:

1. Learn the key concepts.

2. Catch the attention of policymakers.

3. Scan alternatives and decide where to look for lessons.

4. Learn by going abroad.

5. Devise a generalised model of how a foreign programme would work.

6. Turn the model into a lesson that fits your own national context.

7. Decide whether the lesson should be adopted.

8. Decide whether the lesson can be applied.

9. Simplify the means and ends of a lesson to increase its chances of success.

10. Evaluate a lesson's prospective outcome, and, if it is adopted, continue such evaluation as it evolves over time.

Rose stressed the importance of these systematic steps and claimed that fully adopting them would lead to policy success. Indeed, Rose viewed engaging in lesson drawing as both rational and voluntary (Dolowitz and Marsh, 1996). Furthermore, Rose outlined that lesson drawing is different "because it draws on foreign experience to propose a programme that can deal with a problem confronting national policymakers in their home environments" (Rose, 2004, p.22). In addition, Page (2000) provided a rationale for utilising a transferred policy when he stated: "The prime object[ive] is to engage in policy transfer—to use the cross-national experience as a source of policy advice" (Page, 2000, p.2). Thus, for policymakers to engage in lesson drawing, they must possess a

comprehensive understanding of the content of the policy from which they intend to draw lessons. They must also understand how this policy would develop and operate in various jurisdictions to be able to make informed decisions (Page, 2000).

Policymakers can observe the execution of a policy (in action) in different jurisdictions and research and review it by referring to different informed sources (Evans, 2017). Hence, scholars like Studlar (1999) have argued that lesson drawing is a complicated process. In contrast, Rietig (2014) argued that lesson drawing can be considered a basis for both policy learning and policy transfer. I take the Rietig (2014) view here and regard policy learning and policy transfer as extensions of lesson drawing. This argument fits well with the present research, especially since understanding the context is essential to serving community needs, a primary function of community colleges.

Policy transfer: Dolowitz (2003) described policy transfer as a "process by which the policies and/or practices of one political system are fed into and utilised in the policymaking arena of another political system" (Dolowitz, 2003, p.101).

Policy transfer and lesson drawing are distinct. Dolowitz and Marsh (1996) distinguished them on the basis of the policymakers' intentions and motivations, using 'policy transfer' to describe both voluntary and coercive transfer. Indeed, policymakers' intentions and motivations are critical elements in understanding why policy transfer occurs. For a better understanding, Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) suggested a policy transfer continuum as a device providing a theoretical framework for research, as well as to understand the motivations of different actors in policy transfer. This continuum categorises the degree of transfer, starting from lesson drawing, wherein policymakers '*want* to,' and ending with direct imposition, where policymakers '*have* to' (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000, p.9).

Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) argued that it is difficult to find specific studies on lesson drawing or direct imposition, as most studies have focused on the middle of the continuum. The policy transfer continuum enables researchers to identify key actors' motivations and capture shifts therein, thereby offering researchers

and policymakers more information to analyse the policy transfer to ascertain what contributed to its success or failure (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000).

'Policy transfer' and 'policy borrowing' are often used interchangeably, especially in the educational literature, but they are in fact distinct. Phillips and Ochs (2004) used 'policy borrowing' to refer to policy transfer, as they defined the former as "the conscious adoption in one context of policy observed in another" (Phillips and Ochs, 2004, p.774). However, Divala (2014) argued that using 'borrowing' would be inappropriate to describe the processes of moving policies from one place to another, as 'borrowing' implies a temporary loan of something that will be returned in the future.

In the present study, policy borrowing is considered a form of diffusing policies considered to reflect best practices. Raffe and Semple referred to policy borrowing as "'best practices' from abroad being identified and transferred back home, [that overlook] the opportunities for more varied and more productive forms of policy learning" (Raffe and Semple, 2011, n.d). Policymakers generally have one goal when it comes to policy borrowing: to choose best practices and bring them to their home context (Abdullah, 2013). Policy borrowing focuses on determining transferrable policies from different countries and building solutions accordingly (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000). In policy borrowing, contextual analysis is overlooked. Policy borrowing is similar to policy travelling, and both reflect the idea of best practices being promoted by international organisations or international consulting companies (Barabasch et al., 2021).

Policy learning: In the context of this study, this term is an extension of lesson drawing and refers to "the process of updating beliefs and understanding social constructs" (Dunlop and Radaelli, 2013). Indeed, both policy learning and policy transfer are founded on lesson drawing. Hall (1993) defined policy learning as "a deliberate attempt to adjust the goals or techniques of policy in response to past experience and new information" (Hall, 1993, p. 278, as cited in Wulandari, 2020, p.13). Meanwhile, Jordan (2005, p.308) stated that "policy learning involves a cognitive and reflective process in which policymakers adapt their beliefs and positions in view of past experiences (lesson drawing), experiences of others (diffusion), new information, or technological developments and apply

it to their subsequent choices of policy goals or techniques" (as cited in Murrall-Smith, 2012,p.1). Elsewhere, Bennett and Howlett (1992) offered the following three questions to guide the learning process (as cited in Murrall-Smith, 2012, p 30):

1. Who is learning (elites, high-level politicians, civil servants, policy networks, communities, society, or government)?

2. What are they learning (instruments, policies, programmes, or policy goals)?

3. What are the effects of learning on policy change (organisational change, instrument change, paradigm shift, perceptions of policy problems, and the preferred sorts of policies)?

In addition, Raffe and Semple (2011, n.d) suggested six principles to follow that distinguish policy learning from other terms or approaches:

1. Use international experience to enrich policy analysis, and do not shortcut it.

2. Look for *good* practices, not best practices.

3. Do not study only 'successful' systems.

4. Learn from international experience to better understand your own system.

5. Learn from history.

6. Devise appropriate structures of governance.

According to Murrall-Smith (2012), policy learning has emerged as a concept in the last few years and gained the attention of scholars because of its relationship with policy change. Policy learning focuses on analysing the role(s) of actors and institutions in specific contexts (Wulandari, 2020). Wulandri, a

researcher focusing on the relationship between policy learning and policy change, considers this relationship to be a research gap that must be filled. According to him, to understand how specific modes of learning work, a theoretical approach must be developed here. He also argues that reform-oriented policy learning takes into account policy change. Furthermore, the benefits of policy learning extend beyond the scope of policy change or development. According to Chakroun (2010): "successful policy learning facilitates the involvement of new stakeholders, promotes more collaborative decision making and introduces new tools to support evidence-based policies" (p. 205).

Comparing policy learning and policy transfer requires determining who is leading the process (i.e. a government, non-profit organisation, or individual) and what their intended outcomes are. In policy transfer, an authoritative entity, such as a government, leads the process, whether by force or volition, with the intention of changing an existing policy by studying successful policy examples and transferring them.

Policy learning can be led by individuals, research centres, organisations, or governments. It can have different intended outcomes for participants such as suggesting new policies, enhancing an existing policy, or gaining a better understanding of the given system (Raffe and Semple, 2011). In policy learning, both successful and failed policies can be studied (Raffe and Semple, 2011). Policy learning outcomes range from reflecting, providing feedback, building capacity, and exchanging knowledge. It may take considerable time for a country to review another country's policies. Moreover, the policy learning process may not lead to policy change, but it gives participants in the learning journey an opportunity to broaden their understanding and perspective (Wulandari, 2020). Many international organisations, such as the European Training Foundation, advocate for policy learning rather than policy borrowing or policy transfer (Chakroun, 2010).

Table 4-1 The Difference Between Policy Transfer and Learning from the Perspective of the Researcher

Policy	Who is leading the process?	What are their intended outcomes?
Policy Transfer	Government	Changing the policy
Policy Learning	Any entity or individual who want to learn	Learning (capacity)

4.2.3 Models

Two prominent policy transfer models have been identified in the literature. The first is the Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) model, and the second is the Phillips and Ochs (2003) model. While these models do not distinguish between policy learning and policy transfer, it is essential to review them to understand the process of transferring the US community college model to Saudi Arabia.

The Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) model was developed as a framework to analyse the policy transfer process. Its goal is to support researchers in examining the process and to support researchers and practitioners in evaluating the 'value-added' aspect of the concept (Dolowitz, 2003). The model is organised around the following seven questions (see Figure 4-2): Why do actors engage in policy transfer? Who are the key actors involved in the policy transfer process? What is being transferred? From where are the lessons being drawn? What are the different degrees of transfer? What restricts or facilitates the policy transfer process? How is the process of policy transfer related to policy success or policy failure?

Figure 4-2 Dolowitz and Marsh Model (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000, p. 9)

TABLE 1: A POLICY TRANSFER FRAMEWORK (Dolowitz & Marsh, 2000)												
Why transfer? Want to…..........Have to			**Who is involved in transfer?**	**What is transferred?**	**From where?**			**Degrees of transfer**	**Constraints on transfer**	**How to demonstrate policy transfer**	**How transfer leads to policy failure**
Voluntary	**Mixtures**	**Coercive**			**Past**	**Within a nation**	**Cross national**				
Lesson drawing (perfect rationality)	Lesson drawing (bounded rationality) International pressures o Image o Consensus o Perceptions o Externalities	Direct imposition Conditionality o Loans o Business activities o Obligations	Elected officials Bureaucrats Civil servants Pressure groups Political parties Policy entrepreneurs Experts Consultants Think Tanks Transnational corporations Supranational institutions	Policies o Goals o Content o Instruments Programs Institutions Ideologies Attitudes Cultural values Negative lessons	Internal Global	State governments City governments Local authorities	International organizations Regional State Local governments	Copying Emulation Mixtures Inspiration	Policy complexity Past policies Structural institutional feasibility o Ideology o Cultural proximity o Technology o Economic o Bureaucratic o Language	Media Reports o Commissioned o Uncommissioned Conferences Meetings Visits Statements	Uniformed transfer Incomplete transfer Inappropriate transfer

According to Dolowitz and Marsh (2000), the first step in the process of policy analysis is to understand the motivations of the different actors involved in the policy transfer process. Through their work, Dolowitz and Marsh understood that policy actors are usually involved in the policy transfer process, either voluntarily or coercively. These policy actors are divided into the following nine categories: elected officials; political parties; bureaucrats or civil servants; pressure groups; policy entrepreneurs and experts; transnational corporations; think tanks; supra-national governmental institutions and consultants; and non-governmental institutions and consultants. Regarding what policymakers can transfer, Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) put forward eight categories: policy goals; policy content; policy instruments; policy programmes; institutions; ideologies; ideas, and attitudes; and negative lessons.

The next question to be addressed in the framework is where policies can be transferred from. Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) noted that the logical starting point for choosing where policymakers can borrow from is the past policies of their own country or organisation. By looking to the past, policymakers can understand what worked and what did not work, so they can avoid repeating mistakes. In addition, Dolowitz and Marsh added that policy transfer can occur at three levels of governance: international, national, and local. The Dolowitz and Marsh model also emphasises the four degrees of policy transfer as follows (Dolowitz and Marsh (2000, p. 13):

1. **Copying**, which involves the direct and complete transfer of a policy where policymakers adopt policies without making any changes thereto.

2. **Emulation**, which involves the transfer of the ideas behind the policy or programme where policymakers decide to reject the reproduction (copying) of every detail of a policy.

3. **Combination**, which involves a mixture of several policies.

4. **Inspiration**, whereby policymakers are inspired to change existing policies based on other policies.

Dolowitz and Marsh's approach to policy transfer is used here to explain the causes and effects of the policy transfer process, which also helps to explain particular policy outcomes.

The other leading policy transfer model is the Phillips and Ochs (2003) model (see Figure 4-3). Its aim is to assist in analysing the process of borrowing in the context of educational policy. According to Phillips and Ochs (2003), "'policy borrowing' is the 'conscious adoption of one context of policy observed in another" (Phillips, 2005, p.24). They argued that influence is not borrowing, and view borrowing as a process that happens in four stages (Phillips and Ochs, 2003, p.451): cross-national attraction (impulses and externalising potential); decision; implementation; and internalisation/indigenisation.

The first stage in the Phillips and Ochs model, namely cross-national attraction, is divided into two parts. The first of these is impulses, wherein the researcher builds an understanding of the preconditions for borrowing and the motives of those involved in the process. Some of the many reasons for engaging in the policy borrowing process can range from internal dissatisfaction (i.e. among parents, teachers, students, and/or inspectors), systemic collapse (i.e. the inadequacy of some aspects of provided education), external evaluation, economic change or competition, political change and other imperatives, and advances in knowledge and skills (Phillips and Ochs, 2004, p.778).

The other part of cross-national attraction is externalising potential, where the aspects of the potential policy to be borrowed are identified, including the guiding philosophy or ideology, ambitions or goals, strategies, enabling structures, processes, and techniques (Phillips and Ochs, 2004, p.779). Phillips and Ochs explained that borrowing can occur courtesy of: serious scientific or academic investigation of the situation in a foreign environment; popular conceptions of the superiority of other approaches to an educational question; politically motivated endeavours; and distortion (exaggeration), deliberate or not, of evidence from abroad to highlight perceived deficiencies at home (Phillips and Ochs, 2003, p.453).

The second stage in the Phillips and Ochs (2004) model is the decision-making process. Their model views decisions regarding policy borrowing as coming in one of four types: theoretical, realistic and/or practical, quick fix, and phoney (Phillips and Ochs, 2004, p.780). Theoretical decisions occur when a government decides to adopt a broad policy such as 'choice and diversity' (Phillips and Ochs, 2004, p.780). However, borrowing may carry general ambitions and not lead to direct or effective implementation. Furthermore, a dangerous form of decision the 'quick fix' (Phillips and Ochs, 2004, p.780), which politicians tend to resort to in times of immediate political necessity. Meanwhile, phoney decisions are defined as decisions made by politicians only for immediate political benefit (Phillips and Ochs, 2004, p.780).

The third stage in the Phillips and Ochs (2004) model is implementation, which depends on the contextual conditions of the country where the given policy is being introduced. The researchers here emphasised the importance of the speed of change, which can be determined by the significant actors, who have the power to support or resist change, particularly in decentralised systems (Phillips and Ochs, 2004).

The fourth stage in the Phillips and Ochs (2004) model is internalisation or indigenisation, wherein policies become part of the education system of the borrowing country and the effects on pre-existing structures become visible (Phillips and Ochs, 2004, p.780). This stage encompasses the following phases:

impact on the existing modus operandi; absorption of external features; synthesis; and evaluation (Phillips and Ochs, 2004, p.780).

One of the main challenges that Phillips and Ochs (2004) noted is the context into which a policy is transferred, where they identified five key factors(Phillips and Ochs, 2003, p.457): contextual forces that affect the motives behind cross-national attraction; contextual forces that act as a catalyst for cross-national inquiry; contextual interaction that affects the policy development stage; contextual interaction that affects the policy development process; and contextual interaction that affects the potential for policy implementation. They also underlined the importance of examining these factors in both the original and target countries.

Figure 4-3 Phillips and Ochs (2004, p. 779)

Stage I
Cross-National Attraction

Impulses
-Internal Dissatisfaction
-Systemic Collapse
-Negative External Evaluation
-Economic Change/Competition
-Political and Other Imperatives
-Novel Configurations
-Knowledge/Skills Innovation
-Political Change

Externalizing Potential
-Guiding Philosophy
-Ambitions/Goals
-Strategies
-Enabling Structures
-Processes
-Techniques

FOUR STAGES OF POLICY BORROWING IN EDUCATION

Stage IV
Internalization/
Indigenization

-Impact on Existing System/Modus Operandi
-Absorption of External Features
-Synthesis
-Evaluation

-Theoretical
-Realistic/Practical
-'Quick Fix'
-'Phoney'

Stage II
Decision

-Adaptation
-Suitability of Context
-Speed of Change
-Significant Actors

Support
National/Local

Resistance
'Non-Decision'
Rejection

Stage III
Implementation

4.2.4 Timing and Success of Policy Borrowing

Policy transfer is now considered the norm, not the exception. Amid globalisation and open markets, continuous efforts are made to look for the best policies to adopt and import. According to Steiner-Khamsi (2014), understanding

the policy lifecycle can help policymakers to predict the success of prospective policies.

The lifespan of a policy is explained in the epidemiological model of global dissemination, which is widely used in innovation studies and social network analyses (see Watts, 2003, p.172). This model comprises three phases (see Figure 4-4). The first phase starts when a few adopters make explicit references to lessons learned from the education systems that they seek to emulate (Steiner-Khamsi, 2014). The second phase is that of explosive growth, in which the adopted policy becomes more widespread. As this phase reaches its end, policymakers tend to refer to the policy as an international standard, which puts pressure on those reluctant to adopt and instils in them a fear of being left behind or labelled as backward if they do not adopt the policy. Most late adopters only do so to show their geopolitical affiliations (Steiner-Khamsi, 2014). The last phase in the epidemiological model is burnout.

Figure 4-4 The Temporal Dimension (Life of a Policy)
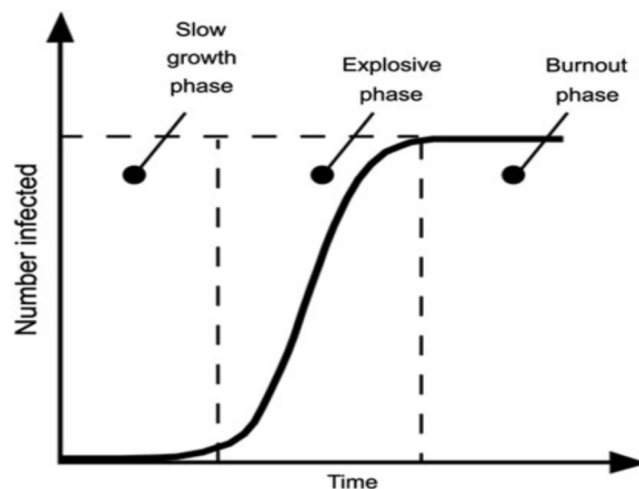
Source: Watts (2003, p. 172)

Deciding on the best time for a policy change is a critical element in the policy transfer process. According to Kingdon (1995), who coined the term 'policy window,' there are three conditions for policy change: "the problem stream (recognition of a problem), the policy stream (availability of solutions), and the political stream (new developments in the political realm such as, for example, recent change in government)" (as cited in Steiner-Khamsi, 2014, p.156).

Steiner-Khamsi (2014) added that, for developing countries, there is an additional stream, namely the economic stream.

One important aspect of analysing the policy transfer process is examining the outcome and determining whether it has been a success or failure, and why. According to Dolowitz and Marsh (2000), future research must address the issue of defining what 'success' or 'failure' really mean in the context of policy transfer.

There is often an assumption among policymakers that if specific policies are thriving in one country, they will be successfully transferred into another. However, this is not always the case in reality. According to Dolowitz and Marsh (2000), three types of transfer are destined for policy failure: uninformed transfer; incomplete transfer; and inappropriate transfer. Uninformed transfer occurs when "the borrowing country has insufficient information about the policy/institution and how it operates in the country from which it is transferred." Meanwhile, incomplete transfer happens "when transfer has occurred, but crucial elements of what made the policy or institutional structure successful in the originating country may not be transferred." Finally, inappropriate transfer emerges when "insufficient attention may be paid to the differences between the economic, social, political and ideological contexts in the transferring and the borrowing country" (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000, p.17).

4.2.5 Critical Challenges

Currently, policy transfer in education is central to the debate on educational development, and this will continue to be the case due to rapid growth in technology and the emerging neoliberal agenda. The speedy development of technology has accelerated policy borrowing and transfer processes between countries. Many countries today face similar problems across different sectors, and it is common for them to search for solutions from each other (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000, Cairney, 2011, Barabasch et al., 2021). Pertinently, technological advances, particularly in communication, make this process easier today.

Moreover, the international influence of the neoliberal agenda has seen promotion of the use of policy borrowing and policy transfer. Generally,

neoliberal policies aim to change a country's economic, social, and political systems (Saunders, 2010, p.219). According to Steger and Roy (2010): "the best way to conceptualise neoliberalism is to think of it as three intertwined manifestations: (1) an ideology; (2) a mode of governance; [and] (3) a policy package" (Steger and Roy, 2010, p.11). For these scholars, neoliberalism can also be considered a mode of governance where a specific role is assigned to the government to maximise the market by promoting "entrepreneurial values, such as competitiveness, self-interest, and decentralisation" (Steger and Roy, 2010, p.12). Neoliberalism can also be seen as a policy package promoting the 'DLP formula', which refers to the "(1) deregulation (of the economy); (2) liberalisation (of trade and industry); and (3) privatisation (of state-owned enterprises)" (Steger and Roy, 2010, p.14), all of which is pursued to maximise profit.

Under neoliberalism, the focus on the economic aspects of development puts countries in direct competition with one another rather than making them cooperative (Jafar, 2021). Led by international organisations, such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), many countries have been forced, either directly or indirectly, to adopt neoliberal agendas. For example, both the World Bank and the IMF give loans to countries on the condition that they implement specific economic policies (Anwaruddin, 2014). This pushes some countries to adopt policies because "international organizations represent their exports as investments rationalised as "best practices" and "international standards" promoting compliance and harmonization" (Jafar, 2021, p.35). With that in mind, many countries will continue to use policy borrowing and policy transfer as tools to accelerate their development.

The neoliberal agenda has intensified borrowing practices and influenced higher education systems. For example, establishing a standardised test movement, implementing accreditation bodies, and creating national qualification frameworks (Chakroun, 2010) have all significantly motivated the increase in policy borrowing practices (Jafar, 2021). With governments and institutions keen to build a thriving education system that can compete globally, policy borrowing practices have accelerated and spread. Although borrowing policy used to be practiced largely by developing countries to upgrade their education systems,

this trend has since changed (Dimmock and Walker, 2000). For example, according to Forestiera et al. (2016): "The strong performance of East Asian education systems in international tests has attracted increasing interest from policymakers in Western education systems to reference or borrow features believed to explain their success" (p. 149).

Since 2003, the Saudi Ministry of Education has pushed for standardised tests in public education. Accordingly, Saudi schools participated in the Trends of the International Mathematics and Science Studies Test for the first time. In the following years, Saudi schools also participated in the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement, the Programme for International Student Assessment, and the Teaching and Learning International Survey (Ministry of Education, 2019). The results of Saudi students in these international tests were significantly lower than those of other Arabic countries. These poor results heightened the clamour for policy borrowing and transfer. For example, some schools in Saudi Arabia (private and international) were allowed to borrow school curricula from the West (Mirghani, 2020), and Saudi teachers were permitted to study and work abroad for one year to increase their professional development. The Ministry of Education aims to send at least 25,000 teachers abroad for training by 2030 (Gong et al., 2022). According to Mirghani (2020), Saudi Vision 2030's focus on developing human capital is crucial if it is to achieve its economic goals of growth and diversification, along with increased employment. This will necessitate the continued development of the education system, while the need for different government organisations to succeed means "borrowing educational models from the West will continue" (Mirghani, 2020, p. 67).

In 2017, the issue of accreditation hit the agenda in higher education in Saudi Arabia with the establishment of the Education and Training Evaluation Commission. The aim of this commission is to increase the quality of education and training systems in the country. This commission has a department called the 'International Accreditation System,' which supports Saudi universities in obtaining international accreditation from prestigious bodies (Education and Training Evaluation Commission website). The trend of gaining international accreditation will continue to grow as higher education systems under Saudi

Vision 2030 are encouraged to reach the highest global standards and meet national education goals. Despite increasing calls from those engaged in the field of education to focus more on policy learning as a strategy (Chakroun, 2010), the pressure to meet these goals will cause policy transfer retain prominence (Barabasch et al., 2021). However, meeting international standards through accreditation alone may not fully address the needs of Saudi Arabia's human capital development, as envisioned by the capability approach.

4.3 Part Two: Capability Approach

In the previous section and earlier chapters, the analysis has focused on the theoretical literature that underpins the US community college model and its adoption in other contexts. One significant finding therein was that the challenges associated with this model are not unique to the countries that have adopted the US community college model. Even in the US, the model faces difficulties in maintaining its original objectives due to the influence of neoliberalism. Indeed, in times of globalisation, the influence and control of neoliberalism on education policies is apparent. Moreover, the rise of neoliberal ideology has presented a profound challenge to community colleges by limiting their focus to serving the market, which has motivated scholars and philosophers to challenge this approach.

The capability approach is a framework used to evaluate human wellbeing, serving as a counterpoint to the focus on economic growth in neoliberalism. Originally developed by Amartya Sen and Martha Nussbaum, the capability approach presents fundamental ideas that underpin the primary objective of community colleges to serve their communities. Adopting a community college model in line with the capability approach would entail the community colleges comprehensively serving their communities. This part examines the theoretical literature on the capability approach to utilising the approach to develop a new community college model.

This section is divided into four parts. The first part explores key concepts related to how higher education functions in a globalised world, under the pressures of neoliberalism and neo-colonialisation. These concepts will be

examined to understand how global forces can influence access to higher education and its purpose. The second part defines the capability approach, a framework for evaluating human wellbeing that focuses on individuals' ability to function and achieve their goals. The third part offers a critical analysis of the capability approach, exploring its strengths and limitations. The fourth part compares and contrasts the capability approach with human capital theory, revealing key differences in their perspectives on the role of education in human development.

4.3.1 Globalisation, Neoliberalism, and Neo-colonisation: The Purpose of Higher Education

What is higher education and what is its role in life and society? Is the aim of higher education to help individuals to find jobs or to help them reach their full potential? How do educators determine or even predict what to teach new generations? Furthermore, how should they be taught?

Educators continually grapple with fundamental questions like these, particularly today where globalisation and neoliberalism dominate. A struggle between socialism and capitalism is once again being played out, whether through weapons or the accumulation of wealth. Thus, no education system in any country is immune to these influences.

For many decades, Saudi Arabia's education system had resisted the spread of neoliberalism. However, recent reforms in its education system can be linked to the neoliberal agenda, especially its privatisation policy.

In 2016, Saudi Arabia announced a privatisation programme aiming to privatise three of the country's most important sectors, one of which was education. Researchers like Pavan (2016) have asked how Saudi Arabia could develop its higher education system to keep up with globalisation while still respecting its traditions, culture, and beliefs. Furthermore, what exactly are globalisation and neoliberalism? Is globalisation a result of neoliberalism? Are they similar? To fully understand the relationship between these concepts, I will explain them in relation to my thesis, and specifically how they affect community colleges.

'Globalisation' refers to "the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa" (Giddens, 1990, p.1). It is a process of establishing a global system where countries have the same economic, political, and social structures (Gonzalez, 2016). In the era of globalisation, if a country desires to develop, it should follow the same path as other developed countries, as they all operate within the same system. Meanwhile, the rapid growth of technology has played a massive role in accelerating social connections, thus strengthening globalisation (Wikan, 2015).

It is understandable why researchers like Wikan (2015) and Gonzalez (2016) have argued that globalisation is not a new phenomenon. After all, it has existed in some form since the ages of conquest started thousands of years ago. According to Gonzalez (2016), historically, conquests have always started with one aim, namely "developing a new world order, at least in terms of the world as it was then known" (p. 8). In addition, she noted: "The army of conquest, as it were, has a uniform of sorts. The uniform has become the suit and ties for the economic phalanx, while it is t-shirts and blue jeans for the technological phalanx" (p. 8). If globalisation is the process of unifying the world under one system, then who or what leads this process and what is their vision? The answer to the latter question today appears to be neoliberalism.

'Neoliberalism' is a complex concept and is thus difficult to define. In the context of this study, it refers to a package of policies aiming to transfer a country's political, economic, and social systems. Its overriding purpose is to establish a free market (Braedley and Luxton, 2010). In accordance with neoliberalism, the market is without regulation, and individuals are considered 'rational' decision-makers (Eagleton-Pierce, 2016). Moreover, neoliberalism "supports the utilization of entrepreneurial practices in a free-market environment" (Braedley and Luxton, 2010, p.3). Thus, the role of government is limited to deregulating the market as much as possible, opening the borders to international trade, creating new markets (one-way privatisation), and investing in military defence (Cottier, 2022). All of this is done to attain economic growth (Bockman, 2013).

The notion of the free market being the only way through which to obtain economic growth has changed how societies evaluate the value of individuals and organisations (Braedley and Luxton, 2010, ElKhayat, 2018). Now, such an evaluation starts and ends by determining the degree to which an individual or organisation contributes to the economic growth of the community or nation (ElKhayat, 2018).

Neoliberalism has become stronger internationally over the course of several decades. In the late 1980s, UK Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher and US President Ronald Reagan agreed to packages of new policies at the national level to develop their economies by freeing financial organisations from regulation and pushing privatisation in vital sectors. They went further by influencing international organisations – including the World Bank and the IMF – to follow similar steps. The political power that pushed the neoliberal agenda globally became so powerful that neoliberalism came to be considered a natural solution by most policymakers. Indeed, as Braedley and Luxton (2010) pointed out: "The debate is about how to get the market working better, not about what should replace the market" (p. 22).

The way in which international organisations apply their power to require less-developed countries to adopt neoliberal policies is clear. Anwaruddin (2014) argued that neoliberal policies implemented in education reform in developing countries (through the World Bank) should be considered a sort of neo-colonialism. He pointed out that the "World Bank uses the power of its money and knowledge to establish a neo-colonial relationship with the loan-recipient countries" (p. 167). Neo-colonialism is a concept coined in 1958 by Ghana's then foreign minister, Alex Quaison-Sackey (Uzoigwe, 2019), who defined it as "the practice of granting a sort of independence with the concealed intention of making the liberated country a client-state and controlling it effectively by means other than political ones" (p. 62).

Kwame Nkrumah criticised neo-colonialism, saying it was comparable to the colonisations of previous centuries. In the latter cases, the power that colonisers exercised came with some responsibility. For instance, they needed to explain and justify any action to their home government, which made them accountable

to some extent, whereas under neo-colonialism, such responsibility is lacking (Uzoigwe, 2019). Thus, according to Nkrumah, neo-colonialism is the worst form of imperialism.

However, limiting the scope of neo-colonialism to former colonies of European countries would fall short of realising the rise of neoliberalism as a dominant global ideology. According to Ghosh (2020): "Neoliberalism has created a revamped form of neo-colonialism." Furthermore, regarding the relationship between globalisation and neo-colonialism, the former has been seen as "substituting for colonialism" (Slobodian, 2018, p.1).

The free market triggers competition between individuals, organisations, and countries. Thus, the structure and behaviours of organisations in most sectors, including education, have been affected by the spread of neoliberalism.

Education is viewed by proponents of neoliberalism as an engine for economic growth. Accordingly, educational institutions are considered the main suppliers of skilled workers who can contribute to a nation's economic development. Under neoliberal theory, 'human capital' refers to the knowledge, skills, and abilities of an individual that affect the economic growth of their life and the society to which they belong (Osiobe, 2019).

To accelerate growth in the economy, education must therefore be developed. Moreover, there is a correlation between education and economic growth (Schultz, 1961). Thus, schools and especially higher education institutions are the main actors under what is known as the 'knowledge industry' (ElKhayat, 2018).

Evaluating the success of higher education institutions is usually limited to calculating how much these institutions contribute to economic growth (ElKhayat, 2018). This has led to a new culture and practices in higher education, revolving around the likes of standardisation, assessment, rankings, and quality assurance (Rasco, 2020, Hursh and Wall, 2011). Higher education institutions have come to be "conceived as an enterprise, with knowledge as a commodity to be invested in, and bought and sold, and academics are viewed as

entrepreneurs, who have been evaluated on the basis of the income they generate" (Hursh and Wall, 2011, p.563). Thus, the relationship between teachers and students has also changed, with students becoming customers who buy their education and then evaluate how fast their education helps them to enter the labour market successfully. According to Hursh and Wall (2011), students are considered "economic engines whose knowledge will fuel an economy, and whose tuition becomes essential for institutional economic vitality" (p. 567). Thus, education is no longer viewed as a public good (Anwaruddin, 2014).

The ill effects of neoliberal policies can be seen in every aspect of modern life and especially in the rise of inequality, poverty, and war worldwide. According to Almaraee (2016) the 'free market' that emphasises profit without regulation has created an environment of unethical behaviours and inequality to maximise profit (p. xx). Even if a country desires to implement laws to limit unethical behaviours, this will be difficult, since the market includes multinational and overseas companies (Almaraee, 2016).

In short, the neoliberal agenda is the most significant threat to the development of education systems around the world. Whether educators admit it or not, most educational policy changes support the open market and the development of neoliberalism rather than social justice or democracy. Moreover, neoliberalism measures equality depending on resources and contributions such as income or utility, which could never be true equality. This point was one of the motivating factors for Sen (1993, 1997, 1999b) to found the capability approach, an alternative way of understanding development.

4.3.2 Defining the Capability Approach

The capability approach places humans at the centre of development, highlighting the importance of individual freedoms and opportunities for people to lead fulfilling lives. For Sen, human development is a process giving fundamental freedoms that people value (Alkire, 2007). Moreover, the capability approach centres on the abilities of individuals to choose and act freely. As

Nussbaum (2009) explained, the capability approach aims to answer the question "What are people actually able to do and to be?" (p. 212).

Individual wellbeing is at the heart of the capability approach (Robeyns and Byskov, 2021). According to Alkire (2007), wellbeing has two components: valuable beings and doings (functioning), and freedom. For Sen, 'functioning' means "the various things a person may value doing or being" (Sen, 1999a, p.75), such as being nourished and confident. Sen distinguished between function and goods (Kaushik and Luis, 2011), which play an essential role in enabling a person to be and do. However, having goods does not necessarily mean being able to function. For example, owning a bicycle does not mean that one can ride it (Kaushik and Luis, 2011). In this example, riding is the function; although the bicycle's existence as a good is vital to achieving this function, it is distinct from it (Kaushik and Luis, 2011). Thus, the ability to convert resources into achievements is a vital element of the capability approach (Campbell and McKendrick, 2017).

'Capability' means the real freedom to perform functions, and thus understanding capability allows an individual to determine their wellbeing (Kaushik and Luis, 2011). According to Alkire (2007), the problem with treating function as the main goal is similar to the issue of measuring wellbeing through utility: it is incomplete. Thus, she mentioned that capability should be understood as "the real opportunity that [people] have to accomplish what [they] value" (Sen, 1999b, p.31) and that capability is limited to functions that individuals value.

However, individuals being able to realise their full potential in a way that values their own needs and wellbeing requires a willingness of actors to fulfil this potential. According to Sen, agents are an essential element in the capability approach, and people are active agents who have the ability to realise their function (Campbell and McKendrick, 2017).

Scholars from different fields have used the capability approach to achieve various goals. For example, it has been used to assess wellbeing, evaluate social arrangements, and design policies and proposals related to social change

(Robeyns and Byskov, 2021). As Robeyns (2003) stated, capability is more of a paradigm than a well-defined theory, although not all scholars agree. According to Robeyns (2003), the capability approach operates on the following three levels: "(1) as a framework of thought for the evaluation of individual advantage and social arrangements, (2) as a critique of other approaches to the evaluation of well-being and justice, and (3) as a formula or algorithm for making interpersonal comparisons of welfare or well-being" (p. 8).

According to the capability approach, education plays a crucial role in developing and expanding one's capabilities. As Walker (2003) stated: "Education is in itself a basic capability that affects the development and expansion of other capabilities" (p. 108). Taking this view, education is central to other capabilities.

Despite being introduced by Sen in the late 1980s, the capability approach remains underrepresented in higher education policy across many systems, regardless of the importance this approach attaches to education. As noted by Hart (2012), there is still a lack of in-depth understanding about how the capability approach can be integrated into education; indeed, a gap exists in the literature regarding a suitable framework to develop policy in higher education using the capability approach. This leaves open an opportunity for scholars to contribute by providing practical ways of integrating this approach into policymaking and development, building upon the foundations already laid

4.3.3 Criticism of the Capability Approach

The capability approach has faced the criticism that its potential for widespread adoption is limited. Some have alleged that the capability approach does not offer a specific list of capabilities, which makes it impractical (Cabalin, 2012). Sen chose not to create a specific list of capabilities; instead, he preferred to rely on public dialogue to create a list of capabilities organically that would be appropriate for each given community (Boni and Walker (2013). In Sen's view, diversity is a fundamental concept in the capability approach. He argued that: "Human diversity is no secondary complication to be ignored or introduced later on; it is a fundamental aspect of our interest in equality" (Sen, 1992, p. xi).

Nussbaum, a co-founder of the capability approach, did create a list of capabilities to develop a basic theory of social justice, as mentioned in the introduction chapter. Her list, which was based on universal human rights theory, is as follows (Savage, 2021):

- Being able to live a human life of normal length;

- Being able to have good health, adequate nutrition, adequate shelter, opportunities for sexual satisfaction and choice in reproduction, and mobility;

- Being able to avoid unnecessary and non-beneficial pain and to have pleasurable experiences;

- Being able to use all senses, imagine, think, and reason, and to have the educational opportunities necessary to realise these capacities;

- Being able to have attachments to things and persons outside oneself;

- Being able to form a conception of good and to engage in critical reflection on the planning of one's life;

- Being able to live for others and to recognise and show concern for other human beings;

- Being able to live with concern for and in harmony with animals and nature;

- Being able to laugh, play, and enjoy recreational activities; and

- Being able to live one's own life and to enjoy freedom of association and freedom from unwarranted search and seizure.

Some scholars have developed lists of capabilities in the higher education field. For example, Nussbaum (1997) specified three core capabilities that higher education institutions in the US should develop, namely critical self-

examination, the ideal of the world citizen, and the development of narrative imagination. In contrast, Walker (2010) drafted a list of the following eight multi-dimensional capabilities: "practical reason; educational resilience; knowledge and imagination; learning disposition; social relations and social networks; respect, dignity and recognition; emotional integrity, emotions; and bodily integrity" (Walker, 2010, p 910).

However, further work is necessary to develop a higher education system based on the capability approach. Sen suggested that by not building a single list of capabilities, communities could engage in a straightforward process of selecting the capabilities most relevant to them.

Sen also proposed enhancing social dialogue, which would help to ensure that each community has agency in the development of their own capabilities. Moreover, to improve the capability of a community, it is necessary to promote democratic practices within it.

Another criticism of the capability approach relates to the ability to choose. Both the capability approach and neoliberalism promote choice. However, as Walker outlines: "The crucial difference is that the capability approach is ethically individualistic; neoliberalism, by contrast, is ontologically individualist" (Walker, 2005, p 106). This statement clarifies that the capability approach prioritises the importance of individual abilities in achieving a fulfilling life, while neoliberalism views individuals as separate from each other and self-sufficient. In essence, the capability approach emphasises individual capacity, and neoliberalism focuses on individual self-reliance.

Although the capability approach and neoliberalism appear to be opposites, they both have their roots in liberalism. However, ElKhaya (2018) suggested that this point does not definitively disprove the value of the capability approach. In the age of globalisation, it is difficult for any school of thought to emerge of its own accord. In addition, Nussbaum highlighted that Sen was from the East which may have influenced his view (ElKhaya, 2018).

A further criticism of the capability approach regards the measurement of capabilities. According to ElKhaya (2018), although people generally have full access to different capabilities, other factors can significantly hinder their capabilities. For example, some people choose not to use their capabilities or opt to hinder others from developing theirs (ElKhaya, 2018).

4.3.4 Core Differences Between the Capability Approach and Human Capital Theory

The main difference between the capability approach and human capital theory is in their definition of wellbeing. Under human capital theory, the level of income generated and the amount of resources possessed are crucial factors that define the wellbeing of an individual or country (Walker, 2005). Here, individuals are viewed as 'producers' of human capital, and all human behaviour can be interpreted and measured from an economic viewpoint (Chiappero-Martinetti and Sabadash, 2014, p.207). In this theory, the main economic activity is consumption (Chiappero-Martinetti and Sabadash, 2014). Thus, market dynamics play a significant role in the lives of both individuals and communities.

According to Chiappero-Martinetti and Sabadash (2014), human capital theory makes two fundamental assumptions. First, the market works rationally, and, second, the main criterion that can be used to distinguish people is their human capital. Moreover, 'human capital investment' refers to the amount of education and training that an individual has received. Thus, education under this theory is considered an instrument for economic development.

In contrast, the capability approach defines wellbeing in terms of a person's ability to achieve or make valuable life choices (Walker, 2005). The main objective of the capability approach is to guarantee the freedom and capability of individuals. According to Robeyns and Byskov (2021), the capability approach makes two fundamental assumptions. First, of the greatest importance to individuals is the freedom to achieve wellbeing as defined by each individual, and, second, the only way to understand wellbeing is through the capabilities and functions of individuals. Thus, understanding human diversity is one of the main factors that distinguishes the capability approach from other approaches and theories (Robeyns and Byskov, 2021).

Meanwhile, education plays a fundamental role in developing all capabilities; thus, it is considered to have intrinsic value to individuals. However, the capability approach acknowledges that "not all individuals will participate or benefit from education in the same way, nor be able to convert the resources afforded by education to generate the same or similar advantages in life" (Hart, 2012). Hence, the education offered must be comprehensive enough to meet the diverse needs of every individual.

Table 4-2 Summaries of the Main Differences Between the Capability Approach and Human Capital Theory

Element	Human Capital Theory	Capability Approach
Aim of education	Has an instrumental role in improving the economy	Has intrinsic value and plays an instrumental role in improving economic and social life
Role of education in the lives of individuals	Helps individuals to improve the economy	Helps individuals to increase their freedom and improve society and the economy
Relationship with the labour market and society	Adaptive in accordance with labour market needs	Transformative
Relationship between human beings and the economy	Human beings are a means to achieve economic growth	Human beings are the beneficiarie of economic growth

Note: **Adapted from Bonvin (2019) and Sen, Robeyns (2006), and Walker's works.**

4.4 Viewing the Community College Model Through the Capability Approach

Applying the capability approach to the community college model poses a complex set of challenges. Three primary obstacles have arisen in this context. First, the capability approach is still in its early stages, particularly when it

comes to developing education systems, and there is a lack of literature linking the approach to community colleges. Second, the concept of community in the capability approach has received little attention in the literature, which has led to some criticism that the capability approach is focused more on the individual than the community (Tonon, 2018). However, as Robeyns (2005) mentioned, the capability approach can easily be identified in the context of social structures, as most individuals are part of groups, families, and communities.

Scholars such as Robeyns (2005), Stewart (2005), Evans (2002), Murphy (2014), Tonon (2018), and Ibrahim (2006) have linked the capability approach to communities through the concept of collective capability. Tonon (2018) emphasised that in building community capability, communities must understand members' beliefs about what the community represents to them, which requires a process of reflection through reasoning and communication. According to Biggeri et al. (2018), the community is central to individual capabilities: "the local community and its evolution are at the core of development processes affecting individual and collective capabilities, as well as individual and social empowerment evolution" (p.127). As the community college model emphasises the importance of the local community, community colleges ought to develop lists of community capabilities. Third, applying the capability approach to a specific community college model is challenging because these models are responsive to communities' needs and therefore change over time. As such, no single universal model can be developed; every country implements its own model according to its own needs. Thus, rather than solely prioritising transfer models, in this thesis I have focused on developing elements that are influenced by the capability approach, allowing policymakers to develop localised models to enhance the capabilities of communities.

