RELEVANCE OF THE LOCAL PEOPLE'S SOCIO-CULTURAL VALUES IN THE LANDSCAPE DEVELOPMENT OF RECREATIONAL SEA FRONTS OF SAUDI ARABIA: THE CASE OF DAMMAM

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Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Landscape Architecture

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In the name of Allah the most Compassionate and the most Merciful

To the ones who loved me more than their selves, my parents, and to my beloved wife and my daughters Manar, Mohjak, and Meerna. I respectfully dedicate this work.
DECLARATION

This thesis has been authored by myself and is my original work.

Mohammed Masoud Al-Abdullah
ABSTRACT

In Saudi Arabia two massive and costly coastal land reclamations and developments were undertaken in the 1980s to define the borders of the expansion of two main coastal cities towards the sea. The first was started in the city of Jeddah on the Red Sea, and the second was started in the Dammam metropolitan area on the Arabian Gulf, to the west and the east of Saudi Arabia respectively. Two coastal roads were constructed on the shoreline of these two cities.

In the meantime recent changes in Saudi society, in particular an increase in the population and a rise in the standard of living, had led to a greater demand for open air leisure areas. This demand resulted in the creation of a number of outdoor recreational facilities, especially in coastal regions, and particularly involving waterfront developments along the coastal roads. However, since the concept of public leisure projects was relatively new to Saudi Arabia, these developments were based largely upon facilities found in the western world and followed designs and patterns which ignored a crucial factor: the socio-cultural background of the main users of the areas concerned, the local Saudi population. There was a lack of basic information about picnicking, the most common outdoor recreational activity practised by the people, and their behaviour in relation to it.

Taking the case of the recreational sea front of the city of Dammam, and set against the background of the nature and history of recreational activity in Saudi Arabia, this study investigates the part played by the socio-cultural background of the local users of the sea front, and its effect on their picnicking behaviour there, in order to assist in providing appropriate information for landscape architects and other decision makers involved in the planning and design of outdoor leisure facilities in Saudi Arabia.

Using a qualitative investigative approach, fieldwork was undertaken at the Dammam recreational sea front, concentrating on the picnicking of the local families. The fieldwork consisted both of observation and interviews, and covered the picnicking activities of the families in regard to the selection and use of picnicking sites and of places within those sites. An analysis of the findings of the fieldwork shows that the behaviour of families using the sea front may be understood as attempts to adapt the not entirely suitable existing physical environment to their socio-cultural values. This is especially so as these relate to the desire to maximise the recreational benefit of their leisure time combined with the need to maintain values associated with factors such as privacy and territoriality. Interview results, where preferences could be expressly stated, confirm observation findings. An analysis of the fieldwork findings has identified specific factors, strongly related to the socio-cultural values of local families, which are important in determining the relationships that create harmony between the recreational behaviour patterns and the physical context of the picnic settings.
The development of suitable recreational sea fronts, then, depends not only on the technical expertise of landscape architects, but also on a proper understanding of the role played by socio-cultural factors in the requirements of the users. Steps should be taken, both in the training of landscape architects and in the monitoring of plans for leisure areas, which will enable them to develop facilities which will be appropriate to the needs, aspirations, and values of their primary users, the local people.

The potential for further study in this area exists. A quantitative approach could help establish more exact data about the preferences of local users of recreational facilities, and thus more precise criteria for their design. This would also help in site management. And the possibility exists for research into the impact of sea front developments on natural resources and ecology.
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CHAPTER ONE : INTRODUCTION

1.1 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

1.1.1 Reasons for this research (justification)

The existence of a natural water-related environment has played an increasingly important role in the improvement and development of the urban environment (Breen and Rigby, 1994). In the 1980s many sea front and waterfront developments in various countries were launched by the political and economic interests which characterised this period (Malone, 1996). Saudi Arabia is one of these countries.

The sea front developments and land reclamation undertaken in the early 1980s by the Saudi local authorities on both coastal areas bordering Saudi Arabia (see Fig. 1.1), the Red Sea to the west, and the Arabian Gulf to the east, reflect this dynamic urban development. These massive costly coastal land developments were undertaken to define the borders of the coastal cities' expansion towards the sea (CH2M Hill Report, 1985). This definition resulted in the construction of a coastal road along the waters of the Arabian Gulf. The CH2M Hill Report (1985) stated:

"The principal Corniche concept is to establish a permanent shoreline and to allocate appropriate land uses in relationship to this fixed shoreline. Implementation of this concept could provide a solution to difficult issues of ownership and development rights and deserves high priority for study in the continuing planning process." (CH2M Hill Report, 1985 : 63)

In the meantime, as a result of rapid development and growth, an increase in the population and the rise of the standard of living in Saudi Arabia, there was a demand for regulating the use of the outdoors, which has become more important than ever, and the demand for open spaces in which to enjoy leisure times that have increased so tremendously (Al-Sebeai, 1992).
As a result, the idea came about of developing sea fronts recreationally in Saudi Arabia by utilising more fully the areas surrounding the coastal roads, to meet the expected increasing requirements of the local population for more coastal parks, recreational spaces, and leisure time beach facilities (Ministry of Planning, 1990). Socially, in connection with this, the recreational benefits of such projects have been reiterated by the Ministry of Planning in its statement of the future outlook for the Kingdom in the 5th Five Year Development Plan:

"The effective realisation of the strategic long-term environmental objectives requires an understanding of the wider aims of development so that 'quality of life' (with its cultural, spiritual, environmental and recreational dimensions) rather than the mere pursuit of material possessions, should become the principal criterion of success and achievement...... While this is a long-term process of reorienting some lifestyles, it is one that is actively encouraged by the tenets of Islam and its Shariah. Social policies must aim to ensure that the entire Saudi population has more opportunity to participate in the fields of culture, education, sports and recreation, the arts and humanities - these non-material areas of development which represent the highest levels of human achievement" (Ministry of Planning, 1990: 8-9)

![Map of Saudi Arabia](image_url)

Figure 1.1: Map of Saudi Arabia, and location of the Dammam metropolitan area.
Malone (1996) in his book 'City, Capital and Water' came up with the conclusion that waterfront developments are generated by both common and individual factors. These factors reflect different local contexts for planning and factors that can be traced back to the international framework for urban development, but insofar as they have common origins they raise general questions about the future for waterfront development. Further, he points out that the factors which drove urban development in the 1980s are now diminished or spent, and therefore the question arises as to the nature of the forces that will carry waterfront developments into the next century. In relation to this, as sea front developments for recreational purposes are one type of waterfront development, this research intends to understand the relevance of a force that is assumed to be the most important among other forces. This force is the socio-cultural values of the sea fronts' users, and it is expected to play a significant role in the landscape development of these recreational sea fronts.

The concept of public recreational projects in their present form, however, is fairly new to Saudi society and thus they have emerged without local precedent, with designs based on foreign examples (Al-Abdullah, 1991; Bahammam, 1995). Some of the current projects are huge in both size and cost, like the recreational sea fronts. All too often these designs have imposed foreign design ideas and values, and have ignored the local users' socio-cultural values, which, in order to achieve maximum potential, has to be an important factor influencing the development process and its final product.

Moreover, consultant planners and designers have not considered carefully the force of either the natural or the man-made qualities of the physical environment of the developed areas. However, the mentioned above forces should each play a very important role in creating an outdoor built environment, and blend together as a unified whole, each affecting and affected by the other as they function as parts of a single system (Altman and Chemers, 1984).
In fact, many in the field of human environmental behaviour, in particular Rapoport in his various articles and books (1969, 1976, 1980, 1982, 1990a & b, 1995), Altman (1975, 1977, 1984, 1989) agree that the two forces mentioned above are foremost among the interacting and guiding principles of people’s behaviour in the built environment. Further, in the same vein, it is argued that social aspects in general and socio-cultural values specifically influence the final form of the built environment in a primary way, while the physical aspects are secondary (Sommer, 1982; Altman, 1989; Rapoport, 1990a; and Bahammam, 1995). It is on this latter basis that the research approach of the present study has been set up, where the relationship between the locals’ socio-cultural values and the landscape development of recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia is investigated.

Among the aforementioned newly established huge recreation projects in Saudi Arabia is the Eastern Province Corniche. It is located along the eastern coastline of Saudi Arabia on the Arabian Gulf, where most of the land in the Corniche zone has been created by filling in the shallow tidal shelf exposed at low tide (see Fig. 1.2).

Figure 1.2 : The technique of land reclamation was undertaken to create the Corniche of Dammam metropolitan area. (Source: Municipality of Dammam city, 1991)
The Dammam metropolitan Corniche, now including the recreational sea front, goes some way towards fulfilling the region's need for recreation spaces and leisure facilities. It is so far only partially completed, with only 20km out of the total 50km of the project area developed. The developed parts are located on the sea edges of Al-Khobar city and Dammam city; they are 13 and 7km long respectively. The Al-Khobar development is mainly a wide passageway (road) for cars with very narrow strips of grass areas located alongside water's edge between the promenade and the pavement of the road (footpath), whereas the Dammam sea front is mainly a recreational development (CH2M Hill Report, 1985). The urban fabric of the Dammam metropolitan area is within easy access, and since there is no fee charged for the recreational facilities, the recreational sea front of Dammam (see Fig. 1.3) has become increasingly popular amongst both locals and visitors to the area. Al-Abdullah (1991) concludes:

"Because of the attractiveness and popularity of Eastern province beaches and coastal resources, the Dammam metropolitan coastal area has become a centre of sea-related recreation and leisure time facilities for many Saudi and non-Saudi families today."

(Al-Abdullah M., 1991 : 88)

Figure 1.3 : Coastal area of the Dammam metropolitan, showing the location of Dammam recreational sea front. (Source : Dammam Municipality, 1991)
It has been noticed by the author that the proportion of local (Saudi) families in relation to the total number of users of the recreational sea front is low\(^1\), even though they form the major element in society (Ministry of Planning, 1994). In general, however, local families do enjoy outdoor recreation, and in particular they form the largest percentage of visitors to natural beaches, as opposed to the recreational sea front, in the eastern province (Beeah Group, 1985 and Al-Abdullah, 1991). However, many recreational activities such as walking for pleasure, taking children to the playgrounds, and many others are carried out by the local families visiting Dammam recreational sea front. ‘Picnicking’ is the term that describes all or some of these activities in a mix as one performed activity\(^2\) (see Fig.1.4).

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\(^1\) For more detail see Chapter Five of this study.

\(^2\) This information has been generated from a pilot study of the Dammam recreational sea front for the purpose of this research, undertaken in 1995 during the evenings of the summer months (April - October inclusive) which are peak times for sea front use during the year. The sea front is also used in the afternoons on an irregular basis during the mild months of the year (March and November). For more information see the relevant section in Chapter Five of this thesis.
Yet, there are frequent complaints from regular local users, some obtained from exploratory field observation, and others published in the media (see Fig. 1.5). These show that most of the public recreational projects, including the Dammam sea front, are not suitable for the local families in relation to their social requirements, which are not fully catered for by the current environmentally related recreational facilities.

To put it another way, a more appropriate matching of the users' social requirements and the physical features of the area would shape more functional and convenient recreational leisure facilities for them.

Figure 1.5: Sample of the native users' frequent complaints and their correspondence in the newspapers regarding the inadequacy of the existing public recreational facilities in Saudi Arabia, including recreational sea fronts, due to the lack of consideration given to the native users' recreational behaviour. (ALYUM NEWS PAPER 7736, 20 AUG. 1994: 2)

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3 This information was obtained from the exploratory field observation and informal discussions among commuters and the local families that use the Dammam recreational sea front, in the pilot study for this research.
Since the Dammam sea front project is very new (it was opened officially in the summer of 1992), it presents a valuable chance to conduct a post-occupancy evaluation in relation to the use of the project. However, for the purposes of this study the evaluation of Dammam recreational sea front will be limited to the behavioural settings of the local families using it for picnicking. This will help in defining the socio-cultural factors that influence the landscape development of picnicking sites and places on recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia, so that an attempt may be made to suit better all their users in general, and the local users in particular.

In general, the convenience and suitability of the built environment for its users are normally strongly related to the symbolic meanings which the users hold and how the built environment reflects or respects these meanings (Rapoport, 1995). In connection with this, Rapoport (1984, and 1995) points out that the 'meaning' of aspects of the built environment is not something apart from function, but is itself a most important aspect of function. Moreover, for certain people the 'meanings' of the built environment, including the outdoors, are related to their specific shared images and values which are part of their cultural background, and in turn lead to judgements and choices in the built environment (Rapoport, 1984, 1990a & b, and Sommer, 1982). The study of meaning in this context is the study of the logic of culture applied to the built environment (Rapoport, 1995).

Thus, when referring to the 'meaning' of the built environment, we refer to all those aspects beyond the face value of its physical properties, to all things in life to which people attach significance and value, including their purposes, their ideas and their beliefs, which are expressed through choices they make about the built environment and their patterns of behaviour in the built environment (Rapoport, 1995). Moreover, there must be a fitness and coherence between the development and its purpose (Rapoport, 1990b).
This research gives appropriate attention to the previously mentioned relationship between socio-cultural values and related behaviour in the built environment, because if information about the local users' behaviour at the recreational sea fronts is made available, then we will be in a better position to develop them effectively.

In fact, some research has already been conducted in the field of landscape architecture in relation to the development of outdoor recreation areas in Saudi Arabia. Among them, only three were conducted in relation to the involvement of the social and cultural aspects of the Saudi users, in developing open spaces. These mainly dealt with natural beaches in Dammam City (Al-Abdullah, 1991), public gardens in Jeddah City (Al-Shahrani, 1992) and public gardens with road sides in Al-Riyadh City (Bahammam, 1995), in the east, the west and the centre of Saudi Arabia respectively. However, because the urban development of Dammam recreational sea front is so recent, no research has yet been conducted to investigate the influence or impact of the socio-cultural values of local users on its landscape development.

In relation to this, Breen and Rigby (1984) have pointed out that the social and cultural needs of any development beneficiaries must be considered centrally in developing any built environment, including waterfronts, which are considered to be unique spaces. Further, it is argued that the massive development of the recreational projects in Saudi Arabia should be considered in general as environmental designs (Al-shahrani, 1992); this includes the recreational sea fronts. Therefore, it can be said that the general satisfaction of the main beneficiaries of the recreational sea fronts for whom a project is developed, and their social and cultural convenience in particular, must be part of the main goal when developing such projects. In relation to this Rutledge states: "Environmental designs must service the behavioural needs of the people." (Rutledge, 1985: 2).
The main beneficiaries of any public outdoor space developments, however, are the 'people', taking into consideration the development of the environmental settings of the developed area.

In relation to this, Cernea (1985) argues that putting people first in development programmes must be seen and understood as a scientifically grounded request to policy makers, planners, designers and technical experts explicitly to recognise the centrality the primary factors in the development processes. In connection with this, Yuan says: "Without knowing the type of experiences which will satisfy the public's recreational needs, it is difficult to know the correct type of opportunities to provide." (Yuan, 1990: 1). Moreover, in the same vein Mahadin (1993) argues that the design of outdoor spaces, the conservation of our natural resources and the creation of a more useful, safe and pleasant environment has to satisfy the needs of the people using them.

To recapitulate, people should come first at all stages of the development of projects that will affect them. Putting people first in development initiatives or intervention means eliciting from the people the needs for development, identifying culturally compatible goals and strategies for development, and developing socially appropriate, workable and efficient designs for innovation.

Thus, with the development of recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia being a relatively unresearched and undocumented field of study, there is a clear need to carry out research on documenting and analysing the behaviour of the local people on sea fronts. It is commonly understood and accepted that people's recreational behaviour results in a large part from their social and cultural aspects or norms, and thus it is a logical step to research and document it more fully.
This research is conducted to investigate in specific detail the influence and impact of certain socio-cultural values (mostly related to the outdoor environment) of the local families on their picnicking behaviour at the sea front, using the Dammam recreational sea front as a case study.

1.1.2 Who are the people?

It is clear from what has been mentioned above that, to achieve a successful design, the landscape architect should concentrate, at the earliest stage of project development plans, on the people (Hultsman et al., 1987). In relation to this Rutledge (1971) has pointed out that a landscape architect must try to understand the sociological, psychological, and physiological effects of the relevant environment and utilise such findings in his work. Rutledge justifies this by saying:

"... he knows that unless he can relate his work to the satisfaction of human needs, he cannot really state that he is 'developing an environment which fits people', which is what landscape architecture is all about." (Rutledge, 1971: 24)

However, people could be categorised into the following groups: clients, users, management and operators (Fogg, 1986). Which of these should receive primary consideration in the development process? In connection with this, Lynch and Hack state:

"Analysis should go beyond those who have power. If a strategy of selection is chosen, then the usual procedure is to focus on those users who are most able to affect the satisfactions of the paying client, those whose vandalism or neglect can impose serious costs." (K. Lynch and G. Hack, 1984: 70)

Where public works are involved and the government is the paying client, the people whose concerns should receive most consideration during the developing process are the 'USERS'.

