

## Students' Perception about the Impact of Introducing Tuition Fees to Higher Education in Saudi Arabia

Norah Khalid Alfawaz

Dublin City University Business School.

Accepted 28 November, 2018.

### ABSTRACT

In 2016, Saudi Arabia adopted vision 2030 which aims to provide prosperity for citizens whether in education, employment, health, housing, entertainment and other advanced services. To achieve this vision, twelve programs were developed including the privatization program which targets many sectors, one of which is the education sector. The privatization of the education sector aims at increasing the educational competence and improving students' skills and knowledge, and curriculum, in order to match the requirements of the labour market. Since privatization often coincides with the introducing of tuition fees for students, this study aims to measure the perception of students about the impact of introducing tuition fees to higher education in Saudi Arabia, both in terms of students' access to education and in terms of the impact of this decision on society and economy. Students' perceptions were measured by a survey of 416 students from all state universities across Saudi Arabia. The study found that students' perception about access to education is not affected by family size and family income. It also found that students do not see gender as a factor that affects students' access to education. Moreover, the study found a higher tendency for female students to work to fund their education if tuition fees were introduced to higher education. On the other hand, students believe that access to education affects the contribution of individuals to society and the level of awareness of society.

**Keywords:** higher education, tuition fees, privatization, higher education in Saudi Arabia.

### Introduction

In 2016, Saudi Arabia adopted vision 2030 which aims to provide prosperity for citizens whether in education, employment, health, housing, entertainment and other advanced services. Education is the cornerstone of the Kingdom's 2030 vision for building a vibrant society. Through the educational and academic system, the Kingdom aims to build children's character and achieve a thriving economy by creating a skilled workforce and promoting economic growth. Therefore, Saudi Arabia has decided to privatize the education sector, among several other sectors, with the aim of raising educational efficiency and developing skills, knowledge, academia and curriculum, to achieve the outputs that match the requirements of the labor market, reinforced by the necessary expertise, and equipped with training in parallel to the knowledge and modern technologies.

One of the objectives of privatization, in general, is to improve the financial health of the public sector thus governments tend to remove financial support, in order to decrease deficits and debt, when it privatizes any sector. Hence, we conclude that as a result of the privatization of the education sector, students and their families will take part in the cost of education. This will be done by the introducing of tuition fees to education as part of cost sharing approach. Such a decision will have multiple implications for students, their families, society and the economy. Therefore, this study aims to identify the perceptions of students about the impact of the introducing of tuition fees to higher education in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter one reviews the theory of privatization, where the methods of the privatization process discussed, what are the economists' perspectives on privatization, and how privatization affects microeconomic, macroeconomic, and consumers. Chapter two focuses on the privatization of higher education, what are the factors leading to privatization of higher education, and how such a decision can impact students, staff, and education. Chapter three reviews the previous studies that discussed the impact of tuition fees on higher education and then gives a glance of Saudi Arabia and its educational system. Chapter four sets out the research methodology: how the research tool was designed and how data was collected, then a description of the sample is provided. Chapter five is about data analysis and how hypotheses were tested. Chapter six discusses the

findings of the study and then provides recommendations to the government and future research.

### Chapter One

#### Privatization Theory

##### 1.1 Privatization Theory

For more than one decade, both developed and developing countries have been involved in aspirant privatization programs (Sheshinski and López-Calva 1998). Privatization has come a long way; from the Marxian debates about social dominance of the commanding heights of industry to the fact that an extensive acceptance of the necessity to reinvent government is forward movement (McFetridge 1997). While privatization of state-owned firms has been one of the most significant characteristics of economic transition from a centrally planned to a market system, no transition economy has privatized all its sectors together. Indeed, the privatization process contained a series of movements, with some firms being privatized prior to others (Gupta, Ma and Schiller 2001).

Privatization can be defined generally as 'the moving of a role, whether in whole or in part, from the public sector to the private sector,' includes the growing dependence on private actors and market forces to follow social objectives (Feigenbaum and Henig 1994). It is part of a wider procedure of market liberalization and has effects on the competence of markets and the political procedure as well as for the competence of individual firms (McFetridge 1997).

The process of privatization can take many methods which could be summarized in the following three approaches (Savas 2000):

1. Delegation, where government keeps liability and control but utilizes the private sector for service delivery, for example:
  - a. By contract: Where contracts are made between the government and private firms to perform a particular work with or without profit.
  - b. By public-private competition: Where the government raises competition between its employees and private sector firms to obtain contracts with private contractors, leading to improved performance of government firms.

- c. By franchise: Where the government grants the franchise to provide a particular product or service to a private firm (often an exclusive franchise) and the private firm pays fees to the government.
  - d. By public-private partnership: When the government needs an infrastructure that is provided and operated by private firms, the government contracts, leases or franchises these private firms and finances them.
  - e. By grants and other subsidies: Where private firms provide services on behalf of the government and rewarded by grants, below-interest loans, favored tax treatment etc.
  - f. By voucher: Issuing vouchers by the government to eligible beneficiaries in order to benefit from some services provided by the private sector.
  - g. By mandate: Where a government mandate authorizes a private firm to provide services at government expense.
2. Divestment, where government renounces liability; which could happen by:
    - a. Sale: Selling government firms and transferring them to market tenders.
    - b. Free transfer: by giving away, whether to employees, public or any qualified entity.
    - c. Liquidation: By shutting down and liquidating a government firm and selling its assets due to the poor performance.
  3. Displacement, where the private sector expands and displaces a government action by:
    - a. Default: This occurs when the government's production of a good or its provision of a service is insufficient and unsatisfactory while at the same time the private sector provides this commodity or service and meets the needs of society.
    - b. Withdrawal: Where the size and growth of government firms are being reduced and at the same time private sector expands in the same field.
    - c. Voluntary action: The government encourages voluntary action, which reduces its costs, such as cleaning public parks, libraries, schools and other voluntary actions.
    - d. Deregulation: This procedure enables the private sector to challenge the government and break the monopoly and thus facilitate privatization.

The shift to privatization is increasing day after day all over the world. But the perspectives about privatization were divided between proponents and opponents; where proponents argue that privatization is a means of raising efficiency at the microeconomic and macroeconomic level. While opponents argue that privatization is costly to society in terms of increases prices for the consumers, exploiting the firms that have been privatized to market power, and increases the unemployment rate due to the layoffs.

## 1.2 Privatization and Microeconomic Arguments

Within the literature of microeconomics, the views were divided and differed between support for public ownership or support for privatization.

1. Social view: The argument here is about the importance of the role of government (public ownership) - the opposite of the idea of privatization - in the following cases: monopoly and market failure. This has been discussed by Nobel Laureates such as Lewis, Meade, and Allais early during the 1940s (Sheshinski and López-Calva 1998). The idea is that if there is a market failure, the government must intervene and here in this situation there is a need for public ownership. As government firms can be used as a tool to correct market failure by applying a pricing policy that takes into account

the social marginal costs (La Porta and Lopez-de-Silanes 1999). In the case of monopoly, this view argued that public ownership is the best solution but the evolution of theoretical work shows that effective regulatory restrictions on decision making in private firms without reducing innovation and cost reduction efforts are a better alternative solution to this problem and more efficient (Sheshinski and López-Calva 1998). The social view also criticized privatization on the one hand that it is cost the society in terms of exploiting the firms that have been privatized to market power. On the other hand, it makes workers bear the burden of restructuring by cut wages or layoffs (La Porta and Lopez-de-Silanes 1999).

2. Agency view: This view supports privatization and considers that the problems of contracting, motivation and conflict within firms are the cause of inefficiency and therefore their consideration and resolution leads to improved microeconomics efficiency (Sheshinski and López-Calva 1998; La Porta and Lopez-de-Silanes 1999). Within the agency view, there are two perspectives:
  - a. Managerial perspective: Which argued that monitoring in public firms is poor which gives managers great authority to follow their personal agendas and therefore the efficiency is low because there is nothing to stimulate it (Vickers and Yarrow 1991). The reason for the low monitoring is that public firms are not traded in the market like private firms, which removes the risk of takeover in the case of poor performance (Sheshinski and López-Calva 1998). Privatization leads to a change in the means of monitoring managerial behavior, for example, will show the pressure of the capital market as prices, such as share price, will reveal information, and when the market is efficient (efficient market theory) these prices will capitalize the effective consequences and current management activities on future profits, which means that even the shareholders become observers of the firm and thus it will be more careful about its performance and efficiency (Vickers and Yarrow 1991).
  - b. Political perspective: This view has argued that in public firms, management in a public firm might maximize the political support instead of profits, and thus invest in the activities that achieve advantages to voters or to political groups (McFetridge 1997). The managers might use their firms for political positions, such as the promotion of job opportunities. The reason that managers can do so without facing the risk of bankruptcy is that the government will guarantee this public firm by the public budget (Sheshinski and López-Calva 1998). The soft budget constraint keeps the old production line, the inefficient firm against the positive demolition and therefore hinder innovation and growth (Kornai 1986).

## 1.3 Privatization and Macroeconomic Analysis

Several studies discussed the impact of privatization on macroeconomic performance. Among these studies, (Servén, Solimano and Soto 1994) study that discussed the case of Chile which occurred in two rounds in most sectors such as utilities, mining, industry, transport, communications, financial, trade, and construction. This study showed a rise in the current account deficit during the first round of privatization and decrease in the same account during the second round, in addition to the substantial impact of privatization on increasing the foreign direct investment during the two rounds. Foreign lending also increased significantly after the first round but declined in the second round. Another study is (Chisari, Estache and Romero 1999) for the case of Argentina where privatization took place in several sectors such as electricity, gas, water, and telecommunications. This study shows high economic

rates of return for Argentina. Also, privatization improved the employment and produced substantial earnings for the economy and all income classes. Another study was conducted by the World Bank in 1992 on 12 countries of Latin America, Africa, Asia and Europe. This study showed that local welfare improved in ten countries. Productivity rose in nine countries and remained at the same level in three countries. Investment restrictions have shrunk and there has been a significant expansion and diversification of investments in many of these countries. The GDP increased largely in eleven countries (Galal and Shirley 1994; Nellis and Shirley 1992).

Thus, we conclude that the most important governmental objectives of the privatization are (Yarrow 1986; McFetridge 1997; Sheshinski and López-Calva 1998; Gupta, Ma and Schiller 2001):

1. Raise economic productive competence;
2. Increase sales returns and public satisfaction by moving shares of firms to voters;
3. Enhance financial market efficiency by growing the number of people who own shares in firms and the number of firms with shares traded on organized stock exchanges;
4. Reinforce the role of the private sector in the economy;
5. Redistribute fortune and enhance the public sector's financial health (lower deficits, lower debt);
6. Reinforce broader share ownership;
7. Increase employment in the medium and long-term; and
8. Stimulate and entice foreign investment.

What makes governments go to privatization - in addition to previous reasons - is the difference between employee behavior and performance in the public and private sectors. Private firms are owned by individuals who are free to dispose of the assets of the firm, within the limits of the law, where they have residual claims on these assets. When the firm produces a commodity or service that consumers need and at a competitive price, it generates profits and thus increases the wealth of the owners, similarly in case of loss. This means that private firm owners receive not only gains but also the costs of inefficient use of the firm's resources. Linking the use of private resources and their consequences to owners is, therefore, a powerful incentive to monitor the behavior of managers and employees to ensure that they perform their work efficiently. This makes the managers and employees have difficulty performing any behavior that goes against maximizing the wealth of owners which leads to efficient performance of the private firm. Private firms also set their plans based on consumer requirements and expectations so that owners will bear the costs for the benefits they have planned.