The capability approach is essential to enabling higher education institutions to achieve their aims. Relatedly, Table 4-3 explains the role of higher education institutions in the capability approach in terms of their aim, public reasoning process, functions, capabilities, and agents.

Table 4-3 The Role of Higher Education Institutions According to the Capability Approach

Aim	Higher education institutions must aim to build their local community's capability by promoting democracy, sustainability, and social justice.
Public Reasoning Process	Higher education institutions must work closely with community stakeholders, and communication between all stakeholders should occur at all decision-making levels.
Function	Higher education institutions must promote education paths offering opportunities to individuals to develop the skills they value.
Capability	Higher education institutions must offer easy access to learn and choose between educational programmes.
Agents	Higher education institutions must promote self-learning and self-evaluation mechanisms to develop people as agents.

Source: Researcher's own analysis

For community colleges to embody the capability approach, they should aim to promote democracy, sustainability, and social justice within their communities. Moreover, community colleges should work to recognise different individual and community needs, preferences, and abilities, while also emphasising the importance of giving them the resources and opportunities they need to achieve their goals (capability). At the same time, community colleges should also work to comprehend the various aspirations of people and communities, including with regard to careers and meaningful relationships (function). In addition, community colleges should allow humans and communities to flourish, by enhancing individual freedoms and ensuring that individuals and groups are able to fully exercise their capabilities (agency).

The literature on community colleges reveals several key characteristics distinguishing them from other higher education institutions, which can be grouped into the following five elements: localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, transfer, and accreditation. These elements are crucial in building

community capabilities. Table 4-4 presents information on each of these elements.

Table 4-4 The Key Source Drawn from the Literature Review on Community College Under Each Element

Elements	Sub Element	Literature Review
Localisation	Location	(Fain, 2014), (O'Banion, 2019)
	Decision-making	(kingry, 1985) (Selman and Wilmoth, 1995) (Raby and Valeau, 2009), (Nevarez and Wood, 2010) , (Beach, 2011), (Cohen et al., 2013) (Raby and Valeau, 2017)
	Business partnerships	(kingry, 1985) (Selman and Wilmoth, 1995), (Dougherty and Bakia, 1999), (Beach, 2011), (Cohen et al., 2013) (Raby and Valeau, 2017)
	Career guidance	(Clowes and Levin, 1989), (Nevarez and Wood, 2010), (Cohen et al., 2013), (Roy, 2020)
Comprehensiveness	Open access	(Cohen, 1993), (Vaughan, 2006), (Raby and Valeau, 2009), (Nevarez and Wood, 2010), (Cohen et al., 2013)
	Pre university	(Bragg, 2001)
	Vocational education	(Clowes and Levin, 1989), (Bragg, 2001), (Raby and Valeau, 2009), (Beach, 2011), (Levin, 2017) (Raby and Valeau, 2017)
	Remedial programme	(Bragg, 2001), (Beach, 2011), (Bailey and Morest, 2004), (Cohen et al., 2014), (Raby and Valeau, 2017)
Flexibility		(Bailey and Morest, 2004), (Vaughan, 2006), (Beach, 2011)
Accreditation		(Brittingham, 2009), (Eaton, 2012),(Eaton, 2018), (Burnett, 2021)
Transfer		(Bragg, 2001), (Vaughan, 2006), (Cohen et al., 2013), (Taylor and Jain, 2017)

The first characteristic that distinguishes community colleges from other institutions is location. The literature (Fain, 2014; O'Bannon, 2019; Cohen et al., 2014) indicates that location plays an important role for community colleges. In particular, a community college is usually located in the centre of a community,

which maximises the benefits for all community members. Having easy physical access to a community college promotes awareness of its existence in the community, enabling the college, in turn, to play a more active role in the community. However, without clear processes for individuals to participate in making decisions, community college's engagement efforts can be hindered regardless of its central location. Accordingly, community college administrations should empower stakeholders to participate in decision-making processes through reviewing relevant literature and conducting studies. Cohen et al. (2014), Beach (2011), and Raby and Valeau (2009) have all highlighted the importance of all stakeholders participating in decisions.

Decision-making participation is an important aspect of empowering individuals and creating a sense of community. Such participation helps to teach individuals all about what constitutes a democratic society, including how to communicate their ideas and how to vote. It also teaches them the importance of their voices and how they can shape their future. Through such participation, individuals develop a sense of agency and feel empowered, and also assist individuals to choose a skill that they need to build capabilities that they value.

The literature has also emphasised the importance of business partnerships to ensure the success of community colleges. These partnerships go beyond designing and delivering an academic curriculum. They allow for a greater understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of a certain location in terms of resources. Community colleges need to strengthen the link between businesses and the local community in a way that benefits all. Relatedly, business partnerships create more opportunities and encourage more investment, which will lead to more choices being available. Dougherty and Bakia (1999), Selman and Wilmoth (1995), Kingry (1985), Cohen et al. (2013), Beach (2011), and Raby and Valeau (2017) have all offered suggestions as to how community colleges can develop partnerships with local businesses.

The capability approach also emphasises the importance of choice. Of course, one of the most crucial decisions one makes in life is what they want to do for a living. Navigating this choice requires individuals to understand themselves and their community. Thus, career guidance in community colleges plays an

important role in strengthening the link between individual and community, especially if services are offered to all community members, regardless of whether they are currently students or not. Meanwhile, career guidance helps individuals to "plan and make decisions about work and learning" (Roy, 2020, p.23). In short, career guidance helps individuals to understand that they have control over their future.

All of these characteristics, namely location, decision-making processes, business partnerships, and career guidance, can be combined under one element, which I refer to as localisation. The aim of this element is to bolster the connection between individuals and their resources. The relationship between localisation and capability is reflected by empowering individuals to make choices in their own environments and cultures in line with their values.

In this research, localisation refers to a set of policies, procedures, and practices that a community college must follow to ensure that its programmes align with the needs and interests of the local community. This entails understanding the unique cultural, social, and economic factors that shape the community, as well as developing programmes that promote its development. To engage actively with local communities, community colleges can create programmes that are relevant, effective, and responsive to the needs of the people they serve. All decisions here must follow what Sen called the "public reasoning process" (Walker, 2019, p.220), in which community colleges (1) maintain a direct access policy and (2) interact with different committees that are active in making decisions. Ultimately, this process leads to a stronger, more vibrant community with a more robust economy offering greater opportunities for all. Meanwhile, localisation emphasises the physical location of community colleges within their communities. Crucially, can all community members easily access the college? Are all local stakeholders involved in the decision-making process? Are local businesses involved in developing programmes? Are community colleges helping students to understand their community's unique resources and potential? All of these questions are important to address when promoting people as agents, allowing individuals to exercise their capabilities and make choices that align with their values and goals.

The second element is comprehensiveness. The literature on community colleges (Nevarez and Wood, 2010; Cohen et al., 2013; Vaughan, 2006; Cohen, 1993; Raby and Valeau, 2009) has indicated that an important characteristic distinguishing community colleges from other higher education institutions is an open-access policy. According to such a policy, community colleges open their doors to any individual in the community who wants to learn, which makes the programmes at community colleges more diverse and comprehensive. Comprehensiveness here refers to the ability of community colleges to meet the learning needs of the community through different sets of programmes. The literature, as outlined in Table 4-4, refers to three kinds of programmes that community colleges usually offer: pre-university programmes, vocational programmes, and remedial programmes. The latter refers to any kind of education programme that aims to increase literacy. Ultimately, offering comprehensive programmes ensures that individuals can building their capabilities, which is an important ingredient in the capability approach.

In this research, the comprehensiveness of a community college refers to its ability to develop and implement policies, procedures, and programmes that meet and support the current and future needs of the local community. This element is vital to the success of community colleges, as it ensures the colleges' relevance and effectiveness when it comes to meeting the requirements of their students and communities. One of the best ways of evaluating the comprehensiveness of a community college is to examine its admissions policy. Does the college provide equal opportunities to all members of the community? Does the college offer diverse educational, vocational, remedial, and pre-university programmes? All of these questions are pertinent under this element. An inclusive acceptance policy is essential to the comprehensive development of a college, as it ensures that everyone has an equal chance to access education and training programmes to further their careers or meet their learning goals.

The third element is flexibility. In the literature on community colleges (Bailey and Morest, 2004; Vaughan, 2006; Beach, 2011), flexibility is considered imperative to ensure that open-access policies are implemented. Specifically, flexibility refers to the ability to offer programmes with different study options or modes, such as evening or morning classes, distance learning, and part-time

programmes. Flexibility also pertains to offering programmes of different length, including short programmes (e.g. 1–6 months) and long programmes (1–2 years). Ultimately, flexibility ensures that different kinds of students have access to learning in a way that allows them to contribute to building their capabilities.

In this research, flexibility refers to offering educational options that empower students to balance their personal and professional responsibilities, while pursuing their education. Accordingly, community colleges provide a range of flexible educational programmes that cater to the diverse needs of students. The primary objective of flexibility is to make education accessible and inclusive for all, regardless of their other commitments or location. Community colleges achieve this objective by providing a variety of study options and modes, allowing students to choose a schedule that best suits their situation.

The fourth element is accreditation. This is already a significant element in Saudi Arabia, even though it is a relatively new concept there. In analysing the community college literature in Chapter 3, I did not explore the concept of accreditation in depth, as this is not a phenomenon linked exclusively to community colleges. Rather, accreditation is relevant to all higher education institutions. Accreditation refers to the process of assessing the quality of institutions and comprises self-evaluation and external evaluation. For the latter, the external body is usually a professional or academic reviewer who evaluates an institution against specific standards (Eaton, 2012). There are three levels of accreditation: international, national, and programmatic. Meanwhile, according to Brittingham (2009), the US accreditation system has the following three unique dimensions (p.10):

- A non-governmental, self-regulated, and peer-reviewed system.

- Nearly all work is performed by volunteers.

- Relies on the honesty of institutions to assess themselves against a set of standards, viewed in light of their mission, and to identify their strengths and concerns, using the accreditation process itself to bring about improvement.

The focus of the US accreditation system is on the future, and specifically quality improvement (Brittingham, 2009).

Accreditation can be important when it comes to accessing government funds, listings in college admissions guides, and being considered for foundation grants and employer tuition credits (Brittingham, 2009, p.18). Thus, higher education institutions tend to pursue accreditation seriously.

Moreover, accreditation plays an important role in empowering students' mobility and facilitating their transfer to other higher education institutions (Eaton, 2012). Of note, individuals studying at an accredited higher education institution have access to federal financial aid. In the US context, accreditation is the main factor that the federal government refers to when evaluating whether a community college receives financial aid or not. Relatedly, accreditation plays an important role in enhancing the educational credibility of community colleges while also bringing prestige and signalling high quality. According to Burnett (2021), accreditation can increase student enrolment at a community college. Furthermore, the benefits of engaging in the accreditation process also include enhancing professional development and increasing self-regulation skills (Brittingham, 2009, p.19).

Researchers have linked the growing importance of accreditation to neoliberalism. The first accreditation body was established in 1847 in the US, known as the American Medical Association (Eaton, 2012). Boyd (2011) argued that accreditation is founded on total quality management and continuous improvement models derived from a business point of view, which negatively affects educational institutions (p. 242). From this perspective, students at community colleges are seen as customers (Boyd, 2011). For Boyd (2011), accreditation is a tool for promoting the free market agenda (neoliberalism). However, one should not ignore the positive impact that accreditation on the community and students, as mentioned above. Overall, accreditation is considered an important element for community colleges.

In this research, accreditation refers to the evaluation of educational institutions by competent authorities to ensure that they meet specific

standards. Obtaining accreditation ensures that community colleges can deliver high-quality education to students.

The fifth and final element here is transfer. The literature on community colleges (Cohen et al., 2013; Vaughan, 2006; Bragg, 2001; Taylor and Jain, 2017) has highlighted that the main function of community colleges is preparing students to transfer to university. Indeed, the first community college was established for that very reason. Many studies have shown a correlation between education and economic growth. Thus, having the option to continue higher education is important for individuals and communities alike.

In this research, transfer refers to the ability of community colleges to send students on to other academic institutions or professional training institutions, allowing graduates to complete their university studies or secure a desirable job. This objective is generally achieved through various means, including the establishment of partnerships and agreements with other institutions. Community colleges thus enter into many agreements with universities and other academic institutions to ensure that the courses they offer meet the standards required for transfer. These agreements also allow students to receive transferrable credits for courses taken at community colleges to ease their transfer to university.

The distinctive nature of the community college model stems from the integration of these five constituent elements. Such integration is crucial as implementing any of these elements in isolation would likely compromise the model's purpose. A detailed examination of community colleges across the world, as presented in Chapter 3, shows this to be true in reality. Accordingly, all five elements should be adopted using Sen's public reasoning process (Walker, 2019), especially in countries not run by a democratic regime.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter has aimed to build a framework on the basis of which I could move on to analyse the problem at hand and interpret the research findings. In the process, two concepts have been considered especially relevant to the Saudi

community college model. The first such concept is policy transfer, since the community college model was transferred to Saudi Arabia from the US. The second concept is the capability approach, which was used as a lens through which to develop the model.

As globalisation and technological advances accelerate, the phenomenon of policy transfer is poised for further expansion, potentially driven by the spread of neoliberal agendas. Even nations like Saudi Arabia, which is actively pursuing strategic goals through initiatives such as Saudi Vision 2030, are not immune to the influence of neoliberalism. While instances of policy borrowing, as seen in recent Saudi education reforms, may offer rapid solutions, they often fail to address local contexts and aspirations adequately. To counter this, the capability approach emerges as a powerful alternative.

In addition, in this chapter I have explained the capability approach and the rationale behind developing a new community college model inspired by this approach. The historical development of this approach has been presented, followed by its main criticisms, along with the core differences between human capital theory (the leading theory under neoliberalism) and the capability approach. In the final part of the chapter, an alternative view of the community college model has been presented through the lens of the capability approach. Accordingly, localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, transfer, and accreditation have been outlined as functions that must be implemented if communities want to realise their capabilities to the fullest.

Chapter 5   Methodology

5.1 Introduction

The chosen methodology is a fundamental part of any research project. Accordingly, this chapter justifies my choice of research paradigm and strategy, data collection methods, and analysis procedure. The chapter is divided into four sections. The first presents the research focus, outlining in detail its scope and the main questions it aims to answer. The second section presents the rationale behind selecting pragmatism as the main research paradigm, while the third section covers the research design where its mixed-method approach is explained in depth, along with all of the methods employed. The final section then addresses the ethical considerations made in the course of the study.

5.2 Research focus

Generally, community colleges are higher education institutions that play an important role in local social and economic development. However, this is not necessarily true of community colleges in Saudi Arabia. Scholars like Hasseib (2011), Al-Mutawa (2011), Dawood (2013), Ruwaily (2013), Almannie (2015), Alahmadi and Aljabri (2015), Ewigleben (2016), and Alhataib and Alhabeb (2016) have all long been critical of the Saudi community college model in this regard. Some of their criticisms are summarised below and are discussed in greater detail in chapter 8.

- The community college model is supposed to provide open access to higher education for all citizens, regardless of age, race, or gender. However, this goal has not been fully met in Saudi Arabia. Indeed, many barriers prevent equal access to community college in the Saudi context. Of note, every year, at least 17% of high school graduates are denied access to higher education without any chance of being admitted to any higher education institution in the future (Almannie, 2015).

- The dropout rate in Saudi community colleges is extremely high. In 2013, for example, some such colleges had a dropout rate of up to 84% (Alahmadi & Aljabri, 2015).

- Saudi community colleges have failed for many years to support the local economy, partly as the curricula offered at these colleges have not been designed to meet local needs. Consequently, the programmes offered at Saudi community colleges do not support their students' successful entry into the labour market.

- In 2016, Saudi Arabia announced a new development plan for the country, namely Saudi Vision 2030. Accordingly, higher education institutions, including community colleges, have had to make changes to enable the implementation and realisation of this plan.

In light of the above factors, I embarked on this research to understand how community colleges, in general, can contribute to local social and economic development. Moreover, I sought to determine whether the abovementioned criticisms were valid, or whether perhaps the expectations of community colleges are unrealistic. To arrive at some answers on these issues, since the Saudi community college model is considered an education policy transfer from the US, I reviewed the existing literature on policy transfer, which then served as a lens through which to approach my study on the effectiveness of Saudi community colleges. This was followed by a comprehensive review of the literature on US community colleges, Saudi community colleges, community colleges in other countries, career and technical education institutions, and the capability approach. Based on this research, I identified the following five elements required of community colleges if they are to contribute to local social and economic development: localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, transfer, and accreditation. The identification of these five elements gave rise to some key questions. First, are these elements present in Saudi community colleges? Second, how prevalent are these elements in such colleges, and how could their present and/or impact be enhanced? Third, do Saudi community colleges need to embrace additional elements to support the realisation of Saudi

Vision 2030? Answering these questions demanded a research design that would take the Saudi context into account.

With that in mind, I first examined the environment in which Saudi community colleges operate. This exercise entailed identifying the main stakeholders in the Saudi community college model. Specifically, these are the Saudi Ministry of Education, deans of public universities, deans of community colleges, faculty members at community colleges, students at community colleges, and local business leaders. Crucially, Saudi community colleges are run using a top-down hierarchical system, meaning that the top level of the hierarchy controls the decision-making processes (Figure 5-1). Each layer of the hierarchy has its own particular characteristics, with different levels of power and authority. Thus, each layer of the hierarchy has a unique perspective on the five elements.

In the next stage of the research design, I applied multilevel theory to further my understanding of the Saudi community college model. A multilevel research design bridges micro- and macro-analysis, and specifies relationships between phenomena at the higher and lower levels of such analysis (Headley & Clark, 2020). Here, the reviewed phenomena are either top-down or bottom-up (Headley & Clark, 2020). As outlined previously, Saudi community colleges are organised in a top-down manner, which means the higher levels have an influence over the lower levels (see Figure 5-1). Understanding the organisational units involved here can contribute to a more accurate analysis of the phenomena at hand (Headley & Clark, 2020) and help to address the complexity thereof. Accordingly, I adopted multilevel theory to select the methods to be used for each level. Investigation of the five elements at each level was based on the following criteria:

- If the level in the hierarchical system is a relatively large sample group or has less authority in relation to other levels and there is thus a need to generalise data, a quantitative method would be used.

- If the level in the hierarchical system is a relatively small sample group or has more authority in relation to other levels, a qualitative method would be used.

A close look at the Saudi community college hierarchy (Figure 5-1) reveals that the lower levels have limited power and consist of relatively large sample groups compared to the higher levels. These lower levels include students, business leaders, and community college faculty members. These levels have no power to change policy. Even though a business leader sits on the board of most Saudi community colleges, they play a consulting role rather than a decision-making one. Most previous studies have reported that business representatives on Saudi community college boards do not have an active role (Al-Shammari and Al-Hewety, 2018). Regarding faculty members, even though they are at a higher level in the hierarchy compared to students and business leaders, they have no power to change the curricula or even suggest changes thereto. Furthermore, faculty members represent a large sample group compared to the other groups at the higher levels. Therefore, a quantitative method was used to investigate the five elements from the perspectives of faculty members, as well as students. However, because of the challenges faced by the private sector due to the COVID-19 pandemic and an inadequate response to the survey from business leaders, I opted to use a qualitative research tool for the latter group.

The higher levels of the Saudi community college hierarchy include the deans of community colleges and public universities, and the Ministry of Education. At community colleges, deans represent the top level. However, they in turn report to the deans of the public universities under which their community college operates. In general, deans of community colleges have *some* power. In particular, they can suggest policy changes to the public university deans, who may then propose such changes to the Ministry of Education. As the number of actors at all three of these levels is relatively small, a qualitative method was deemed the most appropriate choice.

This study thus applied a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods in an attempt to understand the status quo at Saudi community colleges. In particular, a quantitative method was used for students and faculty members. The findings thereof were expected to provide rich data on the status of Saudi community colleges. Meanwhile, a qualitative method was used to gather data from community college deans, experts on Saudi community colleges (education experts), and business leaders. These data were to supplement the quantitative

research findings and enhance the insights gained on potential improvements to the Saudi community college model. Ultimately, the research findings will contribute to the development of new policies and a better community college model to support the realisation of Saudi Vision 2030.

As a researcher, I realise that designing a research framework goes beyond the selection of research methods. According to Creswell (2009), the researcher must clarify three main aspects when devising their research framework: the research paradigm; strategies for linking the methods to the results/findings; and the methods used to collect and analyse the data. The following sections explain these three aspects in greater detail.

Figure 5-1 Hierarchical Structure of a Saudi Community College
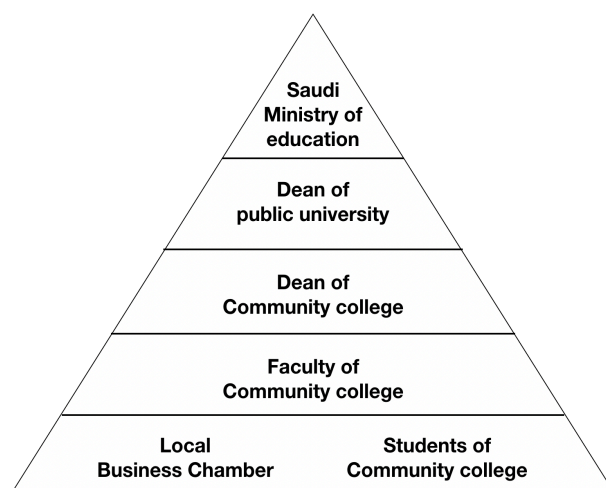
5.3 Research paradigm

The etymological roots of the word 'paradigm' come from the Greek word for 'pattern.' However, in the sciences, the meaning defined by American philosopher Thomas Kuhn is prevalently applied. In his 1962 book *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, Kuhn defined a paradigm as a "philosophical way of thinking" (Kuhn, 2012). Meanwhile, Guba and Lincoln (1994) defined a paradigm in social scientific research as a "basic set of beliefs or worldview that guides research action or an investigation" (Kivunja and Kuyin, 2017, p.27). Elsewhere, Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) described a paradigm as a researcher's "worldview." According to Kuhn, each group of researchers shares a common set of beliefs, values, and assumptions regarding the nature of reality and

knowledge (Kuhn, 2012). Kuhn argued that understanding the perceptions of knowledge and reality that inform a research paradigm is essential to understanding the research problems being studied and the solutions being offered thereto.

Social studies are governed by several paradigms. To identify the relevant paradigm, the researcher must understand each paradigm's main philosophical assumptions about the nature of social reality. Each paradigm has three elements that explain these assumptions that help to distinguish one paradigm from the next. Specifically, these elements are ontology, epistemology, methodology (Kivunja & Kuyin, 2017).

Ontology refers to the paradigm's view of reality. Important ontological questions include "What is the nature of the 'knowable'?" and "What is the nature of reality?" Answering these questions helps to define the researcher's view of reality. For instance, does the researcher believe in the existence of a "singular, verifiable reality and truth [or] socially constructed multiple realities"? (Patton, 2002, p.134, as cited in Rehman and Alharthi, 2016, p. 52).

The second element that distinguishes paradigms is its epistemology, a term that refers to the 'nature of knowledge' (Allison and Pomeroy, 2000). Crotty (2003) defines epistemology as a "way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know" (p.3). Epistemology is "concerned with the very bases of knowledge – its nature and forms, how it can be acquired, and how it can be communicated to other human beings" (Kivunja and Kuyin, 2017, p.27). In addition, epistemology prompts a researcher to consider "the possibility and desirability of objectivity, subjectivity, causality, validity and generalisability" (Patton, 2002, p.134).

The final distinguishing element is the methodology. Here, methodology refers to the strategy deployed in terms of data production and techniques (Kaushik and Walsh, 2019). Crotty defined methodology as the "strategy, plan of action, process, or design" that informs one's choice of research method(s) (Crotty, 1998, p.3). The fundamental methodological question is as follows: How should we as researchers study the world? The answer to this question will then

indicate to the given researcher what kind of data they will need to collect and what data collection tools they should use (Kivunja and Kuyin, 2017).

The research paradigm therefore influences what should be studied, how it should be studied, and how the findings of the study should be interpreted. Thus, determining a study's paradigm marks the starting point in identifying the most suitable research design (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). In educational research, three main paradigms have been identified: positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism. In the next section, each paradigm is briefly explained.

5.3.1 The Positivist Paradigm

Positivism was introduced by French philosopher Auguste Comte in the early 19th century (Makombe, 2017). Comte argued that social reality is independent of humans and that social reality should be studied in the same way as physical phenomena. He viewed observation and reason as the essential tools to understanding human behaviour. According to Comte, to acquire true knowledge, the researcher must use a scientific method. For this reason, positivism is synonymous with the scientific study of the social world (Kivunja & Kuyin, 2017).

The ontological position taken under positivism is realism. Positivism regards the social world and the natural world as similar; in other words, one single reality exists independent of social construction. Furthermore, this reality is "driven by immutable natural laws" (Guba, 1990, p.19). Thus, the focus of positivist research is on addressing the cause-and-effect relationship between components of the world. For positivists, the world can be divided into variables and the measured. Since positivists believe that laws govern social phenomena, they apply scientific methods in an attempt to formulate these laws through factual statements (Scotland, 2012).

At the epistemological level, the positivist paradigm sees knowledge as objective (Scotland, 2012). Moreover, positivists believe that knowledge can be measured using a scientific method (Scotland, 2012). Believing in objective knowledge also means that knowledge can be either true or false, or right or wrong (Aliyu et al., 2014). Positivists argue that the aim of gaining knowledge is

to become more objective in our understanding of the world. To do so, a researcher must be an objective observer of phenomena without any undue influence (Aliyu et al., 2014). As Guba (1990) explained, a researcher working under the positivist paradigm must "put questions directly to nature and allow nature to answer back" (p.19). Positivists use deductive logic when they study a research problem: they formulate hypotheses, test these hypotheses using mathematical equations, and then share these results in numerical formats.

Generally, most positivist methodologies are experimental or quasi-experimental (Creswell, 2007). The data collection techniques commonly used in positivist research include standardised questionnaires, structured interviews, and closed-ended observation. Thus, positivism is associated with quantitative research (Paul, 2005). Numerical data and generalisations of findings are common characteristics of this paradigm. To generalise results, researchers must draw conclusions from a representative sample of the target population. Thus, the quality of positivist research depends on the sampling strategy (Creswell, 2009). Moreover, the validity and reliability of research tools also determine positivist research quality. Validity here refers "to the extent to which what we measure reflects what we expected to measure" (Anderson and Arsenault, 1998, p. 257). Reliability refers "to the extent that an instrument will yield the same results each time it is administered" (Anderson and Arsenault, 1998, p.257).

Although positivism has dominated social scientific inquiry for centuries, positivists have many critics. Indeed, several scholars argue that positivism has limitations (Cohen et al., 2011, Crotty, 1998); (Mack, 2010). These limitations are summarised as follows:

- Studying social phenomena as natural phenomena is challenging. Natural phenomena tend to be stable across time, space, and context, whereas social phenomena are not. Positivist researchers thus often fail to deal adequately with people as objects (Bryman, 2008).

- Because the goal of positivist study is to formulate universal or general laws, and empirical facts are seen to exist apart from personal ideas or

thoughts, positivism fails to acknowledge the researcher as an individual. Many regard this oversight as risky.

- Positivism assumes that the researcher can control variables, which is exceptionally challenging in social situations.

While all such criticisms have some merit, they have not stopped the spread of positivist research in the field of education (Gage, 1989), and some researchers have tried to defend positivism. House (1991), for example, pointed out that some of the criticisms lodged at positivism do not take into consideration the worldviews of positivist researchers, which makes these criticisms invalid. House also criticised anti-positivist thinkers for failing to produce a credible alternative, saying that these critics "have never been able to formulate an alternative conception that answers the most important questions" (House, 1991, p.3).

5.3.2 The Interpretivist Paradigm

Criticisms of the positivist paradigm paved the way for the interpretivist paradigm. Interpretivism argues that the only way to understand the world is by knowing how others experience it. For interpretivists, reality is therefore subjective, and there are multiple realities that need to be interpreted. Interpretivism has also been called 'anti-positivist,' 'constructivist,' and 'humanist'.

The ontological perspective of interpretivism is relativistic (Scotland, 2012), and interpretivists argue that reality is socially constructed (Creswell, 2003; Mertens, 2009). According to the interpretivist school, each phenomenon is unique and requires in-depth examination to be understood. For interpretivist thinkers, the only way to access reality is through understanding the viewpoint of the subject being observed. Ultimately, there is no "basic process" by which the truth can be determined (Scotland, 2012).

In terms of its epistemology, interpretivists believe that reality must first be interpreted to then be understood. As Grix (2004) noted, interpretivist thinkers argue that the world does not exist independently of our knowledge about it.

Consequently, individuals can influence phenomena through their interpretation of and participation in a study. The interaction between the researcher and the subject of the study will lead to a specific finding. This interaction is socially constructed through language, consciousness, and shared meanings (Antwi & Kasim, 2015). Meanwhile, interpretivists aim to study social phenomena from different angles by capturing different perspectives. According to Deetz (1996), interpretivists understand phenomena through the meanings people assign to them. Thus, interpretivist studies aim to "explain the subjective reasons and meanings that lie behind social action" (Antwi & Kasim, 2015, p.219).

Methodologically speaking, interpretivists prefer studies in natural settings. Consequently, their methodologies include case studies, ethnography, grounded theory, phenomenology, and life histories. These methodologies establish personal contact with the subject(s), helping the researcher to form a perspective on the phenomenon (Tuli, 2010). Furthermore, such approaches help the researcher to understand the phenomenon in its context. Thus, interpretivism favours qualitative techniques to collect data. Of note, common interpretivist data collection techniques are observation (field notes and videotaping), open-ended questionnaires, interviews (semi-structured, unstructured, and interactive), focus groups, think-aloud protocols and role-playing, document reviews, and participant diaries (Punch, 1998).

The interpretivist approach to data is inductive, which means that "interpretivists tend to see theory as deriving from data collection and not as the driving force of research" (Grix, 2004, p.108). Data collected within this paradigm are often verbal, not statistical. In interpretivist research, the cohesive collection of data using different tools poses a major challenge.

Trustworthiness plays an important role in determining the quality of interpretivist research. According to Guba and Lincoln (1989), trustworthiness in interpretivist research comprises the following four elements:

- **Credibility:** the extent to which the data analysis and findings are believable, trustworthy, or authentic.

- **Transferability:** the extent to which a finding can be applied in a different context (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). Transferability is not the same as generalisability.

- **Dependability:** the extent to which data have been reliably collected over time.

- **Confirmability:** the extent to which the data collected and the findings are rooted in their contexts (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

Even though interpretivism is a popular approach in education studies, it has been met with criticism. The main points of criticism can be summarised as follows:

- Interpretivism lacks objectivity because the researcher is personally involved with their research subjects. Some researchers have consequently suggested ways to limit subjectivity in interpretivist research. For example, some suggest that researchers should describe themselves, their values and ideology, and their relationship to the participants when presenting their research.

- Results gleaned from interpretivist studies cannot be generalised because interpretivist research does not use scientific procedures of verification (Cohen et al., 2011).

At present, most interpretivist research does not address the political and ideological impacts of knowledge and social reality. Instead, the focus of interpretivists is on understanding the current situation without addressing issues of empowerment.

5.3.3 The Pragmatist Paradigm

The pragmatist paradigm emerged as a reaction to the alleged limitations of both positivism and interpretivism as well as the friction between them. Pragmatism originated in the late 19th century in the US (Maxcy, 2003). It is derived from the Greek word 'pragma,' which means action – a fundamental

concept in pragmatist philosophy (Kivunja & Kuyin, 2017). The pragmatist thinker argues that human action cannot be separated from past experiences and from the beliefs that come from those experiences. Pragmatist thinkers believe that human behaviour is based on the possible consequences of their actions, and that they can predict their future results based on the consequences of similar actions (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019).

For the pragmatic researcher, ideas are not 'out there' waiting to be discovered, as some major strands of Western philosophy believe (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Instead, pragmatists see ideas as tools to facilitate human life by solving problems. They believe that ideas are tools that help humans to cope with the world. Peirce, one of the founders of pragmatism, posited that thought produces beliefs, which he defined as "entities that push one to act," not simply "states of mind" (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). When doubt prevents action, the person will start a process of inquiry until they attain a given belief (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Thus, inquiry is the only practical activity that can eliminate doubt and help a person to understand an idea fully (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Moreover, the meaning of an object can be understood through its practical consequences. As Weaver explains: "One understands what is meant by a timepiece if one knows what a timepiece does" (2018, p n.d). In pragmatist thought, practical consequences are fundamental. Pragmatists argue that people act according to the likely consequences of their actions (Weaver, 2018).

The ontological position of pragmatism has been described as that of a "non-singular reality." All individuals have their own interpretations of reality. Thus, pragmatism focuses on the nature of experience. Feilzer (2010) explained that positivism and constructivism come from the same paradigm family. Essentially, they seek to find truth regardless of whether this truth is subjective, objective, or a combination. Both these paradigms attempt to produce knowledge that corresponds to reality. Hanson (2008) argues that classifying phenomena as subjective or objective is the result of political disagreements among social scientists, coupled with the evolution of separate quantitative and qualitative research skillsets, which has contributed to the creation of distinct quantitative and qualitative research methodologies.

Pragmatists view the measurable world from the perspective of 'existential reality.' They have therefore been described as "anti-dualist" (Legg & Hookway, 2019). For pragmatist thinkers, reality is what works, rather than what is true or real; the role of science is not to find the truth or reality but to "facilitate human problem-solving" (Powell, 2001, p.884). Pragmatists argue that researchers cannot access the truth about the real world using one scientific method of social inquiry. For pragmatists, truth can be determined by the consequences of action, and knowledge is considered true and valuable to the extent that such knowledge is useful within a specific context (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Ultimately, pragmatists judge the value of research according to its usefulness.

Pragmatist epistemology is relational, which means that pragmatists select the research method(s) that they deem the most appropriate to address the issue under consideration (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Their epistemological approach promotes the connection between knowledge, experience, and practice. Some researchers, such as Feilzer (2010), Goldkuhl (2012), Morgan (2014), and Ormerod (2006) stated that pragmatist epistemology is founded on Dewey's concept of inquiry (Frey, 2018). For Dewey, inquiry is a process that humans engage in to change their reality. He valued knowledge that can improve or modify a situation and viewed inquiry as a form of experience. Dewey's focus was on how humans can understand the relationship between actions and consequences.

Methodologically speaking, pragmatists advocate the use of mixed methods. However, single research methods are also employed (Frey, 2018). Due to pragmatic research's focus on solving research problems with 'what works,' researchers can choose the method(s) they consider appropriate to address a given research question (Frey, 2018). The pragmatist approach to research is embedded in abductive reasoning, which moves back and forth between deductive and inductive approaches (Pratt, 2002).

In educational research, pragmatism is regarded as an emerging paradigm. However, this does not absolve this paradigm from criticism. Indeed, pragmatism has been criticised on two fronts. First, pragmatism is accused of

having no solid ontological frame. As Pratt (2002) argued, pragmatists explain their paradigm from an epistemological and methodological standpoint, thereby ignoring ontology. Thus, its critics claim, pragmatism is associated with an 'anti-philosophical' attitude that avoids questions regarding the nature of reality. Second, evaluating pragmatic research or choosing a methodology on the basis of 'what works' raises many issues. As Biddle and Schafft (2015) asked, what works for *whom* and to *what extent*?

5.3.4 The Paradigm of this Research

With the above discussion in mind, the philosophical assumptions underlying this study could be described as pragmatic for the following four main reasons: the researcher's personal philosophy; the phenomenon being studied; complementarity; and matters of social justice. First, regarding my personal philosophy or worldview, according to Parvaiz et al. (2016), every researcher approaches their research from a personal, philosophical point of view. Their beliefs and assumptions about the world will thus affect the way they conduct their research. I do not believe in a single reality. Rather, I lean towards the interpretivist belief that reality is socially constructed. I have asked what constitutes reality, and whether it is what I see and believe, or what others see and believe. Importantly, I had the opportunity at a young age to travel and study abroad, and lived in countries that differed in every aspect of social reality from my country of origin. Accordingly, I found 'what works' to be more believable and trustworthy when dealing with others.

In my view, researchers cannot ignore the context of the research and the effect that context has on both the researcher and the research. Defining reality in times of technological and political change would seem an endless and fruitless pursuit. For example, until recently, the reality for Saudi women was that they were prohibited from driving, and the widespread belief was that Saudi society would never accept female drivers. This reality changed when the Saudi government introduced a law giving women the right to drive. Consequently, I believe that a philosophical debate on the nature of reality and linking everything to reality when studying a phenomenon is limiting because it underestimates how reality can be manipulated and changed. It would thus be

confusing for me to study social phenomena with a mindset of setting out to discover reality. Therefore, I reject the notion that researchers who study social phenomena are 'discovering reality.'

Currently, economic gain drives most research decisions in many fields. Consequently, if the drive to discover 'reality' is a researcher's main motivation, they will encounter challenges, especially if they do not understand what reality means and what it can offer to communities. For example, the Saudi government changed the law on women drivers when they realised it would have a positive impact on the economy regardless of the prevailing social reality that Saudi society was opposed to women driving. In the present day, all activities, including research, are valued in economic terms. Therefore, pragmatism will likely remain the dominant paradigm.

The second reason for selecting a pragmatist paradigm here is the goals of the study. Of note, the study aims investigate the current Saudi community college model and suggest enhancements to it to support the realisation of Saudi Vision 2030. The priority here is to identify the best approach to investigate this issue, rather than engage in endless methodological debates. The Saudi community college model is considered the latest example of policy transfer in Saudi Arabia's higher education system. As mentioned above, however, this model is not being implemented in a way that contributes to the development of the Saudi economy (Almannie, 2015). This research will therefore focus on investigating the current model from the perspectives of different stakeholders to understand how Saudi community colleges can actually contribute to the country's development plan. The aims of this research are complex, and understanding the context is an important factor in achieving them. Accordingly, pragmatism is the most appropriate paradigm for such research as it focuses on understanding a complex environment by allowing the researcher to use any method that fits the aims of the study while taking every stakeholder's perspective into account.

The third reason for choosing the pragmatist paradigm and a mixed-method design for this study is complementarity. In research, complementarity refers to the use of mixed methods to obtain more complete conclusions about different

facets of a phenomenon (Clark & Ivankova, 2016). To understand the current Saudi community college model, all levels of the social phenomenon must be investigated and analysed from the perspectives of different stakeholders. This design usually results in a holistic viewpoint, making the research more valuable and trustworthy.

To produce a robust policy that serves all stakeholders in a community, it is essential to examine a phenomenon from a range of perspectives. Even though the current community college model in Saudi Arabia is bureaucratic, where decisions are made at the higher levels and fed down to the lower levels, the impact of each stakeholder in the hierarchy must be acknowledged. As most social scientists have long realised, social phenomena exist at multiple levels and must accordingly be studied from multiple angles to be fully understood (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000; Molloy et al., 2011). Social scientists accept that single-level analysis has limitations and cannot capture the full context of a phenomenon. Therefore, to produce trustworthy and credible findings, this research must investigate the perspectives of every stakeholder.

The final motivation for selecting a pragmatic research paradigm and mixed methods is social justice. Pertinently, social justice as a rationale here is based on the "argument for mixing methods to uncover and challenge oppression in society by using quantitative and qualitative methods to best conduct research guided by a social justice perspective" (Clark and Ivankova, 2016, p n.b). The important contribution of this research is it being the first to study the perspectives of every stakeholder in the Saudi community college system. Furthermore, it highlights the importance of each stakeholder's point of view.

5.4 The Research Designs

Given its pragmatist paradigm, this research has taken a mixed-method approach. Such research refers to the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study. However, this methodology involves more than simply integrating two research methods. According to Clark and Ivankova (2016), researchers who use mixed methods need to define what they mean by 'mixed.' Many scholars use different terms for mixed-method research, and have offered

different opinions on what constitutes quantitative, qualitative, and integrated methods (Clark & Ivankova, 2016).

According to Johnson et al. (2007), mixed methods entails combining qualitative and quantitative approaches at the level of data collection, data analysis, and discussion to enable an in-depth understanding of the researched phenomenon. Moreover, Creswell and Clark (2011) defined mixed-method research in accordance with the following core actions: "(a) Collects and analyzes both qualitative and quantitative data rigorously in response to research questions and hypotheses; (b) Intentionally integrates (or mixes or combines) the two forms of data and their results; (c) Organizes these procedures into specific research designs that provide the logic for conducting the study; (d) Frames these procedures within theory and philosophy" (p.282). Consequently, mixed-method research can be designed in various ways.

A mixed-method design functions as a framework guiding the research process. The design outlines and organises the researcher's thoughts and steps concerning how, when, and why quantitative and qualitative methods are to be mixed in a study (Clark & Ivankova, 2016). The existing literature has identified many possible mixed-method designs. Often, a method is identified by more than one name (Clark & Ivankova, 2016). However, scholars accept and use certain basic mixed-method designs (Clark & Ivankova, 2016). Three basic mixed-method designs can be identified from the work of influential scholars in the field, namely Creswell and Clark (2011), Decuir-Gunby and Schutz (2016), Greene (2007), Hesse-Biber (2010), Clark and Ivankova (2016), and Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009). The three basic designs are: explanatory sequential; exploratory sequential; and convergent parallel. Each of these designs serve particular goals but also have unique limitations.

Explanatory sequential design comprises two phases. The researcher begins by collecting and analysing quantitative data, and then proceeds to collect and analyse qualitative data. Quantitative data collection is conducted as a separate step from qualitative data collection. At the end of each phase, the researcher integrates and interprets their findings/results taking into consideration both phases together. Ultimately, the qualitative data explain the quantitative data

(Decuir-Gunby & Schutz, 2016). This design is effective when a study seeks to use qualitative data to further explore patterns found in the quantitative data. In this design, the main emphasis is placed on the quantitative data. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), explanatory sequential design offers the following two benefits:

- It is considered easy to implement because the two phases of data collection are separate; and

- Quantitative data dictate the qualitative data, making this design appealing to quantitative-oriented researchers.