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4 See Chapter Four.
Users are the community whose collective satisfaction in turn affects the satisfaction of the government as paying client, because they are the actual beneficiaries of the outdoor public recreational developments. Rutledge (1971) insists that design must be for the users' benefit, and these are who he meant by 'people'. In relation to this Molnar and Rutledge (1986) point out that getting to know the user is the most important step towards the goal of producing a design to satisfy that user. However, in connection with this Rutledge states that "Consideration of human habits as they might be accommodated in design is not presently common practice." (Rutledge A., 1985: 1). Unfortunately, although around 13 years have lapsed since Rutledge raised this point, and the situation looks the same in the practice of outdoor recreation development in Saudi Arabia.

1.1.3 What is meant by 'users'? Why are they important?

'Users' has been defined as those who actually interact with the place, who are most exposed to the environment, who use it most often, and are most intimately connected with it (Lynch and Hack, 1984; Lynch, 1990). In this research 'users' means: the actual users of the project, those who interact repeatedly with it, and whose present and future recreational needs and desires are of prime concern in the production of a site development plan (Beer, 1990). As Fogg states "No project can be successful without knowing the users, their needs and desires." (Fogg, 1986: 4).

In general, in order to provide satisfactory and convenient facilities in any project's development, information about the users' desires and behaviour must be provided. In connection with this, Madden et al. (1982) recommend that the most appropriate approach to gain such information is to apply a 'user analysis'.
Accordingly, this approach, which depends on various techniques such as observations and interviews, was applied for the purpose of this research at the recreational sea front of Dammam City.

In Saudi Arabia, the prosperity of the native/local Saudi population, which forms almost 80% of the population of Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Planning, 1994), is the main goal of governmental development plans (this statement has been repeated in various speeches given by many governmental authorities).

In addition, the locals’ recreational enjoyment and satisfaction is the main target of the government when developing public recreational projects, of which the Dammam recreational sea front is one (Ministry of Planning, 1990 and 1995). Thus, it can be concluded that in order to develop satisfactory recreation areas on the sea fronts in Saudi Arabia, the recreational behaviour of the local users should be taken into account in the early stages of the development. In relation to this Al-Abdullah states:

"With the increasing demand for more outdoor recreation facilities, it is incumbent upon local and state governmental agencies concerned with beaches, parks and recreation planning, to address the local users' pressing needs comprehensively and expeditiously." (Al-Abdullah, 1991: 88)

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEMS

In contemporary environmental and human concerns, increased emphasis is being given to human values and to the social goals of outdoor recreation developments. Economic and engineering efficiency and profitability no longer serve as the only guiding principles for investment or development decisions (Carr et al., 1992). There is a growing conviction that outdoor recreation developments are not an end in themselves but a tool for easing the conditions of urban life (Haywood et al., 1989).

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5 For more detail see Chapter Five of this thesis.
In other words, that their objectives are not simply to exist, but to enhance the quality of the developed areas and to improve the social well-being of their users. It has been observed by Chubb (1981) that the recreation revolution has reached a peak in the United States and Canada, but most other nations have not experienced the same intensity. Advanced European nations, Japan, Australia, and New Zealand are at or are near their zeniths which will be more modest because of economic or resource limitations. Less developed nations may be decades or centuries from reaching their zeniths.

As a result, the agencies charged with developments, including recreational developments, in many less developed countries have been copying the planned developments of the more advanced countries. This has been found to give rise to social and environmental problems (Cooper and Sarkissian, 1986) which result from not considering the differences between the different societies and environments.

In connection with this, Marshal (1983) argues that design decisions are mostly being made without regard for the behavioural impacts involved. Furthermore he argues that, too often, designers have worried about how things look rather than how they work or affect those who come in contact with them. Also, he argues that designers often seem to believe in a kind of a determinism which suggests that people would adapt themselves to buildings and spaces which look ‘nice’. With regard to this, Beer (1990) states:

"Too often, sites are planned and designed in relation to the designer's own life experience and opinions, without adequate understanding of how those likely to use a site, who may have different outlooks and needs, might wish to behave within it." (Beer, 1990: 141)

In the same vein Bourassa says “All too often, the planning or design expert has values quite distinct from those of the people being designed or planned for.” (Bourassa S., 1991: 108). However, most experienced social scientists feel that a successful development must be socially and culturally sound.
In other words, the social and cultural issues must be considered and a related analysis must occur very early in the project cycle, and recur in the subsequent phases (Partridge 1984, Cernea 1985). Landscape architects should therefore only begin the design process when sufficient information is available about the users and their activities at the project site. Fogg (1986) argues that research into the users and their activities should be conducted if such information is not already available (see Fig. 1.6).

![Site planning process diagram](Source: Fogg, 1986: ix)

In relation to what has been mentioned formerly, it can be said that Saudi Arabia is one of the developing countries affected by the aforementioned problems, as regards the design of its public recreational projects. In connection with this, the Ministry of Planning (1985) states that these projects are considered to be development projects.
Relatively, such projects should be more socially sound (Finsterbush et al., 1990). Accordingly, public recreational projects must be developed in relation to the users' social needs, which in the case of Saudi Arabia stem from their socio-cultural values (Al-Abdullah, 1991). However, it is evident that, in the outdoor recreation sector, social interests in the context of site plan and design making have not been sufficiently addressed in Saudi Arabia (Al-Abdullah, 1991, Al-Shahrani, 1992 and Bahammam, 1995).

The lack of data about the users' social and cultural background is a problem in overcoming the designers' considerable lack of understanding of their recreational behaviour in Saudi Arabia. Consequently, the related features are not addressed by the current foreign models of the landscape architecture developments in the existing recreational projects in Saudi Arabia (Al-Abdullah, 1991 and Bahammam, 1995), including the recreational sea fronts. However, consideration of this behaviour should have been one of the fundamental guiding principles in the development of recreational projects. Due to the lack of even the most basic data about the recreational behaviour of the native users at the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia, the western designer-consultant of Dammam metropolitan recreational sea front (C.D.E) 6 relied on his own experience to fill the information gap (informal verbal communication with the Mayor of Dammam metropolitan area, summer 1995). As a result the project is insensitive to the native users' socio-cultural background, which is normally the most powerful aspect, among other aspects, affecting the use and form of the outdoor built environment in Saudi Arabia, including recreational sea fronts.

6 C.D.E: The landscape site planning and design for the Dammam metropolitan sea front (Corniche) was commissioned to Sir Bruce White, Wolfe Barry & Partners as joint ventures with the Saudi partners Consulting & Design Engineers office.
1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The lack of information regarding the behaviour of the local families picnicking on the sea fronts in Saudi Arabia suggests the need for related academic research. This is one of the aims of this study, and satisfying this aim is an attempt to fill the gap in the field of outdoor recreation developments of Saudi Arabia in general, and developments of its recreational sea fronts specifically.

In connection with this Beer (1984) argues that landscape architecture as an academic field intents to nourish the development and testing of theories towards the practice of planning, designing and managing the external environment of urban areas, rural, and wild areas as well. Moreover, the theories that it develops emerge from studies of the inter-relationship between people and the land in certain locations at particular times. In relation to this Molnar and Rutledge state:

"Obviously, any development responsive to people provides activities and facilities tailored to the clientele at hand. Ideas for these are more likely to come from recreators with a finger on the pulse of the locale and on-the-spot research than from impersonal generalists far removed from the scene drawing up lists in their rocking chairs." (Molnar and Rutledge A., 1986 : 23)

Altman and Chemers (1984) have pointed out that the built environment is a result of the interaction between the people, their culture, and the surrounding physical environment. Further, they argue that it is not possible to understand any member of this trio separately. Therefore, they claim that the three must be treated as a unity, as people, culture and physical environment form a social 'system', all of whose parts work together in an integrated way.

Rapoport (1984) goes further by arguing that the human needs for a secure place or shelter in the outside physical world appear as the first level in his development. Yet the association of socio-cultural values (values that accumulate from the interaction between people's society and their culture) as important factors have become the primary force affecting the resulted development (final shape) of the built environment.
In relation to this, various questions for the study were set up:

**Why** do most of the local families who use the Dammam recreational sea front complain that its existing situation does not suit their socio-cultural requirements?

**How**, in general, do the socio-cultural values interrelate with the built environment?

**What** are the most basic and the most important socio-cultural values of the local families' of Saudi Arabia that influence their behaviour in the outdoor built environment in general?

**What** is the local families' behaviour that results from these values while picnicking on recreational sea fronts in particular?

**How** could this behaviour be related to the landscape development of picnicking sites, places and other facilities on the recreational sea fronts of Saudi Arabia?

All these unanswered questions stem from the major inquiry of this study which is:

'How do the local families with their socio-cultural values interact with the sea fronts in Saudi Arabia as a physical environment, particularly with regard to picnicking as a recreational activity?'. The answers to these questions are intended to satisfy the primary aim of this study which is 'to develop picnicking areas and places on the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia which suit the local families with regard to their socio-cultural requirements'.

To achieve the aims of this study, certain objectives were set as follows:

1) To gain insight into and a fuller understanding of the involvement of socio-cultural values in human behaviour, which might affect the use and form of the built environment in general, and the outdoor built environment specifically.

2) To identify and define those socio-cultural values that most influence the local families' behaviour while they are out of the doors.
3) To conduct an investigation by using user analysis techniques (mentioned above) on an existing case in order to obtain clear ideas and information about the behaviour of local families picnicking on the sea fronts and the related physical features that match their social needs.

The Dammam recreational sea front will be investigated as the case study. The final conclusions from this study will help to pinpoint the characteristics of the picnicking sites and places which should be taken into consideration by landscape architects and municipal decision makers in future developments and modifications.

These are needed in order to provide more functional and suitable recreational sea fronts for the 80% Saudi majority population of Saudi Arabia in general, and the local families specifically. It is assumed that the final results of this study will benefit:

1) The municipality of Dammam, which has ownership and jurisdiction over the recreational sea front project, to enable them to take appropriate action to improve the facilities, recreational spaces and general conditions of the sea front project.

2) Designer-consultants, who may derive guidance that may positively influence similar future development projects.

3) The academic community.

Finally, the researcher hopes that the conclusions of this study will be used to enhance the recreational sea fronts of Saudi Arabia and to improve the experience of visiting them for all the local users.
1.4 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. The research case study area is limited to the defined boundaries of the Dammam city sea front, which represents only 7km out of the whole developed sea front of the Dammam metropolitan area, which was 20km long at the time this research was conducted.

2. The results of the pilot study (see Chapter 5) have shown that various recreational activities are practised by the local families, among them sitting and eating food and drinking refreshments, so they can be viewed collectively and described as one major activity which is 'PICNICKING'. Therefore, the study will be limited to this activity.

3. The research will study the behavioural patterns of local families picnicking on the recreational sea front of Dammam city, in order to ascertain the influence of their socio-cultural values on their selection, use and modification of sites in relation to their picnicking.

4. The study investigation was carried out during the peak period, i.e. the summer season, when there is high use by the local families. This time was chosen as being expected to give rise to most problems related to the research topic.
1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND THESIS ORGANISATION

A number of research approaches are available for use in the study of people and their built-environment (Rapoport 1980, Zeisl 1981, Marans 1981, Bateson 1984, 1987 and others). The intention of each is to provide empirical data to test the propositions under investigation. In connection with this Simon (1969) and Marans (1987) argue that one discipline should not determine the choice of a method; rather one should fit the method to the problem.

Similarly, Ittelson, et al. (1974) suggest that a good research design is one that identifies the nature of the variables most relevant to the problem under investigation, and utilises the most fruitful methods of studying the problem or phenomenon. Thus, there is no single research methodology that is appropriate for a specific discipline (Zeisel, 1981).

The decision as to which a particular research method is most appropriate to the problem under investigation often becomes a problem in itself. The design and choice of a research method for data collection must, therefore, be based on careful consideration of the nature of the phenomenon under study. But more importantly, Zeisel (1981) argues, in the study of man and the built environment a research method or approach should be sensitive to the socio-cultural and organisational properties of the physical setting and the group under investigation.

In relation to the study at hand we can conclude from the large body of research methods that any good analysis of a public outdoor space must begin by spending time there, watching how the place is used and recording as much information as possible (Jorgensen, 1989, Lefebvre, 1991 and Carr S. et al, 1992). One of the most convenient ways to obtain information on people's behaviour is through direct interaction with them (Jorgensen, 1989).
In connection with this, Rutledge says: “To gather a list of activities and facilities, the responsible recreator conducts native demand studies through questionnaires and interviews.” (Rutledge, 1971: 22).

The qualitative approach, with its emphasis on in-depth knowledge and on the refinement and elaboration of images and concepts, is considered to be the most appropriate and has therefore been chosen to conduct the case study of Dammam recreational sea front presented in this thesis. One major feature of qualitative data is that they focus on naturally occurring ordinary events in natural settings, so that we have a strong indication of what ‘real life’ is like (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

In connection with this Van Maanen (1983) argues that qualitative data, with their emphasis on people’s lived experience, are basically well adapted for searching out the meanings people put on the events, processes, and structures of their lives, their perceptions, assumptions, prejudgments, presuppositions, and for adjoining these meanings to the social world around them. In the same vein Miles and Huberman (1994) claim that qualitative approaches for collecting data often have been advocated as the best strategy for discovery and exploring new area. In relation to this they say:

“... the fact that such data are typically collected over a sustained period makes them powerful for studying any process...; we can go far beyond ‘snapshots’ of ‘what?’ or ‘how many?’ to just how and why things happens as they do - and even assess causality as it actually plays out in a particular setting.” (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 10).

However, Ragin (1994) points out that qualitative research often involves a process of reciprocal clarification of the researcher’s image of a specific research subject, on the one hand, and the concepts that frame the investigation, on the other. The techniques employed in this study have consisted primarily of general observation during many visits to the Dammam recreational sea front, but also of observations of users at selected sites along the sea front and guided interviews with the actual local families picnicking on these selected sites.
The purposefully qualitative nature of this research and the techniques used, such as observation and interview, do not lend themselves to quantification; therefore quantitative measurements and debate on quantification are not within the scope of this research.

In fact, the reliability of the selected approach and related techniques of this study depends on the argument that the essence of what constitutes 'scientific information' is not always directly related to the ease with which a variable can be translated into a precise unit of measurement. What is 'scientific' depends on the consensus of experts and the approach they adopt, not directly on numbers or related preciseness of measurement. Conclusions can be made and accepted as part of scientific knowledge until refuted by subsequent testing (Kirk and Miller, 1986; Ragin, 1994; and Hoonaard, 1997).

Several factors have influenced the decision to employ the selected multiple information-gathering techniques (observation and interview). They are:

1) Reliance on one particular technique to obtain information needed for this study has a greater chance of being unreliable, especially when taking into account the social and cultural aspects of Saudi society, such as male-female interview restrictions, and the families' privacy and illiteracy.

2) The use of multiple information-gathering techniques allows the weaknesses of one technique to be partially compensated for by the strength of another method (Friedman, et al., 1978).

Regarding the organisation of research relating to social science and man-environment studies, it is recommended that the research should 'pass through' three levels. First, defining the context and scope of the project, second, specifying the project methodology, and third, carrying the research forward to its conclusion (Steinitz, 1990). Thus, in relation to this thesis is organised as follows (see Fig. 1.7):
1) Chapter One introduces the study by providing orientation, justifications, and the necessary perspective to understand the significance of the study, and a summary of some information which is presented in more detail in the later chapters.

2) Chapter Two is a historical overview of the evolution of the waterfronts. It involves a literature review on waterfront developments within various ages and civilizations, which provides some useful information regarding factors and organising principles that have influenced the development of traditional coastal facilities in general, and how they have benefited human society at large. Further, this chapter contains a description of the more common functional types, uses, and components of contemporary urban waterfront development projects, among them the recreational developments. This is important in order to define the recreational opportunities of waterfronts and related physical features in general, and in Saudi Arabia in particular, and also to enable the researcher to understand and consider certain related factors in developing recreational waterfronts in line with their users' perception.

3) Chapter Three defines the approach of the research. This includes building up the theoretical perspective through inquiring into the interrelations of people, culture, and physical environment. Moreover, it involves a literature review of socio-cultural values as powerful criteria in producing the built environment, and their relationship to developing recreational outdoor environments in general, and to the development of recreational sea fronts in particular.

4) Chapter Four involves a review of recreation in the context of Islamic culture and Saudi society. This step is essential in discussing and defining the particular socio-cultural values that influence the recreational behaviours of the local people in general, and the local families in particular, in the outdoor environment. These will be used as analytical frames for the local families' behaviour in picnicking on recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia. In addition, information about the demography of local people living in the Dammam metropolitan area and their leisure time is provided.
Furthermore, the relevant maps, site photographs, sketches, and a detailed survey of other necessary documentation materials and information about the study area are presented in order to give a comprehensive overview of the case study area.