In contrast, public firms are not owned by individuals with residual claims on the assets of these firms where public firm owners cannot dispose of its assets and thus have no strong incentives to monitor the behavior of employees and managers. Since managers and employees have no authority over the assets of the public firm, they do not bear the costs of their plans and decisions and do not benefit from their effective performance, which makes them avoid implementing activities and increase the cost of production. Public firms also plan, but in a completely different way from private firms, since these plans are developed by people who do not afford the costs and results of their decisions and do not benefit from their efficiency (Hanke 1985).

From a theoretical perspective, private and public managers and employees are anticipated to behave in various ways and consequently, private firms will be more efficient than public firms.

On the other hand, and from a practical perspective, this has been proven in many studies, including the studies mentioned earlier.

#### 1.4 Privatization and Consumers

Many researchers discussed the impact of privatization on the consumers where they argued that privatization can influence consumer prices of privatized goods and services (Vickers and Yarrow 1991) and raises inequality and poverty (Nellis 2007). On one hand, prices will decline if privatization is coincided with amended quality, productive and allocative competence (Gupta 1999), in addition to rise the competition as an aspect of the privatization of firms (McKenzie and Mookherjee 2005). On the other hand, prices will rise if the good or service is formerly subsidized by the government, the prices executed by the government is under cost covering level, or the firm wants to expand to meet demand, update, and work without or with less supports (Gupta 1999; McKenzie and Mookherjee 2005; Nellis 2007). The influence of change in prices will rely on the level of consumption of the good or service by different income classes (McKenzie and Mookherjee 2005), where price rises will negatively influence the standard of living of low-income class if the good or service is fundamental, such as water, sewerage, electricity and transport. But if the good or service targets middle and high-income classes, such as aviation and telecommunications, their negative influence on the standard of living of low-income class will be low (Gupta 1999).

There are several studies examine the impact of privatization on income classes, among them is (Ennis and Pinto 2002) study where they discussed the impact of privatization on consumption in Argentina, which concluded that connection charges decreased significantly for residential, commercial and professional users while connections tariffs have risen for residential and commercial users. Electricity prices for residential, commercial and industrial users have fallen after privatization. Natural gas prices for residential and industrial users fell after privatization, while prices for commercial users rose slightly. Access to water, electricity, gas, and communications has increased after privatization which benefited low-income class mostly. The study also showed that the privatization of electricity, water, and natural gas increased inequality. It also showed that all indicators of poverty have declined, especially for electricity and water but the change in these two indicators is not of great importance.

Another study conducted by Knight-John and Athukorala (2005) on privatization in Sri Lanka which occurred in many sectors such as gas, telecommunication, and agriculture. The study concluded to the following results. Prices rose at the beginning of the privatization of the telecommunications sector due to the lack of competition but after opening the door to competition prices fell. The quality of telecommunications services and access after privatization has improved. Gas expenditure for low-income class fell after privatization.

The study of Barja, McKenzie and Urquiola (2005) discussed privatization in Bolivia which occurred in several sectors: electricity, oil and gas, telecommunications, transportation, and water industries. The study found that access to services has increased specifically in electricity and water especially for low-income class. Phone and Internet services have greatly improved for all income classes. Service prices increased slightly and most were in water. Privatization has reduced inequality and poverty in the electricity, water and telecommunications sector due to improved access to these services, especially for low-income class. The legal structure was effective and enhanced competition and transparency in most sectors.

Privatization in Bolivia is one of the most successful experiences because the Bolivian government encouraged competition and implemented regulation which have contributed to reduce the pressure for price increases (McKenzie and Mookherjee 2005). Therefore, we could conclude that regulators are the critical players in defining the perception of the equity of privatization because they

mainly control the degree to which the poor get their just share of the earnings from reform. Based on that it is better to let the firm operate under private, profit-maximizing ownership, rather than through utilization of a monopolistic situation to get rents, and use other regulatory and supervisory techniques, such as taxes and regulation, to protect consumer wellbeing and suitable levels of income distribution (McKenzie and Mookherjee 2005; Gupta 1999). Because if the governments did not take particular movements, the returns from reform will take more time to reach the real poor than the richer classes of the population, and thus aggravate income distribution (McKenzie and Mookherjee 2005).

## Chapter Two

### The Privatization Of Higher Education

Higher education is the most crucial process for converting human beings into human resources and thus increasing the development and resources inside a country (Jamshidi *et al.* 2012). Traditionally public higher education has been seen as a social good that produces advantages to the country as a whole. But as incomes differentials between highly educated and less educated people have extended, and the private economic return higher education offers its students has increased, policymakers have decided that those students and their families should pay a larger share of the expenses of public higher education (Ehrenberg 2006).

Privatization of higher education is not a novel phenomenon in the world economy. In several countries of the world, the private sector has come to perform either a partial or major role in higher education (Tilak 1991). In spite of the extraordinary rate of change that characterizes our world today, six forces are irrefutably encouraging the expansion of privatization in higher education: the increase of an information-based economy, changes in demographics, a rise in public scrutiny, the arrival of new technologies, the convergence of knowledge-based firms, and a decrease in public trust in government (Levine 2001).

Privatization in higher education indicates to the process in which schools and universities (both public and private) perform according to features and standards of the private sector, function in a business-like and market-oriented way, react to consumer and customers' anticipations and show more dependence on private funding rather than public funding. In this process, the students are treated as customers and education is treated as a product with the most vital factors of funding, competing institutions, labor market circumstances, growing income, and dynamic marketing. The term privatization in education also indicates to the embracing of management applications with private business institutions, such as contracting with private institutions and utilizing exterior resources to accomplish nonacademic services such as publish, food, and construction, critical decision-making. As well there is a wide usage of accounting gauges so maintain that each item (department or program) should aid in profitability and success of their firms (Jamshidi *et al.* 2012).

The privatization of higher education arises as a result of the following factors (Tilak 1991; Ehrenberg 2006; Kwiek 2009; Jamshidi *et al.* 2012):

- The budget issues that government express,
- The policymakers' readiness to shift the expenses of higher education from taxpayers to students,
- The opinion that imposing on the publics to act more like the privates and compete for resources which will derive to improved competences and the removal of waste,
- A growing population leads to an increase in youth and an increase in demand for higher education,

- Government cannot react to the rise in demand for higher education and the private market try to meet the unfulfilled demand,
- Demand for variety in education, diverse quality and content in education,
- The desire to rise the competition between public and private sectors which leads to an enhancement in quality and competence of education, and
- Trimming the sections that are lower successful at enticing students or research funds.

Just as views on privatization, in general, were divided, views on the privatization of higher education differ between proponents and opponents. The most considerably advanced economic arguments support more private provision because it enhances competence, giving more accountability and improved variety of option and access from the improved resources moving into education. Patrinos (1990) and Balan (1990) argued that the main benefit of private sector higher education has been reacting more rapidly or competently to market demands. By offering the kind of education most in demand, the private sector reacts to the requirements of the economy and society, and graduates classically encounter lower unemployment rates, and obtain better-paid careers. The proponents of private higher education also argue that private universities or colleges are expected to improve the quality of provision by growing competition between educational providers (both public and private) (Wilkinson and Yussof 2005).

On the other hand, the opponents of private higher education argue that private institutions incline primarily to provide programmes that have high private advantages but less social advantages. (Johnstone 1998; Tilak 1991; James 1991) have argued, for instance, that the role of research and the extensive educational requirements of society are less significant to private sector institutions. The private sector is only expected to provide professional subjects, such as engineering and medicine if the probable for economic revenue is high and, in most situations, private sector institutions provide subjects that are mostly of less capital intensity in character (Wilkinson and Yussof 2005).

The World Bank and others have advanced the policy proposal that developing countries should depend more significantly on private schools, student loans and eclectic scholarships, and decentralized administration. They argued that such a policy set would lead to more resources moving to education, more competent usage of such resources, and more fair access to education. They also argued that private schools are to be supported because their responsibility results in higher levels of competence. Private schools can be more concentrated on the demands and requirements of its customers because they rely almost completely on tuition fees to cover their operating expenses (Patrinos 1990).

But is this the case in real life, this is the next part where the impact of the privatization of higher education on students, staff, and education as a whole will be discussed through previous experiences of several countries.

### 2.1 The Impact on Students, Staff, and Education

James and Benjamin (1988) discovered that public higher education in Japan offers improved facilities, the obtainability of space per student is greater in public universities than private universities, and private universities expend lower than half of what public universities expend per student where in 1980, expenses per student was 1,982,000 yen in public universities, in contrast to 848,000 yen in private universities. They also found that the student-teacher ratio in public universities was only eight-to-one, in contrast to twenty-six-to-one in private universities. Private universities are found to hire more retired, part-time, and lower-qualified teachers and the teachers

in the private universities are salaried less and have less academic respect (Tilak 1991, Wilkinson and Yussuf 2005).

In Colombia, there are several options for higher education, which include: private elite universities, public universities, and low-cost, low-quality private universities. Since the public universities did not extend, and access to the elite private universities is very much linked with family income, this has meant that students from the lower middle class have had to depend on the low cost, low quality institutions of higher education in latest years, which result in two issues; quality of education and access. A low quality of education to the lower middle class means that these students will not be capable to contend in the labor market versus graduates of the elite private and public universities. A bad education will only regenerate the social frame and no development in equality will be achieved. Private universities do not emphasize on research; thus, the quality of postgraduate study is not very high, and they depend almost completely on part-time professors, who are salaried low (Patrinos 1991).

In Malaysia, the private sector has shown that it can meet the growing demand for higher education which is not subtended by government. The rise of private higher education institutions also has assisted to decrease the total public funding to higher education as well as defending foreign exchange by reducing the flowing of students for external education because formerly public universities were serving only 10 or 11 percent of higher education students and therefore, most students who did not enroll in public universities inclined to study abroad as a substitute. Private colleges have less professors and associate professors or senior lecturers in a contrast with public universities. The senior staff in private colleges are also selected from retired academic staff from public universities and the average of academic staff's salaries per year in private colleges are much less than that in public universities. Teacher cost per student in public universities is much larger than in the private colleges because the public universities looking to hire more senior and higher-qualified academic staff in a contrast to the private. Private colleges are not research-based institutions and do not create their particular degree programmes but are restricted to combining degree programmes that need no expertise on their part in forming the syllabus. The roles of private colleges are limited to proceed and execute programmes formed by the parent university. Thus, it is improbable for the college to devote to research and advance and this is probable to effect on the quality of education. The expenses per student in the private colleges are less than those in the public universities. The public universities expend more on libraries and classrooms, while the private colleges expend more on computers and laboratories. Private colleges are expected to be lower worried about rising the quality of education in a contrast with the public universities since their concentration is on generating revenues. Public universities on other hand, though offering a greater quality of education, because so well founded, are expected to be late to react to the instant requirements of the market (Wilkinson and Yussuf 2005).