Meanwhile, the challenges of using explanatory sequential design can be summarised as follows (Creswell and Clark, 2011):

- It is time-consuming, like all forms of mixed-method design. The researcher needs to finish the first (quantitative) phase, and only after that can the analysis of the second (qualitative) phase begin;

- Researchers using this design may find contradictory data. Creswell and Clark (2011) stated that inherent in explanatory sequential design is the possibility of qualitative findings and quantitative results that are contradictory. Some researchers welcome this challenge, while others regard it as a deterrent;

- Gaining institutional review board (IRB) approval for research using this design may be difficult. Most IRB approvals require the provision of full details of a study, which is challenging in explanatory sequential research because the qualitative data are emergent. Researchers may thus be deterred by the correspondingly emergent nature of the design as a whole (Creswell & Clark, 2011).

The second mixed-method design reviewed here, namely exploratory sequential design, is an inversion of explanatory design. The research starts with the collection of qualitative data, and after these data are analysed, the

quantitative data are collected. This design prioritises qualitative data, while quantitative methods are used to test or generalise the research findings. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), exploratory sequential design has the following three benefits:

- It is easy to implement because the two phases of data collection are separate;

- It is appealing to both qualitative- and quantitative-oriented researchers; and

- The qualitative data dictate the quantitative data, which makes this design appealing to qualitative-oriented researchers.

The challenges posed by exploratory sequential design can be summarised in the following points (Creswell and Clark, 2011):

- Implementing this design is time-consuming, like all mixed-method designs;

- Gaining IRB approval for this type of research is considered difficult because of the two-phase nature of the design; and

- Some researchers are uneasy about the emergent character of exploratory sequential design, preferring to adopt more predetermined study designs with definitive techniques (Creswell & Clark, 2011).

The third mixed-method design examined here is convergent parallel design, also known as triangulation. In convergent parallel design, the researcher conducts quantitative and qualitative research simultaneously. However, the researcher analyses each separately, and then integrates the findings from both methods. Moreover, the researcher uses this design to triangulate the findings. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), convergent parallel design has the following two benefits:

- Data are collected in one phase, making it easy to implement and less time-consuming compared to other mixed-method designs; and

- Even though data are collected in one phase, the quantitative and qualitative data are collected separately, making it easier for the researcher to gain IRB approval.

Meanwhile, the challenges presented by convergent parallel design can be summarised as follows (Creswell & Clark, 2011):

- The merging of separated and different types of data can be difficult; and

- Each method of data collection generates different kinds of data, which can be contradictory. Thus, the researcher using convergent parallel design is often required to make decisions about their potential next steps during the research, including having to collect more data.

This study has employed convergent parallel design, entailing the simultaneous collection of qualitative and quantitative data in one phase, followed by the combination and comparisons of these data. Furthermore, this study has adopted the multilevel design, a form of convergent parallel research first introduced by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009). As Edmonds and Kennedy (2016) noted, the multilevel design "allows the researcher to use different methodological techniques for addressing QUAN and QUAL data within a system" (p.182). Deciding on the integration point between phases is an important consideration for the mixed-method researcher (Creswell and Clark, 2011). Furthermore, integration can occur several times during the research process. In this study, the first interaction point occurs in chapter 8: the discussions and findings chapter. Even though the analysis using each method is usually presented separately in devoted chapters, I integrated the quantitative and qualitative findings into a single section of the chapter 8. The second integration point is in the final chapter, where I combine the findings of both phases to present the research's final outcomes. The following sections provide a detailed explanation of each method and the instrument(s) used.

5.4.1 Location

Choosing the location for this study proved to be a challenge. Saudi Arabia comprises 13 regions, each with unique culture and resources. However, educational policy decision-making is centralised and resides with the Ministry of Education, based in the capital city, Riyadh. The Riyadh region is therefore the first in which any new policy is tested. If successful there, the new policy is then implemented throughout the country. Therefore, I decided to study community colleges in Riyadh. Due to time limitations, only two community colleges were investigated. Moreover, the education system in Saudi Arabia is segregated by gender. Hence, the study investigated one women's college and one men's college. Both colleges are considered to be leading educational institutions in the country.

5.4.2 Research Procedures

As discussed, this research has deployed a convergent parallel design, which consists of two quantitative and qualitative phases conducted simultaneously. In the quantitative phase, online questionnaires were distributed, collected, and analysed. Meanwhile, in the qualitative phase, semi-structured interviews were conducted and analysed. The findings of both phases were subsequently interpreted (Figure 5-2). The following sections offer further explanations behind each method, sampling, and process.

Figure 5-2 Research Participants

Facility

Student

Business Leader

Deans of college

Education expert
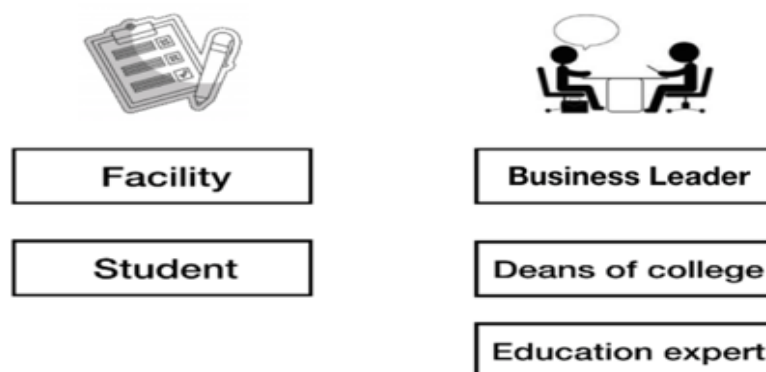
5.4.2.1 Quantitative Phase

In the quantitative phase, data were collected using online questionnaires developed through online surveys and distributed using official university email addresses. The online survey was chosen because of the ease of access, allowing me to collect up to 200 responses, and its conformity with the University of Glasgow's data handling policy.

5.4.2.1.1   Participants

Sampling represents a crucial step in research, and the researcher must make important decisions in the early stages of the research design process. According to Cohen et al. (2017), researchers should consider the following four key factors when devising a sample:

- sample size

- representativeness and parameters of the sample

- access to the sample

- sampling strategy

Two stakeholder groups participated in the quantitative phase: community college students and faculty members. The sample size was the entire population of students and faculty members of the two selected community colleges. Meanwhile, communication with participants was performed online. The first step here was to contact the respective community college's administration department to request permission to send online questionnaires to students and faculty members. Thereafter, the online questionnaire was distributed to students and faculty members via email. All respondents to the online questionnaire were adult professionals, and their participation in the study was entirely voluntary.

5.4.2.1.2   Data Gathering Tools

The primary tool used to gather data in the quantitative phase was the online questionnaire. Generally, the questionnaire is a popular data collection tool used in a range of fields. A questionnaire can be delivered in a variety of ways such as being "mailed, administered by phone, administered in person, delivered by email, accessed on the web, or even accessed on a tablet or smartphone" (Ruel et al., 2016, n.d.). The accessibility of online questionnaires compared to other delivery methods makes them preferable for researchers, especially in the wake of advances in technology and widespread internet access.

Using an online questionnaire as a research tool bears many advantages. Its main strength is time-efficiency (Park et al., 2019). Specifically, a researcher who uses online questionnaires rather than interviews does not need to schedule meetings. Moreover, researchers can access participants' responses immediately, with no geographical barriers to overcome (Park et al., 2019). The data are already computerised, so no manual data input is required, which eliminates or at least minimises input errors (Callegaro et al., 2015; Evans & Mathur, 2005; Fan & Yan, 2010).

A further benefit of online questionnaires is their cost-efficiency. Cobanoglu et al. (2001) compared the costs of different survey methods and found the online questionnaire to be the cheapest method because they require less preparation and relatively low administrative costs (Cobanoglu et al., 2001). Cook et al. (2000) and Fan and Yan (2010) reached similar conclusions.

Even though the online questionnaire has gained popularity as a survey method because of some of the advantages described above, there are certain challenges associated with its use, one of which concerns sample representativeness. According to Park et al. (2019), researchers who use online questionnaires must understand that their sample consists of a specific population, namely people who have internet access and some level of technological skill. This can potentially lead to biased results. Moreover, a researcher conducting an online survey may also encounter resistance to

participation because of confidentiality and safety concerns (Gelder et al., 2010).

In this study, the decision to use online questionnaires was informed by another consideration as well. In particular, this research was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic, when the University of Glasgow published information and guidelines for students and staff who may be impacted. Adhering to these guidelines, I decided to use online questionnaires, despite their limitations.

The spread of COVID-19 actually reduced some of the challenges associated with using an online questionnaire as a survey method. For instance, one criticism of such questionnaires is that not everyone has internet access. However, in response to the COVID-19 pandemic, public universities in Saudi Arabia provided free laptops to every student and faculty member who did not already own one, thereby diluting any accessibility concerns. In addition, as the pandemic progressed, telecommunications providers in Saudi Arabia offered free internet access to all students and teachers.

5.4.2.1.3   Constructing the Questionnaire

Two stakeholder groups, community college students and faculty members, participated in the quantitative phase. Each group was given a unique form of the online questionnaire (see appendices 4, 5, 6, and 7). Although many types of questions can be used when compiling a research questionnaire, for this research closed-ended questions were the primary form. In such questions, the researcher provides a set number of possible responses to each question for the participants to choose from (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004). As Lee and Lutz (2016) explained, researchers "force respondents to select from a predetermined set of choices when responding to a particular item" (p.2). My motivation for selecting closed-ended questions here was the relatively large number of participants involved. Furthermore, closed-ended questions are less resource-intensive compared to open-ended questions (Lee & Lutz, 2016).

In the online questionnaire, participants were asked to express their opinions using a Likert scale. The Likert scale, invented by Rensus Likert in 1932 (Salkind, 2010), is one of the most widely used survey methodologies in social sciences.

According to Allen (2017), the Likert scale "is a measure of a person's attitudes, beliefs, or opinions about some object or event." It that was adapted for this study with the following five levels of agreement with presented statements: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. The questionnaire had the following six sections: personal information; localisation; comprehensiveness; flexibility; transfer; and accreditation. The two tables below (Table 5-1, Table 5-2) provide more detail on each section:

Table 5-1 Questionnaire Issued to Students

Section	Dimension	Number Of Questionnaire Items
1/ Personal Information	This dimension provides information on the participants' nationality, gender, and level of work experience..	6
2/Localisation	This dimension refers to the relationship between the community college and the local stakeholders in the community. Its aim is to understand the depth of the relationship between the community college and the local community from the perspectives of stakeholders. This dimension comprises four parts: -Location -Decision-making processes -Business partnerships -Career guidance	22
3/Comprehensiveness	This dimension refers to the extent to which the community college offers comprehensive programmes from the perspectives of stakeholders. It comprises four parts Admissions and equal opportunities policy -Pre-university educational programmes -Vocational training programmes -Remedial programmes	14
4/ flexibility	This dimension refers to the variety in forms and modes of programmes offered by community colleges.	4
5/ Accreditation	This dimension explores the possibilities offered by community colleges to their students to continue their education at a higher level, such as through a bachelor's degree or professional certification.	2
6/ Transfer	This dimension refers to the extent to which qualifications obtained from community colleges are accepted on the local label market and/or by universities and professional vocational bodies.	2

Table 5-2 Faculty Member Survey

Section	Dimension	Number of questionnaire items
1/ Personal Information	This dimension explores the differences between stakeholders' views on the five elements of the community college model, based on their nationality, gender, level of working experience as a teacher or in a different job, level of education, and the geographic location of the institution where their latest qualification was obtained.	6
2/Localisation	This dimension explores the extent or nature of the relationship between the community college and the broader community in terms of: -Location -Decision-making processes -Business partnerships -Career guidance	27
3/Comprehensive	This dimension refers to is the extent to which the community college offers comprehensive programmes from the perspectives of stakeholders. It comprises four parts: Acceptance and equal opportunities policy Pre-university educational programmes Vocational training programmes Remedial programmes	10
4/ Flexibility	This dimension refers to that the variety of modes and forms in which the community college offers programmes	5
5/ Accreditation	This dimension explores the possibilities offered by community colleges to their students to continue their education at a higher level, such as through a bachelor's degree or professional certification.	3
6/ Transfer	This dimension refers to the extent to which qualifications obtained from community colleges are accepted on the local label market and/or by universities and professional vocational bodies.	3

5.4.2.2 Qualitative Phase

Qualitative data were collected by means of semi-structured interviews, conducted by telephone because of the COVID-19 pandemic.

5.4.2.2.1 Participants

In this phase of data collection, I consciously targeted a particular group knowing that they do not represent the wider population. This population therefore represents a non-probability sample (Cohen et al., 2017). Of note, Cohen et al. (2017) identified the following types of non-probability sampling: convenience; quota; dimensional; purposive; and snowball. For this part of the study, purposive sampling was used whereby the researcher chooses participants most suitable to help them to answer a given research question (Cohen et al., 2017). Accordingly, this research phase focused on exploring the views of participants with higher levels of decision-making power. The following six participants from three stakeholder groups were involved in this phase:

- Two education experts: an executive director from the higher education department at the Ministry of Education; and an educational consultant for developing community college initiatives in the Ministry of Education.

- Two community college deans, one male and one female.

- Two business leaders.

All participants in this phase could be considered members of the 'elite.' The term 'elite' refers to "individuals and groups that occupy the top echelons of society" (Odendahl & Shaw, 2002, p.299). Such individuals constitute the upper level of society because they have more knowledge, money, and/or status than the most of the population. Members of the elite are usually associated with notions of power and privilege. Dealing with elites can be challenging for the researcher, according to Odendahl and Shaw (2002). Indeed, the researcher, when engaging with elites, needs to pay attention to the following elements to minimise potential problems:

- **Time and venue:** Scheduling interviews with elite individuals is a time-consuming endeavour. It typically requires several telephone calls with personal assistants or other gatekeepers. Consequently, the researcher needs to give great consideration to time factors, while the location of

the interview is usually chosen in line with the elite individual's convenience in mind (Odendahl & Shaw, 2002).

- **Interview dynamics:** Typically, interviews with elites are more business-like than other kinds of interviews. For example, the researcher needs to prepare for questions about the purpose, goals, and uses of the proposed research before they are allowed to conduct the interview, even if the researcher has already submitted all information about the research. The researcher must also somehow establish their authority to ensure a productive exchange (Odendahl & Shaw, 2002).

- **Confidentiality:** In all research, confidentiality is highly important. However, when interviewing elites, it is considered especially important. Thus, the researcher must explain in great depth the steps they will take to protect the confidentiality of such a participant and be prepared for questions of this kind. Some participants may "request prior approval of or the opportunity to review any text before the use of their names" (Odendahl & Shaw, 2002, p.314). Accordingly, the researcher must submit to any participant requests (Odendahl & Shaw, 2002).

According to Brinkmann and Kvale (2018a), deciding on the number of people to interview depends on what questions the researcher needs to answer. As Brinkmann and Kvale (2018b) stated, the researcher needs to "interview as many subjects as necessary to find out what you need to know" (p.7).

For the current study, the interviewees were invited by letter to participate. The invitations were sent to their work email addresses from my own university account. Following the university guidelines on the COVID-19 pandemic, I decided to do conduct interviews via telephone. The interviews lasted 30 to 40 minutes each and were recorded with the approval of the participants.

5.4.2.2.2   Data Gathering Tools

The most used tool in qualitative research is the interview. Kahn and Cannell (1957) defined an interview as a purposeful discussion between two or more people. Meanwhile, Brinkmann and Kvale (2018a) emphasised that the interview

is the oldest method of obtaining systematic knowledge. In particular, they define an interview as a structural and purposeful conversation determined by the interviewer (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018a). There are three main types of interviews: structured; unstructured; and semi-structured. Each type serves different goals depending on the research purposes and questions.

In the qualitative phase of this study, the aim was to gain a deeper understanding of interviewees' points of view regarding community colleges. The questions I sought to answer were the following: How do Saudi leaders define and view the five elements (localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, transfer, and accreditation)? How are these elements implemented? What could be done to enhance their implementation? Are additional elements needed for these colleges to develop?

The primary data-gathering tool used in this phase was the semi-structured interview, helping the researcher to obtain first-hand, in-depth insights into the research problem from selected participants (Cohen et al., 2011; Olsen, 2012). Meanwhile, Given (2008) defined a semi-structured interview as a "qualitative data collection strategy in which the researcher asks informants a series of predetermined but open-ended questions" (p.2). According to Olsen (2012), the semi-structured interview schedule is centred around the concept of prompts. Even though the concept of prompts is not clearly defined, Olsen (2012) offered the following list of prompts to help the researcher:

- 'Why was that?'

- 'Tell me more'

- 'Can you remember more about that?'

- 'And then?'

- 'So?'

- 'And who else, and why?'

It can also be useful to encourage the speaker (and then fall silent), by saying:

- 'I see …'

- 'Really …'

- 'It seems to feel that way to you …'

- 'At the time you looked at it that way …'

5.4.2.2.3   Constructing the Interview

Three groups of stakeholders were interviewed: deans of community colleges; education experts; and business leaders. Two versions of semi-structured interview questionnaires were developed. The first version was designed for education experts and business leaders, while the second was for deans of community colleges. All of the questions were open-ended, and each interview consisted of three sections. The following two tables (Table 5-3, Table 5-4) outline these sections:

Table 5-3 Interview Questions for Education Experts and Business Leaders

Interview process	Questions asked	Purpose of this phase
Opening phase	What is a community college and how does it differ from other higher education institutions in terms of its roles and responsibilities?	To identify the interviewee's knowledge of and philosophy regarding community colleges
Main body	From your perspective, are the following five elements present in the current community college model? -Localisation -Comprehensiveness -Flexibility -Transfer -Accreditation How are these elements being implemented? How could community colleges enhance the level of their implementation?	To gain insights into how Saudi leaders in education and policy define the following elements: -Localisation -Comprehensiveness -Flexibility -Transfer -Accreditation And to clarify how best to enhance their implementation.
Closing phase	What is Saudi Vision 2030 and how does it affect community colleges in terms of their goals and strategies? Do you think the Saudi community college model needs to embrace more than these five elements to enhance local social and economic development? Can you rank the five elements in order of importance?	To understand if Saudi community colleges need to embrace more than these five elements to develop and play a meaningful role in local social and economic development.

Table 5-4 Interview Questions for Community College Deans

Interview process	Questions asked	Purpose of this phase
Opening phase	What is a community college and how does it differ from other higher education institution with regard to its roles and responsibilities?	To identify the interviewee's knowledge of and philosophy regarding community colleges
Main body	In your opinion, are these elements present in your community college model? -Localisation -Comprehensiveness -Flexibility -Transfer -Accreditation How are these elements being implemented in your community college? How could your community college enhance their implementation?	To gain insights into how Saudi leaders in education and policy define the following elements: -Localisation -Comprehensiveness -Flexibility -Transfer -Accreditation And to explore how the implementation of these elements can be enhanced and encouraged
Closing phase	What is Saudi Vision 2030 and how does it affect your community college's strategy? Do you think your community college needs more than these five elements to contribute to ongoing local social and economic development? Can you rank the five elements in order of importance?	To explore whether Saudi community colleges need to embrace more than these five elements to contribute to local social and economic development

5.4.2.3 The Pilot Study Process:

It is essential to conduct a pilot study before collecting data. According to Frey (2018), a pilot study sets out to test the feasibility of an approach intended for later use in a larger study. Furthermore, a pilot study helps the researcher to explore any emerging issues that might become problematic in the larger study. Furthermore, conducting a pilot study before embarking on the full-scale research is a well-refined practice. Even though the pilot study stage can be costly in terms of money, ignoring it may bring even greater such costs

(Oppenheim, 2001). In this study, two instruments were piloted in different phases, as discussed below.

5.4.2.3.1 Survey Questionnaires

A pilot study of the two questionnaires was carried out in the following four phases:

- The first phase entailed translating the two questionnaires from English into Arabic. After that, I contacted an Arabic specialist to verify the questionnaire's structure and clarity, and to proofread them. This was a necessary step as it ensured that the meaning of questions and answers did not change during translation. After discussions with the specialist, minor adjustments were made.

- The second phase ran from 11 January to 20 January 2021, during which I contacted three experts in educational research in Saudi Arabia. The aim of doing so was to check the validity of the two questionnaires, and whether the two questionnaires would measure what they intended to measure (Saunders et al., 2012). Thus, the two questionnaires were sent to the three experts, who were asked to check the relevance of each statement against the aims of the research and the research topic. In addition, the experts were asked to note any issues that needed to be addressed. The experts' feedback was constructive and strengthened the validity of the two questionnaires as some adjustments were made based on their input.

- The third phase involved designing the two online questionnaires using an online survey tool.

- The fourth phase encompassed testing the two online questionnaires by sending the forms to volunteer participants. I selected as representative a sample as possible, with six community college students and six community college faculty members contacted by telephone and asked to participate. After their consent was obtained, online questionnaires were

sent to them. Once these were completed, they were contacted by telephone to answer the following questions:

- Did you face any difficulties navigating the online questionnaire?

- Were any items difficult to understand?

- Do you have any suggestions for improvement?

- The questionnaires indicate that they should take 15 minutes to complete. Did you find this to be accurate, or did you require more or less time?

- Is the questionnaire too long?

This step was important to ensure the readiness of the online versions of the two questionnaires. No further changes were necessary after this stage, as all the volunteers agreed that the language and sequence of questions were clear.

5.4.2.3.2   Piloting the Interview Questions

A pilot study of the two sets of interview questions was carried out in the following two phases:

- The first phase entailed the translation of the two sets of interview questions from English into Arabic. After that, I contacted an Arabic specialist to verify the structure and clarity of the questions. This step was necessary to make sure that the meaning of the questions did not change during translation. After discussions with the specialist, some minor adjustments were made.

- The second phase ran from 20 January to 25 January 2021, during which I contacted three experts in educational research highly regarded in Saudi Arabia. The aim of doing so was for the experts to check the relevance of the questions to the research aims and topic, thus strengthening the

validity of the interview questions. Based on the experts' feedback, no changes were deemed necessary in this phase. However, a suggestion was made that the five elements might require some explanation to ensure that interviewees understood them. With that in mind, a definitive list was compiled.

- The third phase entailed conducting a voluntary interview with one education expert. The aim here was to examine the process and length of interview. The volunteer did not suggest any changes.

5.5 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are fundamental to the research process, as ethical challenges can emerge at any stage. The Cambridge Dictionary defines ethics as "the study of what is morally right and what is not" (Cambridge Dictionary, 2022). In research, ethics has been defined as "the justification of a researcher's actions as well as how those actions affect participants, participants' families, the researcher, the research community, public research consumers and, hopefully, beneficiaries" (Lahman, 2018, p.2). Furthermore, according to Thomas and Hodges (2010), research ethics is "the standards of professional conduct that researchers are expected to maintain in their dealings with colleagues, research participants, sponsors and funders, and the wider community" (p.2). In addition, Thomas and Hodges (2010) listed the following key ethical principles that researchers need to be aware of when conducting research:

- Honesty and truthfulness;

- Conflicts of interest;

- Scientific standards and bias;

- Plagiarism;

- Welfare of research participants; and

- Safety of research assistants and support staff.

In general, the risks inherent in the current research project were low. This study sought to explore Saudi Arabia's new national development plan, Saudi Vision 2030, as well as if and how Saudi community colleges can contribute to its realisation (Saudi Vision 2030). Nevertheless, to create a safe and ethical environment for all participants, I considered the several following factors:

- To demonstrate and preserve the integrity of the research process, I started collecting data only after obtaining all the required permissions. My starting point was the University of Glasgow's ethics committee. After gaining the latter's approval (see appendix 9), I obtained all the required permissions from the Saudi government (the Ministry of Education) and the two community colleges.

- No sensitive personal data were collected for or during this research, and all participants were adult professionals and mature students. The rights, dignity, and autonomy of all participants were respected and protected. Moreover, I clarified to participants that their involvement was entirely voluntary, that data were being collected for a doctoral research project, and that they could withdraw at any time without explanation. Full consent was obtained from each participant before the study began. I also explained to participants that their responses would be kept safe and private, and that findings would not be shared before participants had been anonymised.

- The University of Glasgow published information and guidelines for students and staff who may be impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic. In accordance with these guidelines, I decided to conduct interviews by telephone and submitted the questionnaires online.

- The study was designed, conducted, and supervised in adherence with the ethical principles of research required by the University of Glasgow.

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter presents the research methodology applied for this study, dividing the process into the following sections: research paradigm (with a focus on pragmatism, the main paradigm used for this research); research design; mixed methods; research procedures; the details of quantitative and qualitative data strategies and tool construction; and the pilot study. Thereafter, the final section of the chapter discussed the ethical considerations made in the research process. Next, Chapters 6 and 7 present analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data.

Chapter 6   Quantitative Data Analysis

6.1   Introduction

This chapter focuses on analysing the quantitative data gathered from two groups of participants, namely students and faculty members at two community colleges, whose views were explored through questionnaires. In particular, they were asked about the five elements of the community college: localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, accreditation, and transfer (see Chapter 4 for more details about these five elements). In total, 51 students and 21 faculty members made up the study sample. The questionnaires were shared with participants through an online survey platform between 10 February 2021 and 10 May 2021. Thereafter, the analysis was performed using SPSS (version 27). The results of this analysis are presented in the following sections. Furthermore, the results of both the quantitative and qualitative data collection are discussed in Chapter 8.

6.2   Questionnaires

Two questionnaires were distributed to two groups of participants, namely students and faculty members from two community colleges in the city of Riyadh. In the following subsections, the results thereof are discussed under different dimensions. Overall, answers to the following research questions were sought:

- To what extent have community colleges implemented the three elements of localisation, comprehensiveness, and flexibility from the perspectives of students and faculty members?

- How important do students and faculty members view transfer and accreditation at community colleges?

As described in the literature review chapters and the methodology chapter, the questionnaires were constructed to measure respondents' attitudes with regard to specific statements using a five-point Likert scale. Participants were instructed to signal the extent to which they agreed with each statement

whereby the higher the number given, the more they agreed with the statement. Possible responses were as follows: 1 = strongly disagree (SD), 2 = disagree (D), 3 = neither agree nor disagree (N), 4 = agree (A), and 5 = strongly agree (SA).

The data analysis was conducted in three steps. The first step entailed checking the normality of the data through the following statistical methods: skewness and kurtosis; the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test; and the Shapiro-Wilk test (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Ultimately, it was determined that the data were not normally distributed, which meant that nonparametric tests could be applied. The second step involved running descriptive statistics. Based on the Likert scores provided by respondents, the frequency and percentage of each statement were calculated, and a ranking was assigned to each statement based on the frequency of agreement (A + SA) to identify the items with the highest or lowest incidences of agreement.

The third step was to conduct two nonparametric tests, namely the Mann-Whitney test and the Kruskal-Wallis test, to examine the relationship between the dependent variable and one or more independent variables. Nonparametric tests were chosen here for two main reasons. First, the data in this study were not normally distributed. Second, the small sample size did not meet the sample size threshold for parametric tests. Figure 6-1 illustrates the flow chart for the data analysis process.

Two surveys were distributed to two groups of participants: students and faculty members from two community colleges in the city of Riyadh. In the following subsections, the results are discussed according to different dimensions of the survey. The aim is to answer the following research questions:

- To what extent have community colleges implemented the three elements of localisation, comprehensiveness, and flexibility from the perspectives of students and faculty?

- How do students and faculty view the importance of transfer and accreditation at community colleges?

As detailed in Chapter 5, the questionnaires were constructed by reviewing relevant existing literature. The aim of the questionnaires was to measure the attitudes of respondents towards particular statements using a five-point Likert scale. Participants were instructed to signal their agreement using five numbered response categories – the higher the number, the greater the agreement. Possible responses were as follows: 1 = strongly disagree (SD), 2 = disagree (D), 3 = neither (N), 4 = agree (A), and 5 = strongly agree (SA).

The data analysis was conducted in three steps. First, checking the normality of data. The normality of the data was assessed through the following statistical methods: skewness and kurtosis, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, and the Shapiro-Wilk test (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). It was determined that the data were not normally distributed, which meant that nonparametric tests could be applied. The second step was to use run statistics. Based on the Likert ratings provided by respondents, the frequency and percentage of each statement were calculated, and a rank order was assigned to each statement based on the frequencies of agreement (A + SA) to identify the items with the highest or lowest incidences of agreement within each section.

The third step was to conduct two nonparametric tests, the Mann-Whitney test and the Kruskal-Wallis test, to examine the relationship between the dependent variable and one or more independent variables. Nonparametric tests were chosen for two main reasons. First, the data in this study were not normally distributed. Second, the small sample size did not meet sample size guidelines for parametric tests. Figure 6-1 presents a flow chart for the data analysis process.

Figure 6-1 Flow Chart of the Data Analysis Process

Check whether the data are normally distributed
Run descriptive statistics
Run nonparametric tests
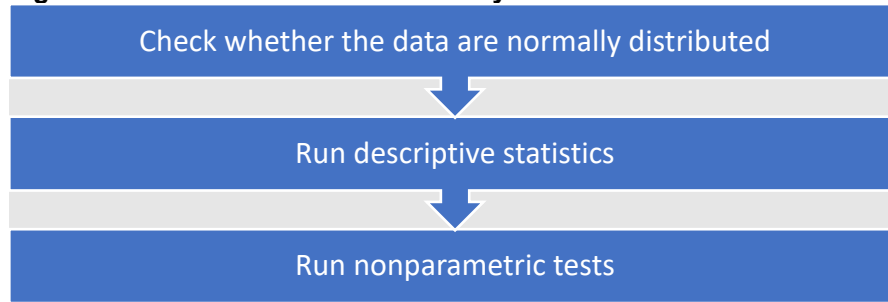
6.3 Student Questionnaire

The student questionnaire covered the following six dimensions:

- Demographic information;

- Localisation;

- Comprehensiveness;

- Flexibility;

- Accreditation; and

- Transfer.

In the following subsections, analysis of each dimension is presented.

6.3.1 Demographic Information

This first section of the questionnaire asked participants for their personal information, specifically their nationality, gender, work experience, and whether they currently had a part-time job. The first aim here was to understand their perspectives on the community college model's implementation of the following three elements: localisation, comprehensiveness, and flexibility. In addition, the questionnaire was used to assess whether the participants' demographic characteristics had any correlation with their views on these three elements. Lastly, the questionnaire sought to

determine respondents' perspectives on the importance of accreditation and transfer at community colleges.

In total, 51 students participated in the study. Forty-nine (96.1%) were Saudi and two (3.9%) were non-Saudi. In addition, 22 (43.1%) of the participants were male and 29 (56.9%) were female. Most participants (n = 46 or 90.2%) indicated that they currently did not have a part-time job, whilst only five (9.8%) did. With regard to work experience, 42 (82.4%) participants indicated that they had had three to six months of work experience, three (5.9%) indicated that they had had one year of experience, and six (11.8%) indicated that they had had more than one year of experience. Figure 6-2 summarises the demographic distribution of student respondents.

Figure 6-2 Demographic Distribution of Students According to Nationality, Gender, Work Experience, and Whether Participants Currently Have a Part-time Job
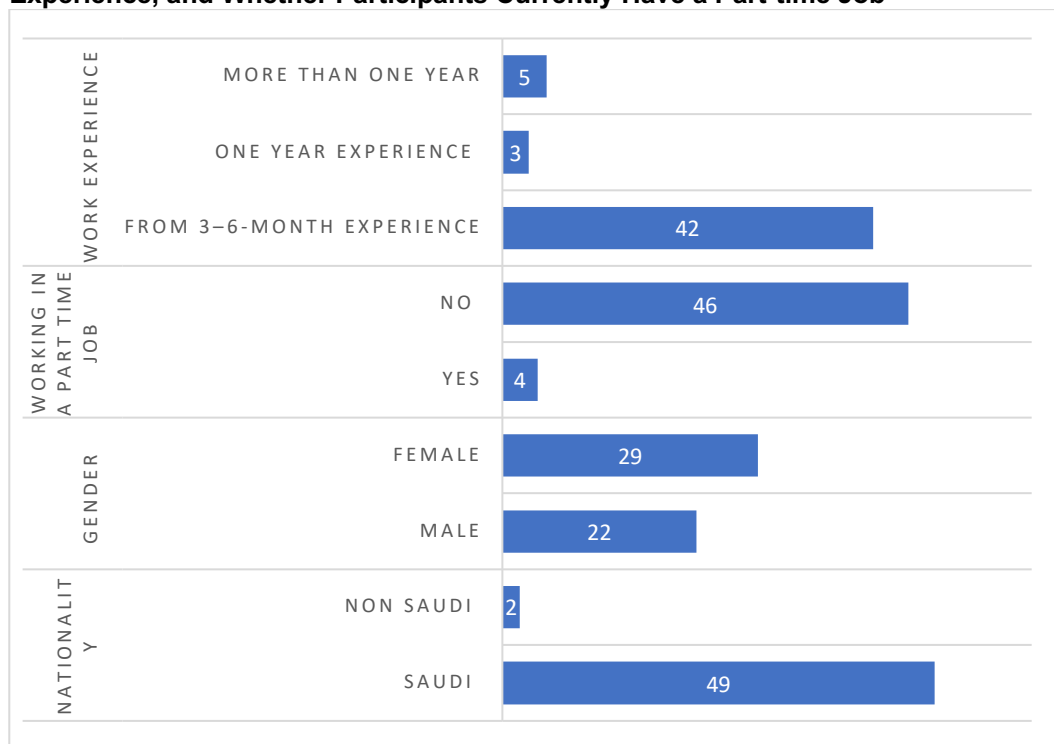
From Figure 6-2, it is notable that the number of participants representing each gender is approximately the same. This should provide some assurance that men and women were given an equal opportunity to participate in this study. In contrast, there is a considerable difference between the number of Saudi and non-Saudi students, which could be attributed to the policy of giving priority to Saudi citizens in admissions to Saudi community colleges. As the Saudi Minister

of Education announced in 2016, only 5% are accepted to public universities every year. Nevertheless, despite their relatively small number, the inclusion of non-Saudi participants was deemed beneficial.

6.3.2 Localisation

The second dimension explored in the student questionnaire was localisation. This section was divided into four subsections with 22 items as follows: location (three items); decision-making processes (three items); business partnerships (nine items); and career guidance (seven items). Appendix 2 presents the descriptive statistics in relation to students' responses to the 22 statements and their ranking based on the frequency of agreement (A + SA) to identify the items recording the highest and lowest incidences of agreement within this section of the questionnaire.

Appendix 2 shows that most participants agreed that their community college implemented all of the different elements of localisation listed above. In terms of the frequency of responses (A + SA), the 'Rank' column reveals that the following 10 statements received the highest level of agreement from participants:

- Rank 1 (*n* = 45): 'My family lives in the same city as where the community college is located.'

- Rank 2 (*n* = 39): 'The community college programme should be an apprenticeship.'

- Rank 3 (*n* = 37): 'Most of the faculty members who teach me at the community college have job experience in my field of study.'

- Rank 4 (*n* = 36): 'The curriculum at the community college uses examples from the local community.'

- Rank 5 (*n* = 32): 'The community college has an onsite career guidance centre.'

- Rank 6 (n = 31): 'Most of the faculty members who teach me at the community college are from the local community.'

- Rank 7 (*n* = 30): 'The road to the community college is clear and easy.'

- Rank 8 (*n* = 29): 'The community college educates students about available career options in the local community.'

- Rank 9 (*n* = 28): 'Most of the faculty members who teach me at the community college are knowledgeable about the labour market.'

- Rank 10 (*n* = 26): 'The community college is committed to providing career counselling services to all students who wish to enrol.

Looking at the above data, it can be seen that participants perceived the existence of a link between their community and their community college. For example, most said their family lives in the same city as the college, and that the road to the college is easy and clear. At the same time, many students (*n* = 39) agreed with the statement that the community college should offer apprenticeships in its programmes, which indicates that they see a need for stronger links.

Moreover, it is notable that there was an equal number of A + SA responses and SD + D + N responses (n = 25 each) to the statements ranked 11 and 13. Responses to the 11th-ranked statement showed that (n = 25) of participants did not believe that they would secure a good job with their diploma. In addition, (n = 25) of participants believed that their community college did not have a clear policy on student admissions. Moreover, n = 24 students, in response to the statement that 'The community college provides special programmes on how to search for job opportunities and on how to write resumes' believed that their community college did not offer a programme that supported their entry to the workplace whilst n = 25 students believed the opposite. This raises an important question: did the students who said that the college did not offer any courses belong to either university that the study was conducted at? To answer this question, I used the Mann-Whitney test. The results revealed that female

respondents had a higher mean rank, suggesting that the female college covered here offers better courses in resume writing and job searching.

Furthermore, there was a widespread belief shared amongst participants that their community college did not allow students to participate fully in the decision-making processes, as shown by the frequency of responses to Statements 6 (R14) (n = 23) and 5 (R19) (n = 16). Moreover, participants generally believed that the strength and effectiveness of the links between their community college and the community could be increased. This was evidenced by the responses to Statements 14 (n = 23), 13 (n = 20), and 20 (n = 16).

The statement that received the highest degree of agreement from participants was Statement 8 (R22) (n = 13). Most students did not believe or realise that partners from the business sector participated in their college's curriculum design. This can be linked to the responses to Statement 6 (n = 23), where participants expressed that the community college did not allow them to participate fully in decision-making processes. To explore participants' responses in greater depth, it is helpful to assess the extent to which they agreed with each statement based on nationality, gender, work experience, and whether they currently have a part-time job.

6.3.2.1 Students' Perceptions of Localisation According to Nationality

Table 6-1 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Localisation According to Nationality

Test statistics: Nationality	
Mann-Whitney U test	14.000
Z-score	-1.700
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.089

Table 6-2 Students' Views on Localisation Rank Based on Nationality

Rank		
Nationality	N	Mean rank
Saudi	49	26.71
Non-Saudi	2	8.50
Total	51	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between Saudi and non-Saudi students' perceptions of localisation, with Saudi students (mean rank = 26.71) perceiving a greater degree of localisation than non-Saudi students (mean rank = 8.50; U = 14.000; $N1$ = 49; $N2$ = 2; p = .089, two-tailed).

6.3.2.2 Students' Perceptions of Localisation According to Gender

Table 6-3 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Localisation According to Gender

Test statistics: Gender	
Mann-Whitney U test	263.500
Z-score	-1.056
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.291

Table 6-4 Students' Views on Localisation Rank Based on Gender

Rank		
Nationality	**N**	**Mean rank**
Female	22	28.52
Male	29	24.09
Total	51	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female students' perceptions of localisation, with female students (mean rank = 28.52) perceiving a higher degree of localisation than male students (mean rank = 24.09; U = 263.500; $N1$ = 22; $N2$ = 29; p = .291, two-tailed).

6.3.2.3 Students' Perceptions of Localisation According to Work Experience

Table 6-5 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Localisation Based on Work Experience

Test statistics: Work Experience	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	1.754
Degrees of freedom	2
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.416

Table 6-6 Students' Views on Localisation Rank Based on Work Experience

Ranks		
Work experience	*N*	**Mean rank**
Three to six months	42	26.24
One year	3	34.00
More than one year	6	20.33
Total	51	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test indicate a statistically significant difference in the perceptions of localisation among students with varying levels of work experience. Out of 51 participants (N= 51 = 1.754; p = .416), a mean rank for their view on the implementation of localisation of 34.00 was recorded for students with one year of work experience, with 26.24 for students with three to six months of work experience, and 20.33 for students with more than one year of work experience. Therefore, the results suggest that students with one year of work experience perceived their community college as having implemented localisation to the greatest degree.

6.3.2.4 Students' Perceptions of Localisation Based on Whether They Currently Have a Part-time Job

Table 6-7 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Localisation Based on Whether They Currently Have a Part-time Job

Test statistics: Currently Holding a Part-time Job	
Mann-Whitney U test	91.000
Z-score	-.761
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.468

Table 6-8 Students' Views on Localisation Rank Based on Having a Part-time Job

Rank		
Have a part-time job	*N*	**Mean rank**
Yes	5	21.20
No	46	26.52
Total	51	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated a statistically significant difference in perceptions of localisation between students with a part-time job and those without, with the former (mean rank = 21.20) perceiving a higher degree of

localisation than the latter (mean rank = 26.52; U = 91.000; N1 = 5; N2 = 46; p = .468, two-tailed).

6.3.3   Comprehensiveness

This section reports the results related to the third dimension of the questionnaire, covering comprehensiveness. It contains four subsections with a total of 12 items as follows: admissions and equal opportunities policy (four items); pre-university education programmes (two items); vocational education programmes (three items); and remedial programmes (three items). Appendix 3 presents the descriptive statistics gleaned from responses to the 12 statements, and the ranking based on the frequency of agreement (A + SA) to identify the items with the highest or lowest incidences of agreement.

The data in Appendix 3 show that most participants agreed that their community college largely implemented the various elements of comprehensiveness. In terms of the frequency of responses (A + SA), the 'Rank' column reveals that the following nine statements gained most agreement from participants:

- Rank 1 (n = 40): 'I am planning to complete my bachelor's degree in the future.'

- Rank 2 (n = 37): 'The community college offers programmes that are accepted by employers in the labour market.'

- Rank 3 (n = 35): 'The community college provides foundation programmes in foreign languages according to the needs of the local sector.'

- Rank 4 (n = 35): 'Graduates of my programme at the community college are needed in the labour market.'

- Rank 5 (n = 32): 'Admission to my community college was easy.'

- Rank 6 (n = 31): 'The community college's programmes have a good reputation in the labour market.'

- Rank 7 (n = 30): 'The community college informs students about available educational opportunities.'

- Rank 8 (n = 26): 'The community college provides foundation programmes in reading and writing in Arabic.'

- Rank 9 (n = 25): 'I knew about the community college before I was admitted.'

On the other hand, the following statements received the lowest level of agreement from participants:

- Rank 10 (n = 23): 'The community college provides me with a list of universities that would accept my diploma to complete a university degree there.'

- Rank 11 (n = 18): 'The community college provides foundation programmes in mathematics, science, and physics.'

- Rank 12 (n = 11): 'The community college was my first option.'

The responses to these statements could be linked to the social stigma that surrounds community college students. Most participants agreed with the statement that the community college was not their first choice. At the same time, many believed that they would have no academic future after completing their study, and that colleges were not playing their part in offering educational consultation and providing them with a path to university to complete their education as the responses to statement R10 show.