5) Chapter Five discusses the design of the field study methodology, the collection procedure for empirical research data and the analysis strategy. In this research the field study depends on qualitative techniques. Two appropriate types of method were selected to obtain the empirical research data at the recreational sea front of Dammam city. These were the on-site descriptive behavioural method (observation in the natural setting) and the guided interview method. Analysing their contents was defined to be the appropriate analysis strategy to be conducted later.

6) Chapter Six analyses the findings and data that collected from the field, in order to define and classify (categorise) the picnicking behaviours of the local families on various environmental settings of the Dammam recreational sea front, under the influence of a group of pre-defined specific socio-cultural values.

7) Chapter Seven presents the interpretation of the classified picnicking behavioural patterns, in terms of discussing the factors that are socio-culturally associated with the landscape development of both the local families’ picnicking sites and the picnic places on the recreational sea front. In general, the discussion concerns the definition of more socio-culturally functional and convenient physical features in relation to the local families’ picnicking sites and places along the sea fronts.

8) Chapter Eight presents a summary of the research and conclusions regarding the importance of considering the users’ socio-cultural values in the landscape development of the recreational sea fronts. Further, lessons from the conduct and completion of the research study are presented, and future study directions in relation to the study at hand are proposed.
(Fig. 1.7) Organisation of the study
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Al-Abdullah

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CHAPTER TWO

EVOLUTION OF THE WATERFRONTS
CHAPTER TWO : EVOLUTION OF THE WATER FRONTS

2.1 A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

Waterfront development has passed through different historical stages. Clarifying these stages in general is important in terms of understanding the factors that have influenced their development, and specifically how their development is culturally related. In connection with this, Torre states (1989): "Perhaps nothing is as important to the development’s future as effectively searching out its history." (Torre, 1989: 32)

A brief review of early civilisation waterfronts will provide a background regarding the conditions and organising principles which influenced the development of traditional coastal facilities in general, and how they benefited human society at large. In addition, the review of contemporary waterfronts will enable the researcher to describe existing common types, their structural uses and their components, with special emphasis on recreational sea fronts in general, and particularly in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, the qualities of the waterfronts that are expected to be interrelated with the development of recreational sea fronts will be highlighted. This will be done in order to understand the possible related recreational opportunities they offer, besides clarifying the effects that are associated with their users’ perception.

It has been said that the cradle of civilisation was the shores of the Nile, and that maritime cities are the ancestors of early eastern and western civilisations (Wren, 1983). This has been attributed to a variety of reasons, which raises some interesting questions.

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1 The origin of this literature review was an assignment submitted in 1989 for a graduate course titled Landscape Seminar II, as one of the requirements in fulfillment of the degree of Master in Landscape Architecture, College of Architecture and Planning, King Faisal University, Saudi Arabia. But, for the purpose of the study at hand, the literature review has been enhanced and extended.

2 The review concentrates on the waterfronts in the United States and Europe in general due to the advancement attained in them, and due to the literature available to the researcher, which is mainly in English.
These are: What natural and cultural factors compelled people to build cities near the water’s edge? What functional principles were commonly practised in the building of waterfronts in maritime cities? What theories, philosophical ideas, or cultural values influenced the development of waterfronts throughout human history?

In discussing waterfronts, including sea fronts, as cultural resources, it is instructive to review some representative waterfronts around the world, during different periods of history and in various time and places, and rediscover the underlying reasons that led to their development.

History books show that the earliest cities in the world developed along historic rivers in stable climates. The list is long, but includes settlement sites along the Yellow River of China, the Tigris, Euphrates, Indus and the Nile, where these developed the earliest waterfronts along fresh-water tributaries. For economic survival, early civilisations were dependent upon the fertility of the land for good agriculture. In time, farmers attained knowledge and skills to construct complete systems of irrigation and flood control, construct dikes, embankments and canals where they were needed.

A review of waterfronts in early history reveals that a large number of great maritime cities were closely linked to the water’s edge by natural and cultural factors, which varied from country to country. Many of these cities had special reasons or factors for developing their waterfront resources. These reasons include access to the water for fishing or trade, for agriculture (along rivers), for religious or traditional reasons, for viewing water scenery, for recreational purposes, for seaside settlements, or for urban centre commerce and social activities.

References to waterfronts in this historical overview apply to coastal as well as navigable water corridors such as riverbanks, canals, and other waterways. Furthermore, the term ‘waterfront’ is defined in this study to include all forms of land, beach, coastline, architecture, and other landscape materials and construction which constitute the landscape setting of the maritime city waterfront. Therefore, it also includes roads, parks, gardens, water features, coastal buildings, piers, docks, rip-rap walls, breakwater, etc.
The factors influencing development are reflected in some famous sites in early history\(^4\), highlights of which are briefly discussed as follows:

Mesopotamia (3,500-538 BC). Babylon, one of history’s great river cities, utilised waterways to provide for defence and river transport. The transverse location of the river corridor through the city with the surrounding moat and canal system constituted a functional form similar to that of the later fortified cities of western Europe. The great city of Babylon was built at a nodal point between the Tigris and Euphrates river. The famous Assurian river city of Assure had its temples and public buildings also located along the river embankment (see Fig. 2.1).

Figure 2.1: Temples and public buildings were located along the river embankment of the city of Babylon (Source: Wylson, 1986: 4)

In the past, many castles and fortifications were built along fresh water tributaries, as well as by coastal water. Many of these architectural elements still exist today, in varying states of disrepair or damage through the ravages of time. Many of the ports that extend out from these fortifications have become tourist water fronts of archaeological or cultural interest (Torre L. A., 1989).

Ancient Egypt (3,500-500 BC). For the ancient Egyptians, the annual flooding of the Nile, apart from providing natural and seasonal agricultural irrigation, also represented divine order; the monumental structures, temples and secondary canals that lined the river bank added to the religious theme, and the river provided a symbolic route for festivals and for processions of sacred boats (see Fig. 2.2).

Furthermore, in some countries, this tradition of pilgrimages and parades along the water are still observed, and have also become strong recreational, tourist attractions and social events that enrich the traditions and culture of various nationalities throughout the world (Wren D. M., 1983). During these festivities, the waterfront becomes a colourful and delightful scene of harmonious human cultural activity.

Figure 2.2: The Temple of Luxor at the bank of the Nile river is a good example of a cultural (religious) structure along a waterfront (Source: Torre, 1989: 3)

Historic Orient (600-1500 AD). Pacific island countries, because of natural topographic conditions, such as the littoral lowlands, generated particular construction techniques to cope with the fluctuating flood and tide. The littoral communities of southeast Asian countries were constructed over the water or marshlands. Houses were connected by decks and bridges, house and boat having a common identity in structure and materials. Fishing, trade and defence brought the urban structure to the seashore.
Today's marinas, piers and boat docks are contemporary versions of this waterfront development. The concept of 'community by the shore' eventually developed into the greater idea of 'maritime city', with the waterfront as its heart (see Fig. 2.3).

Figure 2.3: Floating community with house boats at Aberdeen Harbour in Hong Kong. (Source: Wylson, 1986: 74)

Imperial Rome (6th Century BC - 5th Century AD). The Romans had a metaphysical recognition of particular natural landscape and water settings. In connection with this, Wylson says:

"The respect for seaside and lakeside topography led to imaginative planning in order to gain the advantages of scenic views, morning sun, protective moorings, terraced gardens (with carefully sited dining spaces), bathing pools, constructed walks, colonnades and porticoes. All these provided a context for leisure and relaxation." (Wylson, 1986: 5)

It can be said that the Romans popularised the idea of constructing vacation villas or cottages in coastal areas, and indeed may have influenced the idea of sea front development as it is known today. The Romans were, after all, famous for their construction of roads, aqueducts, and other architectural monuments, many of which can still be seen today.
Italy in Medieval Period. As navigation technology improved, the Roman ports became closely associated with public areas and were lined with significant public buildings, such as in Venice (see Fig. 2.4). Axial urban planning would direct attention to the important topographical or landscape elements. The urban waterfront was seen as a place for civic grandeur, utilising porticoes, terraces and staircases set in a large spacious plaza setting. In his treatise on architecture and planning, Vitruvius gave particular consideration to the coastal siting of cities, recommending that a city on the sea should locate the forum (and thus public buildings) close to the harbour. From this experience, the planning of port cities on a grand scale became more scientific and organised (Wren, 1983). The essential components of the maritime community, including the protective mooring, the quay side, facilities for storing goods, warehouses, access to commercial parts of the city, the contact between civic spaces and the waterfront, and the enlargement of harbor space, would have been the contribution of the medieval period. Today’s modern ports as ‘gateway’ to the country owe much to these medieval waterfront models for their original planning and design concepts.

Figure 2.4: View of the buildings and activities on the Grand Canal of Venice. (Source: Torre, 1989: 15)
Waterfronts in Early Islamic World. Perhaps the only early Islamic world waterfronts to have achieved some level of popularity are the Moghul coastal gardens of northern India (Jellicoe, 1971). Lehrman (1980) observed that, as with all gardens and parks, Islamic gardens are developed according to the climate, social customs, and religious ethos. The original Islamic idea was to consider the garden as a paradise, a symbol of the afterlife as an oasis of beauty blooming in the earthly desert (MacDougall and et al., 1976). Water and the cypress are the two main elements. Within the park, then, is water, the symbol of purity, in the four-way river of paradise, and trees (above all the cypress, symbolising life), surrounded by high walls to keep the dry wind out (Moynihan, 1979).

Oldham, John and Ray (1980) point out that everywhere, in keeping with Islamic belief, the design pattern is abstract rather than figurative. Moreover, Lehrman (1980) argues that, regarding Islamic gardens, the fundamental concept creates its own specific technical skills; nowhere is there more artful use of irrigation for plants, of jets of water to cool the air, of orchards for shade, of colour to break up the sun’s glare, or of masonry patterns than in Islamic gardens.

However, the Moghul coastal gardens had a Persian design influence that included a series of spaces such as courtyards and terraces, each with a particular use. In some cases, one side of the garden would be open to a river or lake. The walled Shalamar Bagh garden located at the north-east end of Lake Dal was divided into three terraces; a central canal extended through the gardens and linked with the lake (see Fig. 2.5). The main pavilion was entirely surrounded by water, with fountains and cascades (Jellicoe, 1971 and 1987).
From this brief background of early history on urban waterfront development, it can be said that two main factors influenced the development of waterfronts in western countries as well as Islamic countries: natural and cultural factors. In relation to natural factors, the natural environment was the dominant factor which compelled man to adopt science and technology to cope with natural forces and realities by the water's edge in order to survive and develop settlements as coastal communities. On the other hand, economics (trade and commerce), religion, architecture, urban planning, and recreation were strong cultural factors that greatly determined the form, function, and significance of the urban waterfront.
2.2 CONTEMPORARY URBAN WATERFRONT AND CLASSIFICATIONS OF WATER'S EDGE DEVELOPMENTS

Having discussed the early history of urban waterfront development, it is time now to discuss briefly the various types, structural uses and components that have made up urban waterfronts from the period of the Renaissance to modern times.

The long historical period from the Renaissance to modern times provides us with a wealth of information concerning the water's edge developments associated with contemporary waterfronts. In reviewing the properties of contemporary urban waterfronts, we are able to recognise the functional purposes and organising principles of such structures in supplementing outdoor activity along the coastal areas. This knowledge should be helpful in understanding different models of water's edge developments, one of which is recreational.

Contemporary water's edge developments can be categorised into six types: quays, fortified harbour towns, grand canals, port settlements, seaside resorts and coastal highways (corniches). This classification is based on differences of functional use and infrastructure characteristics, which require a different site planning, landscape design, and management approach for each particular category (Wilson, 1986). There have been cases, however, when these water's edge developments have been integrated or synthesised together in one large comprehensive project as in the 'Corniche' projects.

Quays (Ports & Harbours). Quays are "artificial landing places, usually made of stone, lying along or projecting into navigable water, for loading and unloading ships" (Longman Dictionary, 1987). This structure is required to accommodate small or large ships and has been known to have been constructed as far back as ancient times; it is often referred to popularly as a 'port' (see Fig. 2.6).
The significance of quays as waterfront structures progressed with the development of maritime transport. In case of most coastal cities, the area between the city and the sea required the construction of durable and permanent structures to withstand the harshness of the sea. Historically, the scale of water transportation, the development of commercial trade, the desire for naval supremacy and the need for protection promoted the construction of quays, which later were added to with larger facilities such as wharves, harbours, arsenals, docks and fortifications.

The amenity value of an accessible waterfront has been lost with the adding of industrial traffic and structures to the urban waterfront, or by making the quays vulnerable to re-use for inner-city highway development. The emphasis towards bulk carriage, containerisation, the need for extensive areas for storage and handling, the transportation and storage of oil and the growing emphasis on road distribution could no longer be accommodated within the historic urban waterfront (Breen and Rigby, 1984). Also, maritime passenger transport has been overtaken by air travel.
The principal ports have been subjected to radical adaptation to service ships with new design, bulk trading and industrialisation. Breen and Rigby (1994), in their discussion with regard to the situation of contemporary waterfronts, have pointed out that the days are gone when the quay side acted as a market and work space, and when, with its spectacle of arrivals and departures, it once provided a great deal of human urban drama.

**Fortified Harbour Towns.** During the medieval period the need for regional security resulted in urban enclosure and fortification, separating the immediate natural surroundings from city life and providing protection from hostile intrusion from the sea (see Fig. 2.7). For the water-based community, water was a means of transportation, refuse disposal and protection. The moat or river made this more effective, and in some cities canals extended the water transportation system into the city complex.

Many fortified harbour towns still exist today in many parts of the world. Outstanding among them are Genoa and Venice (Italy), Dubrovnik (Croatia), Antwerp (Belgium), and La Rochelle (France). All these fortified harbour towns had large defence walls built around the town, and had military fortifications as well as observation towers, service canals, and quays.

![Figure 2.7: View of Dubrovnik harbour with protective fortifications in Croatia.](Source: Wylson, 1996: 30)
Grand Canals (River Water Corridors). Many good examples of this form of urban waterfront development in the present time can be found along the river water corridors of historic communities of the Netherlands and Venice, where the waterfront houses started as trading establishments combining business and residence. In Venice these businesses prospered and the houses were replaced by 'palaces' to be subject to lavish artistic investment, making the Grand Canal a public space enriched by the wealthy. The zoned structure of Venice permitted its continued development and adaptation without losing contact between magnificent historic buildings and the waterfront (see Fig. 2.8).

Figure 2.8: View of historical buildings and walk, alongside and over the Grand Canal in Venice. (Source: Torre, 1989: 15)

In the United States and Canada, many industrial and manufacturing establishments were constructed along inland waterways, including Pittsburgh, Portland, and Toronto, to name a few. Europe, of course, also has many outstanding cities built along major water corridors such as London, Paris, Venice, Hamburg, St. Petersburg and Amsterdam. The unpretentious junction of river crossing and water corridor was a common feature in many small historic maritime towns and villages in Europe.
**Port Settlements.** The port settlements which later became great European cities originated in harmony with the water’s edge. The water’s edge attracted the wealthy and politically powerful who built their residences which were adjacent to the waterfront or river corridor, the prestige value having a significant bearing upon its architectural character. Greek cities gave prominence and architectural dignity to colonnaded vistas and public spaces. The principal public space, the agora (a constant resort for all citizens and the daily scene of social, business and political life), was located alongside the port in coastal cities. The structural system within the Greek city included a central avenue directing attention to the natural topographical advantages of sea, river, mountain or plain, and also providing a point for entry through the city. Public spaces were defined by colonnades. The close spatial relationship of waterfront activities and city centres of that time were the result of careful planning and the desire for civic grandeur.

Port settlements in the 17th and the following centuries have been generally industrialised in the light of financial and economic activities which concerned the maritime world. Railway construction at the turn of the 19th century encouraged further industrial development of the waterfront. This was particularly true in the maritime history of North America where the first settlements were maritime-oriented (Wylson, 1986). The American port cities of New York, San Francisco, Chicago, Baltimore, and Boston are some of the most famous among these (Torre, 1989). Breen and Rigby (1994) show that these cities have seen their aged, declining, and once abandoned port facilities come back to popular re-use and revitalisation through innovative and ambitious programmes initiated by both public and private sectors as part of a general plan to revitalise the inner city and the urban waterfront. With new planning and a fresh design approach, these cities have seen a revival of social and commercial vitality that have made the urban waterfronts once again the centres of cultural activities in the maritime cities (see Fig. 2.9).
Sea fronts or Seaside resorts (Promenades, Piers, Marinas and Leisure Parks).

The development of seaside resorts has become the most popular form of urban waterfront development in recent years (Torre, 1989; and Breen and Rigby, 1994). Britain and the United States, among many developed countries in the world, have pioneered and made great achievements in this regard. For this reason and the reason of language, the review focuses on the experience in sea front (seaside resort) development in these two western countries as a review related to the international experience.