In Poland, the rise of the private sector in education was planned to extend and encounter the growing demands on higher education. This step lead to: the rate of deprived students, specially from rural societies, who represented only two percent of the total registration in 1990 had increased to 10 percent in 2002 with an additional jump to 20 percent in 2005. Total registration increased from 400,000 in 1990 to almost two million in 2006. Scholarships became more broadly obtainable. During 1990-1998, around 150,000- 180,000 were granted to both full-time students. This number rose in 2005 to 573,000, comprising 348,000 for full-time students. Poland also observed remarkably high earnings from higher education, around 160 percent of the average returns in 1998-2004 and quite small unemployment rates amongst its higher education graduates. Tuition

fees are almost the only source of earning in the fee-based private sector (95 percent in 2006), since it is not currently qualified for state subsidies. In contrast, income in the public sector derives from state subsidies, local government subsidies, tuition fees (from part-time students), and other sources (Kwiek 2009).

### Chapter Three

#### The Impact Of Tuition Fees On Students

Economists frequently consider the decision to join higher education as an investment in human capital. According to the standard human capital theory going back to Becker (1962), every individual selects a level of education to increase the discounted present value of lifetime gains, net of education expenses. At the optimum level of education, the marginal costs of an extra year of education are equal to the net present value of the revenue gain related to an extra year of education. Inside this basis, marginal costs of education include net opportunity costs from predestined incomes as well as direct expenses, such as tuition fees (Hübner 2012). Government expenses on higher education produces private advantages and advantages to society at large. A part of the private advantages ensues to graduates in term of human capital, which mainly enables them to get a larger revenue flow during their employed lives as well as better job security than those without such capital. A part of the social advantages are results such as improved health, better social union, more educated citizens. The social advantages also emerge from the fact that a greater pool of skills can encourage and utilize technological developments to assist the progress of higher capacity and economic growth (Biffi and Issac 2002).

During the last two decades, the governments of many countries around the world have switched the expense of higher education from the government to the student. By 2005, Australia, Canada, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Spain and the United States (US) all had some kind of student fee system participating in the capital of higher education. In these countries, there has been a tendency toward higher education as a private good, which enhances individuals, and which individuals should thus pay, instead of a public good, which enhances societies and economies. The rationales for this switch include (Marcucci and Johnstone 2007):

- Private advantages to higher education (greater lifetime incomes, improved status, etc.) are significant (and possibly encompass as well parents of students).
- Students and families who pay tuition fees will require accountability and, thus, universities will have to be more competent and consumer oriented.
- The expenses of higher education – with per-student expenses increasing at rates in surplus of inflation, enlarged by growing enrollments – are calling for very high annual rises in returns. However, the growing complication of taxation, specially in low income and transitional countries, plus growing competition from other irresistible public needs such as health care and primary education, make raised tax returns to higher education uncertain.

On the other hand, and around the world, public undergraduate higher education is yet provided free to national students in only a few of countries, such as Argentina, Finland, Norway, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates (UAE) (Wilkins, Shams and Huisman 2013). Part of the justification is found in the basis of 'equal access' to higher education which is explained as the intention to guarantee that financial barriers do not preclude students with acceptable academic capability from enrolling in higher education (Biffi and Issac 2002). Another part of the justification is that students from all social backgrounds have increasingly become more risk and debt averse and that, therefore, variances between the groups of students have started to vanish (Wilkins, Shams and Huisman 2013). Historically,

several of higher education systems were established based on a belief of free tertiary education for competent students. The argument for free higher education is based on several rationales (Marcucci and Johnstone 2007):

- The advantages for society from educated citizens are very high.
- Education is (or must be) an essential right.
- Tuition fees may dishearten the involvement of students from low-income families, rural areas or racial minorities with negative effects in terms of social fairness and social advantages.
- The expenses of student preservation are high and already beyond the ability of many families specially when tied with the expenses of foregone student incomes.

The imposing of tuition fees by higher education institutions is a critical element in any cost sharing approach and one that has become more noticeable as more and more countries switch to cost sharing in an attempt to meet increasing demand for and offset reducing government investment in higher education. The direct issue treated in a country's tuition fee policy is the separation of the load of higher education's instructional expenses between the student and his/her family and the government, or taxpayer, as well as the associated financial assistance programmes that are embraced to guarantee that the application of tuition fees does not decrease access to higher education for students from lower socio-economic classes. Thus, the policies by which tuition fees are based (or opposed or rejected) are critical both for the very significant returns at stake as well as for the possible effect on higher education enrollment and the consequences to equity and social fairness (Marcucci and Johnstone 2007).

Several studies discussed the impact of tuition fees on students' access to higher education; where some studies have found an impact while others did not find an impact on the introducing of tuition fees on access to higher education.

Canton and de Jong (2005) studied the registration of students as a percent of the number of competent secondary school graduates over the period 1950-1999 in Netherlands. They found that students are not responsive to tuition fees, but financial support (loans and grants), the college value on future labor market incomes, and the possible wage are significant in the registration decision. So, the financial support for students is prove to have a positive influence on registration rates, but no significant impact is found for tuition fees.

Hemelt and Marcotte (2008) reviewed the tendencies in tuition at public universities and estimated the influences on registration in United States (US). They used data from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System on all public four-year colleges and universities from 1991 to 2007 and illustrated that tuition rise greatly starting in the early in this decade, growing at rates exceptional in the past half century. The examination was for the influence of price changes on many measures of registration: total headcount, total number of credits taken, and the number of first-time, full-time freshman. They found that at the mean a \$100 growth in tuition fees would drive to a decrease in registration of a little more than 0.25 percent.

At the means of registration and tuition price, they found that a five percent growth in tuition (about \$210) would result in a registration decrease of about 57 students and the lack of about \$250,000 in tuition from these students. In sum, there was no evidence that extremely large year-to-year tuition growths (e.g. - real growths in excess of 15 percent) have excessively large influences on students' registrations.

Hübner (2010) used the unequal introduction of tuition fees in seven out of the 16 German states in 2007 as a natural experiment to find the impact of tuition fees on registration possibilities by analyzing the

tendency of high-school registration amongst populations in the states that introduced tuition fees in a contrast to high-school graduates in states in which access to university is stay free of cost 'non-fee states'. The study found that registration decreases amongst high-school graduates in the fee states after the introduction of tuition fees by 2.74 percentage points, while registration possibilities stay almost fixed in the 'non-fee states'. He argued that the impact found in his study is also economically important. Given the number of students who registered at university, his estimation suggests that there would have been more than 5000 extra students in the fee states if tuition fees had not been introduced.

The study of Wilkins, Shams and Huisman (2013) surveyed 1,549 year 12 sixth form students from four institutes diffuse geographically across England. They studied six elements that would affect a student's higher education goals which are: Financial issues, Entertainment and atmosphere, Institution quality and reputation, Career and work issues, Country reputation for higher education, and Foreign experiences. They found that financial problems are the main impact on a student's higher education goals. This would suggest that the growth of tuition fees in England in October 2012 will probable influence students' study options. This is confirmed by the findings on students' consideration of substitutes, where 76.1 percent of the students responded that they plan to register at a UK university, 36 percent were considering studying at a university abroad; 18.6 percent said they will consider attempting to find an inexpensive substitute in the UK. In sum, the data seem to point at growing concern about the financial problems in English higher education, influencing the study options of all students.

The study of Bunce, Baird and Jones (2017) discussed the influence of tuition fees on student performance by surveying 608 undergraduates at higher education institutes in England about their consumer attitudes and demeanors in connection with their higher education, their learner identity, and academic performance. The study found that the relation between fee accountability and academic performance was mediated by consumer orientation: More fee accountability was related with higher consumer orientation and then lower academic performance; thus, the fee-paying students will have a lesser academic performance in contrast to non-fee-paying students (Maxwell-Stuart et al. 2016).

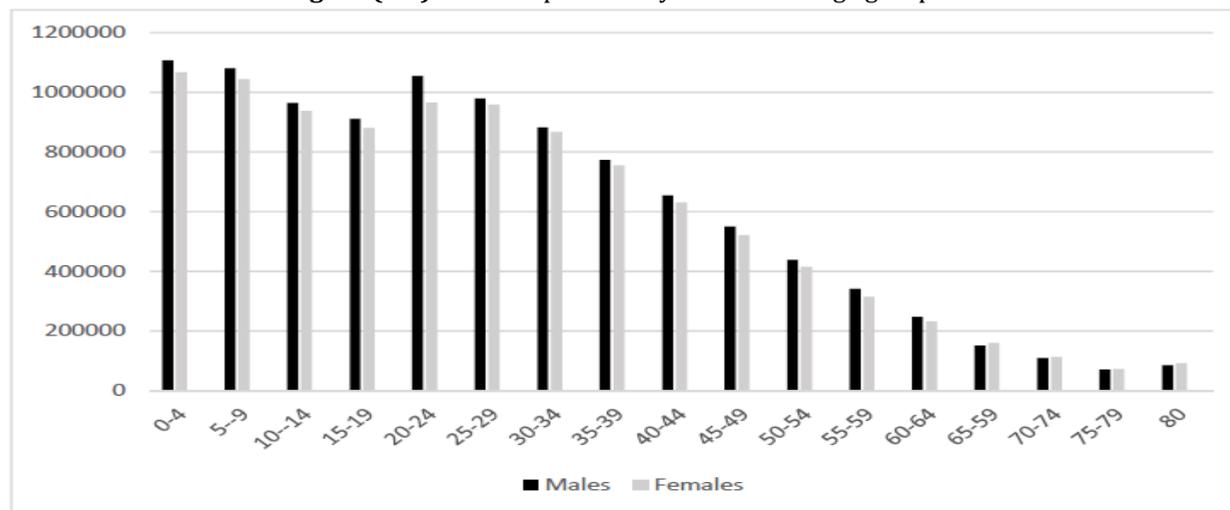
### 3.1 Saudi Arabia at a Glance

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was established in 1932 and occupies about four-fifths of the Arabian Peninsula (Sedgwick 2001). In 2017, the population reached 32,552,336 (57,48 percent are males, and 42,52 percent are females). The number of Saudi population according to the General Authority of Statistics is 20,408,362, which represent 62.69 percent of the total population of the Kingdom, (50,94 percent are males, and 49,06 percent are females). The Saudi population in the age of education, from pre-primary to higher education which include the ages between 3 and 24 years, as shown in table 3.1 and figure 3.1, more than two-fifths of the population of the Kingdom by 43.1% distributed as follows: The population at the age of higher education (18-24 years) the highest proportion by (13.4 percent), followed by primary education (11.8 percent), then pre-primary education (7.4 percent), followed by intermediate education (5.3 percent), and lastly secondary education (5.2 percent).