6.3.3.1 Students' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Nationality

Table 6-9 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Nationality

Test statistics: Nationality	
Mann-Whitney U test	16.500
Z-score	-1.580
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.114

Table 6-10 Students' Views on Comprehensiveness Rank Based on Nationality

Rank		
Nationality	*N*	Mean rank
Saudi	49	26.66
Non-Saudi	2	9.75
Total	51	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated a statistically significant difference between Saudi and non-Saudi students' perceptions of comprehensiveness, with Saudi participants (mean rank = 9.75) perceiving a higher degree of comprehensiveness than non-Saudi students (mean rank = 26.66; U = 16.500; N1 = 49; N2 = 2; p = .114, two-tailed).

6.3.3.2 Students' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Gender

Table 6-11 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Gender

Test statistics: Gender	
Mann-Whitney U test	257.000
Z-score	-1.182
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.237

Table 6-12 Students' Views on Comprehensiveness Rank Based on Gender

Rank		
Nationality	*N*	Mean rank
Female	22	28.82
Male	29	23.86
Total	51	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated a statistically significant difference between male and female students' perceptions of comprehensiveness, with female students (mean rank = 28.82) perceiving a higher degree of comprehensiveness than male students (mean rank = 23.86; U = 275.000; $N1$ = 22; $N2$ = 29; p = .237, two-tailed).

6.3.3.3 Students' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Work Experience

Table 6-13 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Work Experience

Test statistics: Work Experience	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	.390
Degrees of freedom	2
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.823

Table 6-14 Students' Views on Comprehensiveness's Ranking Based on Experience

Ranks		
Work experience	N	Mean rank
Three to six months	42	25.63
One year	3	31.17
More than one year	6	26.00
Total	51	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in Table 6-13 show that there was a statistically significant difference in perceptions of comprehensiveness according to participants' level of work experience. Out of 51 participants (N= 51= .390, p = .823), the mean rank of perceptions on the implementation of comprehensiveness was 31.17 for students with one year of work experience, 26.00 for students who have more than one year of work experience, and 25.63 for students who have three to six months of work experience. Therefore, the results show that students with one year of work experience perceived their community college as having implemented comprehensiveness to the greatest degree.

6.3.3.4 Students' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness Based on Whether They Currently Have a Part-time Job

Table 6-15 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness Based on Whether They Currently Have a Part-time Job

Test statistics: Having aPart-time Job	
Mann-Whitney U test	115.000
Z-score	.000
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	1.000

Table 6-16 Students' Views on Comprehensiveness Rank Based on Having a Part-time Job

Rank		
currently have a part-time job	N	Mean rank
Yes	5	26.00
No	46	26.00
Total	51	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in perceptions of comprehensiveness between students with a part-time job and those without (mean rank = 26.00; U = 115.000; $N1$ = 5; $N2$ = 46; p = 1.000, two-tailed).

6.3.4 Flexibility

This section reports the results related to the fourth dimension of the questionnaire: flexibility. This dimension contains four items. Table 6-17 presents descriptive statistics in relation to responses to the four statements and their rank based on the frequency of agreement (A + SA) to identify the items with the highest or lowest incidences of agreement.

Table 6-17 Descriptive Statistics of Students' Perceptions and Attitudes Towards Flexibility

Elements of flexibility	Statements	Frequencies and percentages										Total		Rank
		SD		D		N		A		SA		SD + D + N	A + SA	
		%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F			
Flexibility	1. I have the option of registering in morning or evening classes.	7.8	4	13.7	7	25.5	13	29.4	15	19.6	10	24	25	3
	2. I think if there is a variety of option in-class time, I can work and study at the same time.	2.0	1	2.0	1	21.6	11	35.3	18	35.3	18	13	36	2
	3. The community college offers study options for some programmes (e.g., remote or part-time).	5.9	3	2.0	1	43.1	22	27.5	14	17.6	9	26	23	4
	4. The community college has a user-friendly website.	5.9	3	2.0	1	11.8	6	43.1	22	35.3	18	10	40	1
Total												73	124	

The data in Table 6-17 show that most participants agreed that their community college largely implemented the various elements of flexibility. The 'Rank' column reveals the following ranks for each statement:

- Rank 1 (*n* = 40): 'The community college has a user-friendly website.'

- Rank 2 (*n* = 36): 'I think if a variety of options is provided in terms of class times, I could combine work and study.'

- Rank 3 (*n* = 25): 'I have the option of registering for morning or evening classes.'

- Rank 4 (*n* = 23): 'The community college offers study options for some programmes (e.g. remote or part-time).'

By reviewing the responses to these statements, it can be seen that participants feel that if their community college offered a variety of options in terms of class times and study options for programmes (e.g. remote or part-time), they could combine work and study. The responses to these statements are at the heart of the conversation on opening community colleges up to different kinds of students (e.g. adults and ex-military). Without applying the sort of policy expressed in these statements, this would be difficult.

6.3.4.1 Students' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Nationality

Table 6-18 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Nationality

Test statistics: Nationality	
Mann-Whitney U test	30.000
Z-score	-.868
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.385

Table 6-19 Students' Views on Fexibility's Rank Based on Nationality

Rank		
Nationality	*N*	Mean rank
Saudi	47	25.36
Non-Saudi	2	16.50
Total	49	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated a statistically significant difference between Saudi and non-Saudi students' perceptions of flexibility, with Saudi students (mean rank = 25.36) perceiving a higher degree of flexibility than non-Saudi students (mean rank = 16.50; *U* = 30.000; *N1* = 47; *N2* = 2; *p* = .385, two-tailed).

6.3.4.2 Students' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Gender

Table 6-20 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Gender

Test statistics: Gender	
Mann-Whitney U test	276.500
Z-score	-.417
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.677

Table 6-21 StudentS' Views on Flexibility Rank Based on Gender

Rank		
Gender	*N*	Mean rank
Female	22	24.07
Male	27	25.76
Total	49	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between male and female participants' perceptions of flexibility, with male students (mean rank = 25.76) perceiving a greater degree of flexibility than female students (mean rank = 24.07; U = 276.500; N_1 = 22; N_2 = 27; p = .677, two-tailed).

6.3.4.3 Students' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Work Experience

Table 6-22 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Work Experience

Test statistics: Work Experience	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	.576
Degrees of freedom	2
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.750

Table 6-23 Students' Views on Flexibility Rank Based on Experience

Ranks		
Work experience	*N*	Mean rank
Three to six months	40	24.59
One year	3	22.67
More than one year	6	28.92
Total	49	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test in Table 6-22 show that there was a statistically significant difference in perceptions of flexibility amongst students according to their level of work experience. Out of a total of 49 participants (N 49= .576, p = .750), the mean rank for perceptions on the implementation of flexibility was 28.92 for students with more than one year of work experience, 24.59 for students who have three to six months of work experience, and 22.67 for students who have one year of work experience. Therefore, the results suggest that students with more than one year of work experience perceived the community college as having implemented flexibility to the greatest degree.

6.3.4.4 Students' Perceptions of Flexibility Based on Whether They Currently Have a Part-time Job

Table 6-24 Differences in Students' Perceptions of Flexibility Based on Whether They Currently Have a Part-time Job

Test statistics: Having a Part-time Job	
Mann-Whitney U test	104.000
Z-score	-.200
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.841

Table 6-25 Students' Views on Flexibility Rank Based on Having a Part-time Job

Rank		
having part-time job	N	Mean rank
Yes	5	26.20
No	44	24.86
Total	49	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated a statistically significant difference in perceptions of flexibility between students without a part-time job and students with a part-time job. The data show that students with a part-time job (mean rank = 26.20) perceived a greater degree of flexibility implementation than students without a part-time job (mean rank = 24.86; U = 104.000; $N1$ = 5; $N2$ = 44; p = .841, two-tailed).

6.3.5 Accreditation

This section reports the results related to the fifth dimension of the questionnaire (accreditation) and contains two items. Table 6-26 presents the descriptive statistics regarding responses to the two statements, and the ranking based on the frequency of agreement (A + SA).

Table 6-26 Descriptive Statistics of Students' Perceptions and Attitudes Towards Accreditation

Elements of accreditation	Statements	Frequencies and percentages										Total		Rank
		SD		D		N		A		SA				
		%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	SD + D + N	A + SA	
Accreditation	1. The community college must be accredited.	2.0	1	0	0	3.9	2	31.4	16	58.8	30	3	46	1
	2. The community college should seek local accreditation for its programmes.	2.0	1	0	0	9.8	5	25.5	13	58.8	30	6	43	2
Total												9	89	

The data in Table 6-26 show that most participants agreed that their community college should obtain greater accreditation. Overall, 46 participants agreed with the top-ranked statement ('The community college should be accredited') and 43 agreed with the second-ranked statement ('The community college should seek local accreditation for its programmes'). Thus, it can be seen that students are aware of the importance of accreditation.

6.3.6 Transfer

This section reports the results related to the sixth dimension of the questionnaire: transfer. This dimension contains two items. Table 6-27 presents the descriptive statistics in relation to responses to the two statements, and their ranking based on the frequency of agreement (A + SA) to identify the items with the highest and lowest incidences of agreement.

Table 6-27 Descriptive Statistics of Students' Perceptions and Attitudes Towards Transfer

Elements of transfer	Statements	Frequencies and percentages										Total		Rank
		SD		D		N		A		SA		SD + D + N	A + SA	
		%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F			
Transfer	1. In my opinion, community colleges should have agreements with local universities to help graduates complete their university studies.	2.0	1	0	0	7.8	4	17.6	9	68.6	35	5	44	1
	2. In my opinion, community colleges should have agreements with local and international professional organizations and societies to ensure that their programmes count as credit towards professional certificates or licenses.	2.0	1	0	0	11.8	6	21.6	11	60.8	31	7	42	2
Total												12	86	

The data in Table 6-27 show that most participants agreed that the community college should make improvements in terms of transfer. They generally believed that community colleges ought to play a crucial role in helping students to transfer to other universities to complete their studies. For instance, 44 participants agreed with the top-ranked statement ('In my opinion, community colleges should have agreements with local universities to help graduates complete their university studies') and 42 agreed with the second-ranked statement ('In my opinion, community colleges should have agreements with

local and international professional organisations and societies to ensure that their programmes' credits count towards professional certificates or licenses').

6.4 Faculty Member Questionnaire

As was the case with the student questionnaire, the faculty member questionnaire covered the following six dimensions:

- Demographic information;

- Localisation;

- Comprehensiveness;

- Flexibility;

- Accreditation; and

- Transfer.

The following subsections present an analysis of responses under each dimension.

6.4.1 Demographic Information

The first section of the questionnaire asked participants to provide information on their nationality, gender, level of education, country of last degree, teaching experience, and non-teaching work experience. The aim here was to gain an understanding of the perspectives of faculty members at community colleges on the implementation of three elements – localisation, comprehensiveness, and flexibility – and whether there was a correlation between their demographic characteristics and their views on these elements. Furthermore, the questionnaire set out to obtain an understanding of faculty members' perspectives on the importance of accreditation and transfer at community colleges.

In total, there were 21 faculty member participants, of which 12 (57.1%) were Saudi and nine (42%) were non-Saudi. In addition, 10 (47.6%) of the participants were male and 11 (52.4%) were female. Regarding education level, most participants (*n* = 12 or 57.1%) indicated that they had a PhD degree, seven (33.3%) had a master's degree, and two (9.5%) had a bachelor's degree. In terms of the country where the faculty members attained their last academic degree, only three participants (14.3%) had done so in Saudi Arabia, three (14.3%) had done so in the UK, four (19.0%) had done so in the US, and 11 (52.4%) had done so in another country. Most participants (*n* = 19 or 90%) reported having more than three years of teaching experience, whilst two (9.5%) reported having one to three years of teaching experience. Regarding non-teaching work experience, nine participants (42.9%) indicated that they had more than three years of experience, eight (38.1%) had less than one year of experience, and four (19.0%) had between one and three years of experienc. Figure 6-3 summarises the demographic distribution of participants who completed the faculty member questionnaire.

Figure 6-3 Demographic Distribution of Faculty Members Based on Nationality, Gender, Level of Education, Country of Last Degree, Teaching Experience, and Non-teaching Work Experience
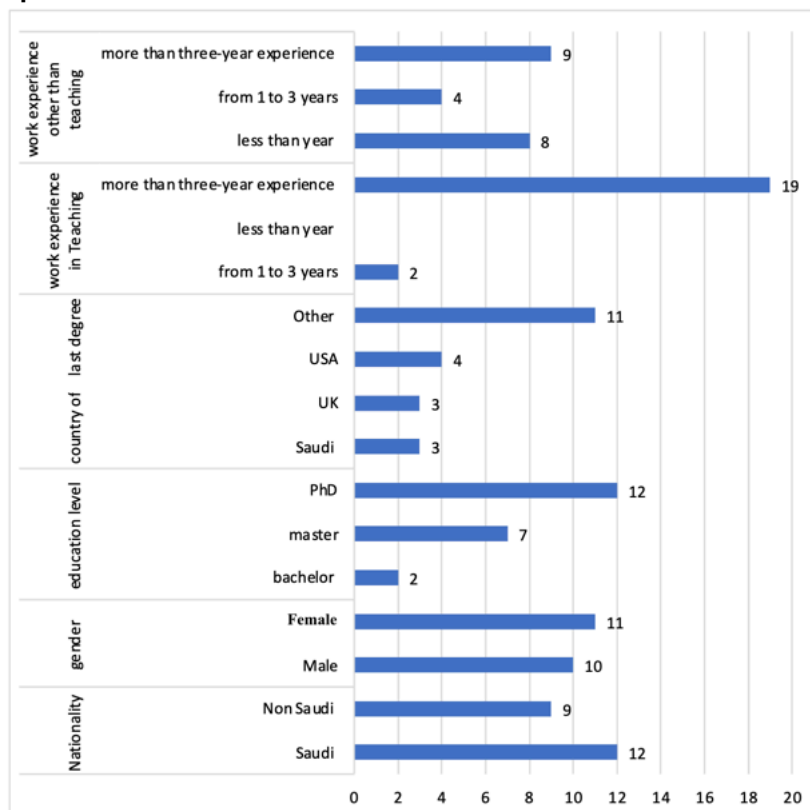
From the figure above, it is notable that the number of participants in terms of gender and nationality is more or less even. This may provide some assurance that each such group was given an equal opportunity to participate in this study. The higher number of non-Saudi faculty members (n = 9) compared to the number of non-Saudi students (n = 2) in the study could be attributed to the recruitment policy in the higher education system in Saudi Arabia, whereby most teaching positions are held by non-Saudi citizens. This could also explain the relatively high number of PhD and master's degree holders compared to bachelor's degree holders amongst the faculty members, which reflects a preference for candidates with higher degrees to fill faculty positions in the Saudi higher education system. Lastly, this could also explain why faculty members tend to have more teaching experience than non-teaching work experience.

6.4.2 Localisation

This section reports the results related to the second dimension of the questionnaire: localisation. This part of the questionnaire was divided into four subsections with a total of 27 items as follows: location (two items); decision-making processes (seven items); building relationships with different sectors (10 items); and career guidance (eight items). Appendix 4 presents the descriptive statistics, regarding responses to the 27 statements, and their ranking based on the frequency of agreement (A + SA) to identify the items with the highest or lowest incidences of agreement.

The data in Appendix 4 show that most participants agreed that their community college implemented localisation. However, the 'Rank' column reveals some notable differences in the collected data. In particular, the participants generally agreed on 16 statements. In terms of level of agreement, the top- and second-ranked statements were Statement 26 ('The community college provides special programmes on how to search for job opportunities and write resumes') and Statement 27 ('The community college builds close relationships with companies, private and public offices, and human resources departments in all sectors of the local economy, which received 20 and 18 responses in the high agreement categories (A + SA), respectively.

Four statements tied third in the rankings, with 17 responses each. These were Statement 22 ('The community college educates students about available career options in the local community'), Statement 21 ('The community college is committed to providing career counselling services to all students who wish to enrol'), Statement 2 ('The road to the community college is easy to follow'), and Statement 3 ('The community college has a clear policy for recruiting faculty members').

Conversely, the 11 statements ranked 17th ('The community college has different civil advisory boards from the local community', $n = 10$) to Statemen 27th ('The community college supports faculty members to work on a part-time basis in the labour market to enhance skills and build expertise in the field', $n = 3$) received the lowest level of agreement among participants. From these statements, it can be seen that the faculty members believed that links between their community college and the local community could be strengthened. Furthermore, faculty members generally felt that their college does not support their growth. This is evidenced by the low level of agreement with the statements ranked 25th ('The college supports the faculty's participation in recruitment committees at local organisations', $n = 6$) and last ('The community college supports faculty members to work on a part-time basis in the labour market to enhance their skills and build their expertise in the field', $n = 3$).

6.4.2.1 The Faculty's Perceptions of Localisation According to Nationality

Table 6-28 Differences in the Faculty Members' Perceptions of Localisation According to Nationality

Test statistics: Nationality	
Mann-Whitney U test	7.000
Z-score	-3.344
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.001

Table 6-29 Faculty Members' Views on Localisation's Rank Based on Nationality

Rank		
Nationality	***N***	**Mean rank**
Saudi	12	7.08
Non-Saudi	9	16.22
Total	21	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated a statistically significant difference in perceptions of localisation between Saudi and non-Saudi faculty members, with non-Saudi participants (mean rank = 16.22) perceiving a greater degree of localisation than Saudi participants (mean rank = 7.08; *U* = 7000; *N1* = 12; *N2* = 9; *p* = .001, two-tailed).

6.4.2.2 The Faculty's Perceptions of Localisation According to Gender

Table 6-30 Differences in the Faculty Members' Perceptions of Localisation According to Gender

Test statistics:Gender	
Mann-Whitney U test	44.000
Z-score	-.776
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.438

Table 6-31 Faculty Members' Views on Localisation's Rank Based on Gender

Rank		
Gender	*N*	Mean rank
Female	11	10.00
Male	10	21.10
Total	21	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated a statistically significant difference in perceptions of localisation between male and female faculty members, with male participants (mean rank = 21.10) perceiving a greater degree of localisation than female participants (mean rank = 10.00; *U* = 44.000; *N1* = 11; *N2* = 10; *p* = .438, two-tailed).

6.4.2.3 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Localisation According to Education Level

Table 6-32 Differences in the faculty Members' Perceptions of Localisation According to Education Level

Test statistics: Education Level	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	8.748
Degrees of freedom	2
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.013

Table 6-33 Faculty Members' Views on Localisation Rank Based on Education Level

Ranks		
Education level	*N*	**Mean rank**
Bachelor's degree	2	5.75
Master's degree	7	6.57
PhD	12	14.46
Total	21	

In Table 6-32 the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test show statistically significant differences in perceptions of localisation amongst faculty members with different education levels. Out of 21 participants (N 21= 8.748, p = .013), the mean rank for perceptions of the implementation of localisation was 14.64 for faculty members with a PhD, 6.57 for faculty members who have a master's degree, and 5.75 for faculty members who have a bachelor's degree. Therefore, the results show that faculty members with a PhD perceived their community college as having implemented localisation to the greatest degree.

6.4.2.4 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Localisation According to Country of Last Degree

Table 6-34 Differences in The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Localisation According to Country of Last Degree

Test statistics: Country of Last Degree	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	4.221
Degrees of freedom	3
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.239

Table 6-35 Faculty Members' Views on Localisation Rank Based on Country of Last Degree

Test statistics: Country of Last Degree	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	4.221
Degrees of freedom	3
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.239

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in Table 6-34 show that there were statistically significant differences in perceptions of localisation amongst faculty members based on their country of last degree. Out of 21 participants (N

21= 4.221, *p* = .239), the mean rank for believing that localisation was being implemented of 13.64 for faculty members who have a degree from country other than Saudi Arabia, the UK, or the US, 8.50 for faculty members who have a degree from Saudi Arabia, 8.33 for faculty members who have a degree from the UK, and 7.63 for faculty members who have a degree from the US. Thus, the results show that faculty members with a degree from a country other than Saudi Arabia, the UK, or the US perceived their community college as having implemented localisation to the greatest degree.

6.4.2.5 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Localisation According to Country of Teaching Experience

Table 6-36 Differences in Faculty Members' Perceptions of Localisation According to Country of Teaching Experience

Test statistics: Teaching Experience	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	5.195
Degrees of freedom	1
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.023

Table 6-37 Faculty Members' Views on Localisation Rank Based on Teaching Experience

Ranks		
Teaching experience	*N*	**Mean rank**
Less than one year	0	0
One to three years	2	1.50
More than three years	19	12.00
Total	21	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in Table 6-36 show that there were statistically significant differences in perceptions of localisation amongst faculty members with different levels of teaching experience. Out of 21 participants (N 21= 5.195, p = .023), the mean rank for believing that localisation was being implemented was 12.00 for faculty members with more than three years of teaching experience, and 1.50 for faculty members who have one to three years of experience. Thus, the results show that faculty members with more than three years of teaching experience perceived their community college as having implemented localisation to the greatest degree.

6.4.2.6 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Localisation According to Country of Non-teaching Work Experience

Table 6-38 Differences in the Faculty Members' Perceptions of Localisation According to Non-Teaching Work Experience

Test statistics: Non-teaching Work Experience	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	4.408
Degrees of freedom	2
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.110

Table 6-39 Faculty Members' Views on Localisation's Rank Based on Non-Teaching Work Experience

Ranks		
Non-teaching work experience	*N*	Mean rank
Less than one year	8	8.50
One to three years	4	8.63
More than three years	9	14.24
Total	21	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in Table 6-38 show that there were statistically significant differences in perceptions of localisation amongst faculty members with different levels of non-teaching work experience. Out of 21 participants (N 21= 4.408, p = .110), the mean rank for perceptions of the implementation of localisation was 14.24 for faculty members with more than three years of non-teaching work experience, 8.50 for faculty members who have less than a year of non-teaching work experience, and 8.63 for faculty members who have from one to three years of non-teaching work experience. Thus, the results show that faculty members with more than three years of non-teaching work experience perceived their community college as having implemented localisation to the greatest degree.

6.4.3 Comprehensiveness

This section reports the results related to the third dimension of the faculty member questionnaire: comprehensiveness. This dimension is divided into four subsections with a total of 12 items as follows: admissions and equal opportunities policy (four items); pre-university education programmes (two

items); vocational education programmes (three items); and remedial programmes (three items).Appendix 5 presents the descriptive statistics gleaned from the responses to the 12 statements, and their ranking based on the frequency of agreement (A + SA) to identify the items with the highest or lowest incidences of agreement.

As shown in Appendix 5, most participants agreed that their community college largely implemented comprehensiveness. Generally, participants expressed agreement with seven statements, ranging from the top-ranked statement ('The community college offers professional and vocational programmes that serve local needs', $n = 20$) to the seventh-ranked statement ('The community college admits all local students aged 18 and above with a high school diploma, regardless of grades, in its academic programmes (pre-university preparation)', $n = 12$).

On the other hand, the statements that received the lowest level of agreement from participants included the eighth-ranked statement ('The community college locally and periodically advertises its professional and preparatory programmes in a manner that ensures equal opportunities for all who wish to enrol in them,' $n = 10$) to the last-ranked statement ('The community college provides foundation programmes in mathematics, science, and physics,' $n = 4$).

6.4.3.1 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Nationality

Table 6-40 Differences in Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Nationality

Test statistics: Nationality	
	Comprehensiveness
Mann-Whitney U test	23.000
Z-score	-2.207
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.027

Table 6-41 Faculty Members' Views on Comprehensiveness Rank Based on Nationality

Rank		
Nationality	*N*	**Mean rank**
Saudi	12	8.42
Non-Saudi	9	14.44
Total	21	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated a statistically significant difference in perceptions of comprehensiveness between Saudi and non-Saudi faculty members, with non-Saudi participants (mean rank = 14.44) perceiving a greater degree of comprehensiveness than Saudi participants (mean rank = 8.42; U = 23.000; $N1$ = 12; $N2$ = 9; p = .027, two-tailed).

6.4.3.2 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Gender

Table 6-42 Differences in the Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Gender

Test statistics: Gender	
Mann-Whitney U test	43.000
Z-score	-.847
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.397

Table 6-43 Faculty Members' Views on Comprehensiveness's Rank Based on Gender

Rank		
Gender	*N*	**Mean rank**
Female	11	9.91
Male	10	12.20
Total	21	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated a statistically significant difference in perceptions of comprehensiveness between male and female faculty members, with male participants (mean rank = 12.20) perceiving a greater degree of comprehensiveness than female participants (mean rank = 9.91; U =43.000; $N1$ = 11; $N2$ = 10; p = .397, two-tailed).

6.4.3.3 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Education Level

Table 6-44 Differences in Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Education Level

Test statistics: Level of Education	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	8.189
Degrees of freedom	2
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.017

Table 6-45 Faculty Members' Views on Comprehensiveness Rank Based on Education Level

Ranks		
Education level	**N**	**Mean rank**
Bachelor's degree	2	4.00
Master's degree	7	7.43
PhD	12	14.25
Total	21	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in Table 6-44 show that there were statistically significant differences in perceptions of comprehensiveness amongst faculty members with different levels of education. Out of 21 participants (N 21= 8.189, p = .017), the mean rank for believing that comprehensiveness is being implemented was 14.25 for faculty members with a PhD, 7.43 for faculty members who have a master's degree, and 4.00 for faculty members who have a bachelor's degree. Thus, the results show that faculty members with a PhD perceived their community college as having implemented comprehensiveness to the greatest degree.

6.4.3.4 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Country of Last Degree

Table 6-46 Differences in the Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Country of Last Degree

Test statistics: Country of Last Degree	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	1.737
Degrees of freedom	3
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.629

Table 6-47 Faculty Members' Views on Comprehensiveness's Rank Based on Country of Last Degree

Ranks		
Country of last degree	**N**	**Mean rank**
Saudi Arabia	3	10.33
United States	4	8.00
United Kingdom	3	10.00
Other	11	12.55
Total	21	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in Table 6-46 show that there were statistically significant differences in perceptions of comprehensiveness amongst faculty members depending on the country of their last degree. Out of 21 participants (N21= 1.737, p = .629), the mean rank for perceptions of the implementation of comprehensiveness was 12.55 for faculty members whose last degree was obtained from a country other than Saudi Arabia, the UK, or the US, 10.33 for faculty members whose last degree was obtained in Saudi Arabia, 10.00 for faculty members whose last degree was obtained from the UK, and 8.00 for faculty members whose last degree was obtained from the US. Thus, the results show that faculty members whose last degree was obtained from a country other than Saudi Arabia, the UK, or the US perceived their community college as having implemented comprehensiveness to the greatest degree.

6.4.3.5 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Teaching Experience

Table 6-48 Differences in Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Teaching Experience

Test statistics: Teaching Experience	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	2.435
Degrees of freedom	1
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.119

Table 6-49 Faculty Members' Views on Comprehensivness's Rank Based On Teaching Experience

Ranks		
Teaching experience	***N***	**Mean rank**
Less than one year	0	0
One to three years	2	4.50
More than three years	19	11.68
Total	21	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in Table 6-48 show that there was a statistically significant difference in perceptions of comprehensiveness amongst faculty members with different levels of teaching experience. Out of 21 participants (N 21= 2.435, *p* = .119), the mean rank for perceptions of the implementation of comprehensiveness was 11.68 for faculty members with more than three years of teaching experience, and 4.50 for faculty members with teaching experience of between one and three years. Thus, the results show that faculty members with more than three years of teaching experience perceived their community college as having implemented comprehensiveness to the greatest degree.

6.4.3.6 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Non-teaching Work Experience

Table 6-50 Differencesin Faculty Members' Perceptions of Comprehensiveness According to Non-Teaching Work Experience

Test statistics: Non-teaching Work Experience	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	1.139
Degrees of freedom	2
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.566

Table 6-51 Faculty Members' Views on Comprehensiveness's Rank Based on Non-Teaching Work Experience

Ranks		
Non- teaching work experience	***N***	**Mean rank**
Less than one year	8	11.00
One to three years	4	8.25
More than three years	9	12.22
Total	21	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in Table 6-50 show that there were statistically significant differences in perceptions of comprehensiveness amongst faculty members with different levels of non-teaching work experience. Out of 21 participants (N21= 1.139, p = .566), the mean rank for believing that comprehensiveness was being implemented was 12.22 for faculty members with more than three years of non-teaching work experience, 11.00 for faculty members with less than a year of non-teaching work experience, and 8.25 for faculty members with between one and three years of non-teaching work experience. Thus, the results show that faculty members with more than three years of non-teaching work experience perceived their community college as having implemented comprehensiveness to the greatest degree.

6.4.4 Flexibility

This section reports the results related to the fourth dimension of the faculty member questionnaire: flexibility. It encompasses five statements. Table 6-52 presents the descriptive statistics gleaned from the responses to the five statements, and their ranking based on the frequency of agreement (A + SA) to identify the items with the highest or lowest incidences of agreement.

Table 6-52 Descriptive Statistics of Faculty Members' Perceptions and Attitudes Towards The Community College's Implementation of Flexibility

Elements of flexibility	Statements	Frequencies and percentages										Frequencies		Rank
		SD		D		N		A		SA		Total		
		%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	SD + D + N	A + SA	
	The community college offers the option to join morning or evening programmes.	19.0	4	28.6	6	14.3	3	33.3	7	4.8	1	13	8	3
	The community college provides programmes ranging from one to three years.	9.5	2	23.8	5	4.8	1	42.9	9	19.0	4	8	13	2
	The community college provides vocational, educational, awareness moreover, educative programmes ranging from one week to six months.	28.6	6	33.3	7	9.5	2	9.5	2	19.0	4	15	6	4
	The community college offers study options in some programmes according to the appropriate of each (distance, part-time).	28.6	6	33.3	7	14.3	3	19.0	4	4.8	1	16	5	5
	The community college has a user-friendly website.	4.8	1	4.8	1	14.3	3	33.3	7	42.9	9	5	16	1
Total												57	48	

As shown in Table 6-52 most participants agreed that their community college did not sufficiently implement flexibility. The participants generally expressed

agreement with two statements, namely 'The community college has a user-friendly website' (Rank 1, *n* = 16) and 'The community college provides programmes ranging from one to three years' (Rank 2, *n* = 13). However, there was a low level of agreement regarding the remaining three statements: 'The community college offers the option of morning or evening classes ' (Rank 3, *n* = 8), 'The community college provides vocational, educational, awareness moreover, educative programmes ranging from one week to six months' (Rank 4, *n* = 6), and 'The community college offers different study options in some programmes where appropriate (e.g. distance learning or part-time)' (Rank 5, *n* = 5). Looking at the responses to these statements, it can be seen that the community colleges could do more to improve the implementation of flexibility such as by offering morning and evening classes.

6.4.4.1 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Nationality

Table 6-53 Differences in The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Nationality

Test statistics: Nationality	
Mann-Whitney U test	29.500
Z-score	-1.748
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.080

Table 6-54 Faculty Members' Views on Flexibility Rank Based on Nationality

Rank		
Nationality	*N*	Mean rank
Saudi	12	8.96
Non-Saudi	9	13.72
Total	21	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated a statistically significant difference in perceptions of flexibility between Saudi and non-Saudi faculty members, with non-Saudi participants (mean rank = 13.72) perceiving a greater degree of flexibility than Saudi participants (mean rank = 8.96; U = 29.500; $N1$ = 12; $N2$ = 9; p = .080, two-tailed).

6.4.4.2 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Gender

Table 6-55 Differences in Faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Gender

Test statistics: Gender	
Mann-Whitney U test	46.000
Z-score	-.636
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.525

Table 6-56 Faculty Members' Views on Flexibility Rank Based on Gender

Rank		
Gender	*N*	Mean rank
Female	11	11.82
Male	10	10.10
Total	21	

The Mann-Whitney test indicated a statistically significant difference between perceptions of flexibility between male and female faculty members, with female participants (mean rank = 11.82) perceiving a greater degree of flexibility than male participants (mean rank = 10.10; *U* = 46.000; *N1* = 11; *N2* = 10; *p* = .525, two-tailed).

6.4.4.3 The faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Education Level

Table 6-57 Differences in Faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Education Level

Test statistics: Education Level	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	3.224
Degrees of freedom	2
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.199

Table 6-58 Faculty Members' Views on Flexibility's Rank Based on Education Level

Ranks		
Education level	*N*	**Mean rank**
Bachelor's degree	2	6.25
Master's degree	7	8.39
PhD	12	13.00
Total	21	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in Table 6-57 show that there were statistically significant differences in perceptions of flexibility amongst faculty members with different levels of educational attainment. Out of a total of 21 participants, (N 21= 3.224 , *p* = .199), the mean rank for believing that flexibility was being implemented was 13.00 for faculty members with a PhD, 8.39 for faculty members with a master's degree, and 6.25 for faculty members with a bachelor's degree. Thus, the results show that faculty members with a PhD perceived their community college as having implemented flexibility to the greatest degree.

6.4.4.4 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Country of Last Degree

Table 6-59 Differences in Faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Country of Last Degree

Test statistics: Country of Last Degree	
	Flexibility
Kruskal-Wallis H test	4.294
Degrees of freedom	3
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.231

Table 6-60 Faculty Members' Views on Flexibility Rank Based on Country of Last Degree

Ranks		
Country of Last Degree	*N*	Mean rank
Saudi Arabia	3	12.33
United States	4	5.50
United Kingdom	3	10.33
Other	11	12.82
Total	21	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in Table 6-59 show that there were statistically significant differences in perceptions of flexibility amongst faculty members with degrees from different countries. Out of 21 participants (N21= 4.294, *p* = .231), the mean rank for perceptions of the implementation of flexibility was 12.82 for faculty members whose last degree was obtained from a country other than Saudi Arabia, the UK, or the US, 12.33 for faculty members whose last degree was obtained in Saudi Arabia, 10.33 for faculty members

whose last degree was obtained from the UK, and 5.50 for faculty members whose last degree was obtained from the US. Thus, the results show that faculty members whose last degree was from a country other than Saudi Arabia, the UK, or the US perceived their community college as having implemented flexibility to the greatest degree.

6.4.4.5 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Teaching Experience

Table 6-61 Differences in Faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Teaching Experience

Test statistics: Teaching Experience	
Kruskal-Wallis H test	.611
Degrees of freedom	1
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.434

Table 6-62 Faculty Members' Views on Flexibility Rank Based on Teaching Experience

Ranks		
Teaching experience	*N*	**Mean rank**
Less than one year	0	0
One to three years	2	7.75
More than three years	19	11.34
Total	21	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in in Table 6-61 show that there was a statistically significant difference in perceptions of flexibility amongst faculty members with different levels of teaching experience. Out of 21 participants (N21 = .611, p = .434), the mean rank for believing that flexibility was being implemented was 11.34 for faculty members with more than three years of teaching experience, and 7.75 for faculty members who have one to three years of teaching experience. Thus, the results show that faculty members with more than three years of teaching experience perceived their community college as having implemented flexibility to the greatest degree.

6.4.4.6 The Faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Non-teaching Work Experience

Table 6-63 Differences in Faculty Members' Perceptions of Flexibility According to Non-teaching Work Experience

Test statistics: Non-teaching Work Experience	
	Flexibility
Kruskal-Wallis H test	1.062
Degrees of freedom	2
Asymptotic significance (two-tailed)	.588

Table 6-64 Faculty Members' Views on Flexibility Rank Based on Non-teaching Work Experience

Ranks		
Non-teaching work experience	**N**	**Mean rank**
Less than one year	8	11.19
One to three years	4	8.25
More than three years	9	11.06
Total	21	

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test presented in Table 6-63 show that there were statistically significant differences in perceptions of flexibility amongst faculty members with different levels of non-teaching work experience. Out of 21 participants (N21= 1.062, *p* = .588), the mean rank for believing that flexibility was being implemented was 11.19 for faculty members with less than one year of non-teaching work experience, 11.06 for faculty members with more than three years of non-teaching work experience, and 8.25 for faculty members with between one and three years of non-teaching work experience. Thus, the results show that participants with less than one year of non-teaching work experience perceived their community college as having implemented flexibility to the greatest degree.

6.4.5 Accreditation

This section reports the results related to the fifth dimension of the faculty member questionnaire: accreditation. This dimension contains three items. Table 6-65 presents the descriptive statistics gleaned from responses to the three statements, and their ranking based on the frequency of agreement (A + SA).

Table 6-65 Descriptive Statistics of Faculty Members' Perceptions and Attitudes Towards the Community Colleges' Implementation of Accreditation

Elements of accreditation	Statements	Frequencies and percentages										Frequencies		Rank
		SD		D		N		A		SA		Total		
		%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	SD + D + N	A + SA	
Accreditation	The community college's programmes are locally accredited.	4.8	1	4.8	1	19.0	4	23.8	5	47.6	10	6	15	2
	The community college works to obtain international accreditation for some of its programmes, in line with international standards.	0	0	0	0	19.0	4	38.1	8	42.9	9	4	17	1
	The community college supports its faculty members to obtain local and international professional certificates.	9.5	2	9.5	2	14.3	3	28.6	6	38.1	8	7	14	3
Total												17	46	

Table 6-65 illustrates the strong agreement amongst faculty members on the importance of accreditation. They generally expressed agreement with all three statements in this section, with response frequencies ranging from n = 17 to n = 14.

6.4.6 Transfer

This section reports the results related to the sixth and final dimension of the faculty member questionnaire: transfer. This dimension contains three statements. Table 6-66 presents the descriptive statistics gleaned from the responses to the three statements, and their ranking based on the frequency of agreement (A + SA) to identify the items with the highest and lowest incidences of agreement.

Table 6-66 Descriptive Statistics of Faculty Members' Perceptions and Attitudes Towards the Community Colleges' Implementation of Transfer

Elements of transfer	Statements	Frequencies and percentages										Frequencies		Rank
		SD		D		N		A		SA		Total		
		%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	SD + D + N	A + SA	
Transfer	The community college has agreements with local and regional universities to help graduates complete their university studies.	19.0	4	28.6	6	23.8	5	28.6	6	0	0	15	6	3
	The community college should have agreements with local and international professional organizations and societies to ensure that its programmes count as credit towards professional certificates or licenses.	4.8	1	19.0	4	33.3	7	28.6	6	14.3	3	12	9	2
	The college should have agreements with local, national, and international universities to help graduates from its pre-university programmes to complete their university studies.	0	0	0	0	4.8	1	47.6	10	47.6	10	1	20	1
Total												28	35	

As shown in Table 6-66 most participants agreed that transfer was an important element for community colleges. Notably, agreement with the second-ranked statement ('The community college should secure agreements with local and international professional organisations and societies to ensure that its programmes' credits count towards professional certificates or licenses,' *n* = 9) was low. This is because most faculty members at community colleges have an academic background, rather than a professional one.

6.5   Conclusion

This chapter has described the results gleaned from two questionnaires used to gather data from students and faculty members at two community colleges. The first questionnaire focused on student participants and explored six dimensions, namely demographic information, localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, accreditation, and transfer, while the second questionnaire focused on faculty members and covered the same six dimensions. A summary of the findings obtained from both questionnaires is presented in Appendix 6.

The next chapter presents an analysis of the qualitative data, which were gathered through semi-structured interviews. That is followed by the discussion chapter, which synthesizes the results gleaned from both the qualitative and quantitative data, addressing the research questions from different angles to establish a holistic understanding of the Saudi community college model.

Chapter 7   Qualitative Data Analysis

7.1 Introduction

This chapter analyses the data collected using semi-structured interviews with various stakeholders, including deans, education experts, and business leaders. In particular, these stakeholders were asked the following questions:

- To what extent has the community college implemented the three elements localisation, comprehensive programmes, and flexibility from your perspective?

- What is your perspective on the importance of transfer and accreditation for community colleges?

- In what ways could the implementation of the five elements of localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, transfer, and accreditation be enhanced in the community colleges?

The data were collected during fieldwork across multiple levels, as described in Chapter 5. The current chapter examines these data, as well as the various themes that emerged from the interviews. The aims of this analysis are to provide a comprehensive understanding of the perspectives of the stakeholders on existing challenges for community colleges and propose further recommendations to enhance the community college model in Saudi Arabia.

7.2 Analysis Stages

In this section, the specific methods used to analyse the collected data are discussed, including a detailed description of the steps taken to ensure the reliability and validity of the analysis. Moreover, a thematic analysis, which is a popular approach deployed across various research methods (qualitative and quantitative), was applied to the data. Boyatzis (1998) argues that thematic analysis is a tool, rather than a method per se, that can be used in different methods and theoretical approaches. Indeed, scholars from many fields and disciplines have applied it (Mills et al., 2010).

Essentially, thematic analysis is a systematic approach that involves identifying themes or patterns. This type of analysis goes beyond counting words and/or phrases to include other aspects, such as segmented, categorised, summarised, and reconstructed data, to gain a deeper understanding of the main concepts (Given, 2008). According to Mills et al. (2010), myriad data sources can be examined via thematic analysis, namely interview transcripts, field notes, written information provided by participants (e.g. diaries or journals), research memos, historical or site documents, photographs, drawings, maps, digital audio files, and video files (Mills et al., 2010, p 926). Specifically, this the primary data source for this research's thematic analysis was interview transcripts.

Thematic analysis identifies themes that can be captured in specific data. According to King and Brooks (2017), coding is the simplest strategy in thematic analysis. It is a process where the researcher inspecting a text looks for recurring topics or relationships that can be labelled or coded accordingly. The researcher then merges the codes based on their similarity to form a theme. To create themes in thematic analysis, two approaches are commonly used: the deductive approach and the inductive approach. The former entails identifying themes from the literature review and those surfacing from the data analysis. Meanwhile, in the inductive approach, themes emerge directly from the data without any influence from preconceived ideas or theories (Mills et al., 2010). In this research, a deductive approach was taken whereby certain themes were identified from the literature review, which subsequently informed the design of the interview questions. Additional themes also emerged from the analysis, including those relating to COVID-19 and Saudi Vision 2030. The combination of themes allowed for a comprehensive understanding of the phenomena under investigation. These themes were then used to guide the coding process and ensure that all relevant information was captured.

The following stages were adopted in the course of analysing the qualitative data (see Figure 7-1):

1. **Organising and knowing**: Six interviews were conducted (two with the deans of community colleges, two with education experts, and two with business leaders). Here, permission was sought from the participants to

record the interviews, but only four of them accepted. All interviews were conducted in Arabic, the mother tongue of all participants. The recorded interviews were then transcribed and translated into English. For the two interviews that were not recorded, written notes in Arabic were taken by the researcher who by doing was able to remain attentive while documenting their responses. These notes were also translated into English, a process which increased the researcher's familiarity with the data. To facilitate this endeavour, specialised software NVivo 12 was used.

2. **Coding data**: As mentioned above, a deductive approach was taken for which themes were pre-determined during the literature review. Other emerging themes were also identified during the analysis and coding. At this stage, the researcher read each interview transcript at least twice. Every part of each transcript was carefully coded in accordance with the pre-determined themes. In instances where the content did not correspond with a pre-determined theme, a new theme was created that accurately captured its essence. This process ensured that all relevant information was gathered and that the data were analysed comprehensively.