It can be said that the modern interest in the sea front for entertainment and relaxation started in Europe in the mid 19th century (see Fig. 2.10). Sea front resorts aim to serve a public which has leisure time and tend to be identified with particular activities (Breen and Rigby, 1994). The development of sea front resorts had its initial stages in Hellenic Greece and early Rome.
People developed resorts in warmer regions as an escape from the cold weather and familiar surroundings of cities, to holiday where the sea atmosphere and sunshine could be equally enjoyed. In each period in history it appears that the need for relaxation and the pursuit of leisure activities resulted in distinct planning forms and architectural solutions, architecture that expresses the human response to lake or sea front (Wylson, 1986). The 19th century sea front promenade was created as an attractive setting for parading and recreation, where the backdrop of hotels, amusement buildings, pavilions, gardens and the pleasure piers combined to create a total architectural context for the pleasure-seeking public of the day. The wide distribution of wealth and leisure time of the last century has resulted in massive resort developments with a water-oriented environment.

Two western models provide us with a good idea of the variety of forms and expressions in the planning and design of the sea front resort form of urban waterfront, the British and the American. The British model illustrates the importance of functionality as a basis for the landscape development (planning and design) of sea front resorts.
The American model, on the other hand, provides examples of technological innovation and diverse forms of amusements and family entertainment resorts that today continue to attract millions of visitors.

1) British Sea Front Resorts. In Britain, the sea front resorts took over from the fashionable spas - the watering places of the Georgian period, in which the curative powers of mineral springs were enjoyed by the wealthy section of society (Wylson, 1986). The British developed many classic examples of sea front resorts furnished with a variety of facilities and amenities. Colorful sea front architecture quite different from traditional styles was constructed to amuse the public. New housing was developed and had sea-facing terraces to protect it from the sea gales. 'Spa' resorts, landing piers, and sea front carriageways were innovations that attracted people from all over the world. The sea front was endowed with spacious carriageways, lawns, flower beds, terraced parades and informal networks of wide avenues and open spaces.

As the popularity of sea front resorts grew large numbers of resort visitors soon dominated the sea front. The refined ambience of boarding houses was taken over by popular catering, street musicians, minstrel shows, acrobats, ice-cream carts, and photographers. The beach and promenade were turned into seasonal fairgrounds, adopting the character of popular pleasure gardens.

By 1900, the pattern of the popular resorts had been established. Many English harbour towns were not able to retain a restrained architectural character. Individualistic buildings were designed to provide an evocative and grandiose effect. Whereas the traditional fishing villages were developed with deference to the sea, the new resorts exploited the promenade and the sea view, with balconies, bay windows, glazed terraces and sea-oriented pavilions.

The promenades and public gardens were developed with lined walks, ornamental pools, rustic bridges and bandstands. Prestigious 'grand' hotels were provided for wealthy visitors.
Winter-garden complexes, vast greenhouse structures that protected visitors from the weather, provided a meeting place where they could listen to music, take tea and stroll through the manicured gardens. New structures housed a multitude of entertainments. The pier, that had provided a landing jetty for packet and pleasure boats, became a source of enjoyment in itself.

The beach became the location for a diversity of bathing machines, beach tents and beach huts. For the young adults, there was a change of emphasis from the confines of assembly rooms and concert halls to the streets, where a galaxy of activity, fanfares, flower-battles, dancing galas, regattas, bandstands, concert parties and popular events took place. The interest in sport and recreation added facilities for tennis, boating, cycling and swimming (see Fig. 2.11).

Figure 2.11: The wide promenade of the Golden Mile in Blackpool allows some pedestrian predominance, giving access to the beach on one side, and the array of commercial attractions on the other. (Source: Wylson, 1986: 117).
2) **American Sea Front Resorts.** In the middle of the 18\textsuperscript{th} century rich farms' owners from the southern states and West Indies escaped the hot season by sailing to and enjoying the cooler atmosphere of Newport, Rhode Island (near New York State), which became the select resort for the wealthy (Wylson, 1986). However, for ordinary people, it was some time before the puritanical work ethic, fundamental to the early settlers of North America, permitted scope for amusement. Sea front settlements, such as Ocean Grove and Ocean City, were initiated by religious organisations with no entertainment, no swearing and no sea bathing on Sundays. By the mid 19\textsuperscript{th} century a new spirit of frivolity emerged. Seashore places of beauty were being discovered and portrayed by landscape artists such as Thomas Cole (Wylson, 1986).

The east coast was accessible from New York and Boston. Coney Island, ten miles from Manhattan, became popular for weekend ferry excursions for New Yorkers, and also benefited from access provided by Brooklyn Bridge (built in 1883) and both rail and trolley services. Atlantic City, with access to Philadelphia, began as a speculative real estate venture. The link was consolidated by a railway in the 1880s and the resort grew in popularity, with the first pier being built in 1881. Ultimately six piers extended from the boardwalk promenade (see Fig. 2.12).

![Figure 2.12: In Atlantic City, the Boardwalk provides extensive promenading with sea front structures directly accessible from the promenade. (Source: Wylson, 1986: 118).](image-url)
The trolley (tram) companies played an important role in encouraging the establishment of popular resorts, partly to increase the use of their transport facilities. Many resorts built piers with superimposed entertainment structures. Amusement parks, competing with the piers, built adventure rides (such as roller coasters) over the sea, and entertainment facilities. These parks provided lavish displays and family entertainment to manufacture a carnival spirit and to offer fast-moving elaborated children's play in exotic but respectable surroundings. Mechanical amusements assumed an important element in the resort parks and on pleasure piers. The family amusement park has maintained an important role in American resort and recreation life, in particular in the transformation of traditional swimming pools into non-competitive fun-oriented water parks.

The character and development of the promenade, the area between the front line of houses and the high waterline, was basic to sea front resorts. As the promenade became popular the land was levelled, raised and protected from the sea. The promenade provided the space between the urban infrastructure, the beach and the open sea. Wylson says: "Promenades were built on a level with the high shingle, with platforms projecting onto the beach to provide for public shelters and seats." (Wylson, 1986: 114-115).

In many popular resorts, the promenade space (enclosed on the land ward side) was extended out over the sea in the form of piers and jetties, to provide access to pleasure craft, additional pavilions and space for relaxation. For resorts with fishing or ferry operation, the promenade would be linked to a harbour or pier with passenger facilities, working boats, nets and a fish market. The overall impression of a promenade (the mixture of vernacular buildings, flamboyant leisure shelters, bandstands, imposing pavilions and seasonal seaside activities) creates the particular character that distinguishes one resort from another.
Architecturally, the pier was a unique product of the 19th century sea front resort. The early 19th century jetty, that provided for the steamships, developed into a platform of entertainment which projected out to sea, where the public could enjoy the stimulating atmosphere of the sea without being subjected to shipboard dangers. Visitors could admire the view of the coastline, watch the sea or enjoy the various entertainments provided by the bandstands, pavilions, theaters, kiosks, and bazaars. The pier was the centre of marine activity: boats arriving and departing, a view of ships at the sea, and a view over the sea (see Fig. 2.13).

Figure 2.13: Eastbourne is one of the preserved British piers. 

The publicity given to water-related recreation activities such as sailing, canoeing, and water skiing and the development of new materials that mean a small craft can be acquired economically and with little maintenance (the motor age providing the opportunity to tow small craft) have resulted in a demand for sailing clubs and marina communities.
Changes in maritime transport and fishing techniques have made numerous small harbours and inland waterways available for recreation boats. Moored vessels and their associated activities provide an attractive visual spectacle along the sea front. For this reason, visitors view marinas with particular interest and delight.

Water fun parks and recreation centers have captured the simple enjoyment of the sea fronts, with the added excitement of water rides and water play equipment in family amusement parks. At the same time, enclosed leisure centres aim to provide similar facilities in a controlled environment. The individual features provide scope for imaginative design, both in the use of the water element, the ambience of the water environment, and the actual mechanics of various water related activities. In America, the water fun element has grown in importance and provides a dynamic alternative to the more passive spectator theme parks. In contrast to the conventional swimming pool, both the water fun parks and leisure centres aim to provide active fun, water rides and theme relaxation areas. Water parks aim to provide a day’s relaxation and fun with back-up facilities such as changing rooms, cafeterias, restaurants, and gift shops (see Fig. 2.14).

Figure 2.14: The Festival Park, Toledo, Ohio. (Source: Breen and Rigby, 1994: 149).
Coastal Highway (Corniche). The coastal highway, ‘sunset’ boulevard, the ‘strip’ or the coastal green way - are popular names referring to the special roadway constructed along the coastline (see Fig. 2.15). The concept of a roadway along the coast is not new. The history of such a form of waterfront development with the roadway as a point of reference is rooted in the history of quays (trade ports and harbours), where the coastal road functionally gave access from the land to the shore, where boats waited for their cargo and passengers.

The term ‘corniche’, however, was made popular in contemporary times by the French who exported the idea to all their colonies, among them in the Middle East is Egypt, which been colonised during Napoleon Regina (Waller, 1991). Waller says:

“...The essence of a corniche is that it is a hard edged man-made promenade dividing land from the sea and incorporating attractions for the local population. This form of development is resorted to in urban situations where the pressure of population would destroy or degrade the natural edge condition.” (Waller, 1991: 66)

In relation to this Torre (1989) has pointed out that, apart from the advantage of excellent views to the sea or ocean, the idea of the corniche had recreational value; the sea breeze guaranteed regular fresh and clean air, and the fish are there for the catching as well.

Figure 2.15: Bayshore Boulevard (Corniche), Tampa, Florida. (Source: Torre, 1989: 100)
2.3 DEVELOPMENT OF THE WATERFRONTS FOR RECREATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

Water is a dominant feature in many environments. Moreover, outdoor recreation activities constitute a growing sector of water and water-related land resource use (Pitt, 1989). Further, Pitt (1989) reports that in most of the world one quarter of all outdoor recreation is water-dependent; in the United States two-thirds of all public recreation areas contain a body of water or are adjacent to accessible water.

Water-related recreational behaviour innately involves an interaction between people and the environment (Ittelson, 1973). However, the nature and quality of the recreational experience resulting from this interaction depends on the attributes of the environment, the characteristics of the users involved, and the psychological, social, physical, and managerial context within which the experience occurs (Litton et al., 1974, cited in Pitt, 1989).

In essence Pitt (1989) argues that environment can be construed as both a source of attraction and a setting in which human behaviour occurs. He supports this with the following examples: in the USA many passive recreationists are attracted to a river environment simply to view and enjoy the scenery, and indeed watch the water-related activities of others; other people engage in recreational activities on or near the river (e.g., fishing, canoeing, swimming) that may or may not be related to aesthetic values.

Further, he argues that an aquatic environment can be cast from the perspective of environment as both a source of attraction and a behaviour setting. An interaction perspective on recreation related to waterfronts views environment as having social as well as physical dimensions.

Altman and Zube state: "Environmental attractiveness and the suitability of environment as a behaviour setting may be determined by who is present as much as they are by what is present." (Altman and Zube, 1989 : 218).
It can be said that a specific individual may interact with a given environment in entirely different contexts resulting in very different recreational experiences. Put it another way, the same individual may interact with the same environment at different times, which results different recreational perceptions.

As sites where the interaction of users and environments occurs, aquatic areas have physical characteristics that clearly differentiate them from land based sites (Pitt, 1989). In the same vein Pitt (1989) argues that humans use a wide spectrum of technological innovation to adapt what is essentially a land existence to an aquatic regime. Moreover, the unique attraction of recreationists to water establishes special characteristics that frame recreational interactions with an aquatic environment.

**Physical characteristics of an aquatic environment.** The presence of water leaves its signature on the landscape as it affects and is affected by land form and vegetation. The edge between water and land is a visual element that receives equal attention with water features (Torre, 1989). Further, Pitt (1989) argues that perception of aquatic environments depends not just on conspicuous features of the water, but also on the relationship the water and the space immediately above the water surface have with their enclosing land forms, vegetation, or structures.

The land form and vegetative patterns that influence the physical character of an aquatic environment extend over large geographic areas. Because the character of any single aquatic environment is affected by regional patterns of geology, climate, soil, and vegetation, and because the experience of any specific aquatic site is temporally and spatially bounded by the experience of the adjacent landscape, any given aquatic environment can be comprehended only as it exists within a regional setting (Litton and et al., 1974 cited in Pitt, 1989).

In general, water has a magnetic attraction in the environment that is unrivalled by other materials or elements. Human response to aquatic environments emanates from the sound, smell, taste, and feel of water, as well as from the sight of it.
Ulrich (1983) stresses that the presence of water nearly always enhances human perception of scenic beauty or preference in rural and urban settings. People differentiate in their minds between landscapes that contain water and those that do not; furthermore, there appear to be cognitively different types of aquatic environments (Litton et al., 1974 cited in Pitt, 1989). These types are classified by Amedeo, Pitt and Zube as follows:

"1) rushing water wherein water is depicted as flowing swiftly over strong and irregular contours, through thick forested vegetation and in relatively steep, narrow valleys; 2) wetlands having poorly defined shorelines and containing wide expanses of vegetation that irregularly covers broad expanses of water; 3) placid river valleys containing gentle or calmly moving rivers, flanked by high vegetation and strongly contoured land form; and 4) undifferentiated open water wherein large, open water is the dominant and most extensive feature and land is a minor bordering element in the distant background." (cited in Pitt, 1989: 225)

Pitt (1989) suggests that the presence of water functions as an interconnected matrix enabling the observer to integrate multiple focal points, visually and mentally, that are created by patterns of water, land form, and vegetation. The protrusion of geologic and vegetative material through the water surface at varying distances from an observer and the undulation of shoreline vegetation and land form establish strong notions of near and far.

The flow of the water, together with the flow of space strongly defined above the water surface by surrounding land form and riparian vegetation, lures the observer into further visual and mental, if not physical, exploration of the scene. In addition Pitt states:

"Given the technology necessary to extend human existence onto a water surface, the generally fine surface texture of water, coupled with shoreline pathways, provides ample locomotion affordances to further explore the spatial and visual qualities of the aquatic environment" (Pitt, 1989: 228)

Characteristics of the users involved in the interaction. As a setting for recreational behaviour, aquatic environments possess physical and institutional characteristics.
Pitt (1989), however, classifies the characteristics of the interaction between users and aquatic environments as socio-economic, culture, childhood experience, and psychological. Pitt (1989) argues that several characteristics of both the environment and the users sway from one interaction to another. Within the same environment, users can change their motivation or intention with respect to interaction, their level of experience or specialisation associated with releasing a given motivation in a specific setting, and their familiarity with a given setting. Fishing, picnicking, and so on are good examples of the interaction of a user in a given aquatic environment.

Differences in motivation profiles among users using a single aquatic environment are related to perceptions of crowding, and conflict among user types. Moreover, the level of experience a user has, either with a particular aquatic environment or a particular type of activity, affects the nature of interactions between users and aquatic environments.

In addition, as exposure to a given aquatic environment increases, an affective person-environment bond emerges. This bond differentiates that environment from others and results in the environment being cognitively represented and processed more on the basis of past experience than on its physical attributes (Pitt, 1989). As the exposure increases, Knopf says that the user of aquatic recreational facilities:

"...begins to make more subtle environmental differentiation, to develop a more complex, well-defined set of expectations from the environment, to adopt a narrower definition of what forms of behaviour are appropriate, and to formulate less flexible opinions about how the area should be managed." (Knopf, 1987: 806)

Social context of the interaction. It can be said that users are rarely alone in their interaction with aquatic environments. Visiting parks, beaches, lakes, and rivers, is characterised by group behaviour, with individuals having to attend to the desires and norms of the group (Knopf, 1987). Moreover, commitment or attention to group norms may be stronger than commitment to personal desires with respect to an environmental interaction (Knopf et al., 1983).
However, changing the nature of the group produces modification in the perception of competency and rate of participation among activities, as well as change in the satisfactions to be derived from the interaction. Pitt states:

"Individuals behave differently in the same setting, depending not only on what is happening at the point in time but also on the nature of the group to which they belong at that time." (Pitt, 1989: 235)

In general, behaviour habits within an aquatic environment may be affected by social groups other than those to which an individual currently belongs. For example, working-class people living in a white-collar community would emulate the recreation activities of white-collar workers more than working-class people living in working-class neighborhoods. This demonstrates the significance of activities, values, and norms of the prevailing social system on individual behaviour patterns (Knopf, 1983). In one context, a behaviour pattern is unrestricted and even encouraged, while in another context the pattern may not be acceptable (Pitt, 1989).