**Table (3.1):** Saudi Population by Gender and Age groups

Age groups	Saudi		
	Male	Female	%
0--4	1106701	1067283	10.6%
5--9	1081142	1043747	10.4%
10--14	964304	937211	9.3%
15--19	911303	880048	8.8%
20--24	1054864	965980	9.9%
25--29	979569	958219	9.5%
30--34	882178	866771	8.6%
35--39	773509	754795	7.5%
40--44	654842	630501	6.3%
45--49	550260	520676	5.2%
50--54	438873	414863	4.2%
55--59	342010	314325	3.2%
60--64	247814	231960	2.4%
65--69	150818	159559	1.5%
70--74	110039	112808	1.1%
75--79	70770	72831	0.7%
80	85286	91498	0.9%
<b>Total</b>	<b>10404282</b>	<b>10023075</b>	<b>20427357</b>

Source: General Authority of Statistics 2017

**Figure (3.1):** Saudi Population by Gender and Age groups

In the past and before the discovery of oil, Saudi Arabia was a poor country, and there was a very limited educational program including 12 schools with 700 students. This condition changed intensely after 1938, when oil was discovered in large quantities in Saudi Arabia. By 1950 there were 365 schools educating 42,000 students. In 1954, the Ministry of Education was founded which comprises all educational stages in Saudi Arabia (Alamri 2011). The Kingdom has recognized early that the level of education among the population is one of the main sources of the economic development of each country and has therefore paid great attention to education. The educational system is available from primary to secondary education for free to all Saudis and non-Saudi students where students get free books and health cares. Higher education was only for Saudi nationals, and the students were provided with stipends for enrolling in higher education (Alamri 2011). The government assigns more than 25 percent of the total budget to education containing Vocational Training and expends around 13.17 billion U.S. dollars on primary Education and Research (Ministry of Education 2018).

Education in the Kingdom is divided into three levels (Ministry of Education 2018):

1. Primary education: It is for children under six years of age, which is not compulsory.
2. General education: It is compulsory and free where it is divided into three stages: the primary school consists of six years of study, the intermediate school consists of three years of study, the secondary school consists of three years of study.
3. Higher Education: Includes the study of bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees.

Higher education is provided by 27 state universities, 11 private universities, 39 private colleges, in addition to many educational, and training institutions around the kingdom.

In 2016, Vision 2030 of Saudi Arabia was adopted which aims to build a more prosperous homeland where all citizens will have what they wish, whether in education, opportunities for all, or advanced services in employment, health, housing, entertainment and others. To achieve this vision, 12 programs have been developed and approved; one of them is the privatization program. The privatization program aims at reinforcing the role of the private sector in offering services and provides government assets to them, which will mostly enhance quality of service, for sectors such as health, education, and municipal affairs, decrease their expenses, concentrate the government on its

legislative and organizational parts, and guarantee alignment with Vision 2030. Moreover, the program will entice foreign direct investment and enhance the balance of payments (Vision 2030 2018). Education is the cornerstone of the Kingdom's 2030 vision for building a vibrant society. Through the educational and academic system, the Kingdom aims to build children's character and achieve a thriving economy by creating a skilled workforce and promoting economic growth. The development plan is accompanied by various stages of education ranging from general education to higher education, through the expansion and development of technical and vocational training programs in all regions, and the expansion of nursery and kindergarten programs, aimed at raising educational efficiency and developing skills, knowledge, academia and curriculum, to achieve the outputs that match the requirements of the labour market, reinforced by the necessary expertise, and equipped with training in parallel to the knowledge and modern technologies (General Authority for Statistics 2018).

Since privatization will be applied to universities in the future, which often coincides with the introduction of tuition fees for students, especially as the new university regulation allowed universities to impose tuition fees on postgraduate programs in the state universities, this study aims to measure the perception of students about the impact of introducing tuition fees to higher education in Saudi Arabia, both in terms of students' access to education and in terms of the impact of this decision on society and economy. The possibility of affecting students' access to higher education after the introducing of tuition fees comes from the fact that the average income of the Saudi family, according to the latest statistics of the General Authority for Statistics in 2013, is SR 10,723. This average was decreased by 3.4 percent than the previous statistics for 2007 which indicated that the average income of the Saudi family is SR 13,610. This income is associated with the average number of family members in Saudi Arabia, which in 2013 reached 6.7 individuals per household.

## Chapter Four

### Research Methodology

#### Introduction

This chapter introduces the key research question and hypotheses. It then describes the methodology of the survey, including the design, sampling, a description of the response rate, the profile of respondents, and a description of the key variables measured.

#### 4.1 Research Question and Hypotheses

This study aims to measure the perception of students about the impact of introducing tuition fees on higher education in Saudi Arabia, both in terms of students' access to education and in terms of the impact of this decision on society and economy. The main study's question is:

What is the impact of introducing tuition fees on higher education in Saudi Arabia from the students' perception?

To answer the study's question, the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. Students' perceptions about access to education is affected by family size
2. Access to education is affected by gender
3. Access to education is affected by family income
4. Work to fund education is affected by gender
5. The contribution of individuals to society is affected by access to education
6. There is an impact of access to education on the level of awareness of society (cultural, social, and political)

#### 4.2 Research Methodology

This is a quantitative study where the researcher used the descriptive analytical approach which aims to describe and investigate the impact of introducing tuition fees to higher education in Saudi Arabia on students. This approach explains the connection between the variables included or it discloses the causes that lead to the condition and through which the researcher provides a better comprehension of the research topic and generates data of high value (Groat and Wang 2013). The researcher role in this approach is describing what happened or is happening to determine the causes then perform as an analyst of the facts that existing to make a critical valuation (Thomas, Silverman and Nelson 2015).

#### 4.3 Data Collection

In order to achieve the research objectives, two essential data collection resources were used, which are:

1. Primary Resources: in order to address the analytical aspects of the research theme, the study collected the primary data through creating and distributing an online questionnaire as a main tool, which is designed specially to answer the study question. This questionnaire was distributed among the study population in order to get their perceptions about the impact of introducing tuition fees on higher education in Saudi Arabia on students.
2. Secondary Resources: in order to address the theoretical background of the study? secondary data was collected from several resources, such as books, articles, government reports and some previous studies related to the topic of this study.

#### 4.4 Survey Design

The questionnaire was designed with two sections. The first section contained the demographic information which includes (gender, age, college, marital status, family size, family income, parental work, and the study in public or private schools). These variables were measured by (multiple-choice, closed-ended) questions. The second section contained twelve statements to measure the impact of introducing tuition fees on students' access to education, the impact of introducing tuition fees on society, and the impact of privatization of higher education on the economy. These statements were placed in a multiple-choice grid using Likert scale where they measured the degree of agreement or disagreement of respondents on the statement. The scale includes five options which are (strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree or disagree, agree, strongly agree). After the design of the questionnaire was completed, it was written in a Google Form and distributed to the sample. The form was available for filling by students for 13 days from 3rd of March to 20th of March, 2018. The online questionnaire was adopted for easy access, filling, and distribution to the sample.

#### 4.5 Research Population and Sample Size

Krejcie and Morgan (1970) stated that if the size of the study population reaches one million, then the sample size will be 384. Since the study population includes all males and females students in the state universities around the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, which includes 1,660,362 students, according to the latest statistics of the Ministry of Education for the year 1436-1437 AH. Thus, the sample size will be approximately 384. A random sample was selected from the study population, and the responses reached 416 from around Saudi Arabia. The following illustrate the demographic variables of the sample:

- **Gender:**  
The majority of the respondents are females comprising 73.1 percent of the sample, and 26.9 percent are males.

- **Age:**

The majority of the respondents are above 21 years old comprising 78.1 percent of the sample, and 21.9 percent are under 21 years old.

- **College:**

**Table (4.1):** Distribution of respondents on colleges

College	Respondents
College of Arabic Language	7.9%
College of Arts and Design	2.6%
College of Arts	12%
College of Business Administration	13.5%
College of Computer and Information Sciences	3.1%
College of Dentistry	0.2%
College of Economics and Administrative Science	1.7%
College of Education	23.6%
College of Engineering	3.6%
College of Fundamentals of Religion	2.9%
College of Health and Rehabilitation Sciences	0.2%
College of Languages and Translation	1.4%
College of Media and Communication	6%
College of Medicine	1.4%
College of Pharmacy	2.2%
College of Science	1.0%
College of Sharia	14.2%
College of Social Services	2.4%
<b>Total</b>	<b>100%</b>

The majority of respondents are enrolled in the following colleges: 23.6 percent from College of Education, 14.2 percent from College of Sharia, 13.5 percent from College of Business Administration, and 12 percent from College of Arts.

- **Marital Status:**

The majority of the respondents are single comprising 63.5 percent of the sample, 34.6 percent are married, 1.4 percent are Divorced, and 0.5 percent are widowed.

- **Do you have children?**

The majority of the respondents have no children comprising 70 percent of the sample, and 30 percent have children.

- **Number of sons:**

The majority of the respondents have no sons comprising 72.8 percent of the sample, 21.2 percent have 1-3 sons, and 6 percent have more than 3 sons.

- **Number of daughters:**

The majority of the respondents have no daughters comprising 76.2 percent of the sample, 20.2 percent have 1-3 daughters, and 3.6 percent have more than 3 daughters.

- **Number of brothers:**

More than half of the sample have 1-3 brothers comprising 56.5 percent, 33.6 percent have 4-7 brothers, 5.8 percent have more than 7 brothers, and 4.1 percent have no brothers.

- **Number of sisters:**

About half of the sample have 1-3 sisters comprising 49.3 percent, 40.6 percent have 4-7 sisters, 6.5 percent have more than 7 sisters, and 3.6 percent have no sisters.

- **Public or private schools:**

The majority of the respondents have studied always in public schools comprising 62.3 percent of the sample, 27.2 percent have studied in public and private schools, and 10.6 percent have studied always in private schools.

- **Do the parents work:**

The majority of the respondents only their fathers work comprising 70.9 percent of the sample, 25.7 percent both their parents work, and 3.4 percent only their mothers work.

- **Family income per month:**

**Table (4.2):** Distribution of respondents on income categories

Income Categories	Respondents
I don't know	27.2%
Less than 11,000	24%
11,000-15,000	16.6%
15,001-20,000	12.3%
20,001-25,000	6%
More than 25,001	13.9%
<b>Total</b>	<b>100%</b>

The highest proportion of respondents get less than 11,000 SR per month comprising 24 percent of the sample, and the lowest proportion of respondents get 20,001-25,000 SR per month comprising 6 percent of the sample.

#### 4.6 Validity and Reliability of The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was reviewed by the two research supervisors to ascertain the effectiveness of the questionnaire in achieving the objective of the study and the accuracy of its measurement of what

was developed for it. The researcher took into consideration the views of the supervisors regarding the questionnaire and amended it accordingly.

The researcher used Cronbach's Alpha to test the questionnaire reliability.

**Table (4.3):** Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.765	0.746	12

As shown in Table (2), the Cronbach's Alpha for all questionnaire items is (0.765) which considered as sufficiently reliable.

## Chapter Five

### Data Analysis

#### Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the statistical analysis that has been made on the data, then how hypotheses were tested and what the result of each hypothesis.