3. **Creating themes**: At this stage, concepts that are similar in nature were merged into a single theme from the pre-determined themes. For content to which none of the pre-determined themes applied, new themes were created, such as COVID-19.

4. **Generating the final themes**: At this stage, each theme was re-examined along with its corresponding data, after which the final themes were generated. These themes best reflect the insights gained from the interviews conducted with the deans, education experts, and business leaders.

5. **Reporting the data**: During this final stage, summaries were written of all of the issues related to each theme, with examples carefully selected from the verbatim interview transcripts. The conversations were

presented to preserve the fullness of the original data and to remain faithful to the exact words used (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2017). Such summarising was a key step in the data analysis process, and allowed for a comprehensive understanding of the data. By meticulously choosing examples from the verbatim transcripts, concrete evidence emerged to support the themes arising from the interviews.

Figure 7-1 Stages of Qualitative Data Analysis
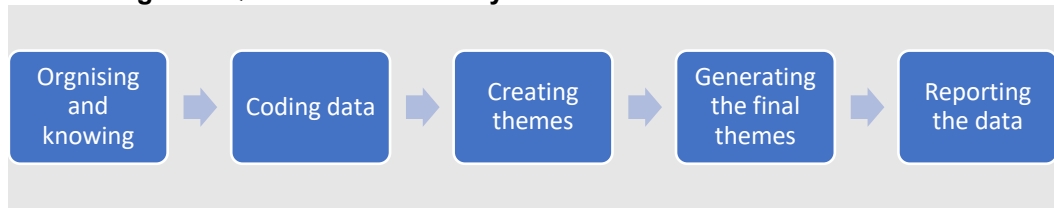
7.3 Interview Analysis

Two sets of interviews were analysed: those with the deans and education experts; and those with the business leaders. The following section presents both sets of interviews. To protect their privacy, each participant was assigned an abbreviation (See Table 7-1).

Table 7-1 Initials of Interview Participants

Abbreviation	Participant
F1 N	Dean of female community college
M1 S	Dean of male community college
M1 A	First educational expert
M1 B	Second educational expert
B1	First business leader
B2	Second business leader

7.3.1 Deans and Education Experts

This section presents an analysis of the data gathered through semi-structured interviews conducted with four participants from two groups of stakeholders: two community college deans and two education experts. The findings thereof confirmed the following six major themes previously determined from the literature review (which also informed the interview questions):

- definition of a community college;

- Localisation;

- Comprehensiveness of programmes;

- Flexibility;

- Accreditation; and

- Transfer.

In addition, two new themes emerged from the interviews:

- The COVID-19 pandemic; and

- Saudi Vision 2030

7.3.1.1 Definition of Community College

To explore the existence of the five elements in the community college model, the participants' perspectives on community colleges as higher education institutions were sought to ascertain whether they had any misconceptions about the actual role of community colleges. In particular, participants were asked: "What is a community college, and how does it differ from other higher education institutions with regard to its roles and responsibilities?"

All participants began defining a community college by recognising it as an independent organisation that works to serve the local community. There was however some variation in what constituted serving the community. Two participants defined serving the community as exclusively meeting the labour market's needs. They both saw community colleges as flexible when it comes to serving this propose because they have greater capacity to initiate and end programmes, compared to other higher education institutions. One of the interviewed deans opined: "Community colleges offer diploma programmes according to the needs of the labour market, and they open and close them

according to the needs of the labour market" (Interview; Participant F1 N). Meanwhile, the other dean's definition of a community college was also based on its function to serve the labour market, albeit from a slightly different angle. He stated: "Our colleges govern their work in the labour market, whereas in America the situation is different. In America, community colleges are founded to solve employment shortcomings, such as when an employee works for a certain period of time and their skills no longer meet the demands of their profession/occupation, so they need to return to education in order to improve their skills" (Interview; Participant M1 S). The same participant also recognised the potential for individual career growth if the market provides the necessary resources and opportunities, whereas other participants saw the labour market as having to meet the needs of the existing business community. Specifically, the other interviewed dean claimed: "As required by the business community, community colleges begin to launch certain programmes; then, students start to apply, and then they occupy relevant positions in the future" (Interview; Participant F1 N).

Conversely, one participant (an education expert) explained the notion of serving the community in this context as expanding the function of community colleges beyond serving businesses and the market. That participant argued: "The establishment of community colleges occurred within the national framework for achieving harmonisation between the outputs of higher education, the requirements of development, and the labour market's needs" (Interview; Participant M1 A). The same participant drew a distinction between the development of the nation and the needs of the labour market. They were the only participant who did not specify the types of degrees that community colleges should offer. Instead, they claimed that "community colleges [provide] comprehensive and varied programmes to qualified specialists for the practice of professions and skills required by the local labour market" (Interview; Participant M1 A).

This participant also emphasised that community colleges offer diploma degrees and stated that the role of community colleges "lies in providing higher education opportunities for all and providing continuous education" (Interview; Participant M1 A). Adding to this description, they claimed to view community

colleges as knowledge stations "where everyone can learn" (Interview; Participant M1 A). The analysis showed that a consensus existed amongst the participants with regard to the idea that community colleges ought to provide comprehensive programmes. They also all recognised that the current community college model in Saudi Arabia required enhancement, with one of the education experts outlining: "We need to develop the community colleges" (Interview; Participant M1 B).

7.3.1.2 Localisation

Regarding the theme of localisation, participants were asked to speak based on their practical experience and to share their current perspectives. All of the participants expressed the belief that community college programmes should be responsive to local community needs, only insofar as to facilitate the growth of the labour market. Some participants said they considered the community colleges weak when it comes to aligning their programmes and services with the needs of the market and that this is a key issue in Saudi Arabia. One participant (an education expert) observed: "The issue of harmonising community colleges' outputs with the labour market's needs is one of the most prominent development issues in the Kingdom and was mentioned in the eighth development plan clearly and again in all development plans until the current 2030 plan" (Interview; Participant M1 B).

7.3.1.2.1   Location

All participants agreed on the importance of the local labour market for community colleges. However, most expressed that the current efforts to align community college programmes and services with the labour market were not nationwide, and were only evident in the large cities of Riyadh, Jeddah, and Dammam. The two interviewed community college deans admitted that they were fortunate to be in prime locations (i.e. large cities) where it is easier for them to align their programmes and services with the labour market. One stated that his community college is "in the capital city, Riyadh, which contains the most prominent companies and ministries. The labour market there is enormous" (Interview; Participant M1 S). The other community college dean stated that the "availability of a diversified job market… helped the success of

the college; the availability of colleges in a mature labour market environment is essential to the success of the college" (Interview; Participant F1 N).

7.3.1.2.2 Decision-making

The interviewed community college deans claimed that their colleges involve local businesses in decision-making processes, starting from curriculum design and delivery to ensure the teaching of the community college aligns with the labour market's needs. They both emphasised that private actors play a role in curriculum design and delivery through the community college advisory councils, with one of them explaining: "[I]n advisory councils, we cooperate with them (the local businesses who participate in advisory councils) through continuous workshops to determine their needs and formulate programmes thorough consultation so that the skills taught to students are the ones that will actually be used in the labour market and in line with the outputs that the labour market needs so that students will be prepared if they are employed" (Interview; Participant F1 N). The other interviewed dean provided some insight into the extent of the authority held by advisory councils in his community college, noting: "[A]ny decision enacted within the college for its educational programmes stems from these councils. They have a voice in curricula and lessons, and sometimes the method of teaching as well" (Interview; Participant M1 S). He then added: "[A]dvisory councils whose authority is higher than even the department council sometimes with regard to study programmes" (Interview; Participant M1 S). Ultimately, advisory councils possess the authority to propose novel programmes to community colleges.

The community college deans and education experts agreed that advisory councils were not consistently present in all community colleges. One of the community college deans stated: "[I]n other colleges, the issue does not exist, and there are no advisory councils in the first place" (Interview; Participant M1 S). Meanwhile, one of the education experts noted that some community colleges might not have an advisory council because they are located in remote and rural areas where there is no labour market.

One education expert, who until last year had been a dean for more than 10 years, identified bureaucratic systems as a significant challenge for community colleges when making decisions designed to serve labour market needs. They stated that the process of approving the curriculum was particularly slow: "For a new programme to be approved, it takes seven years for approval to be issued. Who in the private sector will wait that long? It is not reasonable, and the colleges will not progress if we need to sit waiting for approval for an educational programme for nearly seven years" (Interview; Participant M1 A).

Some participants noted that hiring professional workers in the faculty can help students and community college deans to navigate the labour market's needs. They also noted the potential benefits that students can gain from the workplace knowledge and experience that can only be shared by such professionals. However, some noted that as part-time recruitment is not currently allowed according to community college policy, the hiring of such professionals was not possible. Of note, one community college dean stated: "Sometimes, for example, I have an accounting curriculum for which I need an accounting professional who can teach it. This is not possible in the community colleges or in any university, even our institution which is considered a distinguished university" (Interview; Participant M1 S). The same participant stated that if the Minister of Education launched a new policy giving community college leaders the authority to sign contracts with professional workers to join the faculty on either a part-time or full-time basis, this would be a forward step. He claimed: "This is a big challenge, in my opinion. If it is solved, many things will be solved, and it will be a change for the better. Honestly, if they gave me the flexibility in the way I described, I would definitely be able to produce graduates of Cambridge level" (Interview; Participant M1 S).

Meanwhile, the other community college dean stated that to meet labour market needs, her college is already recruiting professional workers to the faculty on a part-time basis to share their practical experience with students. Her college is believed to be the first in Saudi Arabia to apply such a policy. The same participant stated: "We started with this policy in one culinary programme, and now we will move to include professional practitioners in the rest of the programmes. In the culinary programme, we brought in the best

chefs who work in international hotels to teach the curriculum, and the outputs were excellent" (Interview; Participant F1 N). Describing how this policy had satisfied students, she added: "The feedback from the students was positive, and they were satisfied with the courses. The outputs were amazing, and we are about to open other programmes with the same policy" (Interview; Participant F1 N).

One of the community college deans also noted the importance of hiring Saudi nationals in the faculties of community colleges, stating that "the lack of Saudi nationals in the faculty… is a difficult dilemma; I believe that only locals can understand the needs of the community. The motivation for national growth does not exist except in the sons of the homeland. The element of loyalty and belonging is vital" (Interview; Participant M1 S).

7.3.1.2.3   Business Partnerships

Some participants noted that laws and regulations created a conflict of interests in the methods of collaboration and partnership utilized between businesses and community colleges to serve the market. In particular, the relationship between businesses and community colleges is complicated by the Saudi government making it obligatory for private sector companies to employ Saudi workers. For many years, businesses in Saudi Arabia had relied on foreign workers to aid in developing the country. This increased unemployment rates, triggering government-imposed restrictions on bringing foreign labour into the Saudi market. Now, foreign workers are allowed only if there is no available Saudi national suitably qualified to fill the given position. According to one education expert: "[W]e should not ignore that the government forced them to employ national outputs as a condition for bringing in foreign labour." (Interview; Participant M1 A).

The relationship between community colleges and businesses was characterized as contentious by many participants, with a tendency for parties to blame one another. One participant (an education expert) stated: "Some businessmen come and tell you the college failed to produce a graduate fit for the labour market. It is amazing! The private sector has a role in training these students;

however, they evade their duties by throwing the blame at the community colleges" (Interview; Participant M1 A). The same participant alleged that businesses had become spoiled, and that they "want a ready-to-work graduate; they do not want to train them, they want a graduate who speaks English, is a computer expert, and has all necessary skills" (Interview; Participant M1 A).

One participant also highlighted that students/graduates being viewed as commodities subject to negotiation between the Saudi government and the private sector caused problems. In particular, one education expert claimed: "The private sector wants to bring in foreign labour; the reason they will use to convince the government is that they need the foreign labour to achieve the national economy's desired development. They will say local college graduates are weak, and some say that only to justify their need to bring in cheap foreign labour. The truth is that the matter is complex" (Interview; Participant M1 A).

The same participant offered three recommendations to solve this issue and harmonise the relationship between community colleges and business actors. The first is to raise awareness in the private sector regarding its role, on which the participant noted: "We need to raise the private sector's awareness of its pivotal role and strive to develop it" (Interview; Participant M1 A). Their second recommendation is that the Saudi government should "[p]revent businesses from receiving work visas for foreign workers if there are enough Saudi nationals who have the required qualifications to fulfil the business's needs" (Interview; Participant M1 A). Their third and most robust recommendation was as follows: "The Ministry of Human Resources and Social Development should conduct a comprehensive study aimed at balancing the nationalisation of jobs with the private sector's profitability and growth. Without carrying out this study, we will continue with the same cycle where the private sector rejects local universities' graduates to argue in favour of bringing in foreign labour that saves them money and raises their profits" (Interview; Participant M1 A).

One community college dean noted the complexity of the task of balancing between serving business interests when making decisions and working to overcome the negative stereotypes attached to community college graduates. He observed: "I am obliged not to provide it [a local business that wanted a

substantial number of cashiers] with a large number of them because I do not want to reinforce the image that the diploma graduate has only opportunities in simple jobs" (Interview; Participant M1 S).

7.3.1.2.4   Career Guidance Centre

One of the education experts discussed the importance of career counselling, and explained that "the main goal (of community college) is to build students' confidence to engage in society and not just the labour market, thus counselling is an important function" (Interview; Participant M1 B). The other education expert emphasised that the key to community college success lies in offering career counselling services. They stated: "I constantly repeat in every conference that without academic, professional, and social counselling services, we will not be able to achieve anything" (Interview; Participant M1 A).

7.3.1.3 Comprehensive Programmes

This theme refers to the ability of community colleges to implement policies and procedures to create and conduct programmes that support current and future local needs. The data reveal some issues with the current programmes' capacity to support students. According to all participants, community college curricula are typically identical to the first two years of university programmes offered by other educational institutions (i.e. universities or colleges". One participant (an education expert) stated: "The curricula in community colleges are taken from academic colleges inside universities, and sometimes we take them from other universities in other cities. Imagine this stifling duplication" (Interview; Participant M1 A). Thus, community colleges often lack diversity in their programmes, which are focused on academic content rather than practical application.

One community college dean asserted that some programmes enabled students to find jobs after graduation, especially the apprenticeship programmes. On the other hand, the other community college dean expressed that apprenticeship programmes in their current state presented only a target which would require significantly more work to be realised. The latter stated: "[T]he college was and is still working through partnerships to create programmes ending with

employment. Now, we are working with our partner to ensure that students who finish the programme apply for them "the partner", which will make their employment easier. But there is still no programme that clearly ends with employment, and we are keen to achieve this over the next year, with God willing" (Interview; Participant F1 N).

Admissions policies were also recognised by participants as an issue hindering community colleges' efforts to serve local labour market needs. The participants stated that the current admissions policy of only accepting new high school graduates limited colleges' abilities to accept other members of the community and create vocationally oriented programmes to accommodate different types of learners, such as adults. This policy runs counter to the principles of adult learning, as well as the emphasis placed on flexibility and inclusivity in education.

One community college dean however expressed optimism that the Saudi government would change its policy, saying: "[W]hat we are asking for and seeking, and we hope to see in the future, is the opening up to all kinds of students and not being limited to high school students" (Interview; Participant M1 S). The other community college dean was also optimistic that the Ministry of education approach would change and that the admissions policy would become more comprehensive, stating: "[N]onetheless, there is a clear tendency from the Ministry to expand and accept new categories of students, which will challenge the college programmes to be more comprehensive to include new types of students other than high school graduates. Thus, the colleges will offer different programmes that meet such needs with qualifications or paid and professional programmes" (Interview; Participant F1 N).

7.3.1.4 Flexibility

This theme relates to the community colleges' capacity to offer flexible educational programmes to the local community. To qualify as flexible, these programmes should be diverse in terms of length, delivery method (part-time, full-time, weekend classes, face-to-face, online, or distance), and time (evening or morning classes). All participants agreed that community colleges should offer

more flexible programmes. However, and also according to all participants, Saudi community colleges offer only face-to-face, full-time, and long programmes (two or three years). One community college dean stated: "We are not supposed to commit to a long period for the programmes; we should offer programmes for a short period, such as six month, three months, or less" (Interview; Participant M1 S).

The same participant proposed the following reason for the current inability of community colleges to provide night classes: "[All] those admitted are freshly graduated high school students, and it is difficult for them to attend an evening class" (Interview; Participant M1 S). However, he also added that offering night classes is important, saying: "[N]ot having an evening shift hurts us and does not help us solve employment shortcomings" (Interview; Participant M1 S). He identified three elements that community colleges must have to operate flexibly: "the ability to launch and close programmes... employment, [and] contracting" (Interview; Participant M1 S).

7.3.1.5 Accreditation

This theme concerns the community college administration's commitment to obtain international and domestic accreditation from competent authorities. It encompasses two categories: programme accreditation and professional accreditation.

7.3.1.5.1   Programme Accreditation

All participants agreed about the importance of accreditation for college programmes. According to one community college dean working to obtain accreditation is important but has not yet been accomplished. She stated: "We are seeking accreditation. We have started working to obtain accreditation for some programmes " (Interview; Participant F1 N). The same participant explained that her college did not have accreditation yet because it is new: "The community college remains an emerging college, but it is ahead of many other colleges in terms of the quality of programmes, outputs, and employment rates. We consider our college a pioneer and an example for other community colleges in the Kingdom to follow" (Interview; Participant F1 N).

The other community college dean confirmed that their college had attained both local and international accreditation for their programmes: "The college is accredited locally and internationally with American accreditation… I am one of the people who led the accreditation process" (Interview; Participant M1 S). The same participant proudly deemed this to be an accomplishment, stating: "I also placed this accreditation certificate on my office wall and am proud of it… Also, the college is obtaining International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) certification" (Interview; Participant M1 S).

Elsewhere, one of the education experts stressed the need to elevate the standards for community college accreditation, saying: "I wish they would set special conditions for community colleges, such as the private sector's participation in curriculum design as part of the accreditation criteria for diploma programmes… The accreditation of programmes is essential, and I hope to link it with colleges' aid in the future. However, the current reality is that very few colleges have secured accreditation for their programmes. I think there is only one" (Interview; Participant M1 A).

7.3.1.5.2   Professional Accreditation for Faculty and Students

All participants recognised the importance of having a faculty possessing professional certifications. One of the interviewed deans opined: "[H]aving a faculty member with professional certificates is an extraordinary addition" (Interview; Participant M1 S). However, some obstacles and risks are associated with professional certificates being obtained by faculties and students. Here, the same community college dean stated that obtaining professional certification can be challenging due to a lack of financial support and time constraints, stating: "These are the biggest dilemmas facing us at the level of faculty members and students – a lack of financial support and a lack of time" (Interview; Participant M1 S).

The same dean identified that supporting faculty members to obtain professional certification can carry the risk of losing them to another institution. That participant also stated that there is high demand on the labour market for certified professionals, referring to: "The size and magnitude of the

opportunities available in the labour market" (Interview; Participant M1 S). He added that: "I am sure that any faculty member holding this certificate would not stay at the university for two minutes. In my opinion, professional certifications cause dropout at the level of faculty members. So, we do not support it" (Interview; Participant M1 S).

7.3.1.6 Transfer

This theme addresses the capacity to transfer credits obtained in community colleges to other academic institutions or professional organisations to meet the requirements of university studies or advanced professional careers. According to the interviewed community college deans, transferring credits to academic institutions is challenging because diplomas are market oriented, whereas university programmes are academically oriented. One of the deans stated: "I always see that the diploma is based on the needs of the labour market; it may be a specific percentage, and the main purpose of community colleges is to produce graduates in proportion to the needs of the labour market" (Interview; Participant F1 N). The other community college dean added: "There is a big gap that cannot be ignored between our college programmes and those of other colleges … What we teach is fundamental skills, while in other colleges they are academic and theoretical" (Interview; Participant M1 S). He also asserted that a diploma programme is not equivalent to the first two years of university: "The diploma is not equivalent to the first two years in terms of outputs. The curriculum built at university is based on academic foundations. In community college, the programmes are based on applying the work environment through advisory councils" (Interview; Participant M1 S). Therefore, the same participants outlined, they are not working to make credit transferable: "Transferring to the university has never been among our strategic objectives, and nor will it be" (Interview; Participant M1 S). Meanwhile, one of the education experts stated that not every student is interested in continuing their studies and obtaining a bachelor's degree, as some students prefer to have only a diploma. That participant advised offering students the option of completing their studies, stating that "[n]ot all students want to complete their studies at university; this is a fact. I repeat: the goal of community colleges is to open up the field of higher education, and education in colleges must be strong so that

they are allowed to complete their education if desired. But the main goal is to build students' confidence to engage in society, not just the labour market" (Interview; Participant M1 A).

Regarding the capacity of credits obtained at community colleges to fulfil professional certificate requirements, one of the interviewed deans outlined that while they are not yet transferable and thus not recognised as part of a professional certificate, the design of the curriculum programmes should support students in passing professional certificate exams. She stated: "when designing any programme, we take into account that after the diploma, the student can apply for exams to gain certification in their field " (Interview; Participant F1 N).

7.3.1.7 COVID-19

The COVID-19 pandemic had various profound impacts, including on this research. Accordingly, the pandemic itself emerged as a theme particularly from the analysis of community college deans' interviews. Both saw that government policies were set to overcome the challenges associated with the pandemic to ensure students' continued access to education, such as by offering distance learning. One of the interviewed deans stated: "After opening up the option of distance learning, it reduced operating costs and I think increased acceptance of non-traditional students." (Interview; Participant M1 S).

Despite this policy having the potential to reach more students, both interviewed deans expressed concern regarding the quality of education offered in periods of lockdown during the COVID-19 pandemic. One of the deans suggested: "[T]hese remote programme graduates will not be like regular graduates, but they will meet the need" (Interview; Participant M1 S). This disparity was due to practical skills (i.e. in cooking classes) not being provided in these programmes during lockdown, where colleges were forced to teach these skills only theoretically.

7.3.1.8 Saudi Vision 2030

Saudi Vision 2030 is another theme to surface from the data analysis. All participants referred to Saudi Vision 2030 as a goal that they should work toward achieving. They also referred to Saudi Vision 2030 as a new and important movement to which community colleges, as higher education institutions, should contribute. One community college dean noted: "Vision 2030 is the basis on which we work, and it guides all of our decisions" (Interview; Participant F1 N).

Both community college deans were optimistic about the news concerning a new development plan to will be proposed by the Minister of Education regarding community colleges (at the time of writing, the plan had not yet been published). The interviewed education experts, on the other hand, were sceptical about the new plan. One such participant stated: "The Ministry seeks to transform community colleges into applied colleges to match their outputs with the labour market requirements and diversify their programmes according to the skills of the 21st century and the fourth industrial revolution" (Interview; Participant M1 A). They continued: "But the transfer (change) will be in name only!" (Interview; Participant M1 A). According to some participants, the community colleges, pursuant to Saudi Vision 2030, should, in addition to supplying the labour market with competent graduates, also play a prominent role in local economic growth by creating programmes that support new local industries.

One community college dean stated: "His Highness, the Crown Prince, announced a tourism development initiative called Al Soudah Project. Now the community college in the south, where the project is being launched, is supposed to adopt tourism and other programmes, but if you go there, you will find that the programmes are still traditional with an academic focus" (Interview; Participant M1 S). He continued: "Each college is supposed to serve the region to which it belongs. For example, a college located in the north provides computer science programmes. At the same time, it is supposed to offer agriculture programmes, or at least it provides specialised computer programs in the farming industry." Meanwhile, one of the education experts expressed their belief that the role of community colleges under Saudi Vision

2030 goes beyond simply filling up the labour market, and extends to educating local communities. They stated: "There are regions, for example, where technological illiteracy is widespread. Colleges must play a role in eradicating this illiteracy by providing programmes commensurate with the need" (Interview; Participant M1 A).

7.3.2 Business Leaders

This section presents an analysis of the data collected through semi-structured interviews with two business leaders in Riyadh. The business leaders were asked the following questions:

- To what extent do you think the five elements of the community college model are present in the Saudi version?

- What needs to be done to enhance the presence of the five elements?

The following five major themes emerged from the interview analysis:

- awareness of community colleges;

- Business partnerships;

- College admissions and diversity;

- Accreditation; and

- Advocacy for learning.

7.3.2.1 Awareness of Community Colleges

The interview data revealed that the business leaders lacked a clear understanding of community colleges, often confusing them with local technical colleges. One of the business leaders said: "It's the first time [I'm] hearing about a community college. Do you mean technical college?" (Interview; Participant B2). Of course, these two institutions are distinct, as shown in Chapters 2 and 3.

At the same time, the other business leader clearly admitted to having no prior knowledge of community colleges other than seeing one on the street while driving. These responses highlighted a critical issue that community colleges face: a lack of advertising and engagement with the community they serve. If business leaders, who are among their major stakeholders, lack knowledge about community colleges and their roles, this would pose a significant problem that the colleges must solve.

7.3.2.2 Business Partnerships

Both business leaders underscored the importance of collaboration between the private sector and colleges. While neither had any experience with community colleges, both leaders shared their experiences of cooperation with local technical colleges, which focused mostly on the recruitment of their graduates and participating in career fairs. One business leader outlined: "We hire their students after graduation, and we participate in career fairs" (Interview; Participant B1). The other business leader noted: "Even with the COVID-19 crisis, I worked with them [the local technical college] to recruit female graduates from the sewing department" (Interview; Participant B2).

When asked about the possibility of expanding their collaborations with local technical colleges , the participants responded negatively. One leader shared a story of an incident that made him conclude there would be no room for further collaboration. He mentioned that, in 2019, he approached local colleges to form partnerships and offer a food safety diploma that would align with the leader's business needs. The request was rejected. The leader recalled: "We wrote to the local technical college to approve this diploma, and we were clear from the beginning that we wanted to integrate it with their existing curriculum. Unfortunately, the response was completely unexpected: they were angry with us" (Interview; Participant B1). When asked for potential reasons why there was such a reaction, the business leader speculated: "I don't know whether they were upset because [they thought] who are we to teach them about their work?" (Interview; Participant B1). This answer may indicate an existing gap between the private sector and educational institutions.

Both business leaders stressed the importance of collaborating with community colleges in curriculum design. For instance, one leader said: "The colleges need to believe that we are all in one boat and that our goal is one: we both complement each other" (Interview; Participant B1). Later in the interview, the same participant suggested that community colleges devise an engagement mechanism, saying: "Colleges need to have a clear cooperation mechanism… They should integrate local companies into the design of programmes and see the private sector as an effective element in the educational process" (Interview; Participant B1).

The other business leader expressed frustration at colleges failing to effectively engage with the private sector and found their leadership to be burdens. When asked "What do you want from college leaders to increase collaboration?" he replied "For them to get out of their office! No company or factory finds an opportunity for colleges or universities to cooperate in building curricula, and they will say "No, it is impossible" because it will save them effort, time, and money" (Interview; Participant B2). The lack of engagement with businesses, as expressed by this business leader, is one of the biggest reasons for the colleges falling short when it comes to graduates gaining employment. The same business leader noted: "The private sector is always blamed for not employing Saudis, but let's go back a bit. Are the candidates provided by the educational sector suitable for work? Let the private sector be involved from the start in designing programmes, and then see how the unemployment rate will change" (Interview; Participant B2).

The same participant also highlighted that a lack of engagement with businesses would contribute to the failure of a privatisation plan that the Saudi government intends to implement. They opined: "The non-participation of the private sector is a waste of time, money and effort, and there will be no good return, especially in the coming period when we enter the privatisation stage" (Interview; Participant B2). That participants essentially claimed the success of the future privatisation plan would depend on the participation of businesses along with community colleges in curriculum design. In general, the extent of collaboration advised by both business leaders would not go beyond curriculum design and recruitment. However, a search of the relevant literature shows that

there are many ways in which the business sector can collaborate with educational institutions. For example, Kingry's (1984) list sets out 29 activities that community colleges can engage in to support economic growth. Indeed, community colleges can collaborate further with the private sector by, for example, conducting community training needs assessments, providing career and vocational counselling, and collecting labour market information for planning purposes (Kingry, 1984).

7.3.2.3 Perspectives on Comprehensive and Flexible Programmes

Both business leaders agreed that community colleges should expand their admissions policies to include not only recent high school graduates. They also emphasised the importance of expanding the admissions policy to include non-Saudis. They outlined that, currently, all public colleges only admit Saudi citizens, which discourages businesses from investing in public colleges paying them to deliver their programmes, as most of their employees are not Saudi. Responding to the idea of paying public colleges to deliver their curricula to their employees, one of the leaders said: "the public educational institutions do not accept non-Saudis, which creates a challenge, and the collaboration is not worthwhile" (Interview; Participant B2). The same participant continued: "And they have a budget from the government, [so] they do not need our money" (Interview; Participant B2).

Both business leaders were receptive to the idea of their employees pursuing further education though. Both said that they offer different kinds of support to employees who want to continue their education. For example, one of the business leaders revealed: "We offer the employees different working hours that suit their academic schedule" (Interview; Participant B1). The other business leader emphasised the importance of local colleges offering alternative class times to increase student enrolment: "Most local colleges offer their programmes during working hours; we wish they could offer it at different times, so employees would have a chance to enrol" (Interview; Participant B2). The openness of business leaders to the idea of their employees continuing their education demonstrates potential for a long-term learning culture if the community colleges are more flexible.

7.3.2.4 Accreditation

Both business leaders agreed that accreditation is an essential element when evaluating job applications. Indeed, they accepted or rejected applicants based on whether programmes were accredited. Neither business leader defined accreditation however, and expressed understandings of accreditation that were not entirely accurate. They shared a general perception that public universities and well-known private universities are all accredited. Here, one of the business leaders stated: "Yes, we use accreditation as a standard by which to evaluate job applicants. They must have graduated from a public university or at least a private university with a good reputation" (Interview; Participant B1). In reality, however, some programmes in community colleges have not passed the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment's accreditation evaluation. Thus, the Ministry of Education and the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment need to increase public awareness of the importance of accreditation and how individuals and companies can determine whether certain education programmes are accredited.

7.4 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the results of six interviews conducted with three stakeholder groups: community college deans, education experts, and business leaders. Moreover, thematic analysis was used to examine the data collected from these interviews. The major themes identified and explored based on the interviews with community college deans and education experts were the definition of a community college, localisation, comprehensive programmes, flexibility, accreditation, and transfer. In addition, two new themes emerged from these interview data: the COVID-19 pandemic and Saudi Vision 2030.

From the business leader interview data, five themes were identified and explored, namely awareness of community colleges, business partnerships, college admissions and diversity, accreditation, and advocacy for learning.

While there was agreement amongst all six participants on some points, such as the need for development, differences arose on other points. The next chapter

discusses the findings to emerge from the data acquired via two research methods.

Chapter 8   Discussion and Findings

8.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an analysis of the study findings drawn from the data collected using qualitative and quantitative methods. The study was conducted in Riyadh from February to July 2021 with the participation of four stakeholder groups (students, faculty members, community college deans, and local business leaders). The overriding objective was to answer the following research questions:

- To what extent have community colleges implemented localisation, comprehensiveness, and flexibility from the perspectives of students, faculty members, community college deans, and local business leaders?

- What are the perspectives of students, faculty members, community college deans, and local business leaders on the importance of the transfer and accreditation elements of community colleges?

- What must be done to improve the implementation of the community college model?

This chapter is divided into four parts. Following this introductory first part, the second part explores (1) whether the current Saudi community college model encounters the same challenges to have hindered community college in the country historically, and (2) what Saudi leaders would consider a successful community college to look like? On the latter point, this part intends to provide an overview of how community college success ought to be defined from the perspectives of different stakeholders. The third part of this chapter discusses stakeholders' perspectives on the five primary elements of community colleges, namely localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, accreditation, and transfer. Thereafter, the final part summarises the chapter.

8.2 Findings on the Transfer of the US Community College Model to Saudi Arabia

The first community colleges in Saudi Arabia opened in 2005. Initially, there were four such colleges, and this number has since grown to 41. In their evolution, Saudi community colleges have faced many challenges though. Accordingly, through data analysis, this research has examined the status quo of the current Saudi model in relation to the following aspects commonly reported in relevant literature:

- **Open-access policy:** The empirical data show that an open-access policy is still not implemented in Saudi community colleges, despite stakeholders agreeing that such a policy will be necessary to realise Saudi Vision 2030.

- **Programmes:** Although stakeholders concur that an open-access policy should be adopted to help the country to achieve Saudi Vision 2030, the empirical data show that relevant programmes are still not being provided.

- **Mission:** The empirical data show that the current Saudi community college model is focused on meeting the needs of the labour market. However, as demonstrated by the relatively low number of students who directly enter the labour market after leaving community college, students tend to use colleges as bridges to university rather than as a means of finding desirable employment.

- **Faculty:** The empirical data show that most faculty members are not Saudi nationals and thus lack practical knowledge of the local labour market. To prepare students more adequately to find jobs, teachers who understand the local labour market and culture, and have worked in relevant fields, are needed according to most stakeholders. Currently, community college graduates lack practical skills and are mainly equipped with theoretical knowledge.

- **Administration and management:** The empirical data show that decision making is still centralised, which limits the development of the community college model.

The Saudi community college model still faces the same challenges as it has historically. Thus, according to stakeholders, there appears to be a need to tweak the current model to mitigate/overcome these challenges.

The literature review revealed that, compared to the US community college model, its Saudi counterpart is in the early stages of development. The evolution of the community college model contains the following three stages:

- **Stage 1:** Placing an emphasis on the transfer function, meaning the ability of such colleges to transfer students to university.

- **Stage 2:** Expanding to include equipping students with practical skills and providing vocational education.

- **Stage 3:** Viewing community colleges as agents in promoting economic activity.

The analysis of Saudi literature on the subject showed that the Saudi community college model, which is based on the US community college model, remains unsatisfactory, and that further development will be needed for it to replicate a similar growth trajectory to that of the US model.

The Saudi community college model is still in the first of the above-listed three stage. However, stakeholders expressed optimism about the model moving to the second stage whereby community colleges would become providers of vocational education. Indeed, it transpires that two community colleges are already providing some vocational programmes.

This research aimed to steer Saudi Arabia toward reaching the above-listed third stage, which focuses on community colleges advancing economic activity, and to identify the obstacles hindering this forward step. Pertinently, pinpointing and

removing these hinderances would enable Saudi Arabia to meet the goals set under Saudi Vision 2030.

Based on the collected data and the reviewed literature, the two factors that have prevented the Saudi community college system from reaching the second or third stages are (1) the weakness of the private sector and (2) the centralised system that controls community colleges. To arrive at stages two and three, reforms are required as outlined in the recommendations listed in this thesis's final chapter.

8.2.1 Definition of Success

Understanding what the function of community colleges should be compared to that of other higher education institutions is crucial when determining the former's success or failure. In this section, since the community college model in Saudi Arabia is an example of policy transfer, the success (or otherwise) of this transfer is explored based on empirical data.

The success of the community college model policy transfer can be measured in various ways. Here, it is important to determine what constitutes success when evaluating an adopted policy. According to (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000), it is important for research to define what 'success' or 'failure' would mean for such a transfer. In the Saudi community college model, evaluating the transfer experience is a complicated task.

Some Saudi policymakers have assumed that if a policy has been effective in one country, then it would succeed when transferred to another. However, this has not been the case with the community college model. The empirical data reflected disparate views among stakeholders when talking about the introduction of community colleges. In particular, one of the interviewed education experts classified the community college model policy transfer as successful because, they claimed, the model had accomplished its goal of offering students the opportunity to gain access to university. In reality, however, the achievement of this goal has been limited with respect to what was expected by policymakers. Moreover, the official document on community colleges foresaw the expansion of community colleges' role beyond merely

transferring students to university or the labour market (The Saudi Association of Community Colleges, 2022).

In contrast, other stakeholders who participated in the study judged the introduction of community colleges as a failure. Underpinning this view, some cited that the colleges did not offer vocational programmes that would link graduates to the market. One of the education experts outlined: "The issue of harmonisation between community colleges' outputs and what the labour market needs is one of the most prominent development issues in the Kingdom and was mentioned in the eighth development plans clearly and again in all development plans up to and including the current 2030 plan" (Interview; Respondent M1 A). Naturally, to understand whether success has been achieved, it is important to know the goal behind the given policy transfer. Here, interviewed participants offered different perspectives on the goal of the policy transfer with multiple perceptions of 'success' revealed.

Dolowitz and Marsh (2000) determined three major factors contributing to a policy transfer's failure, namely being uninformed, incomplete, and/or inappropriate. All three factors are applicable in the case of the Saudi community college model.

First, the transfer of the community college model from the US to Saudi Arabia was uninformed. As demonstrated in the interview responses, not all parties involved were aware of the details of this transfer, and they were not prepared to embrace the US model. Unlike in Saudi Arabia, in Indonesia, before the model was introduced, Indonesian administrators participated in the Community College Administrator Programme (CCAP) and travelled to the US to observe how the community college model operated (Hidayat, 2018).

In addition, the transfer of the community college model from the US to Saudi Arabia was also incomplete. In particular, the transfer was limited to one function of the model, namely transferring graduates to university, allowing students to continue their education through a bachelor's degree or to obtain professional certification. However, the community service function of the model has not been incorporated.

Finally, the transfer of the US community college model to Saudi Arabia was inappropriate too. For the model to succeed in Saudi Arabia, economic, social, and political systems would be required that differed from those in the US. For example, community colleges in the US have the autonomy and flexibility to launch and close programmes in accordance with community needs and potential. However, such decisions in Saudi Arabia are centralised. In the US, the private sector, civil society, students, and community leaders have the right to participate in community college decisions at every level. However, in Saudi Arabia, such decision-making involvement is not permitted.

At the same time, Saudi Arabia is currently undergoing significant reforms that will make the country very different from when the model was first adopted. For example, a new national economic plan has been implemented, and considerable societal advances have been made since the policy was first transferred. These reforms and the ambitious Saudi Vision 2030 call for the re-evaluation of community colleges to determine whether they are suitably performing their function of serving communities.

8.3 The Capability Approach in the Saudi Community College Model

Several factors have contributed to the disconnect between the US community college model and its transfer into Saudi Arabia, and particularly the failure of Saudi community colleges to serve their communities. One of these factors is the neoliberal agenda and especially its effect on the rights of citizens with regard to education and social justice (see Chapters 3 and 4).

The literature suggests that to measure the value of an education programme, it is usually necessary to following a specific set of steps. Relatedly, the value of community colleges is determined by four aspects relevant to their individual students/graduates, namely their ability to find a job, their ability to build and develop new skills, their ability to complete an academic degree, and their ability to obtain a professional certificate. Generally, it is essential that community college graduates are able to transfer to academic institutions to complete further studies or to the labour market where they can meet advanced

professional standards. However, in the Saudi context, the new laws regarding community colleges are focused primarily on enabling students to find jobs. Although Saudi community colleges allow some students to transfer to universities to complete academic degrees in certain situations, permitting *all* students to do so in more situations would strengthen the model's implementation and enable community colleges to fulfil their purpose of serving communities, especially with the changes ongoing in the country in mind.

The capability approach places humans at the centre of any development policy, putting an emphasis on giving people freedom and opportunities to find fulfilment. This approach aligns community colleges with the purpose of serving communities instead of the market, and strengthens their functionality. By adopting the capability approach to understand community colleges and the factors that contribute to their success, this study has identified five elements that, if applied properly, can enhance the model and build the capability of local communities. These elements are localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, transfer, and accreditation.

8.3.1 Localisation

According to the existing literature, the success of community colleges is influenced by several factors, including location, decision-making processes, business partnerships, and career guidance. These aspects revolve around an understanding of the local context unique to the given community college. They all fall under the general concept of localisation, which refers to policies and procedures that ensure college programmes are responsive to local community needs and support the development of the local economy and society as a whole.

The data obtained from the surveys and interviews show that stakeholders in Saudi Arabia believe that localisation is an important element of the community college model. However, this has not been fully considered in the colleges' implementation. The responses gleaned from participants were used to evaluate and understand how best to enhance the aspect of localisation in the current Saudi model.

Location

The first component to be addressed here is the physical location of a community college with the aim of examining whether each college's current location serves the overall goal of localisation. Fain (2014) links the success of the US community college model in developing the local economy to the geographic accessibility of these institutions. Meanwhile, according to Cohen et al. (2014), a community college should be located in the centre of the community, near to where the majority of students live.

The survey of students conducted for this research indicates that the majority of students' families reside in the same city as their community college, which suggests that Saudi community colleges have effectively limited the need for students to relocate to pursue higher education. The need to relocate was previously a prevalent phenomenon in Saudi Arabia, and the establishment of community colleges in rural areas has been a key strategy in addressing this issue. Thus, the student survey findings show that community colleges may have achieved their primary goal of promoting local access to higher education. However, the student survey also reveals that even if a college is in the same city as where a student's family lives, it is not always particularly close, as most students who participated in this study (34) disagreed with the following statement: "The community college is within a short driving distance from my home." This unveils a disparity between the intended beneficiaries (students) and the actual locations of the colleges, and suggests that these locations may not be optimal when it comes to serving the target population.

Meanwhile, the survey of faculty members presents contrasting perspectives, with a notable difference between the perceptions of Saudi and non-Saudi faculty members regarding the proximity of their college to their place of residence. This discrepancy stems largely from the composition of the survey participants, with a significant proportion (nine out of 21) being non-Saudi. Of note, colleges typically offer housing services to both Saudi and non-Saudi faculty members, although non-Saudi faculty members are prioritised due to them living outside their home countries. Both of the colleges examined under the study provide housing to their faculties. However, the proximity of a college

to faculty members' place of residence cannot be considered an adequate criterion, as it is influenced heavily by the demographic distribution of the faculty rather than the actual location of the college.

The qualitative data here reveal that stakeholders generally believe that the community colleges fail to meet the physical location requirement. Many highlighted in their interviews that community colleges should work more on improving location and enhancing access. In addition, the interviews with college deans revealed that they have a different stance on the issue of location. They both opined that a college's presence in a place with a strong labour market would be more beneficial to the college's success. They also expressed a belief that the most significant challenge for community college deans is having to work somewhere with a weak labour market. As a result, their focus was less on the ease of access to the college for students. Furthermore, the interviews showed that the education experts put an emphasis on the importance of a college's role in providing community services, but, similar to the college deans, they did not address the actual location of the community colleges.