**Physical context of the interaction.** Recreationist experiences are affected by physical traces of other users' behaviour (Pitt, 1989). To the extent that recreationists draw conclusions from these traces about functional density and the ability the environment affords to conceive desired motivations and expectations, conclusions about the social context of the interaction and the ability to accomplish objectives emanating from the social or psychological contexts can be understood from the physical arrangement of elements in the environment (Hammitt, 1983). Within a given recreational experience, encounter habits and the perception of an encounter with other users of recreational facilities depend on the physical setting in which the encounter occurs (Ditton et al., 1983; Pitt et al., 1981).
2.4 COASTLINE OF SAUDI ARABIA

In the early 1900s, several trading coastal villages and towns already existed before the new central government of the kingdom's founder King Abdulaziz began to undertake a programme of resettling Bedouin and nomadic tribes near the national urban centres (Schofield, 1986). These centres included coastal communities in both the eastern and western coastal areas.

In the early 1970s, when the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia enjoyed prosperity unprecedented in its history, grand plans were made to modernise some existing maritime towns and cities to meet increasing demands of the kingdom as it moved towards the modern age.

With the increase in population and government revenue, the coastal communities began their expansion. The traditional coastal towns in the eastern and western regions, among of them Dammam and Jeddah to the east and west of Saudi Arabia respectively, experienced great changes in their infrastructure and shelter construction and became eventually great coastal cities (Waller, 1991). In the above mentioned cities there was an increased interest in reclaiming land from the sea, and projects involving massive dredging and reclamation of sand from the sea began at a great pace.

New maritime towns and cities also began to be developed alongside historical maritime villages on what were once thriving mangrove and mud flats along the shoreline. Yanbu and Jeddah on the western coast by the Red Sea, and Jubail and Dammam on the eastern coast by the Gulf, are today industrial cities with modern seaports serving the industrial and commercial trade needs of the kingdom. The great investment in capital, infrastructure and human resources towards developing the maritime cities of the kingdom provides strong evidence of the importance national government has given to them in order to promote national growth and development.
2.4.1 An overview of the maritime towns and cities in Saudi Arabia

A review of the literature on the history of the maritime towns and cities in Saudi Arabia shows that they started as port settlements. These port settlements, dating back to ancient times, suggest that all such maritime communities in Saudi Arabia were formed initially as a result of fishing as a livelihood as well as trading activity. This is the general origin of almost all the ancient port settlements along the Arabian Gulf, in which fishing villages were settled along the banks of the Gulf known to be rich in marine life (sea food) and minerals such as shells and pearls (see Fig. 2.16).

![Pearling boat's launch at Dammam settlement in 1935](Source: Municipality of Dammam city)

Figure 2.16: A picture shows a pearling boat's launch at Dammam settlement in 1935.

The export of palm dates and other agricultural products also figured in trade activities, particularly in Alogair, Tarut, and Dammam ports. In relation to that, most of the maritime cities and villages in Saudi Arabia have quays or jetties. In the early years of the 20th century the inhabitants of the villages and towns located on the Gulf (including Dammam), had direct contact with the natural shoreline of the Gulf. Later, quays were constructed extending outward to the sea.
The historical review shows evidence of fortified ancient settlements. The historical district of Jeddah city, to the west of Saudi Arabia, was a fortified harbour town in its earliest period before land reclamation and city expansion separated the old fortified district from the water's edge (Al-Shahrani, 1992). Among the other fortified harbour towns to the east of Saudi Arabia there is Tarut Island.

Unlike the western countries in the temperate regions of the world, there is no major natural river in Saudi Arabia. There are natural valleys (wadis) which are formed during the brief rainy season, but these are relatively dry during the hot summer months in the kingdom (El Khatib, 1989). However, man-made waterways do exist in the form of drainage canals and irrigation water channels in the oasis of Al-Hassa. Man-made water channels can also be found in the major cities of the kingdom, such as that bordering the western side of the historic district of Jeddah, built in the late 1970s as part of the overall master development plan of the Municipality of Jeddah (Al-Shahrani, 1992). This corridor, which also resembles an elongated man-made lake, provides boating and recreation opportunities for the residents of the city.

In terms of recreation, in contrast with the British and American sea front resort developments, beach activity in Saudi Arabia is considerably more passive and relaxation oriented; picnicking and camping is the preferred form of coastal recreation, followed by boating (Al-Abdullah, 1991). Many design plans in one form or another have been proposed in the past for the development of sea front resorts in Saudi Arabia (CH2M Hill Report, 1985).

These proposals called for the construction of piers, marinas, and even water fun parks along Dammam metropolitan coastal area. However, such plans required considerable financial investment which has discouraged many prospective private sector developers. In due time however, it is expected that sea front resort development will accelerate as the demand for more active water-related recreation and activity increases over the years.
The profitability of running sea front resorts as experienced by western type sea front resort developments will no doubt encourage private developers to study the feasibility of similar undertakings in the kingdom (Bin Mahboob, 1991).

From the review of British and American sea front resorts, we also find that various forms of coastal and water-related activities and recreation take place in the context of a mixed-use zone. This means that both families and single individuals share the sea front facilities without any form of segregation or separation. This however, is not a suitable situation in the context of Saudi Arabia, where traditionally families and single individuals are appropriately zoned away from each other as prescribed in the Shariah (Islamic Law) (Al-Abdullah, 1991 and Bahammam, 1995). Nagro (1994) found that the more vigorous and noisy form of open air amusement activities and facilities, such as roller coasters, are not yet common or conducive to the more subdued and calm state of public life traditionally found among the Arab-Islamic people.

Nowadays, a variety of waterfront related activities may be adaptable to Saudi society as the local urban population and demand for alternative forms of water or coastal-related leisure time activity and recreation increase. It is not uncommon for Saudi families to travel abroad to enjoy the attractions of Disneyland or similar family amusement resorts. The local private sector, however, have not yet fully appreciated the great income-generating potential of constructing similar resorts in the kingdom.

In contrast with the western form, the planning and design of maritime buildings and structures along the shores of the Gulf in the kingdom used to appear to follow basic traditional Arab-Islamic pattern of human settlement, with its urban form based on the symbiotic relationship between home, mosque, street, and souk (Ady, 1991). This is strikingly different from the western approach of planning and design, rooted in fundamental theory of design principles favouring expediency at the expense of traditional considerations (Alnowaiser, 1985).
Nowadays though, a few new developments along the coastal areas of the kingdom reflect a shift to western planning and design forms (Waller, 1991). Adoption of such contemporary western standards for urban waterfronts in the kingdom deserves more careful study.

2.4.2 Development experience of Jeddah’s sea front (Corniche)

Due to its strategic location as 'gateway' to the Holy Mosques of Makkah Al-Mukarramah and Al-Madina Al-Munawwarah, the maritime city of Jeddah has become very important in terms of urban development. The development of Jeddah's 80 kilometer long corniche is, in part, a response to the growing demand for leisure and recreation from foreign as well as native tourists who flock to Jeddah during the annual migration of pilgrims to the holy cities of Makkah Al-Mukarramah and Madina Al-Munawwarah for the Hajj or Umrah (Bin Mahboob A., 1991). Much can be learned therefore from the Jeddah's experience as there is no shortage of residents and visitors who are users of the famous corniche and waterfront in Jeddah.

The Physical. It is essentially for recreational reasons that the 80 kilometers of Jeddah's corniche project in the western province of Saudi Arabia was developed. In relation to this, Daniel Schofield says: "The corniche of Jeddah decisively brought the sea back into the life and heart of the city." (Schofield, 1986: 33). The moving force behind the Jeddah corniche was the former mayor of the city, Mohammed Saeed Farsi, who brought back with him from his education in Alexandria (Egypt), the concept of a contemporary corniche, which the Egyptian maritime city had named after the French model (Bin Mahboob, 1991). Jeddah's corniche project is not continuous along the sea edge for the whole of its extent because the highway frequently has to turn to avoid important sea edge land locations such as the port, the desalination plant and the King's Palace built on a reclaimed island formation.
The project has many outstanding features. The northern end of the corniche has a leisure facility patterned after a marina development type which can accommodate many forms of water recreation. There is considerable competition for water edge uses and so a sensible policy was established by the municipality of Jeddah which gave over the south side of the Sharm Obhur (creek) for public use, with the corniche road adjoining the water’s edge, leaving the north side for private use (Schofield, 1986). Other parts of the corniche feature several roundabouts with huge monumental sculptures, hotels and high rise luxury apartments, taking advantage of the sea view and corniche facilities. The corniche is dotted with hundreds of significant sculptures commissioned from both international and local artists. It is these sculptures that provide the focal elements for which the backdrop is the Red Sea, the sea front, and the man-made lakes along the corniche. All these enhance the image of the modern city of Jeddah. In planning and designing the corniche, the municipality adopted a policy for road design which was formulated to overcome the physical and financial problems which had to be solved before each stretch of road could be built. Since most of the sea edge was originally in the hands of many private owners, and in order to avoid protracted negotiations in compulsory purchase of these properties, consideration was given to the possibility of actually building in the sea since this was not privately owned and, therefore, readily obtainable. The characteristics of the sea edge also permitted the construction of the corniche without major engineering problems, and land reclamation was done over dead coral which extended several hundred metres out to the sea. In that context Daniel Schofield says:

"The one important ecological constraint is the live coral which occurs at a point where the sea suddenly plunges down to great depths. The line is marked by the wash created by waves hitting the bottom of the submerged cliff. As at Yanbu city, the richest coral reefs in the world exist alongside one of the most arid and inhospitable deserts in the world. Thus, whilst it is easy to change the shape of the indeterminate coastline, the greatest care was taken not to damage the coral reefs and it can be seen that the line of the corniche is normally kept well back from the live coral" (Schofield, 1986: 69)

5 That to say that it lacks any cliffs, and is usually formed of sand dunes or dead coral rarely exceeding two metres in height.
Considering the length of the corniche, there are many facilities which have been established through a mixture of private sector and government participation. Amusement parks, green gardens, children’s playgrounds, outdoor sculptural promenades, coastal restaurants, jogging trails, pedestrian bridges, and streetscapes are some of the many attractions and public facilities made available for the users.

Jeddah’s corniche is a category of waterfront by itself, and provides an unequalled example yet to be excelled in the kingdom (Schofield, 1986). The corniche is used mainly at night by local Saudi residents and tourists, and therefore lighting is important along the sea front. In contrast the expatriates, especially the westerners, enjoy sea front recreation which depends more on day light (Bin Mahboob, 1991).

**The Cultural.** Bin Mahboob(1991) concludes that there is a great potential for activities which could add to the increasing prospects of internal tourism, resulting in an increase in the demand and need for recreation facilities along the corniche of Jeddah.

**Characteristics of Users.** In Mahboob’s study of Jeddah’s corniche, it is pointed out that two main groups of potential leisure and recreational area users can be identified: internal tourists and pilgrims. Internal tourism increased in 1985, with a growing need felt for more attractive tourist destinations with good hotels and adequate camping and picnicking facilities. The tremendous success of Asir National park which opened to the public in 1981 demonstrated this demand, with two million tourists reported in that year alone.

**Recreation Facilities and Activities.** Jeddah’s corniche offers the visiting public a variety of recreational facilities, which generally include resorts, temporary accommodation, chalets, privately owned lands, shopping malls and kiosks, restaurants, funfairs or amusement grounds, children’s playgrounds, swimming pools, football pitches and outdoor sculptural exhibition areas.
The most common forms of recreational activities observed are:

1) Land Activities: carnival rides, sitting, walking, shopping, eating, land sports (volleyball, football), horseback and camel rides, motorbike rides, carriage riding, and kite flying.

2) Water Activities: surfing, sailing, boating, swimming, fishing, and scuba diving.

Recreation Demand in Jeddah. The research conducted by Bin Mahboob (1991) points out that all the previously mentioned activities except sitting are active recreation, and it appears that existing passive city parks are not sufficient to address recreation demand, hence the need to develop other segments of the corniche (such as the southern end) for more active recreation.

There is also great demand for more children’s playgrounds, swimming, diving and fishing areas, seaside picnic areas, and amusement park facilities for use during weekends. An increase in family areas, cultural activities and more specifically female and youth facilities was also highlighted as being necessary.

Based on a preference survey conducted in 1989 for further development of the south corniche in Jeddah, Bin Mahboob (1991) discovered that certain recreational facilities are more favoured or deemed more important than others. The following, in descending order, are these preferences: family areas, sitting areas, parks and gardens, chalets, funfair areas, sea sports, children’s playgrounds, seafood restaurants, camping sites, bachelors’ areas, car parking, football pitches, tourist villages, recreational boating facilities, private clubs, traditional restaurants, hotels and motels.

It can be concluded from Mahboob’s study of Jeddah’s corniche project that cultural factors greatly influence land use and landscape development efforts. Recreation demand, however, must be balanced with supply, which is essentially the environment in which all or part of the facilities for recreation will be built.
The Jeddah experience has also much to convey in the area of pre-existing and post-construction problems which have since posed constraints on future landscape development. These constraints found in Jeddah’s corniche today, Bin Mahboob’s study shows, stem from cultural as well as environmental sources, arising from the misguided or careless practices of the users.

2.5 CONCLUSION: The physical elements and images of developing the recreational waterfronts, and their users’ perceptions

It can be said that in the development of any waterfront - the recreational specifically - is a real challenge for the related designers or developers, where the development should be based on the merits of a particular project. Torre (1989) argues that the real challenge is in balancing the elements of the consensus so as to move in a unified direction and to avoid in-fighting as the project goes from the broad-brush planning stage to the detailed land use and design drawings that will ultimately create the waterfront’s character.

Along with other land use and zoning issues, he argues that liability, security, access and circulation, are problems that must be dealt with, to provide focus on the asset of the water for recreational purposes. Furthermore, the development of the waterfronts need to take into account that the deep water’s edge has been and always will be a potentially hazardous zone. However, a waterfront’s development is a response to the basic desire of most people to be near the water’s edge. People want a cosy, unique place to sit, drink, dine, walk, and watch people; a place surrounded by the sound, sparkle, and movement of water (Torre, 1989).
In general, it can be said that any development of a recreational sea front needs to have a life of its own before it can effectively offer experiences to visitors from outside its own boundaries. In that context Max Conrad refers to a report by Frederick Law Olmsted, prepared in 1910 for the improvement of Pittsburgh’s waterfront, where he concludes:

“Wherever in the world, as an incident of the highways and wharves along its riverbanks, a city has provided opportunity for the people to walk and sit under pleasant conditions where they can watch the water and the life upon it, where they can enjoy the breadth of outlook and the sight of the open sky and the opposite bank and the reflections in the stream, the result has added to the comeliness of the city itself, the health and happiness of the people and their loyalty and local pride.” (cited in Torre, 1989: viii)

In the context of the recent waterfront developments Torre (1989) suggests that establishing a theme that will move people and meet their expectations of what the waterfront should be will lead to defining its image. Further, he points out that the authenticity of that image will be based on historic documentation and the success or failure of the project to respond to the community’s social and cultural concerns.

Armed with photographs, drawings and current survey maps, the potential developer must attempt to coordinate and form a consensus among all agencies requiring approval on issues such as circulation, access, transportation, land-use, zoning, and environmental issues. By integrating all data, the initial theme and image of the project can take shape. Generally, establishing a successful theme - where the theme is determined by several factors - will control future spatial analysis, land use materials, scale, and meaning (Torre, 1989).

In connection with this, it can be said that delineating the special element(s) of the culture of the project’s users and its history is the first consideration, and response to climate is another factor. Moreover developing a broad range of ways to respond to a wealth of desired activities, from boating to picnicking and people watching, is important. No matter how unique or exciting a waterfront development is, it will be a success only if it functions well on all levels (Torre, 1989).
In the same vein Torre (1989) states that all levels, from regional access and circulation to adequate parking capacity, from ease and comfort of pedestrian movement to the visitors' overall experience must function successfully, as well as meet capacity on peak activity days. Further, opportunities to eat, watch people, or simply sit and relax are essential to a successful waterfront development.

In essence a very important question is raised: what should the characteristics be of the site (area) and place (spot) where these activities are practised? In connection with this, Torre states:

"Man is mysteriously attracted to the coastal environment - with its refreshing and cleansing water, gentle breeze, marine wildlife, recreational ambiance, and natural beauty." (Torre, 1989: vii)

In addition, he argues that, as the community grows older and permits its people more recreational time than ever before, the consequent demand for the marvellous feeling found at the water's edge is shaping romantic projects for cities, either with populations of 10 thousand or 10 million. Furthermore, the shores of oceans, seas, the banks of lakes, rivers, streams, and estuaries are all being explored and used to offer a fuller life experience for all people as well to educate them about their environment. It can be said that, at once calm and dynamic, profoundly symbolic in religion and literature, water evokes primeval emotions in all of us, and its lure is powerful and universal.