### 5.1 Statistical Analysis Tools

The qualitative data analysis for this study made by utilizing (SPSS 22). The researcher used the following tools:

1. Cronbach's Alpha for Reliability.
2. Descriptive statistics.
3. Crosstabs.
4. Pearson Chi-Square test.

**Table (5.1):** Sample responses

Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Families will be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children	223 53.6%	130 31.2%	40 9.6%	15 3.6%	6 1.4%
Families will give priority to male education	94 22.5%	85 20.4%	92 22.1%	99 23.7%	44 10.5%
All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education	202 48.5%	98 23.5%	47 11.2%	41 9.8%	26 6.2%
Students will work to fund their education	53 12.7%	60 14.4%	82 19.7%	134 32.2%	85 20.4%
Over time, the level of cultural awareness of society will decrease	79 18.9%	88 21.1%	87 20.9%	79 18.9%	81 19.4%
Over time, the level of social awareness of society will decrease	73 17.5%	104 25%	87 20.9%	96 23%	54 12.9%
Over time, the level of political awareness of society will decrease	77 18.5%	106 25.4%	107 25.7%	76 18.2%	48 11.5%
The level of education will decrease	75 18%	90 21.6%	54 12.9%	97 23.3%	98 23.5%
The level of productivity of workers will decline	76 18.2%	111 26.6%	100 24%	74 17.7%	53 12.7%
The contribution of individuals to society will decline	69 16.5%	118 28.3%	84 20.1%	79 18.9%	64 15.3%
The quality of education outcomes will improve after privatization	106 25.4%	77 18.5%	128 30.7%	69 16.5%	34 8.1%
Graduates will match the needs of the labor market after privatization	95 22.8%	81 19.4%	129 31%	74 17.7%	35 8.4%

Tables (5.1) summarized the students perceptions in which the sample consisted of 416 respondents who answered all the questions so that there were no missing data. By reviewing the responses of the sample, we can observe some strong views held by the respondents which would suggest the introduction of tuition fees would be seen as discouraging access to higher education where 84.8 percent of the respondents disagree that families can afford the expenses of educating all their children if tuition fees are introduced. Also, 72 percent disagree that there is an equal opportunity for all members of society to access education when tuition fees are introduced. Thus,

we conclude that the majority of students believe that the introduction of tuition fees to higher education will affect access to education. On the other hand, 52.8 percent of the respondents believe that as a result of introducing tuition fees to higher education, students will work to fund their education, reflecting students' keenness to obtain a higher degree where the least of the responses were disagree with this perception.

Table (5.3) shows the mean for each statement and the scale here consists of five categories, whereas:

**Table (5.2):** Interpretation of the mean of Likert scale

Range	Interpretation
1-1.80	Strongly disagree
1.81-2.60	Disagree
2.61-3.40	Neutral
3.41-4.20	Agree
4.20-5	Strongly agree

**Table (5.3):** Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Families will be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children	416	1.68
Families will give priority to male education	416	2.79
All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education	416	2.01
Students will work to fund their education	416	3.33
Over time, the level of cultural awareness of society will decrease	416	2.99
Over time, the level of social awareness of society will decrease	416	2.89
Over time, the level of political awareness of society will decrease	416	2.79
The level of education will decrease	416	3.13
The level of productivity of workers will decline	416	2.80
The contribution of individuals to society will decline	416	2.88
The quality of education outcomes will improve after privatization	416	2.64
Graduates will match the needs of the labor market after privatization	416	2.70
<b>Valid N (listwise)</b>	416	

### 5.1.2 Test Hypotheses

In order to test the hypotheses, the Crosstabs and Pearson Chi-Square test were run.

### Test Hypothesis 1:

$H_0$ : 'Students' perceptions about access to education is not affected by family size'

$H_1$ : 'Students' perceptions about access to education is affected by family size'

**Table (5.4):** How many brothers do you have \* Families will be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children Crosstabulation

		<b>(Families will be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children)</b>					<b>Total</b>	
		<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither agree or disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>		
(How many brothers do you have)	0	Count	6	8	3	0	0	17
		Expected Count	9.1	5.4	1.6	.6	.2	17.0
	1-3	Count	122	78	22	8	5	235
		Expected Count	126.0	74.6	22.6	8.5	3.4	235.0
	4-7	Count	82	38	14	5	1	140
		Expected Count	75.0	44.4	13.5	5.0	2.0	140.0
	More than 7	Count	13	8	1	2	0	24
		Expected Count	12.9	7.6	2.3	.9	.3	24.0
<b>Total</b>		Count	223	132	40	15	6	416
		Expected Count	223.0	132	40.0	15	6.0	416

**Table (5.5):** Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.116 <sup>a</sup>	12	.606
Likelihood Ratio	10.920	12	.536
N of Valid Cases	416		

a. 8 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .25.

As shown in table (5.4) and based on the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent, we find that:

- The expected number of respondents who have no brothers and strongly disagree with the statement ‘Families will be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children’ is higher than the actual number.
- The expected number of respondents who have 1-3 brothers and strongly disagree with the statement is higher than the actual number.

- The expected number of respondents who have 4-7 brothers and strongly disagree with the statement is less than the actual number.
- The expected number of respondents who have more than 7 brothers and strongly disagree with the statement is less than the actual number.

The Pearson Chi-Square statistic is insignificant where  $P > 0.1$ , so there is no evidence to support the contention of a correlation between the two variables. Thus, the null hypothesis will be accepted and the alternative hypothesis will be rejected, which means that access to education is not affected by family size from the students' perception.

**Table (5.6):** How many sisters do you have \* Families will be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children Cross tabulation

		<b>(Families will be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children)</b>					<b>Total</b>	
		<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither agree or disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>		
(How many sisters do you have)	0	Count	6	3	3	1	1	14
		Expected Count	7.5	4.4	1.3	.5	.2	14.0
	1-3	Count	102	68	24	8	4	206
		Expected Count	110.4	65.4	19.8	7.4	3.0	206.0
	4-7	Count	101	52	11	4	1	169
		Expected Count	90.6	53.6	16.3	6.1	2.4	169.0
	More than 7	Count	14	9	2	2	0	27
		Expected Count	14.5	8.6	2.6	1.0	.4	27.0
<b>Total</b>		Count	223	132	40	15	6	416
		Expected Count	223.0	132	40.0	15.0	6.0	416.0

**Table (5.7):** Chi-Square Tests

	<b>Value</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)</b>
Pearson Chi-Square	14.633 <sup>a</sup>	12	.262
Likelihood Ratio	13.116	12	.361
N of Valid Cases	416		

a. 9 cells (45.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .20.

As shown in table (5.6) and based on the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent, we find that:

- The expected number of respondents who have no sisters and strongly disagree with the statement ‘Families will be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children’ is higher than the actual number.
- The expected number of respondents who have 1-3 sisters and strongly disagree with the statement is less than the actual number.
- The expected number of respondents who have 4-7 sisters and strongly disagree with the statement is less than the actual number.

- The expected number of respondents who have more than 7 sisters and strongly disagree with the statement is higher than the actual number.

The Pearson Chi-Square statistic is insignificant where  $P > 0.1$ , so there is no evidence to support the contention of a correlation between the two variables. Thus, the null hypothesis will be accepted and the alternative hypothesis will be rejected, so we conclude that student perception about access to education is not affected by the students' family size.

**Test Hypothesis 2:**

*H<sub>0</sub>*: 'Access to education is not affected by gender'

*H<sub>1</sub>*: 'Access to education is affected by gender'

**Table (5.8): Gender \* Families will give priority to male education Crosstabulation**

		(Families will be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children)					Total	
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree		
(Gender)	Male	Count	26	20	24	32	10	112
		Expected Count	25.3	23.2	25.0	26.7	11.8	112.0
	Female	Count	68	66	69	67	34	304
		Expected Count	68.7	62.8	68.0	72.3	32.2	304.0
<b>Total</b>		Count	94	86	93	99	44	416
		Expected Count	94	86.0	93.0	99.0	44.0	416.0

**Table (5.9): Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.534 <sup>a</sup>	4	.639
Likelihood Ratio	2.512	4	.643
Linear-by-Linear Association	.083	1	.774
N of Valid Cases	416		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.85.

As shown in table (5.8) and based on the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent, the expected number of males who strongly disagree with the statement 'Families will give priority to male education' is less than the actual number. While the expected number of females who strongly disagree with this statement is higher than the actual number.

The Pearson Chi-Square statistic is insignificant where  $P > 0.1$ , so there is no evidence to support the contention of a correlation between the

two variables. Thus, the null hypothesis will be accepted and the alternative hypothesis will be rejected, so we conclude that from the students' perception there is no male biased access.

**Test Hypothesis 3:**

$H_0$ : 'Access to education is not affected by family income'

$H_1$ : 'Access to education is affected by family income'

**Table (5.10): Case Processing Summary**

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Income * All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education	358	86.1%	58	13.9%	416	100.0%

**Table (5.11): Family income \* All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education Crosstabulation**

		(All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education )					Total	
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree		
(Family income )	Less than 11000	Count	55	17	12	14	2	100
		Expected Count	48.9	22.6	12.0	10.3	6.1	100.0
	11000 15000	Count	51	30	14	8	10	113
		Expected Count	55.2	25.6	13.6	11.7	6.9	113.0
	15001 20000	Count	30	21	7	6	5	69
		Expected Count	33.7	15.6	8.3	7.1	4.2	69.0
	20001 25000	Count	25	9	9	7	1	51
		Expected Count	24.9	11.5	6.1	5.3	3.1	51.0
	More than 25001	Count	14	4	1	2	4	25
		Expected Count	12.2	5.7	3.0	2.6	1.5	25.0
<b>Total</b>		Count	175	81	43	37	22	358
		Expected Count	175.0	81.0	43.0	37.0	22.0	358.0

**Table (5.12): Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.749 <sup>a</sup>	16	.121
Likelihood Ratio	23.176	16	.109
Linear-by-Linear Association	.506	1	.477
N of Valid Cases	358		

a. 5 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.54 .

Looking at table (5.10), we notice that there are missing data which are the responses to the option 'I do not know' where they reached 58 responses.

As shown in table (5.11) and based on the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent, we find that:

- The expected number of respondents who strongly disagree with the statement 'All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education' from those whose income is less than 11,000 is less than the actual number.
- The expected number of respondents who strongly disagree with the statement from those whose income is between (11000–15000) is higher than the actual number.
- The expected number of respondents who strongly disagree with the statement from those whose income is between (15001–20000) is higher than the actual number.

- The expected number of respondents who strongly disagree with the statement from those whose income is between (20001–25000) is less than the actual number.
- The expected number of respondents who strongly disagree with the statement from those whose income is more than 25001 is less than the actual number.

The Pearson Chi-Square statistic is insignificant where  $P > 0.1$ , so there is no evidence to support the contention of a correlation between the two variables. Thus, the null hypothesis will be accepted and the alternative hypothesis will be rejected, which means that access to education is not affected by the family income from the students' perception.

**Test Hypothesis 4:**

*H<sub>0</sub>*: 'Work to fund education is not affected by gender'

*H<sub>1</sub>*: 'Work to fund education is affected by gender'

**Table (5.13): Gender \* Students will work to fund their education Crosstabulation**

		(Students will work to fund their education)					Total	
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree		
(Gender)	Male	Count	18	15	26	25	28	112
		Expected Count	14.3	16.4	22.1	36.1	23.2	112.0
	Female	Count	35	46	56	109	58	304
		Expected Count	38.7	44.6	59.9	97.9	62.8	304.0
<b>Total</b>		Count	53	61	82	134	86	416
		Expected Count	53.0	61.0	82.0	134.0	86.0	416.0

**Table (5.14): Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.500 <sup>a</sup>	4	.075
Likelihood Ratio	8.722	4	.068
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.397	1	.529
N of Valid Cases	416		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.27.