Furthermore, the location of a college if it is effectively hidden from potential partners. In particular, interviews with business leaders painted a worrying picture in this regard. One of them had never encountered a community college, while the other lacked basic knowledge of their offerings. Despite both expressing an interest in collaboration, this disconnect highlights the critical need to increase awareness among crucial stakeholders. Otherwise, even strategically located colleges may struggle to build meaningful partnerships within their communities. Moreover, the interviews with business leaders indicated that the colleges' locations are not sufficiently prominent or easily accessible.

Overall, the data obtained from surveys and interviews show that the community colleges under study fall short with respect to the location requirement. Therefore, the colleges must review and improve this aspect to achieve their goals.

Decision-Making Processes

The second component of localisation is decision-making processes. Collaboration with stakeholders when making decisions is vital, and the breadth of those engaged in decision-making processes should be expansive (Cohen et al., 2013; Raby and Valeau, 2009; Kingry, 1985; Beach, 2011; Raby and Valeau, 2017; Nevarez and Wood, 2010; Selman and Wilmoth, 1995). Accordingly, stakeholders should work on curriculum design and be involved in selecting the curricula and community services offered by colleges.

The students surveyed were evenly divided in their views on the clarity of college admissions policies. Twenty-four students confirmed that their college has a clear admissions policy, while the exact same number stated the opposite. Meanwhile, the surveyed students broadly confirmed that they have no voice in decision-making processes at their colleges in terms of either curricula or other issues. This suggests that the colleges are failing to meet the decision-making requirement whereby students ought to participate in college decisions. This could weaken students' sense of importance and ownership. Pertinently, studies have shown the importance of involving students in the decision-making processes to create a balanced community capable of reaching its full potential.

Elsewhere, the majority of surveyed faculty members believe their college has a clear employment policy and processes. When asked about curriculum changes however, their answers varied: 12 faculty members confirmed that they have the authority to change curricula, while nine stated the opposite. Similarly, there was also a disparity regarding the launching and closure of certain programmes. Subsequent research undertaken by the author into the colleges' policies clarified that they lack the authority to launch or close programmes. This power is vested only in the Ministry of Education.

In addition, half of the surveyed faculty members confirmed that their college does not have any civil advisory board that would help the college in its decision-making processes, while the other half confirmed that their college has councils from the business community. These results suggest that some colleges still need to create such bodies to promote social justice. In particular, civil

advisory boards can help to ensure that a college's decisions are made in the best interests of all members of the community, including those who are marginalised or underrepresented.. Also, the survey shows that the faculty are aware that the college offers lower tuition fees compared to other higher-education institutions.

The qualitative data reveal that the participating stakeholders believe in the benefits of collaboration in the decision-making processes. Specifically, the interviewed college deans emphasised that the private sector plays a key role in curriculum design and delivery through private sector councils within colleges. One of the deans even stated that these councils have more authority than the college leadership. However, the college deans both agreed that not all colleges in Saudi Arabia have such councils in place. Notably, neither of the deans mentioned any key players here other than the private sector. This indicates a failure on the part of the colleges to engage fully with all community stakeholders in the decision-making processes.

Conversely, the education experts noted that the decision-making processes within community colleges are often unilateral, with little or no input from stakeholders. An example was given here in relation to curriculum design and change, where they claimed that the current system is overly bureaucratic and a major hindrance to the colleges' ability to adapt to the needs of their students and local community. Meanwhile, the interviewed business leaders confirmed that they have no relationship with the community colleges. At the same time, they emphasised that their need to engage with colleges has become urgent, especially with the implementation of Saudi Vision 2030 and privatisation plans.

Overall, the data expose some variations among the opinions of students, faculty members, deans, and business leaders regarding decision-making processes. According to faculty members, students, and business leaders, community colleges do not allow stakeholders to participate in decision-making processes, while according to the deans, the opposite is true. To understand these differing perspectives and to comprehend the relevant laws and processes, this study reviewed official documents regarding the community college system published on the websites of both of the reviewed community colleges. However, no clear

processes were found to allow business or civil society leaders to participate in community colleges' decision making. Most government entities in Saudi Arabia facilitate decision making through various platforms, but of the existence of a platform or department to facilitate collaborative efforts in decision-making processes amongst community colleges is lacking, which makes it challenging for business leaders to comprehend their role in relation to community colleges and the potential benefits to be gained therefrom.

The data obtained from the surveys and interviews suggest that the community colleges under study do not meet the decision-making requirement whereby all stakeholders should be involved. To address this issue, the community colleges must create more councils and mechanisms for participation that would allow all stakeholders to partake evenly and contribute to achieving social justice.

Business Partnerships

The third component under localisation relates to business partnerships (Dougherty and Bakia, 1999; Selman and Wilmoth, 1995; Kingry, 1985; Cohen et al., 2013; Beach, 2011; Raby and Valeau, 2017). Specifically, community colleges can play a crucial part in increasing economic development by collaborating with local businesses. All stakeholders who participated in this study agreed that the community colleges should strive to expand their partnerships with businesses. For example, many of the surveyed students outlined that community college programmes should include apprenticeships, while numerous faculty members stated that community colleges could play a more active role in the local business environment. Some faculty members even suggested that community colleges could sponsor conferences and lectures to foster the development of local businesses, while some also proposed that community colleges ought to work to attract experienced professionals from local businesses to serve as part-time faculty members.

Meanwhile, most of the surveyed students confirmed that the college curricula include case studies from the local business community, even though the private sector did not participate in their design. The majority of surveyed students also confirmed that their teachers have experience in their fields and hold sufficient

knowledge of the local labour market, and that most teachers belong to the local community. Most students also stated that the colleges' programmes should be employment oriented, and that the colleges do not arrange practical training to prepare them for the labour market. These shortcomings pose challenges for students, most of whom also confirmed that companies in the private sector are not well informed about their college. Indeed, half of the surveyed students claimed they did not expect to find a desirable job after graduating. These findings suggest that colleges must focus more on improving the employability of their graduates. To do so, they could provide more practical training and internship opportunities, and work to raise awareness of the colleges among companies in the private sector.

At the same time, many faculty members expressed concerns about their lack of opportunities to gain work experience. Several of them also felt that their colleges could do more to support their participation in the labour market, such as by providing opportunities for them to serve on employment committees, working with local businesses, and supporting student clubs involved in community services. The findings here suggest that colleges could play a more significant role in connecting faculty members with the labour market, for example by providing them with opportunities to gain work experience, supporting their participation in the labour market, or working to raise local employers' awareness of the college.

According to the deans interviewed and education experts, connecting community colleges to the labour market is crucial to addressing development issues in Saudi Arabia. They also outlined that, to achieve this, the laws and regulations governing the relationship between colleges and the business sector may need to be revised. The community college deans also acknowledged the need for greater flexibility when it comes to dealing with the business sector. They both shared the view that community colleges should have the freedom to recruit professionals as faculty members, as hiring professionals as teachers can give students a more practical perspective, which often differs from what students learn from the typical academic curricula.

Many of the participating stakeholders opined that the role of community colleges is mainly to prepare students to enter the workforce. Raby and Valeau (2009) note that the most important element regarding a faculty is its ability to use various instructional strategies. Thus, in the Saudi context, appointing professionals as teachers would be more suitable in some cases than hiring academics. Furthermore, faculty members in Saudi community colleges are often poorly equipped to teach due to the lack of university degree programmes for career- and technical-education teachers. In addition, education regarding community college curriculum design and managementis also lacking. Indeed, these types of programmes are not currently offered in Saudi Arabian higher education institutions.

One notable point of agreement among community college deans and business leaders was struck on the view that businesses collaborate only in designing and delivering curricula. Kingry (1985) notes that there are 23 economic development activities in which community colleges ought to engage to develop the local economy (see Appendix 1).

The data obtained from the surveys and interviews suggest that the community colleges in the study do not fulfil the business partnerships requirement. Moreover, limited private sector involvement in colleges appears to be hindering the success of Saudi Vision 2030 and privatisation plans. As a result, the colleges must increase their collaboration with local businesses.

Career Guidance

The fourth component under localisation is career guidance, which, through career centres, valuably helps individuals to determine their interests, ambitions, and abilities, and then relate them to education and employment opportunities. Career guidance helps people to plan and make informed decisions about their education and careers, which contributes to giving them the freedom to make important choices. Furthermore, career guidance entails systematically collecting information on the job market and education opportunities, and making this information more accessible. Such guidance also

draws from various disciplines such as sociology, psychology, and economics (Roy, 2020).

The data obtained from the surveys and interviews show that students, faculty members, and deans believe that community colleges are performing well with regard to offering career services. However, it was also revealed that the role of career guidance is currently limited to finding jobs for current students rather than career development or corresponding assessments. Furthermore, the career centres in community colleges are typically given different names to reflect their primary purpose. For example, when a career centre is called an 'employment centre' it suggests that the centre intends to enable students to find jobs rather than develop their careers. In any case, neither type of centre offers the full spectrum of guidance that students require to make informed decisions.

According to Cowles (2002), career counselling is a lifelong process that begins at an early age. As the data obtained from the surveys and interviews show, in the Saudi context, public high schools do not offer career counselling services, while the centres at community colleges do not provide full career counselling. The lack of such services represents a barrier to students' career success (Stipanovic and Stringfield, 2013). Thus, community colleges should establish career centres that offer sufficiently comprehensive services.

All participating stakeholders agreed that community colleges could do more to market their educational and professional offerings to their communities, including to high school students and professionals. Many faculty members and students alike suggested community college representatives should visit secondary schools to raise awareness of their professional and educational options.

The data gathered here from the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the four components under the localisation element (location, decision-making processes, business partnerships, and career guidance) indicate that neither of the community colleges in this study have fully implemented localisation.

8.3.2 Comprehensiveness

According to the literature, community colleges are more comprehensive compared to other higher education institutions (Nevarez and Wood, 2010; Cohen et al., 2013; Vaughan, 2006; Cohen, 1993; Raby and Valeau, 2009; McGrath and Spear, 1991). Indeed, the success of community colleges is largely determined by their ability to offer comprehensive programmes and services.

'Comprehensiveness' refers to the ability of community colleges to create and implement programmes that meet current and future local needs. Specifically, an institution's comprehensiveness is measured according to the following factors: open access; pre-university programmes; vocational education programmes; and remedial programmes.

The participating stakeholders all outlined comprehensiveness to be a crucial aspect of the community college model. However, not all stakeholders were convinced that this element had been fully implemented in the Saudi context, suggesting that critical actions still need to be taken so that community colleges can improve their comprehensiveness.

Open Access

The first factor under comprehensiveness concerns having in place an open-access policy that provides equal opportunities. Generally, the surveyed students shared the belief that the application process was straightforward. However, although over half (55%) of them confirmed that they were aware of the college before applying, a significant minority (45%) stated otherwise. These findings suggest that community colleges must work harder to improve their marketing efforts to attract more students. This could be achieved by providing more accessible information about the college's programmes and services, or by building relationships with high schools and other educational institutions.

Many of the surveyed faculty members indicated that the colleges' admissions policies are transparent and equitable, and that the colleges do not discriminate in admissions based on disability. However, many also expressed the view that

the colleges should do more to promote their programmes and increase their marketing efforts.

Conversely, the deans and education experts emphasised that the current policies do not support the admission of non-traditional students, and instead typically only admit students who have attained high school diplomas within five years. This policy, they claimed, has created a perception of community colleges solely as pathways to universities, with limited potential to prepare students for the workforce. This view has made community colleges less attractive to certain students. The responses of the surveyed students confirmed this perception, with most of them stating that community college was not their first choice.

Both deans and education experts highlighted the need to open up community college admission to non-traditional students. Vaughan (2006) argues that policies for accepting students in community colleges should be based on certain required competencies, depending on the needs of specific programmes. Vaughan (2006) also claims that community colleges ought to offer services and courses to help students to build competencies that will help them to become accepted in its various programmes.

Open-access policies help community colleges to respond to diverse student needs and maximise equal opportunity, thereby advancing social justice in communities. Saudi Arabia currently struggles to fill community college places with recent high school graduates. An open-access policy would not only offer more places but also provide students with opportunities to develop, as community colleges would then play a role in building community competencies.

The data obtained from the surveys and interviews suggest that the community colleges under study have not met the open access requirement. As a result, community colleges must expand their admissions criteria to include a wider range of students. This would allow the colleges to play a more significant role in community development by providing educational opportunities to a more diverse group of people.

Pre-University and Vocational Education

The second and third factors under comprehensiveness are offering pre-university and vocational education programmes. The majority of surveyed students confirmed that they plan to pursue a bachelor's degree after graduating, but simultaneously stated that their colleges do not provide them with enough information about their academic options. This confirmation of students' desire to continue their studies beyond community college indicates that transfer is something that these colleges should prioritise. The community colleges should also provide students with enough information to help them make informed decisions about their future.

Conversely, the surveyed faculty members claimed that the diplomas offered by community colleges are equivalent to the first two years of study at universities, and that the colleges offer a variety of programmes for students. The faculty members generally suggested that community colleges are providing valuable educational opportunities for students. However, the interviewed college deans highlighted that admissions to community colleges are still limited to high school graduates. According to the deans, for the community colleges to fulfil their community development role, admissions must be expanded to allow other types of students to enrol.

Most of the deans interviewed in this study argued that the community college model should focus not only on offering pre-university education programmes or programmes equivalent to what is offered in the first two years of university programmes, but also on providing vocational education programmes. Meanwhile, the interviewed education experts associated the bad reputation of community colleges with the fact that they have historically focused on offering pre-university education programmes, with their curricula being considered duplications of university curricula. This view aligns with McGrath and Spear (1991), who describe the liberal arts curriculum in US community colleges as a weak version of university-level education.

Regarding the vocational education programmes offered, the majority of surveyed students expressed that the subject in which they are majoring are in

high demand in the job market, that their degrees are acceptable to employers, and that the community colleges have a good reputation in the labour market. These findings from the students' perspective imply that the colleges are adequately preparing students for the labour market.

The survey of faculty members revealed a general view that the colleges are preparing students well for the workforce, but could do more to support students who want to become entrepreneurs. With entrepreneurship a growing field that offers students the opportunity to create their own business, this is an important gap.

The interviews with community college deans revealed that employment-oriented programmes are limited in the colleges and should be expanded. The deans also shared the view that all programmes at the colleges should be designed to prepare students for the workforce. Ultimately, the findings from the college deans' interviews suggest that the community colleges ought to focus on bolstering their employment-oriented programmes. This would help to ensure students are prepared for the workforce and give them a better chance of finding desirable jobs after graduating. As such, community colleges should expand their focus by offering vocational education programmes. Doing so would develop the labour market and allow for a more diverse student body. However, in Saudi Arabia, transfer programmes cannot yet be removed from the offerings of community colleges due to the limited number of university places. The transfer programmes reviewed in the present research go beyond preparing students to continue their academic degrees as they also prepare students to obtain professional certificates.

In general, the data gleaned from the surveys and interviews show that the community colleges under study do not meet the pre-university and vocational education programmes requirements. Accordingly, the colleges must improve such offerings to enable graduates to achieve their goals.

Remedial Programmes

The fourth factor in comprehensiveness is offering remedial programmes. Most of the participating stakeholders did not believe that the community colleges offered special remedial programmes. Notably, such programmes can maximise the potential of members of communities to pursue educational and vocational options. Offering remedial programmes, such as reading, writing, foreign languages, digital skills, and mathematics, is essential in Saudi Arabia to maximise community capabilities.

In terms of remedial programmes, many surveyed students reported that the community colleges offer reading, writing, and foreign language support classes, as needed. However, they also claimed that the colleges do not offer such support for mathematics or science. Moreover, the findings from the student survey suggest that the colleges are meeting the needs of some students, but not all. Indeed, students' feedback here suggests that the colleges should consider expanding their remedial programme to ensure that all students have the skills they need to succeed in their education and careers.

The survey of faculty members, however, revealed that many of them believe that the colleges do not offer remedial programmes in mathematics, science, and physics, or programmes in reading and writing in Arabic or foreign languages. This contrasts with the findings of the student survey.

Meanwhile, the interviewed education experts, community college deans, and business leaders all asserted that community college programmes should be diverse and responsive to the needs of the community. Even though the interviewed business leaders did not mention remedial programmes expressly, they did stress that colleges should accept students of all backgrounds and abilities .

The findings here suggest that the community colleges must focus more on developing a variety of programmes that better meet the needs of the community. This would allow colleges to meet the educational needs of a

diverse group of students, thereby contributing to the development of the community as a whole.

The data gathered from the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the four components under the comprehensive element (open access, pre-university education programmes, vocational education programmes, and remedial programmes) indicate that neither community colleges nor universities in Saudi Arabia covered in this study have fully implemented the comprehensiveness feature.

8.3.3 Flexibility

In addition, the literature review revealed that flexibility is required to achieve comprehensiveness (Bailey and Morest, 2004; Vaughan, 2006; Beach, 2011). 'Flexibility' concerns the length and mode of programmes, as well as the delivery method (part-time, full-time, weekend classes, face-to-face, online, or distance), and time (evening or morning). Providing as many options as possible helps the colleges to respond more adequately to the needs of individual students.

When asked about the availability of morning or evening lectures, 25 surveyed students confirmed that they had the option to choose morning or evening lectures during registration, while 24 stated the opposite. Most surveyed students stated that if they were offered different hours for lectures (i.e. morning or evening), they would be able to balance their work and studies better. This suggests the importance of offering a variety of lecture times. At the same time, 26 surveyed students held that their college does not offer enough teaching options, such as online or part-time. Elsewhere, most of the surveyed students also confirmed that their college has a user-friendly website. The student survey findings indicate that the community colleges could improve the flexibility of their academic offerings by putting on more morning and evening lectures, as well as providing online and part-time options. This would help to meet the needs of a wider range of students, including those who work full-time or have other commitments. The findings here also suggest that the

colleges' websites are user friendly, which importantly enables students to access information and resources easily.

The survey of faculty members revealed a commonly held view that the colleges do not offer morning or evening classes for students. In addition, faculty members generally confirmed that the colleges offer a variety of programmes in terms of duration (from 1–3 years), but not short-term programmes (1-6 weeks). Faculty members also asserted that the colleges do not offer enough teaching options (i.e., distance learning, part-time, or online). Most faculty members confirmed that the colleges have easy-to-use websites though. The findings from the surveyed faculty members imply that the colleges must improve the flexibility of their offerings. Crucially, doing so would make the colleges more accessible to a wider range of students, including those who work full-time, have family commitments, or live in rural areas.

The interviewed college deans agreed that the colleges should offer programmes at different times and in different forms to make them more accessible to a wider range of students. They also noted that the COVID-19 pandemic had helped to demonstrate the feasibility of online education, which could be a valuable option for the colleges in the future. However, both the deans and education experts observed that, according to law, community colleges can offer only in-person and morning classes. They also recognised that this policy had previously been changed to respond to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, where the teaching delivery method shifted online. This change, according to the deans and education experts, marked an opportunity to embrace online teaching as a means of delivering classes, to help community colleges to reach more individuals. However, this method ceased to be offered in March 2022, once the pandemic had begun to subside. As such, the deans and education experts emphasised that creating new policies in this regard could give community colleges the flexibility to create and choose their own methods, times, lengths, and modes of delivery to increase their capacity to respond to community needs. Meanwhile, interviewed business leaders also considered inflexibility to be a major obstacle preventing their employees from participating in education programmes offered by community colleges. At the same time, education experts and business leaders both emphasised in

interviews that community colleges should be more flexible in their programme offerings to expand their appeal to all types of students.

The data gathered from the qualitative and quantitative analysis indicate that neither of the community colleges under study meet the flexibility requirement.

8.3.4 Accreditation

The literature review also indicated that external accreditation is one of the primary ways through which higher education institutions demonstrate to the public that they are committed to improving academic quality (Eaton, 2018). However, external accreditation is a relatively new phenomenon in Saudi Arabia. Indeed, the first independent national body concerned with assessments and academic accreditations ensuring the quality of higher education, namely the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment, was only established in 2004.

In the course of measuring accreditation, this research focused on the perspectives of various stakeholders as to its value. This approach differs from the one taken to research conducted on the other elements, which primarily aimed at assessing whether these were also implemented. All participating stakeholders emphasised the importance of accreditation for community college programmes. Some stakeholders were unfamiliar with accreditation with regard to professional certificates, but all recognised their importance in a career pathway. However, none of them reported having seen community colleges play a role in this respect.

The interviewed education experts both stated that the accreditation standards for community colleges should be distinct from the standards for other higher education institutions due to important differences between community colleges and other institutions. For example, community colleges typically serve a more diverse student population and offer a wider range of programmes designed to meet the needs of working adults. As a result, their accreditation standards, according to the interviewed experts, should focus more on these factors.

In general, the surveyed students recognised the importance of accreditation and agreed that community colleges should secure this for their programmes. In addition, they also noted the importance of community colleges as a whole being accredited. Meanwhile, the surveyed faculty members demonstrated awareness of the community colleges' national accreditation and acknowledged that community college leaders are working towards achieving international accreditation. They also claimed that the colleges are supporting students in gaining professional certification. However, in reality, only one of the colleges under study here has national *and* international accreditation, and even then, that is for only some of its programmes. The other college has only national accreditation, largely because it is a relatively new institution. The interviewed deans of both community colleges expressed their commitment to obtaining national and international accreditation for all programmes.

The interviewed business leaders also accepted the importance of accreditation. However, indicating a lack of knowledge about accreditation, the business leaders both viewed degrees from government universities or well-known private universities as being accredited, and were surprised to learn that some programmes at public universities are actually not accredited. Thus, the data gathered from qualitative and quantitative methods here show that all stakeholders appreciate the need for accreditation. Thus, community colleges should work to improve the quality of their programmes and institutions to gain accreditation.

8.3.5 Transfer

It was also highlighted in the literature review that community colleges were initially established to broaden access to higher education for students with no immediate opportunity to be admitted to university. Vaughan (2006) notes that, historically, the transfer element was the main function of US community colleges, which began as 'junior colleges' (see also Frye, 1992). As such, transfer is one of the distinguishing features of this type of institution. In the present research, 'transfer' refers to the ability of students to transfer from community college to university to complete their higher education or obtain a professional certificate.

The literature review revealed transfer to be a controversial aspect of the Saudi community college model. While transferring from a community college to a university is possible in Saudi Arabia, transferring to technical degree programmes is not. As a result, the professional growth that could be achieved through transferring credits to technical degree programmes is stunted in Saudi Arabia. The available option at Saudi community colleges of transferring from community colleges to universities is offered only to students with strong academic records, which contradicts the principle of equal opportunity.

Alahmadi and Aljabri (2015) argue that community colleges in urban areas should offer more places in universities to provide more transfer opportunities. These scholars believe that the establishment of community colleges in the Saudi context occurred to make up for the limited offerings of universities. The data obtained from the surveyed students suggest they highly value their community colleges' capacity to help them to transfer to university, and they expect their colleges to work toward signing agreements with local and international universities or professional organisations for technical transfers.

The surveyed faculty members also generally considered transfers to be a key element of community colleges. Most of them recognised that community colleges do not have official agreements with local and regional universities to help transfer students, which can be a barrier. One significant observation to arise from the data here was that most faculty members value transferring to universities but not professional organisations. As such, having agreements in place to transfer credits for technical or professional certificates or licences is important, as the backgrounds of faculty members are predominantly academic rather than professional.

In addition, professional certificates and licences are fairly new to Saudi Arabia. For example, the Saudi Commission for Health Specialties, established in 1992, is responsible for issuing practitioner licences. In the education sector, there is currently no requirement for practitioner licences to teach in public or private schools in Saudi Arabia. However, from 2024, this requirement is being introduced. As a result, the culture of preparing for professional certificates or

licences, either by taking courses or earning credits to demonstrate skills, is in its infancy at this stage.

The interviewed deans both believed that transferring from community college to university is challenging because community college diplomas are geared towards the job market rather than academic pursuits. However, both deans stated their commitment to promoting this transfer process. In addition, neither dean had considered transferring students/graduates from community college to technical programmes to obtain professional certificates or licences that are in high demand in the job market.

At the same time, the interviewed business leaders value their employees attaining higher education, but do not want them to pursue this during working hours. They both opined that transfers should be reserved for students with work experience rather than for those who graduated with high marks. In addition, the business leaders were focused more on transfer to universities rather than to professional programmes that award certificates or licences. Ultimately, there are limited options for students to transfer to professional programmes in the Saudi context, and a new policy is needed to offer more appropriate pathways.

The data gathered on transfer, using both qualitative and quantitative methods, indicate that neither community college covered in this study has fully implemented the transfer element. Moving forward, efforts to improve such functions and options will be necessary for the colleges.

8.4 Conclusion

This chapter has provided an analysis of data collected using both qualitative and quantitative methods. In particular, data were gathered using semi-structured interviews and surveys, covering five groups of stakeholders: community college deans, community college faculty members, community college students, education experts, and business leaders. The goal of doing so was to gain a better understanding of the current Saudi community college model and to determine the extent to which the elements of localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, accreditation, and transfer are being applied.

The main finding was that the Saudi community colleges continue to face persistent issues such as being disconnected from the labour market, having limited options for students/graduates to transfer to university, and admitting only high school students. The next chapter presents findings and recommendations based on the extensive analysis of the collected data.

Chapter 9   Recommendations and Conclusion

9.1 Introduction

The existing literature shows that the Saudi community college model faces challenges commonly faced by similar structures in other countries, such as Jordan and Vietnam, and even in the US, where such colleges were originally developed. As a result, these colleges can be obstructed from serving and empowering society. Specifically, in the Saudi context, these challenges have mostly emerged from neoliberalism and related policies prioritising the free market. This raises important questions about how community colleges in Saudi Arabia can effectively fulfil their dual role of empowering local communities while also contributing to the achievement of Saudi Vision 2030. While reports have primarily emphasized the latter's economic goals, the significant social reforms undertaken since its inception suggest there is potential to incorporate a social justice approach into market-driven strategies. In particular, a model based on the capability approach was proposed to overcome challenges posed to community colleges by neoliberalism hindering their ability to serve, enhance, and empower local communities.

This research has outlined that a community college model encompasses several key elements designed in pursuit of the capability approach. These elements include increasing community colleges' engagement with local communities, accommodating local needs, and becoming culturally and socially relevant and responsive through localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, accreditation, and transfer. The empirical investigation in this study explored whether these five elements have been produced from the perspectives of different Saudi stakeholders, including community college deans and faculty members, as well as students, education experts, and business leaders.

This chapter begins by highlighting the main research findings, followed by recommendations and suggestions for decision-makers in community colleges and different Saudi government entities, such as the Ministry of Education. Thereafter, the study's limitations are admitted, followed by suggestions for

further research and a reflection on my PhD journey. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary and conclusions.

9.2 Main Research Findings

The four main questions that drove this research were:

- What elements should be present in the Saudi community college model to enhance local development from the prospective of the capability approach?

- To what extent do Saudi community colleges implement localisation, comprehensiveness, and flexibility from the perspectives of students, faculty members, deans, and local business leaders?

- What are the perspectives of students, faculty members, deans, and local business leaders concerning the importance of the transfer and accreditation elements of community colleges?

- What needs to be done to enhance the community college model's implementation?

In seeking answers to these questions, some critical discoveries were made. One of them was that all community college models face challenges linked to the growth of neoliberalism.

Second, there appears to be a widely held belief among stakeholders that Saudi community colleges are essential in helping the country to accomplish Saudi Vision 2030. Indeed, there is a generally optimistic view shared by many Saudi stakeholders regarding the future of community colleges, especially given the Ministry of Education's new plan to develop them. One reason behind this optimism is the transformative spirit driving the Saudi government's policies, suggesting a commitment to improving the education system and ensuring equal access to quality education.

Third, while the Saudi community college model is essentially a policy transfer from the US, few studies have addressed the model in this regard. This study found that some strategies need to be applied to enhance the transfer of such a borrowed policy. The following section briefly outlines the answers to the main research questions.

9.2.1 Q.1: What elements need to be present in the Saudi community college model to enhance local development from the perspective of the capability approach?

It was found in the literature review that adopting the capability approach is the most effective way of accommodating local needs as well as the demands of achieving Saudi Vision 2030. The latter is composed of three pillars: a vibrant society, a thriving economy, and an ambitious nation. Moreover, according to Saudi Vision 2030, all institutions including community colleges must work to create an environment conducive to meeting its aims. With that in mind, the capability approach, which promotes democracy, sustainability, and social justice, has great potential to align community colleges with Saudi Vision 2030's goals thereby empowering Saudis.

Through the literature review undertaken on the capability approach and the historical development of community colleges (see Chapters 3 and 4) (Cohen et al., 2014, Nevarez and Wood, 2010, Raby and Valeau, 2018, Hidayat, 2018, Levin and Kater, 2018), I identified five elements as necessary for community colleges to incorporate to better serve and empower local communities: localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, accreditation, and transfer. These elements are explained in detail below.

Localisation: This element helps to create a sense of belonging to the local environment, promotes community engagement and involvement, and utilises local strengths. To realise this element, community colleges must ensure that their programmes and services are responsive to local needs and are tailored to the natural, cultural, and social context by focusing on:

- **Location:** Community colleges should prioritise physical accessibility, so it is recommended that they be located at the

heart of the community to facilitate access for all (Cohen et al., 2014, Fain, 2014).

- **Decision-making processes:** Community colleges should work to ensure inclusive decision-making processes in response to community needs whereby all voices are heard. One way for community colleges to achieve this would be by establishing different committees to participate in decisions. These committees should represent different segments of society, such as business actors and students. Moreover, these committees, which should be included in the organisational structure, can ensure community involvement as needed. Meanwhile, the process for forming such committees should be simplified and open to all community members, thus allowing for broad representation and participation.

- **Business partnerships:** Forging partnerships with businesses is also crucial to the success of community colleges and utilising local resources wisely. By working together with businesses, community colleges can better serve the community. Therefore, it is recommended that community colleges create local business centres to facilitate such collaboration (kingry, 1985). These centres could help to breed business partnerships that increase local opportunities by making the most of business resources and expertise to serve the community.

- **Career guidance:** Community colleges are essential when it comes to supporting local communities. For instance, such colleges can assist individuals to succeed and thrive by ensuring that everyone has an equal opportunity to reach their full potential. Indeed, community colleges should offer career services to all community members, not just students or faculty members (Stipanovic and Stringfield, 2013).

Comprehensiveness: Under this element, community colleges should offer a range of degree and non-degree programmes to meet the diverse needs of the community while striving to cater to a wide range of educational, social, and cultural needs. Hence, it is recommended that community colleges practice open-access policies to empower community members by giving them different educational options.

Flexibility: To ensure that education is accessible to all community members, community colleges should work to offer their services and programmes in different modes and at various times. This approach could include offering evening or weekend classes, online courses, and distance or part-time programmes. By offering more versatile programmes and services, the community colleges can reach a wider audience and better meet the diverse needs of the local community.

Accreditation: Community colleges are urged to obtain national and international accreditation, which can establish these colleges as credible and trustworthy institutions while also providing a framework for ongoing improvement and development. By pursuing accreditation, community colleges can demonstrate their commitment to excellence while meeting local community needs. Moreover, graduates of an accredited community college are likely to have better prospects than those graduating from a college that is not yet accredited.

Transfer: This element entails other higher education and professional institutions accepting credits or certifications earned at community colleges, thereby ensuring greater flexibility and mobility for students in their academic and professional lives. Such transfers can be achieved by expanding the number of agreements that community colleges have with other institutions or universities. Ultimately, by prioritising transferability, community colleges can empower students to pursue their passions and achieve their goals.

Incorporating these elements ensures that community colleges truly serve and empower the local community. Furthermore, decisions in community colleges should be made by following what Sen (2005) called the reasoning process

(Walker, 2019). According to the latter, decisions on what programmes to offer and which industries to support should involve all stakeholders (see Figure 9-1).

Figure 9-1 Proposed Community College Model
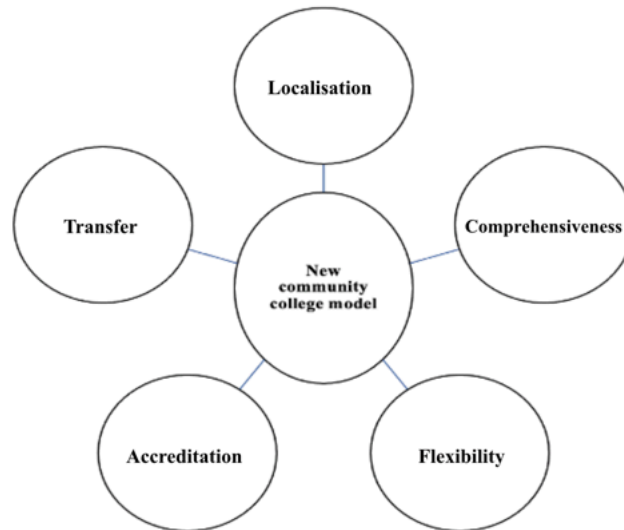
The aim of the new community college model is to promote democracy, sustainability, and social justice

This research is innovative by applies the capability approach to the community college model to empower local communities to achieve national development goals. By promoting democracy, sustainability, and social justice, the capability approach equips community colleges to become catalysts for community development. This unique approach deepens our understanding of how these institutions can be leveraged for a more empowered and equitable future.

9.2.2 Q.2: To what extent do Saudi community colleges implement the three elements of localisation, comprehensiveness and flexibility from the perspectives of local business leaders, educational experts and community colleges students, faculty members and deans?

For this thesis, two community colleges in Riyadh were investigated as case studies to determine the degree to which these elements were present. The findings gleaned from the empirical data are presented for every element below.

- **Localisation**: The data revealed a widely held belief among different stakeholders that community colleges are generally embracing the localisation element, with some notable findings for each of this element's constituent parts, as presented below.

- **Location:** After analysing the data, it was found the respondents generally agreed that the community colleges are well located. However, some business leaders were unaware of where the community colleges are situated. Moreover, some students' responses suggested that the community colleges are not easily accessible.

- **Decision-making processes:** It was found that community college stakeholders were dissatisfied with their lack of engagement in decision-making processes. In fact, these stakeholders proposed that community colleges work harder to involve them in critical decisions and suggested that the colleges should build different means of empowering them to participate. The data also indicated that advisory councils in community colleges were in limited supply.

- **Business partnerships:** Collaborating with local businesses can be an effective way for community colleges to better serve the needs of their local community. However, the interviewed stakeholders agreed that community colleges need to do more in terms of business cooperation.

- **Career guidance:** Offering a career guidance service is essential to empower local communities. Some stakeholders emphasised the importance of establishing career centres to serve local communities. However, the data revealed that no such centres are in place at either college under study.

Comprehensiveness: To effectively meet local needs, community colleges should offer a diverse range of programmes. Stakeholders generally recognised the importance of this element. Specifically, some details of the findings are

highlighted below under each constituent part of the comprehensiveness element.

- **Admissions and equal opportunity policy:** The stakeholders broadly proposed that the admissions policy be changed to accommodate non-traditional students.

- **Pre-university education programmes:** The community college stakeholders offered different views regarding the importance of offering such programmes. However, most interviewed stakeholders believed it was essential that students be provided with a path to a university degree.

- **Vocational education programmes:** All interviewed community college stakeholders expressed the opinion that community colleges should offer vocational education linked directly to the needs of the labour market.

- **Remedial programmes:** According to the community college stakeholders, no special remedial programmes (i.e. programmes aiming to improve reading, writing, and mathematics skills) are offered by their colleges. However, they believed that community colleges should begin offering special remedial programmes, particularly aimed at literacy, to empower the local communities.

Flexibility: The interviewed stakeholders widely felt that the community colleges lacked the flexibility to meet their local community's diverse needs and demands. Some even believed that this lack of flexibility was the main barrier obstructing local communities from continuing their education. They suggested that community colleges could offer various options in terms of the length of programmes, programme methods (e.g. part-time, full-time, weekend classes, face-to-face, online, and distance learning), and delivery times (e.g. mornings and evenings).

The findings described above identified some areas in which enhancements could be made.

Finally, in exploring this research question, recommendations emerged on how community colleges can improve their implementation of the aforementioned five elements, thereby contributing to the achievement of the Saudi Vision 2030 goals.

9.2.3 Q.3: What are the perspectives of local business leaders, educational experts, and community college students, faculty and deans on the importance of the transfer and accreditation elements for community colleges?

Notably, only two community colleges in Riyadh were studied. Nevertheless, from the interviewed stakeholders' feedback, accreditation was clearly viewed as a necessary step towards ensuring that community colleges establish credibility and effectiveness. At the same time, the respondents also noted the transfer element's significance to achieve long-term success.

Obtaining accreditation for higher education institutions is considered a relatively new phenomenon in Saudi Arabia. Indeed, only one of the community colleges covered in this study is accredited, and even then only for a limited number of programmes. The data also showed that some stakeholders did not clearly understand the meaning of accreditation. For example, the interviewed business leaders thought degrees from government or well-known private universities were all accredited, which is not the case. This highlights a potential gap in knowledge or limited accessibility to information regarding accreditation in the country. Therefore, the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment should conduct awareness-raising campaigns about the importance of accreditation, targeting all community college stakeholders.

The responses showed that most stakeholders agreed on the importance of transferring credits gained at community college to other higher education institutions. However, the interviewed deans were against providing students with the option of transferring credits, and favoured having market-oriented community colleges. Elsewhere, the data indicated that students and businesses supported the transfer of credits to pursue professional certification. Business leaders in particular stated that this would effectively serve students who also work, especially if the programmes were offered after working hours.

9.2.4 Q.4: What needs to be done to enhance the model's implementation?

Implementing the abovementioned five elements should be a top priority for community colleges and government entities. I recommend that these institutions take immediate action to integrate certain recommendations into their current operations. These recommendations are presented below, organised into the thematic areas of this research.

The first set of recommendations is targeted toward the community colleges.

Localisation (see Figure 9-2)

Figure 9-2 Localisation Section That Needs to Be Developed
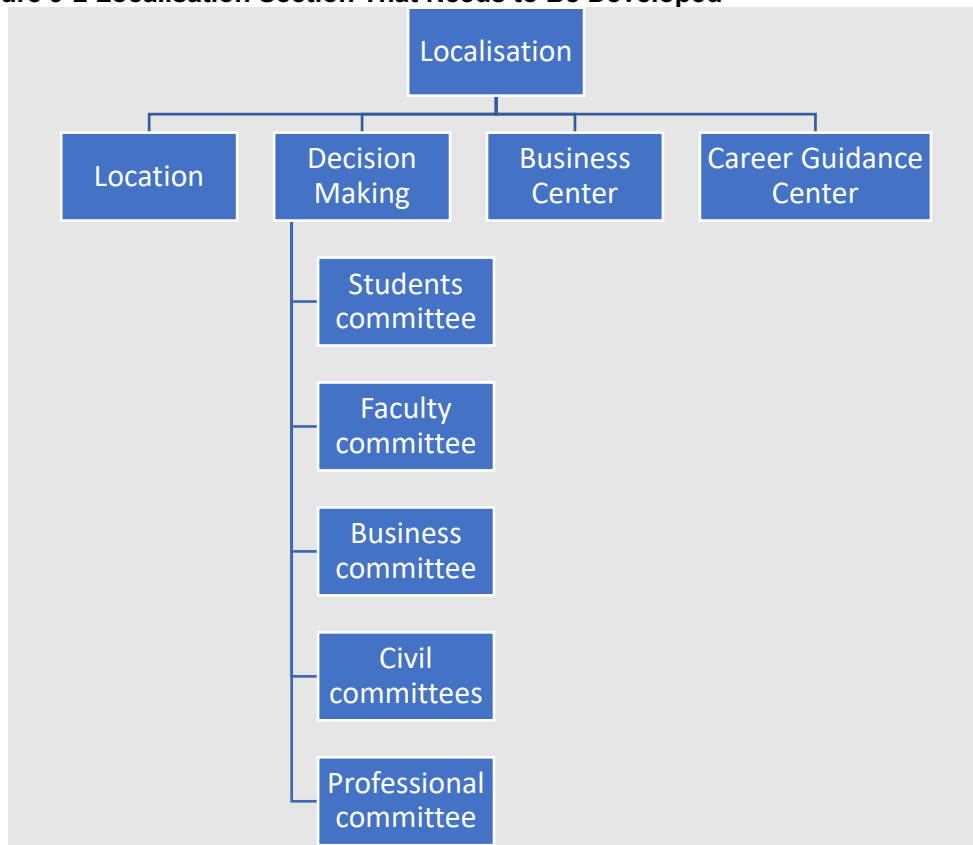
- **Location:** The community colleges must review their locations to ensure an effective and equitable education system for all. If there are obstacles to changing their current location, these colleges should pursue other ways of making their services and programmes more available to the community. For example, public schools could host some community college classes to make them more accessible to the community.

- **Decision-making processes:** Every community college must create committees representing the local community, businesses, and students to ensure that decisions are made more democratically. The colleges should also ensure that these committees are accessible to all.

- **Business partnerships:** It is recommended that the community colleges create local business centres to embrace businesses in their decision-making processes. Moreover, they should facilitate collaboration with businesses by analysing the local community's needs to ensure that programmes and services are responsive thereto. The centres would also ideally expand the collaboration between community colleges and the local community, for example by sponsoring local business activities, such as training. Crucially, such collaboration should not be limited to the design of curricula and teaching.

Table 9-1 Possible Business Center Activities

Business Centre	
Function	**Possible activities**
Needs analysis	• Obtain clear and basic information on the local population, geography, natural resources, private sector, schools, higher education institutions, and the community's main challenges. • Conduct community training needs assessments. • Collect labour market information for planning purposes • Establish relationships with state bodies focused on economic development (e.g. the Department of Commerce).
Training	• Conduct retraining programmes for unemployed individuals. • Provide classroom apprenticeship training in cooperation with businesses. • Offer technical training unavailable at community college but for which there is student demand and community need. • Deliver basic skills training in mathematics, reading, and writing. • Provide combined education programmes, such as on-the-job training mixed with classroom training. • Put on customised on-site industry training programmes. • Release instructional guides for teachers seeking to work in certain industries. • Offer short courses and workshops for company employees. • Conduct adult literacy training programmes for businesses. • Provide entrepreneurship training programmes. • Conduct licensing and certification training for local employees.
Material and labs	• Rent the community college lab and classrooms to local businesses.
Research and business resource library	• Operate a business resource library to serve local businesses. • Conduct research and development for small business operations. • Provide consultations on export management. • Publish information about the local business environment and opportunities. • Sponsor conferences and meetings with local businesses. • Support teachers by putting examples from the local community in the curriculum.

- Career guidance centre: It is recommended that the community colleges open a career guidance centre. Table 9-2 offers some activities that such a centre could possibly provide. In addition, a local database of jobs and graduates should be built.