To recapitulate, the social and cultural value of man's need for recreational water-related activities is something that must first be weighed in order to understand what attracts man to the water so much, and thus to satisfy his related needs. In addition the developer must understand what 'core' elements should be realised successfully within the area of the activity.
In relation to this, Breen and Rigby (1994) point out that waterfront planning and development is something of a field in its own right. They state:

"In 1990 the jury on urban design of Progressive Architecture found that most entries were waterfront projects. Landscape Architecture devoted its February 1991 issue to 'new urban waterfronts'. Many design and engineering firms list 'waterfront planning' as a field of specialisation in their promotional materials. In 1991 there were three urban waterfront conferences in Europe alone." (Breen and Rigby, 1994: 11)

The 20th century waterfronts have a wide range of land-uses: marketplaces, residences, restaurants, offices, aquariums and open spaces. Therefore, Breen and Rigby (1994) classify them as follows: cultural waterfronts, environmental waterfronts, historic waterfronts, mixed-use waterfronts, residential waterfronts, working waterfronts and recreational waterfronts.

These types have been classified by their characteristics, which stem from the functions and services they offer to their users. 'Characteristic' here means an elusive quality that makes one person or place unique. Breen and Rigby (1994) argue that there is a lack of understanding and appreciation of the nature of many waterfronts, which has often led to overzealous clean-up and replacement programmes. For example, what appears to be messy and disorderly may be a viable marine industry (such as a boat repair yard).

Their arguments are extended to indicate that many of the most interesting waterfront areas mix incongruous or seemingly incompatible activities: a restaurant amid dry docks (San Francisco), condominiums beside a commercial fishing industry (Portland, Maine), a library with a retail marketplace (Dartmouth, Nova Scotia), an art school next to a concrete plant (Granville Island, Vancouver), a park within a port (Oakland, California), and many other examples. These mixes offer a welcome contrast to many of today's bland environments. Waterfronts likewise possess a no-nonsense quality that is an attractive contrast to much of today's sleek development.
However, Breen and Rigby (1994) stress that the idiosyncratic nature of waterfronts, and most especially the presence of a water body, call for careful design. In connection with this, they point out that a troubling tendency by some architects and developers is to repeat standard building forms when working on the development of the waterfronts. Accordingly, this means that we have waterfront developments or designs executed with no respect for context, or even for water views.

In relevance to the case of Saudi Arabia the situation looks the same, as the land reclamations and filings at the sea shorelines ignored the wonderful natural qualities of the developed areas, including all aspects of vegetation, marine, estuary mangroves, and aquatic wildlife (Nagro, 1994). Moreover, the social and cultural aspects of the people using the coastal areas that developed for recreational purposes were not properly taken in considerations as been mentioned earlier in Chapter one of this study.

In essence it can be said that one of the common failings of many waterfront projects is a lack of interpretation of both the natural features of the site and the cultural values of the users. Putting it differently, one can say that the success of any waterfront development relies on a clear understanding and appreciation of its context (cultural and environmental). In relation to that Breen and Rigby state: "The rote copying of other's successes can end in economic failure, or projects that are unsympathetic to their context." (Breen and Rigby, 1994: 23)

Awareness is growing of the strength and importance of cultural and environmental attractions on waterfronts, and the fact that more than shops are required to make an interesting experience and encourage repeat visitation (Breen and Rigby, 1994). With regard to this they argue that public urban waterfront sites offer an unusual opportunity to educate visitors of all ages about the social, maritime, cultural and environmental heritage of an area.
In addition, besides the water itself, there is the shoreline ecology and surrounding flora and fauna to discover through environmental education. In general, waterfronts are logical, and dramatic, sites for public educational facilities, including museums - maritime, art, science, and others - as well as halls of fame and aquariums, the latter a particularly striking phenomenon with a great potential to involve citizens of all ages directly with their environment. Amphitheatres, outdoor auditoriums, major concert facilities, and other cultural venues, enjoy waterfront locales (Breen and Rigby, 1994).

In relation to the recreational opportunities that waterfronts offer, many of them are choice sites for spectacular public gathering spaces, including grand plazas and parks. One of the major attributes of public waterfront projects is that they become ideal in offering neutral territory for festival and other community gatherings. Breen and Rigby conclude that water will continue its magical lure as a key for the recreational developments on its edge, and they state: "Urban waterfronts are and will continue to be a most important and dynamic area of urban planning and development for years." (Breen and Rigby, 1994: 28).

To conclude, it can be said that the development of a recreational sea front can provide a pleasant setting indeed when sensitive site planning and development principles are applied to create quality areas or places which are appropriate to the socio-cultural background of its users.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER THREE

INTERRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIO-CULTURE AND DEVELOPMENT OF RECREATIONAL SEA FRONTS
CHAPTER 3: INTERRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIO-CULTURE AND DEVELOPMENT OF RECREATIONAL SEA FRONTS

3.1 INTRODUCTION: Role of the socio-cultural background in developing the built environment

The intention of this study is to detect, explore and understand the recreation behavioural patterns of local families while picnicking on the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia, in order to offer them a socio-cultural supportive landscape development. It has been said that people's behaviour in the outdoors is influenced by the context of the physical environment surrounding them as well as their cultural background (Altman and Chemers, 1984). As an approach for this study, and in order to have a clear understanding of people's behaviour in a given built environment, the interplay between people's culture and their surrounding physical environment has to be clarified. Each part of this interplay has several meanings which relate to the context of the word 'use'.

Culture has a wide context which includes what people believe to be true of their lives, and also their values. Moreover, culture holds within it a set of rules and beliefs in terms of how behaviour should be, and how things should be done. Culture, therefore, could be understood as collective ways of viewing the world, and the shared values that influence behaviour (Altman and Chemers, 1984; Jackson, 1994).

On the other hand, the physical environment also has several dimensions. These can be subdivided into two main categories as follows:

1) The natural environment: that refers to places and geographical features such as mountains, and environmental conditions such as climatic data.

2) The built environment: the results of people's alterations of the environment, such as homes. In addition the built environment could refer in some cases to alterations of natural environmental features, such as water bodies (Altman and Chemers, 1984).
However, in this study, the physical environment refers to the built environment with both its natural and built features. Furthermore, Altman and Chemers (1984) argue that cultures and the built environment are linked with people by various psychological processes; among them are behavioural settings, which is the approach of this study.

Behavioural settings refers to what people do, and how they act and react in relation to their surrounding physical environment. Among the people's behaviour in the outdoor recreation are their attempts, which are related to their social and cultural background, to achieve privacy, to establish and control territories, and their use of the land for practising certain activities (Altman and Chemers, 1984). In general, the attempts vary from one society to another according to the society's ' socio-cultural values ' (Rapoport, 1990).

The term ' socio-culture ' is an aggregate. ' Socio ' refers to the social relationships between groups within the society (Webster's Encyclopaedia, 1989). The word ' culture ', has a wide range of meanings. Anthropologists refer to it as the total socially acquired lifestyle of a group of people, including behavioural patterns, attitudes, repetitive ways of thinking, feeling, and acting (Hall, 1959). Marbin Harris says:

"Culture... taken in its wide ethnographic sense is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. The condition of culture among the various societies of mankind, in so far as it is capable of being investigated on general principles, is a subject apt for the study of laws of human thought and action."

(Marbin Harris, 1985: 114)

In addition Frampton (1983) argues that ' culture ' in its broad definition refers to the expression of meanings. However, in relation to the field of the built environment, cultural components have been classified and summarised by Altman and Chemers (1984) who have identified these meanings in four different sets, which in combination could be used for the purpose of the study at hand:
The first refers to the beliefs and perception, values and norms, customs and behaviour of a group or society. Culture includes what people believe to be true of the world, their lives, and the environment. It also includes their values, or what they hold to be good and bad, acceptable and unacceptable. The second indicates that cognition, feelings, and behaviours are shared and agreed upon among a group of people. The third indicates that these shared beliefs, values, and styles of behaviour are passed on to others, especially children. Also, arising from these is another part of culture: a set of rules and beliefs about how to behave or do things. Finally, cultural associations are found both in objects and in the physical environment, which explicitly reflect the values and beliefs of a culture.

In the same vein, Francies (1982) also argues that the term ‘socio-culture’ signifies the unity between society and culture which forms a system or a set of rules that govern the human behaviour of a group of a people. These patterns of behaviour contain a wide variety of human concerns and responses related to attitudes, moral, ethical and environmental values, tests and judgements, qualities, and lifestyles.

In connection with this, Westin expressed the reality of how socio-cultural values influence the environment when he stated:

“People in different cultures experience the world differently not only in terms of language but also with their senses. They inhabit a different sensory world, affecting the way they relate to one another in the space, in matters ranging from their concepts of architecture to furniture arrangement.” (Westin, 1970: 15)

However, socio-cultural values can be expressed as significant motivational forces behind the shape of the built environment. This significance stems from the role they play (Rapoport, 1980 and 1995). In relation to this, Altman and Zube (1989) claim that the order of human utilised spaces and their spatial relationship that links the various activities is believed to be directed by a very well arranged and valued set of rules shared by the users of the environment as part of their culture.
The accumulation of the rules of any society is what makes the life style of the people (Rapoport, 1980, and Altman and Chemers, 1984). This idea of rules is expressed in Rapoport’s statement:

"The rules which guide the organisation of space, time, meaning and communication show regularity because they are linked systematically to culture.......These create a system of rules and habitats which reflect ideas and create a lifestyle, guiding behaviour, rules, manners, the food eaten as well as built form.......In the case of the built environment, these rules affect the separation of objects and people according to various criteria.......What distinguishes one environment from another is the nature of the rules embodied or encoded in it." (Rapoport, 1980: 14)

In connection with this, Rapoport (1990) concludes that meaning differs among different groups of people, consequently leading to different judgements and choices. Further, he observes that the meaning of certain built environments to certain people is strongly related to their socio-cultural background, which contains certain shared images, ideas or values.

Thus one way of achieving a clearer understanding of how the socio-cultural background of the Saudi families influences their picnicking behaviour on the recreational sea fronts involves exploring their recreation in the outdoors as an interrelationship resulting from the interplay of their socio-cultural values with the surrounding physical environment.
3.2 INTERRELATIONS BETWEEN OUTDOOR RECREATION, LANDSCAPE DEVELOPMENT AND CULTURE

It has been said that the outdoor recreational facilities are the landscape structure zones of a city (Beer, 1994). In essence this means that the development plans of these zones should be prepared by a landscape architect who is the provider of the landscape development documents. So what is meant by landscape development? Landscape development means developing an environment which fits people, according to Jackson (1970). It is important in the context of this research to understand how landscape development interrelates with culture.

Prior to this we should note that, as people's attitudes and their participation patterns continually progress or develop, and major changes are still taking place, recreation, like other aspects of human behaviour, is constantly changing (Chubb, 1981). Therefore, it would be helpful in the outset here to have a brief historical perspective on the issue of recreation.

3.2.1 A brief overview of the history of recreation

Recreation is not completely a product of a modern industrial society (Patmore, 1972). Its magnitude and scale has certainly multiplied in modern times; nevertheless it existed and has been practised since early civilisations (Chubb, 1981).

Since ancient times, recreation has been practised by mankind for the sake of refreshment and relaxation after labour. Moreover, it was used to strengthen social ties between members of a society through celebrating certain events such as religious occasions. In addition dancing around fire, in some ancient societies, might for example, carry a variety of significant meanings, among which was definitely recreation (Chubb, 1981). However, many forms of recreation experienced by early man and by ancient societies are still practised today.
With the appearance of the urban settlements of the Assyrians, Babylonians and Egyptians, recreation became more varied. Organised recreational activities such as hunting, horse racing, wrestling, and many other combative pursuits started to emerge and were societal (Chubb, 1981). Furthermore, as human civilisation progressed, lands which had been set aside for recreation became more extensive, for example, the water gardens at Karnak in the upper Valley of the Nile in Egypt and the famous hanging gardens of Babylon (Chubb, 1981).

In about 500 BC, during the time that Greek culture reached its peak, the value of different types of recreation became a significant issue. The Greek developed the concept that intelligent use of free time is the main purpose of life. This is known as their 'Leisure Ethic' (Chubb, 1981).

When the Roman Empire grew rich, the provision of public recreation became a major government function and expense. In AD 80, the Coliseum arena was completed and eventually became the heart of life in Rome. Huge arenas were built in most of the major towns throughout the Roman world.

During the period that followed the fall of the Roman Empire, the prevailing religious belief was that the principal purpose of living was to prepare the soul for salvation. This belief had a deep effect on recreation all over the western world and continued to do so until the start of the Renaissance period, during which time the construction of recreational entities began to increase. Most of these were developed as a part of private estates by the aristocracy (Chubb, 1981).

A few of these developments (parks and gardens) were open to the public on a regular basis, but most were private and open only on specific occasions. Some of them are now public open spaces, such as the geometrically shaped formal gardens at the Palace of Versailles on the suburbs of Paris (Chubb, 1981). All through the Renaissance period participation in recreation was limited to the ruling classes. There were essentially no lands or programmes specifically designed for public recreation.
With the beginning of the Industrial Revolution in the eighteenth century, exciting changes occurred, 'steam', the new energy power, stimulated the development of the cities, which grew rapidly in size. Consequently, more people lived in urban dwellings than ever before. For example, in Europe, Patmore (1972) noted that by 1851 half the population of England were urban dwellers. In America, exploration of the northwest of the United States and the discovery of natural wonders such as the Yellowstone area in the Rocky Mountains led to the first protected natural park, in 1872 (Chubb, 1981).

With regards to urbanisation, most of the publicly enjoyed open space was in the form of relatively small commons (Patmore, 1972 and Chubb, 1981), for example squares with boulevards and small crescent gardens in more complicated communities, such as London and Edinburgh (Barnett, 1987). Therefore, at the beginning of the 19th century, sports events and picnicking activities in Britain were practised on open land outside the urban areas, generally on common land. Similarly, in America such events usually took place on private land outside the urban areas, mostly commonly on fields at the edge of a river or a lake (Patmore, 1972).

Industrial growth and rapid urbanisation made it increasingly complicated for urban dwellers to reach open spaces outside developed areas. Accordingly, some cities begun to develop larger parks in order to provide opportunities that had formerly been offered in open rural areas. For example, the Royal Parks in the West End and centre of London, had long been accessible to the public, such as St. James's Park which was designed from the first for public use, and in this sense perhaps may be considered the first English public park (Patmore, 1972).

In the United States, we can see the influence of the romantic attitude toward landscape in New York city's Central Park where urbanisation and romanticism are combined (Chubb, 1981).
In fact, its design by Frederick Olmsted and Calvert Vaux initiated the image of natural landscape rather than the geometric design approach (Pregill, 1993). The prevailing reputation of Central Park's aesthetic and functional features resulted in it being the model for many other grandly landscaped North American urban parks (Pregill, 1993).

Chubb (1981) has concluded that, from the decline of the Roman Empire until the early part of the 20th century, there were practically no persisting public programmes to provide recreation for the average citizen, although to assure loyalty, some of the aristocracy and medieval rulers occasionally provided sporting events or festivities as an indication of good will. The idea of using substantial amounts of tax money for the growth of recreational facilities for the public was entirely radical in this period (Pregill, 1993). However, a series of events and situations occurred during the 20th century which established governmental involvement in recreation on a major scale.

In the 20th century, the decrease of working days to around five 9-hour days was one of a variety of conditions that contributed to the increase of participation in recreation. An enormous number of the public in urban areas were starting to have significant amounts of free time and available income (Roberts, 1978). The participation of governments in recreation is a unique addition to the status of recreation in this century.

This contribution has been presented in the form of a series of acts and the establishment of governmental and professional land-managing agencies. However, the establishing of the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC) in 1958 in the United States was the most important addition which raised the phenomenon of public recreation to the level of a regular and important affair of government in the west (Chubb, 1981). Burton (1976) and Chubb (1981) show that the Commission's frame of reference committed it to clarifying the recreational desires of the people of United States until the end of this century.
In addition it was required to produce a record of the resources wanted to meet the need for recreation, and to suggest policies and programmes which would ensure that current and future needs and wants would be efficiently and adequately met.

Various other nations set out to commence similar tasks, following the United States’ initiative. For example, a Commission to Review the Resources for Outdoor Recreation (CRROR) was established in Sweden in 1962, to outline the volume of outdoor recreational demands and the availability of resources to provide for them. In addition, during the year 1965 in Britain two national recreation studies were individually instituted. One of them, sponsored by the British Travel Association, focused upon patterns of outdoor non-urban recreation activity. On the other hand, the Government Social Survey was wider in scope, and the intention was to evaluate the patterns of participation in outdoor activities, and particularly the frequency and the manner of use of urban open space (Chubb, 1981). With the passage of time many governments, including most of the Middle Eastern ones, followed up in the same way, involving themselves in the field of recreation development in their own countries.

In the Middle East, recreation has a long historical background. Its history goes back to the contribution of early civilisations that dominated the region and which witnessed the major events and birth of the religions that shaped our world. In the 7th century, the Middle East was home to many different powers and cultures which witnessed serious conflicts and interactions among the major civilisations of that time. These interactions gave the region its importance as a multi-cultural area for all aspects of life, including recreation (Bahammam, 1995).