As shown in table (5.13) and based on the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent, the expected number of males who strongly disagree with the statement 'Students will work to fund their education' is less than the actual number. Also, the expected number of females who strongly disagree with this statement is higher than the actual number.

The Pearson Chi-Square statistic is 0.075 and this means that  $0.1 > P > 0.05$  so there is a weak evidence to support the contention of a correlation between the two variables. Thus, the null hypothesis

will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis will be accepted, which means that work to fund the education is affected by gender from the students' perception as females are more likely to work to fund their education than males.

**Test Hypothesis 5:**

*H<sub>0</sub>*: 'The contribution of individuals to society is not affected by access to education'

*H<sub>1</sub>*: 'The contribution of individuals to society is affected by access to education'

**Table (5.15):** All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education \* The contribution of individuals to society will decline Crosstabulation

			(The contribution of individuals to society will decline)					Total
			Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	
(All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education )	Strongly disagree	Count	35	42	41	40	44	202
		Expected Count	33.5	57.8	40.8	38.8	31.1	202.0
Disagree	Disagree	Count	10	41	16	22	10	99
		Expected Count	16.4	28.3	20.0	19.0	15.2	99.0
Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Count	7	11	16	8	6	48
		Expected Count	8.0	13.7	9.7	9.2	7.4	48.0
Agree	Agree	Count	9	17	6	7	2	41
		Expected Count	6.8	11.7	8.3	7.9	6.3	41.0
Strongly agree	Strongly agree	Count	8	8	5	3	2	26
		Expected Count	4.3	7.4	5.3	5.0	4.0	26.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>Total</b>	Count	69	119	84	80	64	416
		Expected Count	69.0	119.0	84.0	80.0	64.0	416.0

**Table (5.16):** Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37.974 <sup>a</sup>	16	.002
Likelihood Ratio	37.714	16	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.569	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	416		

a. 2 cells (8.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.00.

As shown in table (5.15) and based on the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent, the expected number of respondents who strongly disagree with the statement 'All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education' and the statement 'The contribution of individuals to society will decline' is less than the actual number.

The Pearson Chi-Square statistic is 0.002 and this means that  $P < 0.05$  which consider to be a strong evidence of the correlation between the two variables. Thus, the null hypothesis will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis will be accepted. This finding simply means

that those who see the equal access to education will be affected, also believe that contribution to society will decline.

**Test Hypothesis 6:**

$H_0$ : 'There is no impact of access to education on the level of awareness of society (cultural, social, and political) '

$H_1$ : 'There is an impact of access to education on the level of awareness of society (cultural, social, and political) '

● **Cultural Awareness:**

**Table (5.17):** All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education \* Over time, the level of cultural awareness of society will decrease Crosstabulation

			(Over time, the level of cultural awareness of society will decrease)					Total
			Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	
(All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education )	Strongly disagree	Count	40	28	38	41	55	202
		Expected Count	38.8	42.7	42.2	38.8	39.3	202.0
Disagree	Disagree	Count	15	30	22	19	13	99
		Expected Count	19.0	20.9	20.7	19.0	19.3	99.0
Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Count	8	9	15	11	5	48
		Expected Count	9.2	10.2	10.0	9.2	9.3	48.0
Agree	Agree	Count	9	16	4	8	4	41
		Expected Count	7.9	8.7	8.6	7.9	8.0	41.0
Strongly agree	Strongly agree	Count	8	5	8	1	4	26
		Expected Count	5.0	5.5	5.4	5.0	5.1	26.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>Total</b>	Count	80	88	87	80	81	416
		Expected Count	80.0	88.0	87.0	80.0	81.0	416.0

**Table (5.18): Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	41.160 <sup>a</sup>	16	.001
Likelihood Ratio	42.107	16	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.155	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	416		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.00.

• **Social Awareness:**

**Table (5.19):** All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education \* Over time, the level of social awareness of society will decrease Crosstabulation

		(Over time, the level of social awareness of society will decrease)					Total	
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree		
(All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education )	Strongly disagree	Count	36	34	42	57	33	202
		Expected Count	35.9	50.5	42.2	47.1	26.2	202.0
Disagree	Disagree	Count	16	35	21	19	8	99
		Expected Count	17.6	24.8	20.7	23.1	12.9	99.0
Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Count	7	12	14	10	5	48
		Expected Count	8.5	12.0	10.0	11.2	6.2	48.0
Agree	Agree	Count	7	18	2	10	4	41
		Expected Count	7.3	10.3	8.6	9.6	5.3	41.0
Strongly agree	Strongly agree	Count	8	5	8	1	4	26
		Expected Count	4.6	6.5	5.4	6.1	3.4	26.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>Total</b>	Count	74	104	87	97	54	416
		Expected Count	74.0	104.0	87.0	97.0	54.0	416.0

**Table (5.20): Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	38.008 <sup>a</sup>	16	.002
Likelihood Ratio	41.112	16	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.744	1	.009
N of Valid Cases	416		

a. 2 cells (8.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.38.

As shown in table (5.19) and based on the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent, the expected number of respondents who strongly disagree with the statement 'All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education' and the statement 'Over time, the level of social awareness of society will decrease' is less than the actual number.

The Pearson Chi-Square statistic is 0.002 and this means that  $P < 0.05$  which consider to be a strong evidence of the correlation between the two variables. Thus, the null hypothesis will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis will be accepted, which means that there is a dependence between access to education and the level of social awareness of society from the students' perception.

- **Political Awareness:**

**Table (5.21):** All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education \* Over time, the level of political awareness of society will decrease Crosstabulation

			<b>(Over time, the level of political awareness of society will decrease)</b>					
			<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neither agree or disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>	<b>Total</b>
(All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education)	Strongly disagree	Count	39	37	45	48	33	202
		Expected Count	37.4	52.0	52.0	37.4	23.3	202.0
Disagree	Disagree	Count	13	33	29	17	7	99
		Expected Count	18.3	25.5	25.5	18.3	11.4	99.0
Neither agree or disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Count	7	15	18	2	6	48
		Expected Count	8.9	12.3	12.3	8.9	5.5	48.0
Agree	Agree	Count	9	15	9	7	1	41
		Expected Count	7.6	10.5	10.5	7.6	4.7	41.0
Strongly agree	Strongly agree	Count	9	7	6	3	1	26
		Expected Count	4.8	6.7	6.7	4.8	3.0	26.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>Total</b>	Count	77	107	107	77	48	416
		Expected Count	77	107.0	107.0	77.0	48.0	416.0

**Table (5.22):** Chi-Square Tests

	<b>Value</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)</b>
Pearson Chi-Square	38.461 <sup>a</sup>	16	.001
Likelihood Ratio	41.674	16	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.031	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	416		

a. 4 cells (16.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.00.

As shown in table (5.21) and based on the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent, the expected number of respondents who strongly disagree with the statement 'All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education' and the statement 'Over time, the level of political awareness of society will decrease' is less than the actual number.

The Pearson Chi-Square statistic is 0.001 and this means that  $P=0.001$  which consider to be a strong evidence of the correlation between the two variables. Thus, the null hypothesis will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis will be accepted, which means that there is a dependence between access to education and the level of political awareness of society from the students' perception.

## 5.2 Limitation of The Study

This study was applied during the second semester of the academic year 2017-2018. These time limits were the reason why the researcher was confined to only one study population which is the students at state universities in Saudi Arabia. Where it was better to take into account the perceptions of the parents' population about the impact of introducing the tuition fees, in addition to students, and this is because parents are mostly responsible for paying tuition fees if they are applied to higher education.

## Chapter Six

### Findings And Recommendations

#### Introduction

This chapter shows the key findings of this study in response to the research objectives and links them to the literature and theoretical ground. The research limitations are considered and reviewed. This chapter also summaries the future recommendations in the light of the research's findings.

#### 6.1 Findings

By reviewing the previous chapter which dealt with the data analysis of this quantitative study, I found that the results of this study determine the perceptions of students towards the impact of introducing tuition fees to higher education in Saudi Arabia.

In sum, it can be said that the majority of students see that the introduction of tuition fees will affect access to education as they believe that families will not be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children. Consequently, all members of society will not have equal access to education. This perception has been confirmed by the agreement of 46.8 percent of students that the level of education in the future will be decreased if tuition fees are introduced. On the other hand, 44 percent of students believe that the

privatization of education will not be effective to the extent that improves the outcomes of education. Indeed, 42.2 percent do not believe that privatization will make the education outcomes compatible with the needs of the labor market.

### 6.1.1 Hypothesis 1

#### *'Access to education is affected by family size'*

The first hypothesis test indicated that students believe that family size does not affect perception about access to education if tuition fees are introduced. The proportion of respondents who strongly disagree with the statement 'Families will be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children' are the highest among the responses where they reached 53.6 percent, followed by those who disagree with the statement by 31.2 percent. But most opponents of the families' affordability of educating all their children were the students with 1-3 siblings. This indicates that the increase in the number of family members does not affect the perceptions of students toward access to education. The perceptions of students regarding the impact of family size on the access to education are not consistent with the study of (Downey 1995) where he found that the availability of parental resources is decreasing as the size of family increases. Among the parental resources are economic sources, which include the money saved for college as well as other resources. Downey proved that the economic resources, whether measured at the individual or family level, decline more quickly as family size grows. Another study done by Steelman and Powell in 1991, found that parents with one child are almost four times more probable to be convinced that parents instead of children should be responsible for funding education. On the other hand, parents with nine children are a little less probable to lay responsibility on the parent rather than the child.

### 6.1.2 Hypothesis 2

#### *'Access to education is affected by gender'*

The result here showed that the students believe that gender do not affects access to education where only 34.2 percent of respondents agree with the statement 'Families will give priority to male education' and 42.9 percent disagree with it. The perceptions of students here, is in line with reality where the General Authority for Statistics report for 2017 indicated that the number of male students enrolled in higher education amounted to 69 percent while the number of female students enrolled in higher education is higher than male students by 5 percent. These figures are before the introduction of fees but is it possible to remain the same after the introduction of tuition fees or we will see different figures. According to the students' perception founded in this study, there is a possibility that these figures will remain since students believe that there are no gender differences in access to education. If this perception is linked to the fourth hypothesis finding, which indicates that there is a higher tendency among female students to work to fund their education, we find a support for the continuation of these figures in the future if tuition fees are introduced.

Parental attitudes and preferences for one gender education to another are not universally similar. For instance, Japanese parents are more probable to desire to a university education for their sons than for daughters (Brinton 1988). On the other hand, parents may hold sons more responsible than daughters for university costs which evident in (Thomas, Schoeni and Strauss 1996) study where he found that in Brazil the mothers more likely to fund their daughters comparative to their sons. A study of (Stelman and Powell 1991) in the United States indicated that gender has no effect on parents' attitudes towards paying for higher education to their children.

There are some suggestions about the parents' preferences for gender to another when investing in education, among these suggestions (Alderman and King 1998; Steelman and Powell 1991):

- Parents may believe that sons must be more independent than daughters or that sons more able to be independent because it is simpler for them to obtain occupations to pay for university.
- If the expected financial earnings on education are less for females than males, then parents might be less willing to fund their daughter's than their son's education where although the quantity of females to male salaries is growing globally and is closer to one than is the ratio of incomes, but until now they are not the same even in the advanced industrial countries.
- Parents' earnings from their children such as the transfers from children to parents, or the amount of compassion or philanthropy, even when market earnings are not diverse for children themselves.