Table 9-2 Possible Career Center Activities

Career Guidance Centr	
Beneficiaries	**Possible activities**
Students	- Provide career and vocational counselling. - Deliver special programmes on how to search for job opportunities and write a resume. - Build a local jobs database.
Faculty	- Provide career and vocational counselling for faculty members. - Support faculty members in applying for part-time jobs at local businesses. - Facilitate the participation of faculty members in recruitment committees in local organisations. - Offer special programmes on how to search for job opportunities and write a resume.
Business	- Establish and present a database of college graduates. - Sponsor career-focused conferences and events (i.e. career fairs).
Community	- Provide career and vocational counselling for all community members. - Put on special programmes on searching for job opportunities and writing a resume.

Comprehensiveness (see Figure 9-3)

Figure 9-3 Open-Access Diagram
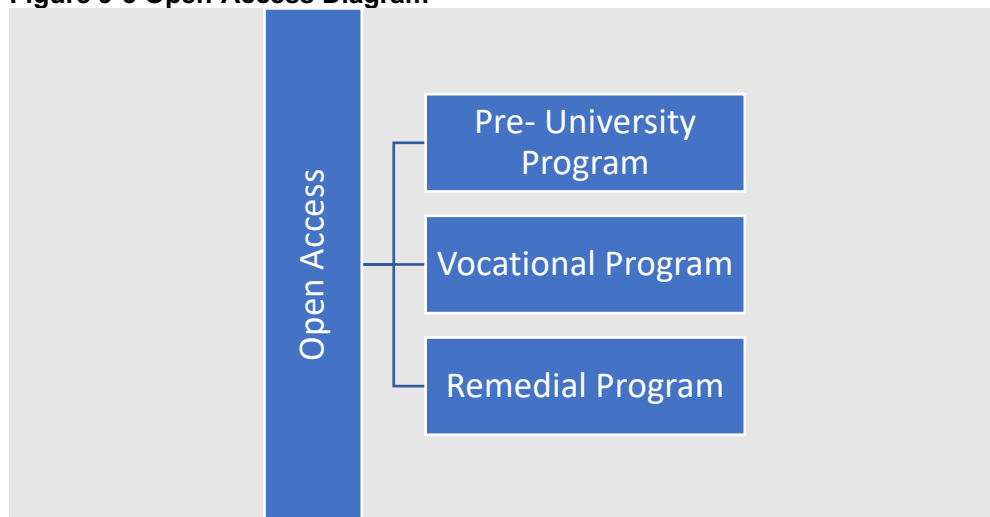
- Offer three types of programmes to help community colleges align with an open-access policy
- Tailor the programmes to fit the local context.

- It is recommended that each community college offer different programmes that fit the community's needs. Three types of programme, in particular, should be in each community college, namely pre-university, vocational, and remedial.

- The admissions policy should be inclusive. Indeed, the community colleges should prioritise serving the local community and strive to provide access to education for all.

Flexibility

- It is recommended that the community colleges offer programmes of varying length and using different delivery methods to attract non-traditional students. These should include two-year, one-year, six-month, and one-month programmes, as well as part-time, full-time, weekend classes, face-to-face, online, and distance learning options. Moreover, programmes should be taught at different times of the day to attract a wider range of students.

Accreditation

- It is recommended that the community colleges work to secure national and international accreditation. In doing so, the colleges will raise awareness of the importance of accreditation for all community college stakeholders.

- The community colleges are also advised to expand their credit transfer agreements with higher education institutions and professional organisations, both internationally and locally. Obtaining professional certificates and licences could help to fill the current skills gaps in the Saudi workforce, while also building the community's capabilities. Here, community colleges could play a significant role in raising the quality of educational outcomes while improving human resources, all of which would contribute to Saudi Vision 2030's realisation.

Turning to government entities, the recommendations below concern the Ministry of Education.

Localisation

- The Ministry of Education should carefully plan the locations of new community colleges to ensure they operate effectively and meet the needs and demands of local communities.

- The Ministry of Education should also encourage mentoring, evaluation, and support, which may involve establishing clear guidelines and standards for the operation of community colleges including the provision of training to deans to help them manage and lead their colleges effectively. The Ministry of Education should also monitor community colleges and the programmes and services they offer to ensure that the three categories of pre-university programmes, vocational programmes, and remedial programmes are supplied, thereby upholding the comprehensiveness element (see Figure 9-3).

- It is also recommended that community colleges be given sufficient independence to meet local demands. Community college deans in particular should be empowered with the authority to close programmes and operate recruitment procedures to fulfil local needs while making the most of local strengths and resources.

- It is recommended that community colleges be empowered to recruit part-time and full-time teachers, as needed, from the local community who have had work experience. Such a policy would tighten the community college's relationship with the local market and community as a whole.

Comprehensiveness

- The Ministry of Education is encouraged to implement an open-access policy protected by law, whereby all community colleges would be open to all community members. However, each programme may have different admission requirements. In general, community colleges should open their doors to non-traditional students to establish a more diverse student body. Thus, it is recommended that the Ministry of Education withdraw its five-year policy that exclusively limits admission to those who graduated from high school in the last five years. This serves as a barrier to higher education for many individuals in the local community.

Flexibility

- The Ministry of Education should encourage and support community colleges to offer programmes of different lengths and with different delivery methods.

Transfer

- The Ministry of Education should enhance the transferability of community college credits by implementing a policy that allows students to transfer credits gained from community colleges to other educational and professional institutions. This policy would help to ensure that students have a desirable level of flexibility and mobility.

The following recommendations are directed towards the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment.

Accreditation

The National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment should develop standards for the accreditation of community colleges. These standards would help to establish clear expectations for community colleges, promote accountability and transparency, and ensure that all community colleges meet the same high standards.

The National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment should work to raise awareness among stakeholders of the importance of accreditation.

9.3 Community College as Policy Transfer

Policymakers tend to transfer policies without understanding the context of the receiving country or territory, which contributes to their failure. Therefore, this study devised key areas that policymakers should pay attention to when handling a policy transfer. These key areas are useful in the Saudi context as well as in other countries wishing to transfer a policy into their national and local contexts (see Table 9-3).

1) Understand the Context

Policymakers should understand the economic, social, and political implications of the policy, along with the corresponding legal framework and the targeted sector(s). They ought to also understand the current and past operations of the policy in its country of origin.

2) Understand the Aim of the Policy

Policymakers should also understand the policy's aim in both the country of origin and the country to which it is being transferred. Moreover, they ought to know the extent to which the policy has achieved its aim in the country of origin or in other countries to which it has already been transferred.

3) Understanding the Stakeholders

Policymakers should know all of the stakeholders including beneficiaries, implementers, and monitors, who are or will be involved in the policy's implementation in its country of origin and the country to which it is being transferred.

Table 9-3 Areas of Focus For Enhancing Transferred or Borrowed Policies

Elemen	Aim	In Country of Origin	In the Country Where the Policy is Being Transferred
The policy context	Understand the economic, social, political, and legal environment in which the policy operates (i.e. the policy's ecosystem).	• Economic • Social • Political and legal • Sector (education) Current shape – current challenges	• Economic • Social • Political and legal • Sector (education) Current shape – current challenges
The aim of the policy	Understand the aim of the policy: what purpose does it serve?	The current and past aims of the policy and how it has changed, if at all.	What did the country want to achieve initially through the policy? What is its current aim? How has it changed (if at all)?
The stakeholders	Know the main stakeholders and their roles	Who is responsible for implementing the policy? Who is responsible for evaluating it?	Who will implement the policy? Who will evaluate it?

9.4 Suggestions For Further Research

The findings of this study including the literature review reveal a gap in the existing research with regard to the community college model and its development in the Arab world broadly and the Saudi context in particular. Therefore, more research should be conducted on this issue. This section outlines specific directions for further research which would advance the community college literature.

- Since the US community college model has been widely adopted in developing countries and promoted through foreign aid and other initiatives, it would be worth investigating of the extent to which

adopting the model is a means of exerting neo-colonialist power and influence.

- Further research on community colleges in urban areas of Saudi Arabia other than Riyadh would represent a forward step in the literature. Such areas present unique challenges and opportunities for community colleges, especially where there are limited resources and diverse cultural and socioeconomic backgrounds.

- The five elements developed in this study, informed by the capability approach, could be examined in another country to gain insights into how this model can be adapted to fit different contexts and promote the development of local communities.

- A study could be conducted to examine the activities that community colleges and Saudi businesses could cooperate on to serve local communities better. An examination could be undertaken on the capability approach to see how it can contribute to designing community college curricula to benefit local communities.

9.5 Limitations

The following limitations of this thesis need to be acknowledged and addressed:

- Although the study focused on different perspectives of community college stakeholders, as the current community college model does not accommodate non-traditional students, and vulnerable and disadvantaged groups may have been omitted. This may limit the comprehensiveness of the findings and thus affect the recommendations. Hence, future research ought to include a wider range of stakeholders, if possible, to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the issues at hand.

- The data collected in this study were from only two community colleges in Riyadh. The context in which community colleges operate can vary significantly from region to region, so the challenges and opportunities

faced by community colleges in other regions may differ from those recorded in this study.

- The number of policymakers and government participants in this research was relatively low. This was partly attributable to the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, after which it became increasingly challenging to arrange interviews within the allowed time. Due to this limitation, the perspectives and insights of some key stakeholders may not have been fully captured. Therefore, further studies ought to gather their views.

- There is a lack of existing literature on some of the topics examined in this thesis, such as the effect of neoliberalism on the community college model in the Arab world.

9.6 Reflection

'What is the role of higher education?' This question has been the driving force not only behind my PhD research, but all of my professional endeavours. My PhD experience has allowed me to explore an important institution in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia's higher education sector, namely the community college. Through this research project, I have developed greatly as an educator, researcher, and human being. Here, I will attempt to summarise the numerous lessons learned in the process.

- **Asking the right questions:** This might sound simple, but it is not. Mastering the formulation of clear and to-the-point questions is a fundamental skill for any researcher. I have learned that asking the right 'why?' question guides one to the answers being sought. Mastering this skill can also save researchers a great deal of time.

- **Understanding the whole picture:** Accurately defining the factors at work and fully understanding their effect are also fundamental research skills. After all, context matters.

- **Read, then write, then read some more and write some more:** Do not stop reading and writing; these activities are like breathing to a researcher. While a researcher might not achieve excellence immediately, with practice comes improvement.

In the field of higher education and community colleges specifically, I have learned the following.

- **Quality and function:** When I first embarked on my PhD journey, I explored the literature in search of a type of higher education institution that provided what I believed tertiary education should provide: the opportunity for all community members, regardless of their gender, beliefs, economic status, or social status, to increase their level of education and skill. It was here that I encountered the concept of the community college. Thus, I decided to base my research proposal on the idea of improving the quality of technical colleges in Saudi Arabia. For the first three months of my research, I was imagining how these colleges could improve. However, when I reached the four-month mark, I realised that I would not be able to improve institutions whose very foundations prevented them from serving the purpose I wished them to serve. Therefore, before a researcher embarks on formulating a development plan for an institutions, they must first understand how that institution is currently functioning.

- **From labour market to human and environment growth:** At the start of my PhD research, I was in support of linking what is taught at higher education institutions to the requirements of the labour market. However, my opinion changed when I realised that there is greater power in first recognising human capabilities, rather than simply responding to the labour market. In fact, the labour market can benefit from an influx of candidates with extensive knowhow and new skills. Ultimately, focusing on human capabilities first, and then on the labour market, results in a more holistic approach.

- **Higher education should be open to all:** Education is a fundamental human right. Thus, higher education researchers, leaders, and policymakers must work harder to ensure education becomes increasingly available to everyone. The world will benefit from more open access to educational institutions, whether it be schools, colleges, or new types yet to be created. Ultimately, education should always be accessible to all.

9.7 Conclusion

Many countries have adopted the US community college model to promote local community development. While the adopting countries have different political, economic, and social systems, they all had similar hopes: to meet the needs of their communities effectively and support their development. However, the adoption of this model has faced many challenges in the last 70 years, largely because of the rise of neoliberalism in most higher education institutions. To overcome these challenges, the community college model must be modified.

This thesis proposes taking the capability approach as a foundational step toward developing the community college model to ensure it meets local community demands. Relatedly, its literature review on the capability approach and community colleges led to the identification of five elements that could be incorporated into the model to better serve and empower local communities: localisation, comprehensiveness, flexibility, accreditation, and transfer.

Meanwhile, the empirical section of the thesis presented the study's findings regarding the extent to which these five elements existed in two Saudi community colleges. It also highlighted where more resources are needed to support the achievement of Saudi Vision 2030. The corresponding findings were presented in detail, providing insights from different stakeholders into the challenges and opportunities faced by community colleges. Therefore, to conclude, this study stresses the importance of incorporating the five highlighted elements into the Saudi community college model to help the colleges play a vital role in realising Saudi Vision 2030.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Lists of Economic Activities that Community College Could Engage in to Develop the Local Economy

kingry (1985) found that community college engaged in 23 economic development

activates to develop the local economy (kingry, 1985, p. 20):

1- Conduct retraining programs for persons who have been laid off.

2- Provide job placement services for students enrolled in the community college.

3- Provide classroom apprenticeship training in cooperation with labor and business.

4- Participation of college staff (i.e., admittaturs, faculty, or counselors) on industry recruitment teams.

5- Contracting by colleges with industries for the industry to provide certain technical training not available at the college but for which there is both students demand and community need.

6- Provide basic skills (math, reading, and communication) training.

7- Provide cooperative education programs such as on-the-job training mixed with classroom training.

8- Provide instructional releases for teachers to work in industry.

9- Provide customized training programs to industry on the industry site.

10- Provide skill upgrade training for employed persons wanting to keep pace with changing technology or desiring to change positions.

11- Provide training in basic and midlevel management skill.

12- Provide short courses and workshops for company employees.

13- Conduct research and evelopment as applied to small business operation

14- Disseminate research results on technical change and business research to regional busineses.

15- Operate a business resource library to serve regional businesse.

16- Provide consultation in export management.

17- Provide services or courses in business financial planing.

18- Conduct community training need assessment.

19- Provide career and vocational counseling.

20- Provide prescreening and skill assessment of potential employees for business.

21- Provide staff to solicit funds for retraining programs.

22- Participation of community college staff on local community development councils.

23- Collect labor market information for planning purposes.

In another study, Selman and Wilmoth (1995) also constructed a list of economic development activities that community colleges can engage in to develop the local economy. Their list contained 29 items (as cited in Cotham, 2000, p. 31):

1. Maintain a master plan for economic development
2. Offer staff development and in-service programmes to educate faculty members, staff personnel, and administrators in the basic principles of economic development
3. Designate a person at the college who is primarily responsible for economic development
4. Ensure that the top administrator belongs to a local economic development organization (e.g., Committee of 100 or a chamber of commerce)
5. Provide opportunities for student involvement in economic development activities (e.g., student chamber of commerce within the college)
6. Encourage advisory committee members (institutional and instructional programme) to join local economic development organizations
7. Work with existing business and industrial firms to conduct back-to-work programmes to update teacher competencies
8. Align the curriculum with the immediate and future needs of local employers
9. Work with local employers to provide cooperative education and/or internship opportunities for students
10. Provide training facilities for local employers through formal partnerships
11. Regularly collect, update, and disseminate socioeconomic data about the community
12. Share information about technological trends with local economic development organizations and companies
13. Seek local, state, and federal grants to conduct customized training for individual business and industrial firms
14. Work with the local Private Industry Council on job-generating activities
15. Establish a relationship with state economic development organizations (e.g., state Department of Commerce)
16. Conduct educational and cultural activities that are of interest to new and existing business and industrial firms
17. Conduct train-the-trainer workshops, course planning, and curriculum development assistance for local business and industrial firms

18. Conduct customized training to meet the specific training needs of local business and industrial firms (written agreements)

19. Establish a business development and/or technology transfer centre

20. Provide resources (facilities, staff, funds, equipment, etc.) to establish a demonstration centre

21. Conduct adult literacy training programmes for business and industrial firms

22. Provide entrepreneurship training programmes

23. Conduct licensure and certification training for local employees

24. Sponsor customized short courses and seminars taught in-house for local employers

25. Cosponsor conferences and meetings with local economic development organizations

26. Conduct start-up training for new business and industrial firms

27. Conduct training programmes for targeted populations (e.g., displaced workers, inmates, rehabilitation clients)

28. Provide apprenticeship linkage training programmes

29. Provide training for local chapters of professional organizations

Appendix 2 Descriptive Statistics of Students' Perceptions and Attitudes Towards Localisation

Elements of localisation	Statements	Frequencies and percentages										Total		Rank
		SD		D		N		A		SA		SD+D+N	A+SA	
		%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F			
Location	1. The community college is within a short driving distance from my home.	27.5	14	31.4	16	7.8	4	17.6	9	13.7	7	34	16	19
	2. The road to the community college is clear and easy.	13.7	7	15.7	8	9.8	5	39.2	20	19.6	10	20	30	7
	3. My family live in the same city where the community college is located.	3.9	2	3.9	2	0	0	31.4	16	56.9	29	4	45	1
Decision making	4. The community college has a clear policy on student acceptance.	13.7	7	2	1	31.4	16	29.4	15	19.6	10	24	24	13
	5. Students at the community college participate in curriculum design.	5.9	3	7.8	4	52.9	27	23,5	12	7.8	4	34	16	19
	6. Students at the community college participate in decision making.	7.8	4	9.8	5	33.3	17	29.4	15	15.7	8	26	23	14
Business partnerships	7. The curriculum at the community college uses examples from the local community.	2.0	1	2.0	1	21.6	11	47.1	24	23.5	12	13	36	4
	8. The curriculum at the community college is designed with the help of business partners from my local community.	2.0	1	68.6	35	0	0	13.7	7	11.8	6	36	13	22
	9. Most of the faculty who teach me at the community	2.0	1	3.9	2	17.6	9	33.3	17	39.2	20	12	37	3

Category	Statement													
	college has job experience in my field of study.													
	10. Most of the faculty who teach me at the community college are knowledgeable about the labour market.	2.0	1	5.9	3	33.3	17	27.5	14	27.5	14	21	28	9
	11. Most of the faculty who teach me at the community college are from the local community.	3.9	2	9.8	5	21.6	11	52.9	27	7.8	4	18	31	6
	12. The community college programme should be apprenticeship.	0	0	0	0	19.6	10	27.5	14	49.0	25	10	39	2
	13. The community college arranges an internship for me.	5.9	3	2.0	1	49.0	25	29.4	15	9.8	5	29	20	18
	14. Employers know about my community college.	3.9	2	0	0	47.1	24	33.3	17	11.8	6	26	23	14
	15. I feel that I will find a good job with my diploma.	7.8	4	11.8	6	29.4	15	23.5	12	25.5	13	25	25	11
Career guidance centre	16. The community college has an onsite career guidance centre.	3.9	2	2.0	1	27.5	14	43.1	22	19.6	10	17	32	5
	17. The community college is committed to providing career counselling services to all students who wish to enrol.	3.9	2	3.9	2	39.2	20	31.4	16	19.6	10	24	26	10
	18. The community college educates students about available career options in the local community.	3.9	2	3.9	2	29.4	15	41.2	21	15.7	8	19	29	8

	19. The community college provides a database of occupations and jobs.	5.9	3	5.9	3	39.2	20	31.4	16	9.8	5	26	21	17
	20. The community college makes field visits to secondary schools to raise awareness about available professional opportunities in the local community and appropriate educational opportunities.	5.9	3	13.7	7	45.1	23	19.6	10	11.8	6	33	16	19
	21. The community college provides a database (platform) for college graduates.	2.0	1	5.9	3	45.1	23	29.4	15	13.7	7	27	22	16
	22. The community college provides special programmes on how to search for job opportunities and on write resumes.	3.9	2	7.8	4	35.3	18	23.5	12	25.5	13	24	25	11
Total												478	578	

Appendix 3 Descriptive Statistics of Students' Perceptions and Attitudes Towards Comprehensiveness

Elements of comprehensiveness	Statements	Frequencies and percentages										Total		Rank
		SD		D		N		A		SA		SD+D+N	A+SA	
		%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F			
Acceptance and equal opportunity policy	1. Acceptance to my community college was easy.	7.8	4	9.8	5	15.7	8	45.1	23	17.6	9	17	32	5
	2. The community college was my first option.	19.6	10	29.4	15	23.5	12	11.8	6	9.8	5	37	11	12
	3. I knew about the community college before I was accepted.	7.8	4	27.5	14	7.8	4	33.3	17	15.7	8	22	25	9
	4. The community college informs students about available educational opportunities.	2.0	1	5.9	3	27.5	14	41.2	21	17.6	9	18	30	7
Pre-university education programmes	5. I am planning to complete my bachelor's degree in the future.	2.0	1	2.0	1	11.8	6	11.8	6	66.7	34	8	40	1
	6. The community college provides me with a list of universities that would accept my diploma to complete a university degree.	9.8	5	5.9	3	35.3	18	11.8	6	33.3	17	26	23	10
Vocational education programmes	7. Graduates of my programme at the community college are needed in the labour market.	2.0	1	3.9	2	21.6	11	35.3	18	33.3	17	14	35	3
	8. The community college offers programmes that are accepted by employers in the labour market.	2.0	1	2.0	1	19.6	10	41.2	21	31.4	16	12	37	2
	9. The community college's programmes have a good	2.0	1	2.0	1	31.4	16	39.2	20	21.6	11	18	31	6

	reputation in the labour market.												
Remedial programmes	10. The community college provides foundation programmes in mathematics, science, and physics.	5.9	3	7.8	4	46.1	24	23.5	12	11.8	6	31	18	11
	11. The community college provides foundation programmes in reading and writing in Arabic.	3.9	2	3.9	2	37.3	19	39.2	20	11.8	6	23	26	8
	12. The community college provides foundation programmes in foreign languages according to the needs of the local sectors.	2.0	1	0	10	25.5	13	47.1	24	21.6	11	24	35	3
Total												250	343	

Appendix 4 Descriptive Satistics of the Faculty Members' Perceptions and Attitudes Towards Localisation

| Elements of localisation | N | Statements | Frequencies and percentages | | | | | | | | | | Frequencies | | Rank |
| | | | SD | | D | | N | | A | | SA | | Total | | |
			%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	SD + D + N	A + SA	
Location	1	The community college is within a short driving distance from my home.	9.5	2	14.3	3	4.8	1	23.8	5	47.6	10	6	15	9
	2	The road to the community college is easy to follow.	4.8	1	0	0	9.5	2	28.6	6	52.4	11	3	17	3
Decision making	3	The community college has a clear policy for recruiting faculty.	0	0	0	0	19.0	4	52.4	11	28.6	6	4	17	3
	4	The community college's recruiting process is clear.	0	0	0	0	28.6	6	42.9	9	28.6	6	6	15	9
	5	The faculty at the community college has the power to change the curriculum.	4.8	1	28.6	6	9.5	2	28.6	6	28.6	6	9	12	13
	6	The community college has different civil advisory boards from the local community.	9.5	2	14.3	3	28.6	6	19	4	28.6	6	11	10	17
	7	The community college has different advisory boards from the business community.	4.8	1	14.3	3	28.6	6	28.6	6	23.8	5	10	11	14
	8	The community college has the authority to launch and shut down programmes according to local need.	14.3	3	9.5	2	14.3	3	33.3	7	28.6	6	8	13	12
	9	The community college offers lower tuition fees compared to other higher education institutions.	14.3	3	14.3	3	19.0	4	23.8	5	28.6	6	10	11	14
Building relationships with different sectors	10	The community college curriculum uses examples from the local community.	0	0	0	0	14.4	3	66.7	12	19.0	4	3	16	7
	11	The community college has students clubs that work closely with the local community.	9.5	2	9.5	2	33.3	7	28.6	6	19.0	4	11	10	17
	12	The community college offers apprenticeship programmes.	9.5	2	33.3	7	14.3	3	14.3	3	28.6	6	12	9	19

Category	#	Statement												
	13	The faculty at the community college has experience working in the local labour market (other than teaching).	9.5	2	28.6	6	23.8	5	28.8	5	9.5	2	13	7	23
	14	The college sponsors conferences and lectures that can develop local businesses.	9.5	2	28.6	6	19.0	4	38.1	8	4.8	1	12	9	19
	15	The college supports the faculty's participation in recruitment committees at local organizations.	4.8	1	28.6	6	38.1	8	9.5	2	19.0	4	15	6	25
	16	The community college supports the faculty's part-time work in the labour market to enhance skills and build field expertise.	23.8	5	33.3	7	28.6	6	14.3	3	0	0	18	3	27
	17	The community college offers special programmes to local sector employees (public and private) at a lower tuition price.	23.8	5	33.3	7	23.8	5	19.0	4	0	0	17	4	26
	18	The community college works to attract distinguished employees with experience in local sectors to teach as part-time faculty.	23.8	5	28.6	6	14.3	3	23.8	5	9.5	2	14	7	23
	19	The college supports small and medium-sized companies by providing reduced educational programmes for their employees.	23.8	5	23.8	5	9.5	2	43.9	9	0	0	12	9	19
Career guidance centre	20	The community college has a career guidance centre that freely serves students and the local community.	9.5	2	4.8	1	19.0	4	42.9	9	23.8	5	7	14	11
	21	The community college is committed to providing career counselling services to all students who wish to enrol.	0	0	9.5	2	9.5	2	47.6	10	33.3	7	4	17	3
	22	The community college educates students about available career options in the local community.	0	0	4.8	1	9.5	2	47.6	10	33.3	7	3	17	3

#	Statement												
23	The community college provides a database of occupations and jobs to help students make the right professional choice.	0	0	19.0	4	28.6	6	33.3	7	19.0	4	10	11	14
24	The community college makes field visits to secondary schools to raise awareness about available professional opportunities in the local community and appropriate educational opportunities.	0	0	38.1	8	19.0	4	33.3	7	9.5	2	12	9	19
25	The community college provides a database of college graduates that is available to all beneficiaries of these outputs and researchers.	0	0	14.3	3	9.5	2	57.1	12	19.0	4	5	16	7
26	The community college provides special programmes on how to search for job opportunities and on write resumes.	0	0	4.8	1	0	0	66.7	14	28.6	6	1	20	1
27	The community college builds close relationships with companies, private and public offices, and human resources departments in all local sectors.	0	0	9.5	2	4.8	1	57.1	12	28.6	6	3	18	2
	Total											126	239	

Appendix 5 Descriptive Statistics of the Faculty Members' Perceptions and Attitudes Towards the Community Colleges' Implementation of Comprehensiveness

Elements of comprehensiveness	Statements	Frequencies and percentages										Total		Rank
		SD		D		N		A		SA		SD + D + N	A + SA	
		%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F			
	The community college accepts all local students aged 18 and above at all levels of education to prepare them professionally.	9.5	2	4.8	1	19.0	4	38.1	8	28.6	6	7	14	5
	The community college accepts all local students aged 18 and above with a high school diploma, regardless of grades, in its academic programmes (pre-university preparation).	0	0	14.3	3	28.6	6	33.3	7	23.8	5	9	12	7
Acceptance and equal opportunity policy	As with other students, the community college admits local students with disabilities aged 18 and above to professional and preparatory programmes in accordance with their qualifications and abilities.	0	0	0	0	23.8	5	52.4	11	23.8	5	5	16	3
	The community college locally and periodically advertises its professional and preparatory programmes in a manner that ensures equal opportunities for all those who wish to enrol in them.	4.8	1	23.8	5	23.8	5	28.6	6	19.0	4	11	10	8

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Category	Statement	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n			
Pre-university	The community college's preparatory programmes are aligned with most local university criteria for the first two years of university studies.	4.8	1	9.5	2	19.0	4	47.6	10	19.0	4	7	14	5
	The community college offers diversity programmes to students.	4.8	1	4.8	1	4.8	1	52.4	11	33.3	7	3	18	2
Vocational education	The community college offers professional and vocational programmes that serve local needs.	0	0	0	0	4.8	1	66.7	14	28.6	6	1	20	1
	The community college works with local authorities (e.g., Ministry of Labour, banks, companies, etc.) to establish a centre that provides financial support for graduates who wish to establish their own company.	9.5	2	9.5	2	42.9	9	19.0	4	19.0	4	13	8	10
	The community college concludes agreements with some sectors to open their programmes that are ended with employment after graduation.	4.8	1	4.8	1	19.0	4	42.9	9	28.6	6	6	15	4
Remedial programmes	The community college provides foundation programmes in mathematics, science, and physics.	14.3	3	19.0	4	47.6	10	19.0	4	0	0	17	4	12
	The community college provide foundation programmes in reading and	9.5	2	9.5	2	42.9	9	33.3	7	4.8	1	13	8	10

	writing in Arabic.												
	The community college provide foundation programmes in foreign languages according to the needs of the local sector.	9.5	2	19.0	4	28.6	6	28.6	6	14.3	3	12	9	9
Total											104	148	

Appendix 6 Summary of Findings From Both Questionnaires

Questionnaire section	Students	Faculty Members
Demographic information	Number of participants = 51 Saudi = 49 Non-Saudi = 2 Male = 22 Female = 29 Currently not working in a part-time job = 46 Currently working in a part-time job = 5 Work experience (three to six months) = 42 Work experience (one year) = 3 Work experience (more than one year) = 6	Number of participants = 21 Saudi = 12 Non-Saudi = 9 Male = 10 Female = 11 PhD = 12 Master's degree = 7 Bachelor's degree = 2 Teaching experience (more than three years) = 19 Teaching experience (one to three years) = 2 Non-teaching work experience (more than three years) = 9 Non-teaching work experience (less than one year) = 8 Non-teaching work experience (one to three years) = 4

Localisation		
	Students generally agreed that their community college implemented localisation.	Faculty members mostly agreed that their community college implemented localisation.
	Compared to their non-Saudi counterparts, Saudi students generally believed that their community college implemented localisation to a greater extent.	Non-Saudi faculty members believed that their community college implemented localisation to a greater extent compared to Saudi faculty members.
	Female students perceived a higher degree of localisation than male students.	Male faculty members perceived a higher degree of localisation than female faculty members.
	Students with one year of work experience had the highest perception of localisation's implementation on the part of their community college.	Faculty members with a PhD had the highest perception of localisation's implementation on the part of their community college.
	Students without a part-time job perceived localisation higher than students with a part-time job.	Faculty members whose last degree was from a country other than Saudi Arabia, the UK, or the US had the highest perception of localisation's

		implementation on the part of their community college.
		Faculty members with more than three years of teaching experience had the highest perception of localisation's implementation on the part of their community college.
		Faculty members with more than three years of non-teaching experience had the highest perception of localisation's implementation on the part of their community college.
Comprehensiveness	Students generally agreed that their community college implemented comprehensiveness. Saudi students believed to a greater extent that their community college implemented comprehensiveness compared to non-Saudi students.	Faculty members mostly agreed that their community college implemented comprehensiveness. Non-Saudi faculty members believed to a greater extent that their community college implemented

		comprehensiveness compared to Saudi faculty members.
	Female students perceived a higher degree of comprehensiveness than male students.	Male faculty members perceived a higher degree of comprehensiveness than female faculty members.
	Students with one year of work experience had the highest perception of the implementation of comprehensiveness on the part of their community college.	Faculty members with a PhD had the highest perception of the implementation of comprehensiveness on the part of their community college.
	Students without a part-time job and students with a part-time job had similar perceptions of the extent to which their community college implemented comprehensiveness.	Faculty members whose last degree from a country other than Saudi Arabia, the UK, or the US had the highest perception of the implementation of comprehensiveness on the part of their community college.
		Faculty members with more than three years of teaching experience had the highest perception of the implementation of

		comprehensiveness on the part of their community college. Faculty members with more than three years of non- teaching work experience had the highest perception of the implementation of comprehensiveness on the part of their community college.
Flexibility	Students generally agreed that their community college implemented flexibility. Saudi students believed to a greater extent that their community college implemented flexibility compared to non-Saudi students. Male students believed to a greater extent that their community college implemented flexibility compared to female students.	Faculty members generally agreed that their community college did not implement flexibility and that more work should be done to improve this element. Non-Saudi faculty members believed to a greater extent that their community college implemented flexibility compared to Saudi faculty members. Female faculty members believed to a greater extent that their community college

	Students with more than one year of work experience had the highest perception of the implementation of flexibility on the part of their community college.	implemented flexibility compared to male faculty members.
		Faculty members with a PhD had the highest perception of the implementation of flexibility on the part of their community college.
	Students with a part-time job believed to a greater extent that their community college implemented flexibility compared to students without a part-time job.	Faculty members whose last degree was obtained from a country other than Saudi Arabia, the UK, or the US had the highest perception of the implementation of flexibility on the part of their community college.
		Faculty members with more than three years of teaching experience had the highest perception of the implementation of flexibility on the part of their community college.
		Faculty members with less than one year of non-teaching work experience had the highest perception of the

		implementation of flexibility on the part of their community college.
Accreditation	Students generally believed in the importance of accreditation. Moreover, most participants agreed that their community college should work to gain broader accreditation for their programmes.	Faculty members generally believed in the importance of accreditation.
Transfer	Students generally believed in the importance of transfer and expressed that their community college should work to improve this dimension.	Faculty members generally believed in the importance of transfer. However, most of them did not believe that their community college currently implemented this element.

University of Glasgow

College of Social Sciences

Plain Language Statement

Study title and Researcher Details

My name is Susan Albluwi. I am a doctoral student at the University of Glasgow. As part of my studies I am carrying out a research project. The title of the project is:

Vision 2030: A New Model for Saudi Community Colleges

1. Invitation

Because of your experience and position, I would like to invite you to participate in this research project and to complete an online questionnaire. The goal of the questionnaire is to understand the current Saudi community college model in five elements: localization, comprehensive, flexibility, transfer, and accreditation.

You will be provided with full information regarding the scope and aims of this research study. If you have any questions about any aspect of the research, please ask me. Please be aware that you can withdraw from the online questionnaire at any stage, and you do not need to provide me with an explanation.

After reading this Plain Language Statement, if you agree to take part in this project, please give your consent by filling out the consent form in the first page of the online questionnaire. Thank you for taking the time to consider my invitation.

2. What is the purpose of this study?

The community colleges, as higher education institutions, play an essential role in local development. However, to strength this role, research has shown that the community college model should have five elements localization, comprehensive, flexibility, transfer, and accreditation. The primary purpose of this study is to investigate whether these five elements exist and are implemented in the Saudi community college model.

3. Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you are an education professional, or student in a community college .

4. Do I have to take part?

No. Participation is voluntary, and you are free to opt-out of this research study at any stage. You do not need to explain your withdrawal.

5. What will happen to me if I take part?

You will complete the following questionnaire. It will take around 25 minutes to complete.

6. Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Yes. All of your responses will be anonymised (no record will be retained of who completed the questionnaire). It is then impossible to identify any individual who took part in the questionnaire. The data collected will be used according to the University of Glasgow approved Code of Good Practices in Research.

Please note that assurances on confidentiality will be strictly adhered to unless evidence of wrongdoing or potential harm is uncovered. In such cases the University may be obliged to contact relevant statutory bodies/agencies.

7. What will happen to the results of the study?

The results of this study will be presented in the results chapter of my PhD thesis. If you request, you can receive a copy of the results of this study. You may also receive a copy of the thesis arising from the study if you request it.

8. Possible Risk

This study is low risk because it deals with the community college model in Saudi Arabia and how it can better serve the local development (vision 2030). All participants are adults and mature professionals and mature students.

9. Who is organising and funding the research? (If relevant)

I am undertaking the study as part of my doctoral research. My doctoral studies are funded by Saudi Arabia Ministry of Education.

10. Who has reviewed the study?

The project has been reviewed by the College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

To conduct this research project, I would be working under supervision of

1- Professor. Margery McMahon
Tel No: +44(0)1413303002
Email Address: Margery.McMahon@glasgow.ac.uk

2- Ms. Kathleen Kerrigan

Tel No: **0141 330 3470**
Email Address: kathleen.kerrigan@glasgow.ac.uk

University address: Glasgow G12 8QQ, United Kingdom

11. Contact for Further Information

If you wish to have further information about this study, you may contact me by email at

_____@student.gla.ac.uk

Should you have any concerns regarding the conduct of the research project you can contact the College of Social Science Ethics Officer by contacting Dr Muir Houston: Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND CONSIDERATION

University of Glasgow

College of Social Sciences

ورقة معلومات المشاركة

عنوان الدراسة وتفاصيل البحث :
اسمي سوسن البلوي أنا طالبة دكتوراه في جامعة جلاسكو كجزء من دراستي أقوم بتنفيذ مشروع بحثي بعنوان :

رؤية عشرين ثلاثين : نموذج جديد لكليات المجتمع السعودية.

١ـ الدعوة
بسبب خبرتك ومنصبك، أود أن أدعوك للمشاركة في هذا المشروع البحثي وإكمال استبيان عبر الإنترنت الهدف من هذا الاستبيان هو التعرف على نموذج كلية المجتمع السعودي الحالي من خلال خمسة عناصر: المحلية، الشمولية، المرونة، التحويل، والاعتماد.
سيتم تزويدك بمعلومات كاملة فيما يتعلق بنطاق وأهداف هذه الدراسة البحثية، إذا كان لديك أي أسئلة حول أي جانب من جوانب البحث، اسألني.

ويرجى العلم أنه يمكنك الانسحاب من الاستبيان عبر الإنترنت في أي مرحلة ولست بحاجة إلي تقديم أي تفسيرات.

بعد قراءة ورقة معلومات المشارك هذه إذا وافقت على المشاركة في هذا المشروع، يرجى إعطاء موافقتك عن طريق ملء نموذج الموافقة في الصفحة الأولى من الاستبيان عبر الإنترنت، شكرا لك علي الوقت الذي قضيته للنظر في الموضوع.

٢ـ ما هو الغرض من هذه الدراسة؟
تلعب كليات المجتمع، كمؤسسات التعليم العالي ، دورًا أساسيا في التنمية المحلية ومع ذلك ، لتعزيز هذا الدور ، أظهرت الأبحاث أن نموذج كلية المجتمع يجب أن يحتوي على خمسة عناصر: المحلية ، والشمولية ، والمرونة ، والتحويل ، والاعتماد. الغرض الأساسي من هذه الدراسة هو التحقق من وجود هذه العناصر الخمسة وتطبيقها في نموذج كلية المجتمع السعودي

٣ـ لماذا تم اختياري؟
لقد تم اختيارك لأنك أستاذ/ة أو طالب/ة في كلية مجتمع.

٤ـ هل يجب علي المشاركة؟
لا. المشاركة تطوعية، ولك مطلق الحرية في الانسحاب من هذه الدراسة البحثية في أي مرحلة ، ولا تحتاج لشرح أسباب انسحابك. ولكن أحرص على المشاركة لما فيها من مصلحة عامة وتحقيق لرؤية ٢٠٣٠.

٥ـ ماذا سيحدث لي في حال قررت المشاركة في الدراسة؟
سوف تكمل الاستبيان التالي الذي يستغرق ٢٥ دقيقة لإكماله.

٦ـ هل ستبقي مشاركتي في هذه الدراسة سرية؟
نعم ستكون جميع ردودك مجهولة المصدر (لن يتم الاحتفاظ بسجل لمن أكمل الاستبيان) ومن ثم يصبح من المستحيل تحديد أي فرد شارك في الاستبيان سيتم استخدام البيانات التي تم جمعها وفقا لقواعد الممارسات الجيدة في البحث المعتمدة من جامعة جلاسكو. يرجى ملاحظة أنه سيتم التقيد الصارم بضمانات السرية مالم يتم الكشف عن دليل علي ارتكاب مخالفة أو ضرر محتمل في مثل هذه الحالات. وقد تكون الجامعة ملزمة بالاتصالات بالهيئات والجهات القانونية.

٧ـ ماذا سيحدث لنتائج الدراسة؟
سيتم عرض نتائج هذه الدراسة في فصل النتائج من رسالة الدكتوراه هذه. وبإمكانك الحصول علي نسخة من نتائج هذه الدراسة، ونسخة من الرسالة في حال رغبتم بذلك.

٨ـ من يقوم بتنظيم وتمويل البحث؟

أقوم بالدراسة كجزء من بحث الدكتوراه الخاص بي. ويتم تمويل دراسات الدكتوراه الخاصة بي من قبل وزارة التعليم السعودية.

٩ـ من قام بمراجعة الدراسة؟

تمت مراجعة الدراسة من قبل لجنة أخلاقيات البحث بكلية العلوم الاجتماعية في جامعة جلاسكو، كما يشرف على هذا المشروع البحثي المشرفين التاليين:

* البرفسورة مارجري مكماهون.

Tel No: +44(0)1413303002

Email Address: Margery.McMahon@glasgow.ac.uk

*الأستاذة كاثلين كريجان.

Tel No: +44(0)1413303002

Email Address: kathleen.kerrigan@glasgow.ac.uk

عنوان الجامعة :

Glasgow G12 8QQ, United Kingdom

طرق التواصل في حال الرغبة في المزيد من المعلومات:

إذا كنت ترغب في الحصول على مزيد من المعلومات حول هذه الدراسة، يمكنك الإتصال بي عبر البريد الإلكتروني :

_____@student.gla.ac.uk

إذا كان لديك أي مخاوف بشأن إجراء مشروع البحث، يمكنك الإتصال بمسؤول أخلاقيات العلوم الاجتماعية عن طريق الاتصال بالدكتور مير هيوستن:

Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk

شكرا لك على وقتك وأخذك المشاركة في عين الاعتبار.

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Dear, faculties of the community college.

The researcher is conducting a study entitled Vision 2030. A New Model for Saudi Community College as part of her study for a Ph.D. in Education from the University of Glasgow. This study aims to know How can Saudi community colleges contribute to the development in Saudi Arabia (vision 2030) through understanding the perception of the faculties of the current community college model in five elements. The perception of the faculties of the Saudi community colleges is essential to achieve the aim of this study.

The following questionnaire contains descriptive statements about the community college model. In this questionnaire, the researcher intention is to collect the faculties' perception of these statements.

Your participation is vital for the success of this study and would be much appreciated. Completing this questionnaire will enable the researcher to achieve her aim and objectives.

The researcher would use this opportunity to assure you that the date will be treated as strictly confidential and will be used only for the purposes of this study.

Please:

Read the enclosed information about the research.

Note that you will indicate your consent to take part in the research by completing the questionnaire.

Please do not write your name on the questionnaire.

Thank you and I look forward to receiving your response.