At that time, the strong Byzantine Empire was at war with Persia when unexpectedly, highly mobile armies of Arab horsemen appeared on their boundaries. These armies fought obeying the dictates of the newly named faith 'Islam'. Within the space of a hundred years, the Islamic Caliphate had extended itself to the boundaries of India and China in the east, and throughout North Africa and Spain to France in the west.
Before the rise of Islam, Arabs were shepherds and traders who travelled throughout the desert of their peninsula and into the bordering regions and empires. Hunting and camping in the desert valleys and around oases were the recreational patterns that they knew. They enjoyed a wide range of activities, and entertainments occurred on a big scale at gatherings and annual festivals in the peninsula, such as Suq Ukaz and other similar occasions. Moreover, gardens and paradise were frequent poetic themes throughout Syria, Palestine and Iraq. The gardens that they saw in regions of Persia and the Byzantine Empire astonished and fascinated them (Bahammam, 1995).

The Muslims evolved quickly and interacted amicably with all the people they lived with. Their cities became world centres of scholarship. The famous libraries of earlier civilisations became the esteemed possessions of Muslim scholars. Furthermore, the entire tradition of ancient Greece, both scientific and philosophical, that had been decaying in the west for centuries, was offered new spirit and became highly evolved due to developments made by the Muslims.

This progress effected all aspects of life. During the Caliphate period the first designed urban public gardens in the world were constructed and recreation was given attention by the highest authorities. When Baghdad was built on the bank of the Tigris River by Abu Jaffar Al-Mansour (the founder of the Abbasid Caliphate) in 145 AH (around AD 762-63), recreation was intentional for all citizens. In general, because of the compactness of the Muslim cities, the severity of the climate, and the scarcity of water and natural vegetation in and near settlements, the popularity of courtyard houses and open spaces in group houses grew.

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1 Suq Ukaz: a market that used to be held annually close to the city of Makkah. It was considered to be a huge occasion that celebrated all aspects of the lifestyle of society at that time.

2 The Islamic era is based on the Hijrah calendar. Hijrah means migration and refers to the Prophet Mohammed's journey (peace be upon him) from the city of Makkah to the city of Madina on 16 July AD 622. In fact, the Islamic calendar is lunar, and its year has 354 days. The term 'AH' stands for Anno Hegirea (Hegirea being the Latinised form of Hijrah).

3 The courtyard system was advanced by the Assyrians in Mesopotamia around 1500 BC.
These courtyards were organised and developed to a garden-like feature within the shape of the house to provide a detached open space for family members and relatives to rest in (Bahammam, 1995).

To sum up, most people throughout in the Muslim world had no facilities for public recreation, and large flourishing gardens were limited only to the most powerful rulers. Examples of these gardens have been conserved in North Africa, Spain, Iran, India, and elsewhere.

### 3.2.2 Outdoor recreation: recreation in the context of open space

When discussing the issue of recreation in the context of the 'open space', it would be helpful to define each term individually to help clarify their relationship. The definition of 'open space' stems from the distinction between 'space' as absolute or space as relative (O'Keefe and Nadel, 1978).

Space in the absolute, is understood as a framework that exists independently of anything contained within it; moreover if the material objects located at particular places within the framework are removed, the space exists unchanged (Liben, 1981). Liben then goes on to define space in relative terms as an expression of a set of relationships among objects. Under this view, space changes with alterations in the position of objects and of the observer.

Space in this research refers to the 'physical and relative'. Space which Einstein defines as being relative, could be defined as a (small) portion of the earth's surface identified by a name (Liben, 1981). Moreover it is called 'open', to differentiate it from an enclosed one, and to indicate that it is exposed and more interrelated with the outdoors.
The term 'recreation' stems from the Latin word 'recreatio', a restoration or refreshment (Kaplan, 1960). In the Oxford English Dictionary (1933), it is defined as: "the action of recreating (oneself or another), or fact of being recreated, by some pleasant occupation, pastime or amusement". (cited in Chubb and Chubb, 1981: 5).

Chubb and Chubb (1981), describe it in a broader context as being "any type of conscious enjoyment". Webster's Dictionary defines it as: "Refreshment of strength and spirits after toil: diversion." (Webster's Dictionary, 1994). In addition Torkildsen defined recreation as consisting of:

"... activities or experiences carried on within leisure, usually chosen voluntarily by the participant either because of satisfaction, pleasure or creative enrichment derived, or because he perceives certain personal or social values to be gained from them". (Torkildsen, 1986: 164)

How then is leisure related to recreation? Torkildsen intends to show that there is a correlation between leisure and recreation when he explains leisure as a perception of:

"... blocks of time when we are freest to be ourselves, as activities, as a state of being, as an all embracing attitude to life merging the three dimensions of time, activity and state of mind as perceived freedom to choose". (Torkildsen, 1986: 188).

In addition Webster's Dictionary defines leisure as "Freedom provided by the cessation of activities; especially time free from work or duties." (Webster's Dictionary, 1994). In general the correlation between leisure and recreation can be understood in the context of recreation as activities pursued during leisure time, which is related to the whole of non-work time (Patmore, 1983).

So, 'recreation' in this research refers to any type of conscious enjoyment which can take place in any time free from work or duties, under the condition of occurring in the outdoors. In other words, 'recreation in the open space' is normally used to describe any type of safe and harmless outdoor activity that provides enjoyment and refreshment to the participant/s.
As recreation is being discussed in the context of open space, it is important to clarify that this study relates to outdoor recreation in the domain of the built environment. This means we refer to all those aspects beyond the face value of their physical properties, to all those other things in life to which people attach significance and value - including their purposes, their ideas and their beliefs - which are expressed through choices they make about the built environment and behaviour they carry out in the built environment (Rapoport, 1990).

In other words, the forms and the degree of interaction between man and his built environment is the physical expression of his feeling towards the environment and its meaning to him (Altman and Chemers, 1984). 'Spatial behaviour', i.e. human behaviour in space (the built environment), must be studied and analysed by understanding the users' physical expression in the utilised built environment; in this study it is families' picnicking patterns on the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia.

3.2.3 General factors contributing to increased demand for outdoor recreation: an Overview

A growing percentage of the income of Saudi Arabians is being spent on leisure. In recent years the government has provided large sport complexes in the major centres and is keen to promote outdoor recreations. Recreation should have purpose and direction, and one of the best statements of purpose was that given by Joseph Prendergast, former Director of the National Recreation and Park Association in USA, when he stated:

"Children need happy, healthful social play to attain their fullest development; young people require wholesome recreation opportunities to replace questionable amusements which might lead to delinquency; workers need recreation during their off-duty hours in order to keep their spirits and production high; adults and the aged need opportunities to find the most satisfying use of their expanding leisure time."
The National Outdoor Recreation Plan in USA (Outdoor Recreation Policy Group, 1983) states that recreation yields three basic types of benefits. These are:

1) direct satisfaction to the individual; 2) enhancement of the overall mental and physical quality of the individual - an investment in human capital adding to the productivity of the individual and society; and 3) important third-party benefits such as increased business and property values.

Therefore recreation, like education, yields benefits of both a monetary and a non-monetary nature (Rodney and Toalson, 1981). In the same vein it has been argued by Manning (1986) that demand for outdoor recreation can be made as a hierarchy of demand: demand for activities (e.g. picnicking); for settings (e.g. at a water’s edge); for experiences (e.g. to be alone, to be close to nature); and for benefits (e.g. enhanced self-esteem). In general, several factors contribute to the increasing demand for outdoor recreation. These can be categorised as demographic factors, attendance to recreation areas, satisfaction of users, and use / non-use of existing recreation facilities (Outdoor Recreation Policy Group, 1983 and Lahringer, 1970).

**Demographic Factors**

1) Population. Of all factors, population size is the most basic. As population increases, demand can be expected to increase, if all other variables remain constant. Population distribution by place of residence is a more important factor than gross population increase. Many more people live in urban areas than rural today, and this imbalance is likely to be even more pronounced in the future. Obviously, then, demand for outdoor recreation by urban dwellers is likely to grow faster than a similar demand by rural dwellers, whose numbers are static or falling.

The Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC) study in the USA in 1981 shows that suburbanites engage in outdoor recreation more than do city residents, possibly because of variations of income, occupation and education (Outdoor Recreation Policy Group, 1983).
In relation to this, it can be said that certainly in western society and possibly elsewhere, rural dwellers had by the nature of their surroundings intrinsic opportunities for informal or incidental recreation not available in towns, and so demand for specific recreation facilities may be less.

An increase in the proportion of young people (in the 15-24 age bracket) in the population also increases demand for outdoor recreation. Young people are much more active than their elders. Moreover, the activities they demand - swimming, boating, camping, hiking and other similar pursuits - require greater overall space than some of the less strenuous activities preferred by older citizens.

2) Education and Occupation. Participation in outdoor recreation was revealed by the ORRRC report to rise as the educational level increases. Some activities such as water skiing and hiking reflect this relationship to a greater degree than do other activities such as fishing and hunting. The ORRRC study estimated that for almost all recreation activities, moderate shifts in occupational patterns do not produce significant effects upon demand.

Attendance at Recreation Areas

1) Leisure Time. Average work hours per day, work days per week and work weeks per year in the USA are steadily declining (Outdoor Recreation Policy Group, 1983). The ORRRC study indicated that in 1960 the average scheduled work week for industry was 39 hours, and in 1976 it was 36 hours. This was projected to 32 hours by the year 2000. The time distribution for leisure has an important bearing on recreation demand. Most people's leisure time occurs at weekends and during the annual vacation periods. This places a special responsibility on the resource manager, who must attempt to satisfy what appears to be an insatiable demand at weekends as compared with a relatively low demand during weekdays. The demand is also much higher during the summer than during other seasons.
2) Mobility. Mobility exerts a strong influence upon the demand for outdoor recreation. Speed and comfort of travel are the most critical elements in mobility. An important factor in the increased demand for outdoor recreation is the reduction in travel time resulting from improved highways.

Limited access, multiple-lane highways provide a strong inducement to urban residents to leave the city for even relatively short periods of time. Today's automobiles offer the traveller a level of privacy, comfort and convenience unsurpassed in history. Modern highways are engineered for driving safely and comfortably. Recent efforts at improving the highway environment through the establishment of scenic areas have enhanced the pleasures of driving and lead to greater demands for outdoor recreational services.

Mobility as a factor affecting demand relates negatively to lower income groups living in larger cities or in rural areas. For the most part, these people do not own automobiles and cannot afford public transport to recreation sites at some distance from the city. Buses or other provided means of transport for people living in the 'inner city' or remote rural areas could increase an immediate demand quite significantly (Outdoor Recreation Policy Group, 1983).

Satisfaction of Users

1) Experience and Background. The recreational experience and background of recreationists directly affect their choice of activities. For example, persons with rural backgrounds, because of their experiences and exposure to the outdoors, tend to spend more leisure time hunting and fishing than persons reared in urban environments (Outdoor Recreation Policy Group, 1983).

Most people obviously tend to engage in activities they find pleasurable and to avoid dissatisfying experiences. Young people are apt to be innovative and daring in venturing into new activities. Older people tend to be more conservative.
2) Climate. Outdoor recreation cannot be enjoyed in bad or less than ideal weather conditions. Climate contributes a positive psychological value to the anticipation that precedes the opening of a season for a certain activity (Fogg, 1987).

In the context of Saudi Arabia, people look forward to the Eid seasons, which are generally the times for most of people who live in coastal cities for going camping or picnicking at the beach to benefit from good weather, especially in the evening (Al-Abdullah, 1991).

Use / Non-use of Existing Recreation Facilities

1) Supply and Opportunity. Supply often creates demand, so that new public recreation facilities may be filled to near capacity when first opened (Fogg, 1987). The effect of supply upon demand can become a significant factor in recreational planning. Opportunity of outdoor recreation is considered to be a function of three elements: the quantity and quality of physical resources, the accessibility and development of these resources, and the relative degree of use made of them (Lahringer, 1970).

2) Promotion. Advertising and other forms of promotion can create or increase the demand for certain forms of outdoor recreation. Proper publicity can direct attention to under-utilised activities or facilities away from overcrowded facilities. Promotional efforts can also be used to publicise activities which the recreation planner believes to be more beneficial to the individual than other less desirable activities (Outdoor Recreation Policy Group, 1983).

3) Comparative Costs. There are two kinds of costs involved in outdoor recreation. The first of these - time cost - has already been covered in the discussion of mobility as a factor of demand. Most outdoor recreation also involves financial costs.

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4 Eid seasons are annual celebration events for all Muslim people. These events take place twice a year (the Hegira year); one is directly after the holy month of Ramadan, and the other is directly after the performance of the pilgrimage procedures at Makkah in the month of Dhu’Alhigeah.
This takes two forms: the cost of travel to and from recreation sites, and the costs of the experience itself, including equipment, admittance, lodging, food and other items. Some types of recreation activities require much heavier outlays than others, particularly where vacation homes are involved. Obviously, cost is a major factor influencing demand.

3.2.4 Landscape development as a cultural issue

It is argued that virtually nothing is known about landscape as a totality (Pregill, 1993). Landscape meanings and values vary from place to place, from era to era and from one culture to another in ways that are little understood; we do not even know which landscape attachments are universal and which are specific to a particular time or place (Penning-Rowsell and Lowenthal, 1986).

The term ‘landscape’, however, is of relatively recent origins traceable to the Renaissance and closely related to landscape painting. From this the concept of landscape development grew (Rapoport, 1992). Jackson (1984) argues that landscapes in general are the result of human action, or at least they have been considerably modified by it; thus Rapoport (1992) calls them ‘cultural landscapes’.

A ‘cultural landscape’ designates the result of the interaction between human action and the natural landscape, and the more modified by humans, the more ‘cultural’ a landscape. Rapoport says: “All (or most) landscapes are cultural in the sense that they result from human actions on natural givens.” (Rapoport A., 1992: 33-47).

Particular landscapes can be identified by the ways they were settled, developed, used and modified. As such, landscapes include overall spatial organisation, land uses, circulation networks, plants, field layouts, fencing, buildings, settlements, and so on (Foreman and Gordon, 1986).
Therefore, ‘landscape’ refers to the integration of natural and human phenomena on a portion of the earth’s surface (Cosgrove, 1984). Moreover, landscapes as systems of settings are always ‘symbolic’, i.e. they are not only a concrete physical reality but always have meanings, or are connected to particular meanings, which is another way of saying they are cultural (Rapoport, 1990; Jones and Daugstad, 1997).

In relation to this, Vink (1983) has claimed that the differential interaction over time of the many cultural characteristics of the user groups with a variety of physio-graphic and ecological specifics of the land and climatic constraints, affects the cultural relationship of landscape developments.

‘Cultural characteristics’, means that members of a group or a society must have the same or very similar shared ‘schemata’ (Rapoport, 1980). These ‘schemata’ can refer to ideal landscapes which may be symbolic, or imaginary landscapes such as heaven, hell, paradise and so on (Rapoport, 1990). Rapoport explains how such schemata are translated into form:

"Any translation involves human action; it is people who create landscapes, as they do any environment. They do this by applying systems of rules that try to re-create. These systems of rules can be formal or informal,... however, they provide the frameworks within which the apparently independent decisions ‘add up’. "
(Rapoport, 1986, a: 157-175)

These systems can be seen as a specific aspect of habitual behaviour resulting from culture, and also as related to the definition of culture as a framework for assembling particulars (Hakim, 1986). As an aspect of culture, rules (like schemata) are in turn related to lifestyles, values and norms, and world views (Rapoport, 1990a). Moreover Rapoport states:

"A homogeneous group within a localised area following rules which lead to systematic choices typically produces a distinctive cultural landscape."
(Rapoport, 1992: 33-47)
It should be noted that real landscapes are evaluated by schemata in terms of ideal landscapes. In essence this is the case with the evaluation of all environments, for example those that are disliked, misunderstood, or inappropriate, because they are conflicting with a particular observer's schemata, ideals, values and norms (Rapoport, 1992). Rapoport says:

"Human activities are more varied than seems apparent, and this variability lies, above all, in their latent aspects - i.e., in their meaning, which is most closely related to culture, both through life-style and ideals, the values and norms embodied in schemata." (Rapoport, 1990, b: 75-88)

Being designed environments, Rapoport argues that cultural landscapes can be conceptualised as organisations of space, time, meaning and communication. For example, space organisation reflects and influences communication among people, and also communicates meaning from the environment to people. Moreover he indicates that a cultural landscape is a system of settings within which particular systems of activities (including their latent aspects) take place in space and time, incorporating particular proximity, linkages and separations, and boundaries among settings.

In other words, development plan (design) is best conceptualised as involving the organisation of space and time; thus the questions 'Who does what, where, when...?' will receive very different answers. It means the settings comprising the system are linked in space and time through the systems of activities (Rapoport, 1986.b). 'Activities system' refers to the ways in which they are distributed among settings in space and time, or in other words, to how their relative locations concern the placement of areas of use and circulation on the site.