And here comes to our minds the possibility of shortcoming in the survey, where no question was asked about prioritizing females' education. Instead, the researcher assumed that if there is bias, it will be for males. While studies have shown that there is bias in female education in some countries. But can Saudi Arabia be among the countries that prioritize female education?

### 6.1.3 Hypothesis 3

#### *'Access to education is affected by family income'*

The third hypothesis test result showed that most responses fall in the two income categories: 'less than 11,000' and '11,001-15000', where it is consistent with the report of the General Authority for Statistics which indicated that the average income of the Saudi family per month is 10,723 SR. Also, most responses to all income categories were either strongly disagree or disagree with the statement 'All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education'. Thus, we conclude that family income does not affect students' perceptions toward access to education if tuition fees are introduced. The relationship between family income and the perception of students toward access to education is not consistent with the findings of the Long, Carpenter and Hayden study (1999) where they found that youth from families of better parental occupational position, higher parental educational achievement and larger family wealth were more probable to have finished Year 12, to have joined higher education from Year 12 and to have enrolled in higher education by age 19. In addition, Chapman and Ryan (2005) found that participation in higher education increases with the higher levels of wealth for people, whether they are males or females. The family income affects not only access to education but is an important factor in influencing the quality of higher education where Kinsler and Pavan (2011) study found that students from high-income families attend high- quality colleges, making family income affect the future wages for students by schooling choices.

### 6.1.4. Hypothesis 4

#### *'Work to fund education is affected by gender'*

The result here showed that the highest response was agreed to the statement 'Students will work to fund their education' by 50.6 percent. The results also showed that the highest response rate for females was agreed with the statement, and these responses exceeded the expected responses, while the lowest responses for females were strongly disagreed with the statement. On the other hand, the highest response rate for males was strongly agreed with the statement and they also exceeded the expected responses, while the lowest responses for males were disagreed with the statement. Overall, the results showed a tendency for students of both genders to believe students will work to fund their education. However, the tendency of females to work to fund their education is higher than that of males

where the percentage of females who agree or strongly agree with the statement is 54 percent, while the percentage of males is 47 percent. This tendency for females to agree is consistent with the higher Saudi females' enrollment rate in higher education compared with males, as mentioned earlier in the report of the General Authority for Statistics. The increase in the number of female students enrolled in higher education is in line with recent statistics in the United States which indicate that not only have females actually exceeded males in terms of degree achievement at the baccalaureate level, but at the master's level too. These statistics reveal the persistence and enthusiasm of females to complete their higher education regardless of the cost they will incur. A study conducted in the United States by (Morales 2008) found that females are more highly inspired by their post-college professional objectives than males, which explains the tendency of females to complete their higher education.

### 6.1.5 Hypothesis 5

#### ***'The contribution of individuals to society is affected by access to education'***

As a result of the fifth hypothesis test, students tend to disagree with the statements 'All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education' and 'The contribution of individuals to society will decline', where the majority of responses to the statement 'All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education' were disagreed which reached 72 percent. Also, 44.8 percent disagreed with the statement 'The contribution of individuals to society will decline'. By reviewing the results of the Chi-Square test, we find that the contribution of individuals to society is affected by access to education from the students' perceptions.

Students' perceptions here are consistent with (Baum, Ma and Payea 2013) where they see that the advantages of investing in higher education are divided between students and the societies of which they are part of. These benefits include:

- People with college degrees gain more than others and get improved working circumstances, thus they contribute more to society, both by higher tax payments and by their civic participation.
- College educated individuals give their children advantages that rise the likelihood that the next generation will flourish and will contribute to society in a diversity of ways.
- Individuals with higher levels of education are more probable to involve in regular volunteer work, to recognize political matters.
- College-educated people are more probable to follow healthy lifestyles where they smoke less, workout more and have lower fatness rates, therefore decrease the medical expenses for society as a whole.
- Mothers with higher levels of education devote more time for their children's activities which means that contribution to postsecondary education enhance the standard of civil society.

### 6.1.6 Hypothesis 6

#### ***'There is an impact of access to education on the level of awareness of society (cultural, social, and political)'***

The results of the sixth hypothesis test showed that there is a strong correlation between access to education and the level of awareness of society from the students' perceptions, where the highest responses for the statements: 'Over time, the level of cultural awareness of society will decrease', 'Over time, the level of social awareness of society will decrease', and 'Over time, the level of political awareness of society will decrease' were disagreed as shown in the tables (5.17, 5.19, 5.21).

Usually, higher education's role has encompassed educating nationals, providing support to domestic and regional societies, conserving

knowledge and making it obtainable to the society, working in unison with other social institutes such as government or health-care agencies to reinforce their works, evolving knowledge over research, improving the arts and humanities, improving the mental talents of students, and preparing leaders for several parts of the public sector (Kezar 2004). But many studies have shown that the level of students' awareness, whether social, cultural, or political awareness, is not solely educational. There are even other sources that more affect students' awareness such as the parents, the personal development, and the mass media (Beagan 2003; Pasek *et al.* 2006; Alharthi 2014). These studies are not consistent with students' perceptions of the impact of education on the level of awareness of society.

### 6.2 Recommendations for Future

In the future, if tuition fees are introduced to Saudi Arabia's higher education, the researcher provide these recommendations for the government:

- Since the benefits of higher education are divided between the individual and society and are also affects the economy, the cost of higher education accordingly divided between students and the public purse where part of the cost be paid by students while the other part is covered by the government (Biff and Issac 2002).
- Provide grants to students from low-income families to give equal opportunities of enrolment and expand access to students from different socioeconomic backgrounds. also, provide grants to the most qualified, high-achieving students to specific programmes or institutions (Vossensteyn 2009).
- Provide loans to students and make repayment available based on the income contingent. Income-contingent loans was introduced for the first time by Australia where the Australian government established Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS). The main stimulus for the introduction of the HECS system was raising the earnings of higher education institutions, without creating financial barriers to enrolment in higher education. This system provides students with loans to fund their tuition fees and allow them to defer their repayments until they start earning an annual income up to the threshold (Vossensteyn and Canton 2001; Biff and Issac 2002; Johnstone 2004). This way will increase accessibility by enabling the potential students, without parental or other sources of support, to finance their own higher education (Johnstone 2004).

For future research, the researcher recommends studying parents' perceptions about the impact of introducing tuition fees, because they are most likely to pay for their children's education fees and they know their income level and the cost of living, therefore their perceptions will be more accurate than the students' perceptions. On the other hand, after applying the privatization program to higher education in Saudi Arabia, it will be important to study the implications of privatization to education both in terms of students' access to higher education, matching the needs of the labour market, or the improvement in the quality of education outcomes.

### References

1. Alamri, M. (2011). Higher Education in Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice*, 11(4), p.88.
2. Alderman, H. and King, E.M. (1998). Gender differences in parental investment in education. *Structural Change and Economic Dynamics*, 9(4), pp.453-468.
3. Alharthi, M. (2014). *Social awareness and its relation to social responsibility among high school students in Riyadh*. Master. Naif Arab University for Security Sciences.
4. Barja, G., McKenzie, D. J. and Urquiola, M. (2005). Capitalization and privatization in Bolivia: an approximation to an evaluation. In *Reality Check: The Distributional Impact of Privatization in Developing*