Yours sincerely,

Susan Albluwi

Part one: Personal Information:
Please put (X) next to the appropriate response:

- Nationality:
    - ☐ Saudi
    - ☐ Other ....
- Gender:
    - ☐ Male
    - ☐ Female
    - ☐ Prefer not to say
- Level education Degree:
    - ☐ Bachelor degree
    - ☐ Master degree
    - ☐ PhD degree.
- The last degree obtained from university in:
    - ☐ Saudi
    - ☐ USA
    - ☐ UK
    - ☐ other........
- Years of Experience as faculty:
    - ☐ less than year
    - ☐ 1-3
    - ☐ More than 3 year.
- Years of Experience in other filed (out said teaching):
    - ☐ less than year
    - ☐ 1-3
    - ☐ More than 3 year.

It refers to procedures the college must take to ensure that its programmes are rooted in the local community so it supports the growth of the local economy.

A / location

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college is within a short driving distance from my home.					
2	The road to the community college is easy to follow.					

B/ decision making

	Statment	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college has a clear policy for recruiting faculty.					
2	The community college's recruiting process is clear.					
3	The faculty at the community college has the power to change the curriculum.					
4	The community college has different civil advisory boards from the local community.					
5	The community college has different advisory boards from the business community.					
6	The community college has the authority to launch and shut down programmes according to local need.					
7	The community college offers lower tuition fees compared to other higher education institutions.					

C / Building a relationship with different sectors

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college curriculum uses examples from the local community.					
2	The community college has students clubs that work closely with the local community.					
3	The community college offers apprenticeship programmes.					
4	The faculty at the community college has experience working in the local labour market (other than teaching).					
5	The college sponsors conferences and lectures that can develop local businesses.					
6	The college supports the faculty's participation in recruitment committees at local organizations.					
7	The community college supports the faculty's part-time work in the labour market to enhance skills and build field expertise.					
8	The community college offers special programmes to local sector employees (public and private) at a lower tuition price.					

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
9	The community college works to attract distinguished employees with experience in local sectors to teach as part-time faculty.					
10	The college supports small and medium-sized companies by providing reduced educational programmes for their employees.					

O / Career Guidance Center

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college has a career guidance centre that freely serves students and the local community.					
2	The community college is committed to providing career counselling services to all students who wish to enrol.					
3	The community college educates students about available career options in the local community.					
4	The community college provides a database of occupations and jobs to help students make the right professional choice.					
5	The community college makes field visits to secondary schools to raise awareness about available professional opportunities in the local community and appropriate educational opportunities.					
6	The community college provides a database of college graduates that is available to all beneficiaries of these outputs and researchers.					
7	The community college provides special programmes on how to search for job opportunities and on write resumes.					
8	The community college builds close relationships with companies, private and public offices, and human resources departments in all local sectors.					

Part three: Comprehensive

It means the ability of the community college to take policies and procedures to create and implement programs that support current and future local needs.

A / Acceptance and Equal Opportunities Policy.

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college accepts all local students aged 18 and above at all levels of education to prepare them professionally.					
2	The community college accepts all local students aged 18 and above with a high school diploma, regardless of grades, in its academic programmes (pre-university preparation).					
3	As with other students, the community college admits local students with disabilities aged 18 and above to professional and preparatory programmes in accordance with their qualifications and abilities.					
4	The community college locally and periodically advertises its professional and preparatory programmes in a manner that ensures equal opportunities for all those who wish to enrol in them.					

B / Pre-university education programs

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college's preparatory programmes are aligned with most local university criteria for the first two years of university studies					
2	The community college offers diversity programmes to students.					

C / Vocational education programs

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college offers professional and vocational programmes that serve local needs.					
2	The community college works with local authorities (e.g., Ministry of Labour, banks, companies, etc.) to establish a centre that provides financial support for graduates who wish to establish their own company.					
3	The community college concludes agreements with some sectors to open their programmes that are ended with employment after graduation.					

D / Remedial Programs

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college provides foundation programmes in mathematics, science, and physics					
2	The community college provide foundation programmes in reading and writing in Arabic.					
3	The community college provide foundation programmes in foreign languages according to the needs of the local sector.					

Part four: Flexibility

It means the ability of the community college to provide flexible educational programs to the local community.

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college offers the option to join morning or evening programmes.					
2	The community college provides programmes ranging from one to three years.					
3	The community college provides vocational, educational, awareness moreover, educative programmes ranging from one week to six months.					
4	The community college offers study options in some programmes according to the appropriate of each (distance, part-time).					
5	The community college has a user-friendly website.					

Part five: Accreditation

It means that the College administration will work to obtain international and domestic accreditation from the competent authorities.

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college's programmes are locally accredited.					
2	The community college works to obtain international accreditation for some of its programmes, in line with international standards.					
3	The community college supports its faculty members to obtain local and international professional certificates.					

Part six: Transfer

It is intended to make the college programs suitable for transferring them to academic institutions or professional sectors to complete university studies or complete the requirements of advanced professional standards.

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college has agreements with local and regional universities to help graduates complete their university studies.					
2	The community college should have agreements with local and international professional organizations and societies to ensure that its programmes count as credit towards professional certificates or licenses.					
3	The college should have agreements with local, national, and international universities to help graduates from its pre-university programmes to complete their university studies.					

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سعادة: عضو هيئة التدريس.   الموقر

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،

وبعد،

تقوم الباحثة بإجراء دراسة بعنوان (رؤية عشرين ثلاثين: نموذج جديد لكليات المجتمع السعودي) كجزء من دراستها لنيل درجة الدكتوراه في التربية من جامعة جلاسكو إسكتلندا في المملكة المتحدة. تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى معرفة كيف يمكن لكليات المجتمع السعودية المساهمة في التنمية في المملكة العربية السعودية (رؤية 2030) من خلال فهم تصور أعضاء هيئة التدريس في كليات المجتمع نحو نموذج كلية المجتمع الحالي في خمسة عناصر

لذا أمل أن تحضى هذه الاستبانة بجزء من اهتمامكم ووقتكم الثمين في الإجابة على عباراتها بكل موضوعية. لأن استيفاءكم لهذه المعلومات سيعطى رؤية علمية صادقة لهذه الدراسة.

وكما تغتنم الباحثة الفرصة لتؤكد لكم انه سيتم التعامل مع البيانات المقدمة من قبلكم بسريه وحرص ولن تستخدم لغير أغراض هذه الدراسة.

والباحثة على ثقة تامة بتعاونكم وتشكر لكم ذلك سلفا

ولكم خالص شكري وتقديري.

الباحثة / سوسن عبد الرحمن البلوي

ملحوظة:

1. مرفق معلومات مختصرة عن الدراسة في حال رغبتم بالإطلاع عليها.
2. استكمالك للاستبيان هي موافقة منك على المشاركة.

جزء الأول: المعلومات الشخصية:

يرجى وضع (X) بجوار الإجابة المناسبة:

• الجنسية:
☐ سعودي
☐ أخرى ....

• جنس:
☐ ذكر
☐ انثى
☐ أفضل عدم التصريح

درجة التعليم:
☐ درجة البكالوريوس
☐ ماجستير
☐ درجة الدكتوراه.

• آخر درجة تم الحصول عليها من الجامعة في:
☐ سعودي
☐ الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية
☐ المملكة المتحدة
☐ أخرى ....

• سنوات الخبرة كأعضاء هيئة تدريس:
☐ أقل من عام
☐ 3-1
☐ أكثر من 3 سنوات.

• سنوات الخبرة في المجالات الأخرى (خارج التدريس المذكور):
☐ أقل من عام
☐ 3-1
☐ أكثر من 3 سنوات.

الجزء الثاني : المحلية		

يشير إلى الإجراءات التي يجب على الكلية اتخاذها لضمان ارتباط برامجها بالمجتمع المحلي بطريقة تدعم نحو الاقتصاد المحلي.

أ/ الموقع					
غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	لست متأكد	موافق	موافق بشدة	الجملة
					١ تقع كلية المجتمع على مسافة قصيرة بالسيارة من منزلي.
					٢ الطريق إلى كلية المجتمع يسهل اتباعه،

أ/ اتخاذ القرارات					
غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	لست متأكد	موافق	موافق بشدة	الجملة
					١ كلية المجتمع لديها سياسة واضحة في تعيين أعضاء هيئة التدريس.
					٢ عملية التوظيف في كليات المجتمع واضحة
					٣ تتمتع هيئة التدريس في كلية المجتمع بالقدرة على تغيير المناهج الدراسية
					٤ لدي كلية المجتمع مجالس استشارية مدنية مختلفة من المجتمع المحلي
					٥ تمتلك كلية المجتمع مجالس استشارية مختلفة من مجتمع الأعمال.
					٦ تتمتع كلية المجتمع بصلاحية فتح وإغلاق البرامج حسب الحاجة المحلية.
					٧ تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج دراسية برسوم أقل مقارنة بمؤسسات التعليم العالي الأخرى

ب / بناء علاقات مع القطاعات المختلفة					
غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	لست متأكد	موافق	موافق بشدة	الجملة
					١ تحتوي مناهج كلية المجتمع على أمثلة من واقع المجتمع المحلي.
					٢ يوجد بكلية المجتمع نوادي طلابية تعمل بشكل وثيق مع المجتمع المحلي.
					٣ تقدم كلية المجتمع برنامج برامج منتهية بالتوظيف
					٤ أعضاء هيئة التدريس في كلية المجتمع لديهم خبرة في (العمل في سوق العمل المحلي. (ليس كهيئة تدريس
					٥ تشارك الكلية في رعاية المؤتمرات والمحاضرات التي من شأنها تطوير الأعمال المحلية
					٦ تدعم الكلية مشاركة أعضاء هيئة التدريس في لجان التوظيف في المنظمات المحلية
					٧ تدعم كلية المجتمع أعضاء هيئة التدريس للعمل بدوام جزئي في سوق العمل لتعزيز مهاراتهم وبناء خبراتهم الميدانية
					٨ تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج خاصة لموظفي القطاع المحلي (العام والخاص) برسوم تعليمية منخفضة.
					٩ تعمل كلية المجتمع على استقطاب العاملين المتميزين من ذوي الخبرة في القطاعات المحلية للتدريس كأعضاء هيئة تدريس بدوام جزئي.
					١٠ تدعم كلية المجتمع المشاريع الصغيرة والمتوسطة من خلال توفير برامج تعليمية منخفضة لأصحاب وموظفي هذه المشاريع

غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	لست متأكد	موافق	موافق بشدة	ج / مركز توجيه مهني	
					الجملة	
					يوجد بكلية المجتمع مركز توجيه مهني داخل الكلية يخدم الطلاب / الطالبات والمجتمع المحلي بحرية	١
					تلتزم كلية المجتمع بتقديم خدمات الإرشاد المهني لجميع الطلاب / الطالبات الراغبين في الالتحاق بالكلية	٢
					تقوم كلية المجتمع بتثقيف الطلاب / الطالبات حول الخيارات الوظيفية المتاحة في المجتمع المحلي	٣
					توفر كلية المجتمع قاعدة بيانات للمهن والوظائف لمساعدة الطلاب / الطالبات على اتخاذ القرار المهني الصحيح	٤
					تقوم كلية المجتمع بزيارات ميدانية للمدارس الثانوية لزيادة الوعي بالخيارات المهنية المتاحة في المجتمع المحلي والخيارات التعليمية المناسبة	٥
					توفر كلية المجتمع قاعدة بيانات لخريجي الكلية ستكون متاحة لجميع المستفيدين من هذه المخرجات والباحثين	٦
					تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج خاصة حول كيفية البحث عن فرص عمل وكيفية كتابة السير الذاتية	٧
					تبني كلية المجتمع علاقات وثيقة مع شركات التوظيف ومكاتب العمل الخاصة والعامة وإدارات الموارد البشرية في جميع القطاعات المحلية	٨

الجزء الثالث: الشمولية

تشير إلى قدرة كلية المجتمع على اتخاذ السياسات والإجراءات لإنشاء وتنفيذ البرامج التي تدعم الاحتياجات المحلية الحالية والمستقبلية.

غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	لست متأكد	موافق	موافق بشدة	أ / سياسات القبول وتكافئ الفرص	
					الجملة	
					تقبل كلية المجتمع جميع الطلاب/ الطالبات المحليين الذين تبلغ أعمارهم 18 عامًا فما فوق في جميع مستويات التعليم لإعدادهم مهنيًا.	١
					تقبل كلية المجتمع جميع الطلاب/ الطالبات المحليين من سن 18 عامًا فما فوق الحاصلين على دبلوم المدرسة الثانوية بأي درجة نجاح في البرامج الأكاديمية (التحضير لما قبل الجامعة).	٢
					توفر كلية المجتمع الفرصة للقبول للطلاب/ الطالبات المحليين من ذوي الإعاقة في سن 18 عامًا فما فوق في برامجها المهنية والإعدادية وفقًا لمؤهلاتهم وتناسب قدراتهم مثل الطلاب الآخرين	٣
					تعلن كلية المجتمع التي أعمل فيها محليًا ودوريًا عن برامجها المهنية والإعدادية بما يحقق تكافؤ الفرص لجميع الراغبين في الالتحاق بها	٤

غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	لست متأكد	موافق	موافق بشدة	ب /برامج الإعداد لدخول للجامعة	
					الجملة	
					تتوافق البرامج الإعدادية التي تقدمها الكلية مع معظم معايير الجامعة المحلية للسنتين الأولين من الجامعة	١
					توفر الكلية لطلابها تخصصات متنوعة أكاديميا	٢

ج / برامج الإعداد المهني					
الجملة	موافق بشدة	موافق	لست متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
١ تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج تعليمية ذات طبيعة مهنية تخدم الحاجة المحلية					
٢ تعمل كلية المجتمع مع الجهات المختصة (وزارة العمل، البنوك، الشركات، إلخ) لإنشاء مركز متخصص في الدعم المالي لخريجها الراغبين في تأسيس شركاتهم الخاصة.					
٣ تقوم كلية المجتمع بإبرام اتفاقيات مع بعض القطاعات لفتح برامجها التي تنتهي بالتوظيف بعد التخرج.					

د / برامج التأهيلية					
الجملة	موافق بشدة	موافق	لست متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
١ تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج تأسيسية في الرياضيات والعلوم والفيزياء					
٢ تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج تأسيسية في القراءة والكتابة باللغة العربية					
٣ تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج تأسيسية باللغات الأجنبية حسب احتياجات القطاع المحلي					

الجزء الرابع: المرونة

تشير إلى قدرة كلية المجتمع على تقديم برامج تعليمية مرنة للمجتمع المحلي.

الجملة	موافق بشدة	موافق	لست متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
١ تقدم كلية المجتمع خيارات للانضمام إلى البرامج الصباحية أو المسائية					
٢ تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج تتراوح من سنة إلى ثلاث سنوات كحد أقصى					
٣ تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج مهنية وتعليمية وتوعوية وتعليمية تتراوح من أسبوع إلى ستة أشهر					
٤ تقدم كلية المجتمع خيارات دراسية في بعض البرامج بنظام الانتساب أو بدوام جزئي					
٥ تمتلك كلية المجتمع موقعًا إلكترونيًا سهل الاستخدام					

الجزء الخامس: الاعتمادية

تشير على حرص إدارة الكلية على الحصول على الاعتماد الدولي والمحلي من الجهات المختصة.

الجملة	موافق بشدة	موافق	لست متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
١ تتمتع كلية المجتمع باعتماد محلي للبرامج التي تقدمها.					
٢ تعمل كلية المجتمع على الحصول على الاعتماد الدولي لبعض البرامج التي تقدمها.					
٣ تدعم كلية المجتمع حصول أعضاء هيئة التدريس على شهادات مهنية معتمدة دوليا ومحليا.					

الجزء السادس: التحول

يشير على إمكانية قبول برامج الكلية والاعتداد بها من قبل المؤسسات الأكاديمية أو قطاعات مهنية لاستكمال الدراسات الجامعية أو استكمال متطلبات المعايير المهنية المتقدمة.

غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	لست متأكد	موافق	موافق بشدة	الجملة	
					تبرم كلية المجتمع اتفاقيات مع الجامعات المحلية والإقليمية لضمان أن الطلاب / الطالبات الذين يتخرجوا من كلية المجتمع يمكنهم إكمال دراستهم الجامعية في تلك الجامعات	١
					يجب على كلية المجتمع إبرام اتفاقيات مع هيئات وجمعيات مهنية محلية ودولية للتأكد من أن مخرجات بعض البرامج التي تقدمها تحسب على أنها ساعات معتمدة للحصول على الشهادات المهنية ذات المعايير المتقدمة أو التراخيص المهنية	٢
					جب أن تسعى الكلية إلى إبرام اتفاقيات مع الجامعات المحلية والوطنية والدولية لقبول الخريجين من برامج ما قبل الجامعة لإكمال دراستهم الجامعية	٣

University of Glasgow | School of Education

Dear, students of the community college.

The researcher is conducting a study entitled Vision 2030: A New Model for Saudi Community College as part of her study for a PhD in Education from the University of Glasgow. This study aims to know How can Saudi community colleges contribute to the development in Saudi Arabia (vision 2030) through understanding the perception of the students of the current community college model in five elements. The perception of the students of the Saudi community colleges is essential to achieve the aim of this study.

The following questionnaire contains descriptive statements about the community college model. In this questionnaire, the researcher intention is to collect the student's perception of these statements.

Your participation is vital for the success of this study and would be much appreciated. Completing this questionnaire will enable the researcher to achieve her aim and objectives.

The researcher would use this opportunity to assure you that the date will be treated as strictly confidential and will be used only for the purposes of this study.

Please:

    Read the enclosed information about the research.

    Note that you will indicate your consent to take part in the research by completing the questionnaire.

Thank you and I look forward to receiving your response.

Yours sincerely,

Susan Albluwi

Part one: Personal Information:
Please put (X) next to the appropriate response:

- Nationality:
  - ☐ Saudi
  - ☐ Other ....
- Gender:
  - ☐ Male
  - ☐ Female
  - ☐ Prefer not to say
- I am currently working in part time job:
  - ☐ Yes
  - ☐ No
- I have worked experience from the past:
  - ☐ from three to six month.
  - ☐ one year.
  - ☐ more than one year.

Part two: Localization

It refers to procedures the college must take to ensure that its programs are linked to the local community in a way that supports the growth of the local economy.

A / location

	Statment	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college is within a short driving distance from my home.					
2	The road to the community college is clear and easy.					
3	My family live in the same city where the community college is located					

B/ decision making

	Statment	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college has a clear policy on student acceptance.					
2	Students at the community college participate in curriculum design.					
3	Students at the community college participate in decision making.					

C / business partnership

	Statment	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The curriculum at the community college uses examples from the local community.					
2	The curriculum at the community college is designed with the help of business partners from my local community.					
3	Most of the faculty who teach me at the community college has job experience in my field of study					
4	Most of the faculty who teach me at the community college are knowledgeable about the labour market.					
5	Most of the faculty who teach me at the community college are from the local community.					
6	The community college programme should be apprenticeship.					
7	The community college arranges an internship for me.					
8	Employers know about my community college.					
9	I feel that I will find a good job with my diploma.					

C / Career Guidance Center

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The community college has an onsite career guidance centre.					

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2	The community college is committed to providing career counselling services to all students who wish to enrol.					
3	The community college educates students about available career options in the local community.					
4	The community college provides a database of occupations and jobs to help students make the right professional choice					
5	The community college provides a database of occupations and jobs					
6	The community college makes field visits to secondary schools to raise awareness about available professional opportunities in the local community and appropriate educational opportunities					
7	The community college provides a database (platform) for college graduates.					
8	The community college provides special programmes on how to search for job opportunities and on write resumes.					

Part three: Comprehensive

It means the ability of the community college to take policies and procedures to create and implement programs that support current and future local needs.

A / Acceptance and Equal Opportunities Policy.

	Statment	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Acceptance to my community college was easy.					
2	The community college was my first option.					
3	I knew about the community college before I was accepted.					
4	The community college informs students about available educational opportunities					

B / Pre-university education programs

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I am planning to complete my bachelor's degree in the future.					
2	The community college provides me with a list of universities that would accept my diploma to complete a university degree.					

C / Vocational education programs

	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Graduates of my programme at the community college are needed in the labour market.					
2	The community college offers programmes that are accepted by employers in the labour market.					
3	The community college's programmes have a good reputation in the labour market.					

D / Remedial Programs					
Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1 The community college provides foundation programmes in mathematics, science, and physics.					
2 The community college provides foundation programmes in reading and writing in Arabic.					
3 . The community college provides foundation programmes in foreign languages according to the needs of the local sectors.					

Part four: Flexibility

It means the ability of the community college to provide flexible educational programs to the local community.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1 I have the option of registering in morning or evening classes.					
2 I think if there is a variety of option in-class time, I can work and study at the same time.					
3 The community college offers study options for some programmes (e.g., remote or part-time).					
4 The community college has a user-friendly website.					

Part five: Accreditation

It means that the College administration will work to obtains International and domestic accreditation from the competent authorities.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1 The community college must be accredited.					
2 The community college should seek local accreditation for its programmes.					

Part six: Transfer

It is intended to make the college programs suitable for transferring them to academic institutions or professional sectors to complete university studies or complete the requirements of advanced professional standards.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1 In my opinion, community colleges should have agreements with local universities to help graduates complete their university studies.					
2 In my opinion, community colleges should have agreements with local and international professional organizations and societies to ensure that their programmes count as credit towards professional certificates or licenses.					

Appendix 12 The Questionnaire – Students – Arabic

University | School of
of Glasgow | Education

إلى طلاب وطالبات كلية المجتمع

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،

وبعد،

تقوم الباحثة بإجراء دراسة بعنوان (رؤية عشرين ثلاثين: نموذج جديد لكليات المجتمع السعودي) كجزء من دراستها لنيل درجة الدكتوراه في التربية من جامعة جلاسكو إسكتلندا في المملكة المتحدة. تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى معرفة كيف يمكن لكليات المجتمع السعودية المساهمة في التنمية في المملكة العربية السعودية (رؤية 2030) من خلال فهم تصور طلاب وطالبات كلية المجتمع نحو نموذج كلية المجتمع الحالي في خمسة عناصر

لذا أمل أن تحضى هذه الاستبانة بجزء من اهتمامكم ووقتكم الثمين في الإجابة على عباراتها بكل موضوعية. لأن استيفاءكم لهذه المعلومات سيعطى رؤية علمية صادقة لهذه الدراسة.

وكما تغتنم الباحثة الفرصة لتؤكد لكم انه سيتم التعامل مع البيانات المقدمة من قبلكم بسريه وحرص ولن تستخدم لغير أغراض هذه الدراسة.

والباحثة علي ثقة تامة بتعاونكم وتشكر لكم ذلك سلفا

ولكم خالص شكري وتقديري.

الباحثة / سوسن البلوي

ملحوظة:

1. مرفق معلومات مختصرة عن الدراسة في حال رغبتم بالإطلاع عليها.
2. استكمالك للاستبيان هي موافقة منك علي المشاركة.

جزء الأول: المعلومات الشخصية:

يرجى وضع (X) بجوار الإجابة المناسبة:

• الجنسية:

☐ سعودي

☐ أخرى ....

• جنس:

☐ ذكر

☐ انثى

☐ أفضل عدم التصريح

• أعمل حاليا في وظيفة بدوام جزئي:

☐ نعم

☐ لا

• لدي خبرة عمل:

☐ من ثلاث الي ستة أشهر.

☐ سنة

☐ أكثر من سنة.

الجزء الثاني : المحلية

يشير إلى الإجراءات التي يجب على الكلية اتخاذها لضمان ارتباط برامجها بالمجتمع المحلي بطريقة تدعم نمو الاقتصاد المحلي.

أ/ الموقع		موافق بشدة	موافق	لست متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
	الجملة					
١	تقع كلية المجتمع على مسافة قصيرة بالسيارة من منزلي.					
٢	الطريق إلى كلية المجتمع يسهل اتباعه،					
٣	تعيش عائلتي في نفس المدينة التي تقع فيها كلية المجتمع					

ب / اتخاذ القرارات		موافق بشدة	موافق	لست متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
	الجملة					
١	كلية المجتمع لديها سياسة واضحة في قبول الطلاب والطالبات.					
٢	يشارك طلاب كلية المجتمع في تصميم المناهج					
٣	يشارك طلاب كلية المجتمع في اتخاذ القرار					

ج / بناء الشركات مع قطاع الأعمال		موافق بشدة	موافق	لست متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
	الجملة					
١	تحتوي مناهج كلية المجتمع التي أدرس فيها أمثلة من المجتمع المحلي					
٢	تم تصميم منهج كلية المجتمع بمساعدة شريك تجاري من مجتمعي المحلي					
٣	معظم أعضاء هيئة التدريس في كلية المجتمع لديهم خبرة وظيفية من مجال دراستي					
٤	معظم أعضاء هيئة التدريس في كلية المجتمع لديهم معرفة جيدة بسوق العمل					
٥	معظم أعضاء هيئة التدريس في كلية المجتمع هم من المجتمع المحلي					
٦	برنامج كلية المجتمع يفضل أن تكون منتهية بالتوظيف					
٧	كلية المجتمع هي من تقوم بتنسيق التدريب لي مع الجهات الخارجية					
٨	أصحاب الأعمال لديهم دراية كافية عن كلية المجتمع التي أنتمي لها					
٩	أشعر أنني سأجد وظيفة جيدة بشهادة الدبلوم التي سأحصل عليها					

ج / مركز توجيه مهني		موافق بشدة	موافق	لست متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
	الجملة					
١	يوجد بكلية المجتمع مركز توجيه مهني داخل الكلية يخدم الطلاب/ الطالبات					
٢	تقدم كلية المجتمع خدمات الإرشاد المهني لجميع الطلاب /الطالبات الراغبين في الالتحاق بالكلية					
٣	تقوم كلية المجتمع بتثقيف الطلاب / الطالبات حول الخيارات الوظيفية المتاحة في سوق العمل المحلي					
٤	توفر كلية المجتمع قاعدة بيانات للمهن والوظائف					

					تقوم كلية المجتمع بزيارات ميدانية للمدارس الثانوية لتعريف بالخيارات المهنية والتعليمية المتوفرة في المجتمع المحلي	٥
					توفر كلية المجتمع قاعدة بيانات لخريجي الكلية	٦
					تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج خاصة حول كيفية البحث عن فرص عمل وكيفية كتابة السير الذاتية	٧

الجزء الثالث: الشمولية

تشير إلى قدرة كلية المجتمع على اتخاذ السياسات والإجراءات لإنشاء وتنفيذ البرامج التي تدعم الاحتياجات المحلية الحالية والمستقبلية.

	أ/ سياسات القبول وتكافئ الفرص

غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	لست متأكد	موافق	موافق بشدة	الجملة	
					كان القول في كلية المجتمع سهلا	١
					كانت كلية المجتمع خياري الأول.	٢
					كنت اعلم عن كلية المجتمع من قبل أن ألتحق فيها.	٣
					تقوم كلية المجتمع بتثقيف الطلاب حول الخيارات التعليمية المتاحة لهم	٤

	ب /برامج الإعداد لدخول للجامعة

غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	لست متأكد	موافق	موافق بشدة	الجملة	
					أخطط لاستكمال دراستي في المستقبل للحصول على البكالريوس.	١
					تزودني كلية المجتمع بقائمة بالجامعة التي تقبل شهادتي لإكمال الشهادة الجامعية	٢

	ج / برامج الإعداد المهني

غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	لست متأكد	موافق	موافق بشدة	الجملة	
					برنامجي الذي أدرس فيه في كلية المجتمع مطلوب بسوق العمل	١
					تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج مقبولة لدي سوق العمل	٢
					برامج كلية المجتمع لديها سمعة جيدة في سوق العمل	٣

	د / برامج التأهيلية

غير موافق بشدة	غير موافق	لست متأكد	موافق	موافق بشدة	الجملة	
					تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج تأسيسية في الرياضيات والعلوم والفيزياء	١
					تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج تأسيسية في القراءة والكتابة باللغة العربية	٢
					تقدم كلية المجتمع برامج تأسيسية باللغات الأجنبية حسب احتياجات القطاع المحلي	٣

الجزء الرابع: المرونة

تشير إلى قدرة كلية المجتمع على تقديم برامج تعليمية مرنة للمجتمع المحلي.

|	الجملة	موافق بشدة	موافق	لست متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
١	تقدم لي كلية المجتمع خيارات للانضمام إلى البرامج الصباحية أو المسائية					
٢	اعتقد أنه إذا كان هناك مجموعة متنوعة من الخيارات في أوقات الفصول الدراسية ، فانه سيمكنني العمل والدراسة في نفس الوقت					
٣	تقدم كلية المجتمع خيارات دراسية في بعض البرامج (عن بعد ، بدوام جزئي)					
٤	تمتلك كلية المجتمع موقعا إلكترونيا سهل الاستخدام					

الجزء الخامس: الاعتمادية

تشير على حرص إدارة الكلية على الحصول على الاعتماد الدولي والمحلي من الجهات المختصة.

	الجملة	موافق بشدة	موافق	لست متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
١	كلية المجتمع يجب أن تحصل على الاعتماد.					
٢	كليات المجتمع يجب أن تسعى للحصول على الاعتماد المحلي والدولي للبرامج التي تقدمها.					

الجزء السادس: التحول

يشير على إمكانية قبول برامج الكلية والاعتداد بها من قبل المؤسسات الأكاديمية أو قطاعات مهنية لاستكمال الدراسات الجامعية أو استكمال متطلبات المعايير المهنية المتقدمة.

	الجملة	موافق بشدة	موافق	لست متأكد	غير موافق	غير موافق بشدة
١	في رأيي ، يجب على كلية المجتمع إبرام اتفاقيات مع الجامعات المحلية والإقليمية لضمان أن الطلاب الذين يتخرجون من كلية المجتمع يمكنهم إكمال دراساتهم الجامعية					
٢	في رأيي ، يجب على كلية المجتمع إبرام اتفاقيات مع هيئات وجمعيات مهنية محلية ودولية لضمان احتساب مخرجات بعض البرامج التي تقدمها ساعات معتمدة للحصول على الشهادات المهنية ذات المعايير المتقدمة أو التراخيص المهنية.					

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University of Glasgow
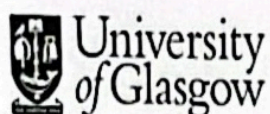
College of Social Sciences

Participant Information Sheet

Study title and Researcher Details

My name is Susan Albluwi. I am a doctoral student at the University of Glasgow. As part of my studies I am carrying out a research project. The title of the project is:

Vision 2030: A New Model for Saudi Community Colleges

1. Invitation

Because of your experience and position, I would like to invite you to participate in this research project and to complete a telephone interview. The goal of the telephone interview is to understand the current Saudi community college model in five elements: localization, comprehensive, flexibility, transfer, and accreditation.

You will be provided with full information regarding the scope and aims of this research study. If you have any questions about any aspect of the research, please ask me. Please be aware that you can withdraw from the interview at any stage, and you do not need to provide me with an explanation.

After reading this **Participant Information Sheet**, if you agree to take part in this project, please give your consent by filling out the consent form. Thank you for taking the time to consider my invitation.

2. What is the purpose of this study?

The community colleges, as higher education institutions, play an essential role in local development. However, to strength this role, research has shown that the community college model should have five elements localization, comprehensive, flexibility, transfer, and accreditation. The primary purpose of this study is to investigate whether these five elements exist and are implemented in the Saudi community college model.

3. Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you **are a member in Riyadh Chamber of commerce** or an education professional working in our national system. All the participants in this research study will be affiliated with the Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia or working as Dean in a community college in Saudi Arabia or students in community college in Saudi Arabia.

4. Do I have to take part?

No. Participation is voluntary, and you are free to opt-out of this research study at any stage. You do not need to explain your withdrawal.

5. What will happen to me if I take part?

If you agree to take part in the study, you will participate in a telephone interview. It is anticipated that the interview will take approximately 45 minutes to complete. The format of the interview will be semi-structured, and an audio record will be used to record the interview if you approve.

6. Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Yes. All of your responses will be anonymized. It is then impossible to identify any individual who took part in the interview. The data collected will be used according to the University of Glasgow approved Code of Good Practices in Research.

Please note that assurances on confidentiality will be strictly adhered to unless evidence of wrongdoing or potential harm is uncovered. In such cases, the University may be obliged to contact relevant statutory bodies/agencies.

7. What will happen to the results of the study?

The results of this study will be presented in the results chapter of my PhD thesis. If you request, you can receive a copy of the results of this study. You may also receive a copy of the thesis arising from the study if you request it.

8. Who is organising and funding the research? (If relevant)

I am undertaking the study as part of my doctoral research. My doctoral studies are funded by Saudi Arabia Ministry of Education.

9. Who has reviewed the study?

The project has been reviewed by the College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

To conduct this research project, I am working under the supervision of

1- Professor. Margery McMahon
Tel No: +44(0)1413303002
Email Address: Margery.McMahon@glasgow.ac.uk

2- Ms. Kathleen Kerrigan

Tel No: 0141 330 3470
Email Address: kathleen.kerrigan@glasgow.ac.uk

University address: Glasgow G12 8QQ, United Kingdom

10. Contact for Further Information

If you wish to have further information about this study, you may contact me by email at

_____.@student.gla.ac.uk

Should you have any concerns regarding the conduct of the research project you can contact the College of Social Science Ethics Officer by contacting Dr Muir Houston:
Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND CONSIDERATION

Appendix 14 Plain Language Statement – Interview – Arabic

University
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College of Social
Sciences

ورقة معلومات المشاركة

عنوان الدراسة وتفاصيل البحث:
اسمي سوسن البلوي أنا طالبة دكتوراه في جامعة جلاسكو كجزء من دراستي أقوم بتنفيذ مشروع بحثي بعنوان:

رؤية عشرين ثلاثين: نموذج جديد لكليات المجتمع السعودي.

١ ـ الدعوة
بسبب خبرتك ومنصبك، أود أن أدعوك للمشاركة في هذا المشروع وإتمام مقابلة عبر الهاتف. الهدف من المقابلة هو فهم
نموذج كلية المجتمع السعودي الحالي في خمسة عناصر: المحلية، الشمولية، المرونة، التحويل، والاعتماد.
سيتم تزويدك بمعلومات كاملة فيما يتعلق بنطاق وأهداف هذه الدراسة البحثية، إذا كان لديك أي أسئلة حول أي جانب من
جوانب البحث، اسألني.

ويرجى العلم أنه يمكنك الانسحاب من المقابلة في أي مرحلة ولست بحاجة إلى تقديم أي تفسيرات.

بعد قراءة ورقة معلومات المشارك هذه إذا وافقت على المشاركة في هذا المشروع، يرجى إعطاء موافقتك عن طريق ملء
نموذج الموافقة ، شكرا لك على الوقت الذي قضيته للنظر في دعوتي.

٢ ـ ما هو الغرض من هذه الدراسة؟
تلعب كليات المجتمع، كمؤسسات التعليم العالي، دورًا أساسيًا في التنمية المحلية ومع ذلك، لتعزيز هذا الدور، أظهرت
الأبحاث أن نموذج كلية المجتمع يجب أن يحتوي على خمسة عناصر: المحلية، الشمولية، والمرونة، والتحويل، والاعتماد.
الغرض الأساسي من هذه الدراسة هو التحقق من وجود هذه العناصر الخمسة وتطبيقها في نموذج كلية المجتمع السعودي

٣ ـ لماذا تم اختياري؟
لقد تم اختيارك لأنك عضو في الغرفة التجارية بالرياض أو تعمل ضمن فريق وزارة التعليم. سيكون جميع المشاركين في هذه
الدراسة البحثية تابعين لوزارة التعليم في المملكة العربية السعودية أو يعملون كعميد في كلية المجتمع في المملكة العربية
السعودية.

٤ ـ هل يجب على المشاركة؟
لا. المشاركة تطوعية، ولك مطلق الحرية في الانسحاب من هذه الدراسة البحثية في أي مرحلة، ولا تحتاج لشرح أسباب
انسحابك.

٥ ـ ماذا سيحدث لي في حال قررت المشاركة في الدراسة؟
في حال موافقتك على المشاركة في الدراسة فسوف تشارك في مقابلة عبر الهاتف من المتوقع أن تستغرق المقابلة حوالي
٤٥دقيقة. سيكون شكل المقابلة شبه منظم. وسيتم استخدام تسجيل صوتي لتسجيل المقابلة في حال موافقتك.

٦ ـ هل ستبقى مشاركتي في هذه الدراسة سرية؟
نعم ستكون جميع ردودك مجهولة المصدر (لن يتم الاحتفاظ بأي تسجيلات) ومن ثم يصبح من المستحيل تحديد أي فرد شارك
في المقابلات. سيتم استخدام البيانات التي تم جمعها وفقا لقواعد الممارسات الجيدة في البحث المعتمدة من جامعة جلاسكو.
يرجى ملاحظة أنه سيتم التقيد الصارم بضمانات السرية مالم يتم الكشف عن دليل على ارتكاب مخالفة أو ضرر محتمل في
مثل هذه الحالات. وقد تكون الجامعة ملزمة بالاتصالات بالهيئات والجهات القانونية.

٧ـ ماذا سيحدث لنتائج الدراسة؟

سيتم عرض نتائج هذه الدراسة في فصل النتائج من رسالة الدكتوراه الخاصة بي. اذا طلبت يمكنك الحصول علي نسخة من نتائج هذه الدراسة، قد تتلقي أيضاً نسخة من الأطروحة الناتجة عن الدراسة اذا طلبت ذلك.

٨ـ من يقوم بتنظيم وتمويل البحث؟

أقوم بالدراسة كجزء من بحث الدكتوراه الخاص بي. ويتم تمويل دراسات الدكتوراه الخاصة بي من قبل وزارة التعليم السعودية.

٩ـ من قام بمراجعة الدراسة؟

تمت مراجعة الدراسة من قبل لجنة أخلاقيات البحث بكلية العلوم الاجتماعية في جامعة جلاسكو، كما يشرف علي هذا المشروع بالحثي المشرفين التاليين:

* البرفسورة مارجري مكماهون.

Tel No: +44(0)1413303002

Email Address: Margery.McMahon@glasgow.ac.uk

*الأستاذة كاثلين كريجان.

Tel No: +44(0)1413303002

Email Address: kathleen.kerrigan@glasgow.ac.uk

عنوان الجامعة :

Glasgow G12 8QQ, United Kingdom

طرق التواصل في حال الرغبة في المزيد من المعلومات:

إذا كنت ترغب في الحصول علي مزيد من المعلومات حول هذه الدراسة، يمكنك الاتصال بي عبر البريد الإلكتروني :

_____@student.gla.ac.uk

إذا كان لديك أي مخاوف بشأن اجراء مشروع البحث، يمكنك الاتصال بمسؤول أخلاقيات العلوم الاجتماعية عن طريق الاتصال بالدكتور مير هيوستن:

Muir.Houston@glasgow.ac.uk

شكرا لك علي وقتك وأخذتك المشاركة في عين الاعتبار.

شكرا لك علي وقتك مشاركتك.

Appendix 15 Consent Form - Interview – English

University of Glasgow

College of Social Sciences

Title of Project: **Vision 2030: A New Model for Saudi Community College**

Name of Researcher: **Susan Albluwl**

I confirm that I have read and understood the Plain Language Statement/Participant Information Sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

I acknowledge that I will be not be identified and a pseudonym will be used in any publications arising from the research.

I acknowledge that there will be no effect on my employment in Saudi Arabia arising from my participation or non-participation in this research.

I understand that the data collected from this research will be stored securely with my personal details removed and agree for it to be held as set out in the Plain Language Statement.

I consent ☐ do not consent ☐ to interviews being audio-recorded.

I agree to take part in this research study   ☐

I do not agree to take part in this research study   ☐

Name of Participant :   Signature ....

Date ....

Appendix 16 Consent Form – Interview- Arabic

University
of Glasgow

College of Social
Sciences

عنوان المشروع: رؤية 2030: نموذج جديد لكلية المجتمع السعودي.

اسم الباحثة: سوسن البلوي.

اؤكد انني قد قرأت وفهمت ورقة معلومات البحث للدراسة أعلاه وأتيحت لي الفرصة لطرح الأسئلة.

افهم ان مشاركتي طوعية وأنني حر في الانسحاب في أي وقت دون إبداء أي سبب

افهم بأنه لن يتم التعرف على هويتي وسيتم استخدام اسم مستعار في أي منشورات تنشأ عن البحث

اعي بأنه لن يكون هناك أي تأثير على عملي في المملكة العربية السعودية نتيجة مشاركتي او عدم مشاركتي في هذا البحث.

افهم أن البيانات التي تم جمعها من هذا البحث سيتم تخزينها بشكل آمن مع إزالة بياناتي الشخصية وأوافق على الاحتفاظ بها على النحو المنصوص عليه في بيان معلومات البحث المرفقة.

هل توافق على تسجيل المقابلة:

☐ اوافق

☐ لا اوافق

بخصوص المشاركة في الدراسة:

اوافق على المشاركة في البحث ☐

لا اوافق على المشاركة في البحث ☐

اسم المشارك:

توقيع :

اليوم:

Appendix 17 Ethical Approval

University
of Glasgow

College of Social
Sciences

College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Click to enter date

Dear Susan Albluwi

Project Title: Vision 2030: A New Model for Saudi Community College

Application No: 400200037

The College Research Ethics Committee has reviewed your application and has agreed that there is no objection on ethical grounds to the proposed study. It is happy therefore to approve the project, subject to the following conditions:

- Start date of ethical approval: 16/12/2020
- Project end date: 30/09/2021
- Any outstanding permissions needed from third parties in order to recruit research participants or to access facilities or venues for research purposes must be obtained in writing and submitted to the CoSS Research Ethics Administrator before research commences. Permissions you must provide are shown in the *College Ethics Review Feedback* document that has been sent to you as the Collated Comments Document in the online system.
- The data should be held securely for a period of ten years after the completion of the research project, or for longer if specified by the research funder or sponsor, in accordance with the University's Code of Good Practice in Research: (https://www.gla.ac.uk/media/media_490311_en.pdf)
- The research should be carried out only on the sites, and/or with the groups and using the methods defined in the application.
- Approval is granted for virtual methods outlined in the application however restrictions noted below should be followed for any face to face data collection methods.

  ◆ **Approval has been granted in principal:** no data collection must be undertaken with the exception of methods highlighted above until the current research restrictions as a result of social distancing and self-isolation are lifted. You will be notified once this restriction is no longer in force.

Any proposed changes in the protocol should be submitted for reassessment as an amendment to the original application. The **Request for Amendments to an Approved Application** form should be used:
https://www.gla.ac.uk/colleges/socialsciences/students/ethics/forms/staffandpostgradua teresearchstudents/

Yours sincerely,

Dr Muir Houston College Ethics Officer