- Countries. Nellis, J. and Birdsall, N. (eds). Center for Global Development, Washington.
5. Baum, S., Ma, J. and Payea, K. (2013). Education Pays, 2013: The Benefits of Higher Education for Individuals and Society. Trends in Higher Education Series. *College Board*.
  6. Beagan, B.L. (2003). Teaching social and cultural awareness to medical students: "It's all very nice to talk about it in theory, but ultimately it makes no difference". *Academic Medicine*, 78(6), pp.605-614.
  7. Brinton, Mary C. (1988). "The Social-Institutional Bases of Gender Stratification: Japan as an Illustrative Case." *American Journal of Sociology* 94:300-334.
  8. Bunce, L, Baird, A, and Jones, S.E. (2017). The student-as-consumer approach in higher education and its effects on academic performance. *Studies in Higher Education*, 42(11), pp.1958-1978.
  9. Canton, E, and De Jong, F. (2005). The demand for higher education in the Netherlands, 1950–1999. *Economics of Education Review*, 24(6), pp.651-663.
  10. Chapman, B. and Ryan, C. (2005). The access implications of income-contingent charges for higher education: lessons from Australia. *Economics of Education Review*, 24(5), pp.491-512.
  11. Downey, D.B. (1995). When bigger is not better: Family size, parental resources, and children's educational performance. *American sociological review*, pp.746-761.
  12. Ehrenberg, R.G. (2006). The perfect storm and the privatization of public higher education. *Change: The magazine of higher learning*, 38(1), pp.46-53.
  13. Ennis, H. and Pinto, S. (2002). November. Privatization and income distribution in Argentina. In *Center for Global Development Conference on Privatization and Income Distribution*, February. Weblink: [http://www.cgdev.org/events/privatization/EnnisPinto\\_Argentina\\_paper.Pdf](http://www.cgdev.org/events/privatization/EnnisPinto_Argentina_paper.Pdf).
  14. Feigenbaum, H.B. and Henig, J.R. (1994). The political underpinnings of privatization: A typology. *World Politics*, 46(2), pp.185-208.
  15. Galal, A. and Shirley, M.M. eds. (1994). *Does privatization deliver? highlights from a World Bank conference* (Vol. 93). World Bank Publications.
  16. General Authority for Statistics. (2018). Education and Training Survey. [Online] Available at: [https://www.stats.gov.sa/sites/default/files/education\\_and\\_training\\_survey\\_2017\\_ar.pdf](https://www.stats.gov.sa/sites/default/files/education_and_training_survey_2017_ar.pdf) [Accessed 9 April 2018].
  17. General Authority for Statistics. (2018). Household Expenditure and Income Survey 3013. [Online] Available at: [https://www.stats.gov.sa/sites/default/files/msH\\_nfq\\_wdkhl\\_lsr\\_2013\\_m.pdf](https://www.stats.gov.sa/sites/default/files/msH_nfq_wdkhl_lsr_2013_m.pdf) [Accessed 9 April 2018]. General Authority for Statistics. (2018). The Population of Saudi Arabia. [Online] Available at: <https://www.stats.gov.sa/ar/indicators/1> [Accessed 9 April 2018].
  18. Groat, L.N, Wang, D. (2013). *Architectural Research Methods*, John Wiley & Sons, San Francisco.
  19. Gupta, M.S., Ma, M.H. and Schiller, M.C. (1999). *Privatization, social impact, and social safety nets*. International Monetary Fund.
  20. Gupta, N., Ham, J. and Svejnar, J. (2001). Priorities and sequencing in privatization: Theory and evidence from the Czech Republic.
  21. Hanke, S.H. (1985). Privatization: Theory, evidence, and implementation. *Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science*, 35(4), pp.101-113.
  22. Hemelt, S.W, and D.E. Marcotte. (2008). Rising tuition and enrollment in public higher education. IZA Discussion Paper No. 3827. Bonn: IZA Institute for the Study of Labor.
  23. Hübner, M. (2012). Do tuition fees affect enrollment behavior? Evidence from a 'natural experiment' in Germany. *Economics of Education Review*, 31(6), pp.949-960.
  24. Jamshidi, L., Arasteh, H., NavehEbrahim, A., Zeinabadi, H. and Rasmussen, P.D. (2012). Developmental patterns of privatization in higher education: a comparative study. *Higher Education*, 64(6), pp.789-803.
  25. Johnstone, D.B. (2004). Cost-sharing and equity in higher education: Implications of income contingent loans. In *Markets in Higher Education* (pp. 37-59). *Springer*, Dordrecht.
  26. Kezar, A.J. (2004). Obtaining integrity? Reviewing and examining the charter between higher education and society. *The Review of Higher Education*, 27(4), pp.429-459.
  27. Kinsler, J. and Pavan, R. (2011). Family income and higher education choices: The importance of accounting for college quality. *Journal of Human Capital*, 5(4), pp.453-477.
  28. Knight-John, M.A.L.A.T.H.Y. and Athukorala, P.W. (2005). Assessing privatization in Sri Lanka: Distribution and governance. *Reality Check: The Distributional Impact of Privatization in Developing Countries*, pp.389-426.
  29. Kornai, J. (1986). The soft budget constraint. *Kyklos*, 39(1), pp.3-30.
  30. Krejcie, R.V. and Morgan, D.W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and psychological measurement*, 30(3), pp.607-610.
  31. Kwiek, M. (2009). "The Two Decades of Privatization in Polish Higher Education: Cost- Sharing, Equity and Access." In *Financing Access and Equity in Higher Education*, ed. Jane Knight. Rotterdam: Sense.
  32. La Porta, R. and Lopez-de-Silanes, F. (1999). The benefits of privatization: Evidence from Mexico. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114(4), pp.1193-1242.
  33. Levine, A. (2001). *Privatization in higher education. Privatizing education: Can the marketplace deliver choice, efficiency, equity, and social cohesion*, pp.133-50.
  34. Long, M., Carpenter, P. and Hayden, M. (1999). *Participation in Education and Training, 1980-1994. Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth. Research Report*. ACER Customer Service, Private Bag 55, Camberwell, Victoria 3124 Australia (Code: A113LSA; \$37.50 Australian).
  35. Marcucci, P.N, and Johnstone, D.B. (2007). Tuition fee policies in a comparative perspective: Theoretical and political rationales. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 29(1), pp.25-40.
  36. Maxwell-Stuart, R, Taheri, B, Paterson, A.S, O'Gorman, K, and Jackson, W. (2016). Working together to increase student satisfaction: exploring the effects of mode of study and fee status. *Studies in Higher Education*, pp.1-13.
  37. McFetridge, D.G. (1997). *The Economics of Privatization*, C.D. Howe Institute, Toronto.
  38. McKenzie, D. and Mookherjee, D. (2005). Paradox and perception: Evidence from four Latin American countries. *J. Nellis y N. Birdsall (comps.)*, *Reality Check: The distributional Impact of Privatization in developing Countries*. Washington, DC, Center for Global Development, pp.33-84.
  39. Ministry of Education. (2018). About Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. [Online] Available at: <https://www.moe.gov.sa/en/HigherEducation/ResidentsandVisitors/Pages/AboutKingdomofSaudiArabia.aspx> [Accessed 9 April 2018].
  40. Ministry of Education. (2018). Private Higher Education Colleges. [Online] Available at: <https://www.moe.gov.sa/en/HigherEducation/PrivateHigherEducation/Pages/PrivateHigherEducationColleges.aspx> [Accessed 10 April 2018].
  41. Ministry of Education. (2018). Private Higher Education Universities. [Online] Available at: <https://www.moe.gov.sa/en/HigherEducation/PrivateHigherEducation/Pages/PrivateHigherEducationUniversities.aspx> [Accessed 10 April 2018].
  42. Ministry of Education. (2018). State Universities. [Online] Available at: <https://www.moe.gov.sa/en/HigherEducation/governmenthighereducation/StateUniversities/Pages/default.aspx> [Accessed 10 April 2018].

43. Morales, E.E. (2008). Exceptional female students of color: Academic resilience and gender in higher education. *Innovative Higher Education*, 33(3), pp.197-213.
44. Nellis, J.R. (2007). Privatization in developing countries: a summary assessment. *SAIS Review of International Affairs*, 27(2), pp.3-29.
45. Nellis, J.R. and Shirley, M.M. (1992). *Privatization: the lessons of experience*. World Bank Publications.
46. Pasek, J., Kenski, K., Romer, D. and Jamieson, K.H. (2006). America's youth and community engagement: How use of mass media is related to civic activity and political awareness in 14-to 22-year-olds. *Communication Research*, 33(3), pp.115-135.
47. Patrinos, H.A. (1990). The privatization of higher education in Colombia: Effects on quality and equity. *Higher Education*, 20(2), pp.161-173.
48. Savas, E.S. (2000). *Privatization and public-private partnerships*, Chatham House, NJ: Chatham House.
49. Sedgwick, R. (2001). Education in Saudi Arabia. *World education news and reviews*, 16.
50. Servén, L., Solimano, A. and Soto, R. (1994). The Macroeconomics of Public Enterprise Reform and Privatization: Theory and Evidence from Developing Countries. *Macroeconomics and Growth Division, Policy Research Department*, The World Bank.
51. Sheshinski, E. and López-Calva, L.F. (1998). Privatization and its benefits: theory and evidence. *CESifo Economic Studies*, 49(3), pp.429-459.
52. Steelman, L.C. and Powell, B. (1991). Sponsoring the next generation: Parental willingness to pay for higher education. *American journal of Sociology*, 96(6), pp.1505-1529.
53. Thomas, D., Schoeni, R., Strauss, J. (1996). Parental investment in schooling: gender and household resource allocation in urban Brazil. RAND. Labor and Productivity Working Paper Series 96-102.
54. Thomas, J.R, Silverman, S, Nelson, J. (2015). *Research Methods in Physical Activity*, 7E, Human Kinetics, United States.
55. Tilak, J.B. (1991). The privatization of higher education. *Prospects*, 21(2), pp.227-239.
56. Vickers, J. and Yarrow, G. (1991). Economic perspectives on privatization. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 5(2), pp.111-132.
57. Vossensteyn, H. (2009). Challenges in student financing: State financial support to students—A worldwide perspective. *Higher Education in Europe*, 34(2), pp.171-187.
58. Vossensteyn, H. and Canton, E. (2001). Tuition fees and accessibility: the Australian HECS. *Higher Education Reform: Getting the Incentive Right*, The Hague.
59. Wilkins, S, Shams, F, and Huisman, J. (2013). The decision-making and changing behavioural dynamics of potential higher education students: the impacts of increasing tuition fees in England. *Educational Studies*, 39(2), pp.125-141.
60. Wilkinson, R. and Yussof, I. (2005). Public and private provision of higher education in Malaysia: A comparative analysis. *Higher Education*, 50(3), pp.361-386.
61. Yarrow, G. (1986), 'Privatization in theory and practice', *Economic Policy*, 1(2), pp. 323-377.

## Appendix 1

### Students' Perceptions about The Impact of Introducing Tuition Fees to Higher Education

1. Please indicate your gender  
Mark only one box.
  - Male
  - Female
2. Please indicate your age  
Mark only one box.
  - Under 21/ 21
  - 21 and above/ 21
3. Please indicate your college  
Mark only one box.
  - College of Education
  - College of Social Services
  - College of Arts
  - College of Languages and Translation
  - College of Science
  - College of Business Administration
  - College of Computer and Information Sciences
  - College of Arts and Design
  - College of Nursing
  - College of Pharmacy
  - College of Dentistry
  - College of Medicine
  - College of Health and Rehabilitation Sciences
  - College of Arabic Language
  - College of Economics and Administrative Sciences

College of Sharia  
 College of Fundamentals of Religion  
 College of Media and Communication  
 College of Engineering

4. Please indicate your martial status  
 Mark only one box.

Single  
 Married  
 Divorced  
 Widow/widower

5. Do you have children  
 Mark only one box.

Yes  
 No

6. How many sons do you have  
 Mark only one box.

0  
 1-3  
 More than 3/ 3

7. many daughters do you have  
 Mark only one box.

0  
 1-3  
 More than 3/ 3

8. How many brothers do you have  
 Mark only one box.

0  
 1-3  
 4-7  
 More than 7/ 7

9. How many sisters do you have  
 Mark only one box.

0  
 1-3  
 4-7  
 More than 7/ 7

For each of the following statements, how much you agree or disagree

10. If tuition fees are applied in higher education in Saudi Arabia, then:  
 Mark only one box per row.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Families will be able to afford the expenses of educating all their children					
Families will give priority to male education					
All members of society will have equal opportunity to access education					
Students will work to fund their education					

Graduates will match the needs of the labor market after privatization

Over time, the level of social awareness of society will decrease

Over time, the level of political awareness of society will decrease

The level of education will decrease

The level of productivity of workers will decline

The contribution of individuals to society will decline

The quality of education outcomes will improve after privatization

Graduates will match the needs of the labor market after privatization

#### Untitled section

11. Have you studied in public or private schools  
Mark only one box.

Always public schools

Always private schools

Both (public and private schools)

12. Do your parents work  
Mark only one box.

Father works only

Mother works only

Both parents work

13. Total family income per month  
Mark only one box.

Less than 11,000/ 11,000

11,000-15,000

15,001-20,000

20,001-25,000

More than 25,001/ 25,001

I don't know

#### Students' Perception about the Impact of Introducing Tuition Fees to Higher Education in Saudi Arabia

Thesis presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for MSc. in Business Administration

Supervisors:

Dr. Ann Largey

Dr. Hawazen Almugren

Dublin City University

Business School

May 2018

#### Declaration

Student Name: Norah Khalid Alfawaz

Student Number: 16213817

Programme: MSc. in Business Administration

Project Title: Students' Perception about the Impact of Introducing Tuition Fees to Higher Education in Saudi Arabia  
Module Code: MG574P  
Lecturer: Dr. Ann Largey  
Project Due Date May 2018

### **Declaration**

"I hereby certify that this material, which I submit for assessment on the programme of study leading to the award of MSc. in Business Administration is entirely my own work and has not been taken from the work of others save and to the extent that such work has been cited and acknowledged within the text of my work"

Student Number: 16213817

### **Acknowledgements**

I would like to thank everyone who contributed to the preparation and completion of this study whether by providing support, guidance or assistance.

At first, I would like to thank my supervisors, Dr. Ann Largey and Dr. Hawazen Almugren, for the time and effort they devoted to complete this study smoothly. My deep appreciation for your support, guidance and patience during the course of my research.

I would also like to thank all the participants in this study. I am grateful for your valuable contribution in completing this study.

Many thanks to my aunt Dr. Azizah Alrowais for all the advice and guidance in all aspects of the research. I appreciate the time and assistance you have given me.

I would further like to thank my friends for keeping up my spirits over the past two years.

Last but not least, my thanks and deep appreciation to my family: my parents, my husband, my daughter, my sisters, and my brothers. I am grateful for your patience, support, and encouragement throughout my life. I hope you are proud of this work, which I dedicate to you.