In addition cultural landscapes need to be conceived, planned and designed from the ground level, as they are perceived and comprehended by users from that perspective (Jackson, 1984). In the same context it had been argued that, in reality, awareness of a landscape is additive; it should be constructed from successive views over time and involves sequence, memory, and so on (Hublin, 1989).
In the same vein Rapoport (1992) argues that the experience of cultural landscapes is dynamic, because it is perceived by active and goal-directed users with varying purposes. He adds that, given the close relationship of the organisation of the landscape to ideals and schemata, this process needs to be analysed in the context of meaning.

Rapoport (1990), however, has argued that meaning is most important, since familiar landscapes are supportive and provide symbols of identity. The organisation of the cultural landscape is thus a matter of imposing an order, as is design in the more common sense of the term. He concludes that in principle, no manmade landscape can be chaotic, any more than culture can be; there can only be different orders, since landscape and culture are systematically related.

Rapoport continues discussing in his article 'On Cultural Landscapes' (1992) the general view that cultural landscapes cannot be discussed in terms of the observer's or the analyst's likes or dislikes. Instead, they need to be understood analytically in terms of what they are, how they can be conceptualised, what their components are and what process should be used to translate their underlying schemata into landscape forms. When schemata and rules are shared, the results tend to be much clearer than when they are not. In reality adequate data are often unavailable on contemporary cultural landscapes, and normally it is difficult to know where to start. In the same article Rapoport suggests that analysing the cultural landscapes is probably the only way to generalise and build up proper views of future landscape developments.

This, then, will be the approach taken by the current study; the interrelationship between the users and the environment of Dammam recreational sea-front will be analysed and the related landscape development data will be provided. This data is related to the local families' selection of picnicking sites and their formation of picnicking places.
In relation to this, Appleton (1990) has stated that landscape development should consist of an assortment of symbols of environmental opportunity to which we respond with varying degrees of pleasure or anxiety. The major goal of any successful landscape development, therefore, should be to provide spaces and places where people feel socially and culturally comfortable and have choices of activity and association that harmonise with the natural environment and cause it no harm.

3.2.5 Outdoor recreation projects as landscape developments

As has been mentioned above, landscape developments are normally socio-culturally related and as well as related to the physical environment; in particular, they are located outdoors. These interrelations must be clarified for the sake of this study, as the following discussion shows.

Physical environments consist of various ‘spatial’ elements with certain functions and meanings. They vary in their ability and flexibility to promote certain activities, as well as in the ways they relate to certain human behaviour (Alnowaiser, 1985). This behaviour is influenced by the mediators (variables) of natural factors such as climate and topography on the one hand, and human artifices as social mechanisms on the other. The term ‘spatial’ refers to ‘place’, which is the unique identity of a space derived from a ‘perceptual unity’ and one’s sense of attachment (Alnowaiser, 1985).

A place can be identified with humans, animals or objects; it can be ‘my place’, ‘their place’, ‘the horse’s place’ (barn), ‘the car’s place’ (garage, parking) and so on. Moreover, it can be said that ‘place’ is the result of a relation that every inhabitant develops with his immediate surroundings, which is important for his well-being.
Place identity results from the integration of environment and culture, and can be defined as a centre of human existence (Tuan, 1977), as well as a 'recreation place'. The relationship between the physical environment and people is controlled and understood in part through an innate tendency to identify suitable settings for certain acts (Thwaites, 1994). To provide the suitable settings, one should ask 'What do people do in spaces?' This question started the 'Archetypal Place Theory' (Spivack, 1973).

This theory shows that the environment can be understood not only in terms of its physical features and composition but also in terms of the complex web of actions and emotions that make up the human behavioural repertoire. It recognises the human tendency to perceive the environment as sets of places linked to particular behavioural patterns. It also supports the notion that variety and diversity are important environmental attributes but, significantly, it defines these in behavioural terms and not as objective properties of the environment alone (Kaplan and Kaplan, 1982). The theory suggests that a shift in design thinking might be needed, away from a site's physical properties towards the activities going on within it.

In addition Spivack (1973) suggests that it is possible for people to enjoy life-enrichment and fulfilment within relatively limited spatial settings if they offer a full diet of essential (archetypal) opportunities. In relation to this Thwaites (1994) argues that landscape settings are more than the sum of their physical components and that much of their objective reality is derived from interaction with the individuals and communities for whom they are designed. Further, Thwaites points out that a setting must offer behavioural diversity through a full range of archetypal places appropriate to the environmental domain and the lifestyle requirements of its users.

Lynch (1984), in his theory of good city form, has proposed a set of performance dimensions as a means of analysing the linkage between spatial form and social processes.
Among them the ones related to open spaces and also outdoor recreation, are access, control and fit, which are normally interrelated. He argues that a good environment affords easy 'access' to a moderate variety of people and settings. 'Control' refers to the connection between space and behaviour, and describes the human need to manage personal interactions by, for example, asserting rights over territory. 'Fit' refers to the relationship between place and behaviour; a place 'works well' when it is fitted to what users want to do.

In essence good fit requires an appreciation of such needs and wants, and conversely that these needs and wants be harnessed as a means of securing a good fit through user management of the environment (Creagan, 1990). To secure a good fit, an understanding of the influence of socio-cultural values on the human built environment in general, is the major approach of this study. It then seeks to relate this to recreational sea fronts as outdoor recreational environments.

Francies (1982) argues that human behaviour includes a wide variety of human concerns and responses related to attitudes, moral, ethical and environmental values, tests and judgement, qualities and lifestyles. However, people's behaviour is intimately linked with qualities and characteristics of their immediate environment, both human and physical. Therefore, outdoor recreation developments should fully understand the interrelation between man and the built environment.

In general, aspects of the physical environment play a significant symbolic role in the social lives of citizens (Appleyard, 1979). Harrison and Burgess (1989) argue that the ordinary users of the outdoor recreation projects do not expect routine landscapes; on the contrary, they anticipate being able to enjoy a variety of different environments and experiences.

In the same vein they point out that naturalistic settings normally provide the richest experiences and the most pleasure for users. Moreover, landscapes which failed to provide this diversity leave people feeling frustrated and angry.
Furthermore, the importance of first-hand encounters with the natural world underpins most people's enjoyment of outdoor recreation. Opportunities to experience the natural elements, to handle animals, hear bird song, smell flowers and moist earth are all delights that people recall. People's enjoyment is immediate and spontaneous but also touches upon deeper sensitivities (Harrison and Burgess, 1989).

However, the users' pleasure in being outdoors in nature involves much more than environmental aesthetics. This is an active, sensual and emotional involvement which builds on past associations and experiences and is often enhanced by the company of others. In general, naturalistic settings, including sea fronts, have wide appeal precisely because they provide the rich, varied experiences people seek.

It can be said that the spatial development of outdoor recreation can be clarified through understanding the relationship between socio-cultural aspects and the built environment. 'Environment' means the world surrounding us, which consists of things that can be touched, smelled, heard and seen. In addition the 'concrete' word for the environment is 'place' (Norberg-Shultz, 1984); in essence, place is evidently an integral part of existence. In that context, the term 'built environment' refers to something more than the abstract location of the random assemblage of things and people; it means the totality made up of a pattern that has been organised in a certain form.

Accordingly, spatial objects and people are related through various degrees of separation in and by space. Moreover, the term 'built environment' implies that space has been organised and structured in a way that reflects certain rules or ideas. Space in that context refers to the three dimensional extension of the world around us, the intervals, distances and relationships between people and people, people and things, and things and things (Bahammam, 1995 and Madanipour, 1996). Rapoport (1980) argues that space organisation is the way in which the previous separations occur and is central in understanding and analysing built environments.
In fact, one way of looking at culture is in terms of the most common choices made. In reality it is that which makes places, behaviour, and organisation of space recognisably different from one culture to another (Rapoport, 1980). So, by examining the built environment, it appears that there are two aspects that influence the outcome of the final form: socio-cultural values, and natural values, such as climate.

In connection with this Rapoport (1980) argues that, when a human being needs to protect himself against the outside physical constraints, natural values take first priority in the development. Even so, Rapoport (1980) claims that socio-cultural values become the primary force affecting the development of the place, as the different landscape developments and architectural forms in the world clearly show.

Generally, in his environment man needs 'centres', concentrations of interest and activity. The primary centre is the dwelling, which gives a person stability and a major means of self-orientation. But centres are also created outside the dwelling, and each develops its own character and becomes a 'place'. In the study at hand, the centre referred to is outside and is recreational, where activity such as picnicking takes place, and is identified as a 'picnicking place'.

However, Relph (1986) argues that the identity of a place is comprised of three interrelated components, each irreducible to the other: physical features or appearance, observable activities and functions, and meanings or symbols. Moreover, he adds that there is no discernible limit to the diversity of identities of places, and every identifiable place has unique content and patterns of relationship that are expressed and endure in the spirit of the place.

Therefore it can be said that for each setting and for each person there are a multiplicity of place identities reflecting different experiences and attitudes; these are moulded out of the common elements of appearance and activities (Madanipour, 1996).
Commonly, as a general characteristic, any place has an inside and outside, when it is located in a larger context. However, in connection with this, to take possession of the environment, man moves to the place along a ‘path’. So, taking possession of the environment means structuring it into a ‘domain’ by the creation of a system of places and paths (Lynch, 1960). In this study a domain is identified as ‘picnicking site’. The above mentioned three units (place, path/access, and domain), in general, are the basic elements constituting experienced space.

Mainly, the concept of places and paths is complementary to static and dynamic space. In other words, outdoor recreational space can be conceptualised, by dividing it into three distinct elements: recreation places, routes between places and the ground within which the places and routes are situated (see Fig. 3.1).

Figure 3.1: The basic elements that constitute experienced outdoor space

In relation to the discussion of spatial development in the outdoors, McCluskey (1985) argues that the existence of a specific space can be indicated by changes in ground material, texture and colour; a more positive definition of space results from the use of vertical elements. Moreover, without enclosure the sense of space is lost. Enclosure makes possible the creation of a place with a specific character for a specific purpose (Tuan, 1977).
Thus, in the case of recreational sea fronts, the ‘domain’ of the recreation space should be defined through the activity or group of activities taking place in it and where the components of the site development have to be placed to make useful connections. This is what referred to as ‘picnicking site’ in this study. In addition the characteristics of the ‘recreation place’ should be defined through its specific purpose where its users feel comfortable and have free and open choices of activity and association. In this study it is the ‘picnicking place’, as been mentioned earlier.

To achieve this the technique of ‘proxemics’ would be applicable. Tourney (1986) defines ‘proxemics’ as a science dealing with spatial behaviour which considers how people orient themselves in space, both in absolute terms and in relative terms to one another. It measures spatial behaviour either quantitatively, qualitatively or both, and it seems a likely source for insights into the meaning of spatial behaviour.

One of the basic principles of proxemics is to treat spatial behaviour as a style of communication, or, as Hall (1959) puts it, as a ‘silent language’. In the same vein, Lefebvre (1991) claims that one way of understanding and analysing a space or its contents is by decoding the behaviour occurring in that space. Hence, spatial behaviour itself is a kind of language, where the style of communication depends on who is speaking to whom, in which circumstances, and what they are trying to say.

In the case of this study, family spatial behaviour at the sea front becomes more understandable if we consider it as a style of communication by which specific family groups attempt to express certain attitudes. In connection with this context Rapoport (1990) states:

"People typically act in accordance with their reading of environmental cues (revealed meanings). This follows from the observation that the same people act quite differently in different settings. This suggests that these settings somehow communicate expected behaviour if the cues can be understood. It follows that the ‘language’ used in these environmental cues must be understood; the code needs to be read. If the design of the environment is seen partly as a process of encoding of information, then the users can be seen as decoding it. If the code is not shared or understood, the environment does not communicate." (Rapoport, 1990: 57)
Thus, it can be argued that the rationale behind the composition of the built environment depends on our understanding of the forces that put demands on those particular elements. In the case of behavioural aspects in outdoor recreation development, rationality is dependent upon our understanding of the factors or values that underlie the behaviour. However, this proposition has guided and underpinned the research at hand.

As discussed earlier, this study aims to understand the influence or the impact of certain socio-cultural values of the local families on their picnicking behaviour at the sea fronts, since understanding them clearly is the key that most enables the developer to make proper landscape development plans and designs. To achieve that, related information of each value should be gathered and analysed. As a result the developer can achieve a precise fit between function (the recreation place) and system (the recreational activities) and make the development plans more closely related to the wants of the users of the recreational sea fronts and their particular needs.

3.3 CONCLUSION: Interrelationship between socio-cultural values and development of recreational sea fronts

A large portion of the work in the field of landscape has dealt with the built environment (Jackson, 1970 and 1984). More emphasis has usually been placed on information about its physical character than on the more abstract aspect of the interrelations between users of the built environment and their physical surroundings (Appleton, 1996). Consequently, there is a need to investigate and increase awareness of the previously mentioned interrelations; Rapoport (1990) argues that they are important to our psychological well-being in a place. Fletcher (1989) and Rapoport (1990) argue that such interrelations are mostly non-verbal environmental messages; therefore, a careful, clear and proper approach to understanding them should be defined.
As evidence of contemporary dissatisfaction with urban environments (including recreational ones) among their users increases (Pregill and Volkman, 1993), the need for understanding and knowledgeably modulating the interaction of recreationists and recreation sites or places becomes more critical. By the same token, we have to appreciate the important roles outdoor recreational projects have in people's lives. In a general context, they are the means of easing the burden of urban living; the need to 'escape' physically and emotionally from the pressure of life's routine (daily, weekly and annually) is undoubtedly one of the strongest arguments for utilising outdoor recreation facilities. This escape has different expressions in Arabic which they all reflect the same meanings and needs that mentioned above. For example in Egypt it is called 'fuss-ha', in Iraq it is 'nuzz-ha' where in Saudi Arabia it is called either 'tall-ah' or 'tamshi-ah'.

The sensuous pleasures of 'escape' are normally shared by people from urban areas (Penning-Rowsell and Lowenthal, 1986). Outdoor recreation projects are recognised as communal places in which some people prefer to be quiet and peaceful whilst others want to engage in a variety of activities (Fogg, 1987). In other words, outdoor recreation sites are expected to perform a social or communal role in people's lives in order to counter the isolation and stress that can be part of urban life (Cregan, 1990). The Outdoor Recreation Policy Group (1983) suggested, in an American context, that outdoor recreation projects should be a mirror of society and should be expected to sustain communal values that urban society as a whole fails sometimes to uphold. Similarly, outdoor recreation projects in Saudi Arabia should play the same role for Saudi society.

As recreation is being discussed in the context of open space, it is important to clarify that the current study relates to outdoor recreation in the domain of the built environment. This means we refer to all those aspects beyond the face value of the physical properties of the built environment, to all those other things in life to which people attach significance and value - including their purposes, their ideas and
their beliefs - which are expressed through choices they make about the built environment and behaviour they display in it (Rapoport, 1990; and Madanipour, 1996). In relation to this, Altman and Chemers (1984) point out that the form and degree of interaction between the man and his built environment, in general, is the physical expression of his feeling towards the environment and its meaning to him. However, regarding aquatic environments, particular people from strongly divergent cultures are likely to reap different experiences from their interactions with them (Pitt, 1989). In consequence, as has been mentioned earlier in this chapter, ' spatial behaviour ', regarding the users' physical expression towards the utilised built environment should be studied and analysed; in this study, this means the behaviour of local families picnicking on recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia.

To sum up, we have clarified in this chapter that we must go beyond the mere spatial organisation of the forms and the natural qualities of the area, to the socio-cultural values of the people. These values are, in most of the development situations, the invisible forces that have to be recognised through intensive investigation of the reflected behaviour and interactions (Rapoport, 1980 and 1995). In connection with this Cregan (1990) stresses that an evaluation of any outdoor recreation project must take account of different processes, especially the social processes and their inter-relationships, in shaping the project. In relation to this, it can be said that the provision of proper and socio-culturally supportive outdoor recreation projects and open spaces, such as recreational sea fronts, are expected to lead to a decrease in the dissatisfaction, which we have mentioned above. Therefore, the recreational sea front as an outdoor recreation should present a participatory model of experience in the integration of the socio-cultural values of its users with its spatial forms, and in its holistic perspective, in which the project is perceived as a part of nature, and where mankind is a participant rather than a mere spectator.
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CHAPTER FOUR

HORIZON OF RECREATION IN THE SAUDI CULTURE AND HIGHLIGHT OF THE CASE STUDY
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4.1 SYNOPSIS OF RECREATION IN SAUDI ARABIA

One feature of this research is studying the behaviour of space users. It has been stressed by Rapoport (1995) that, in order to understand behaviour in a given space, we must know the underlying cultural imperatives of the people concerned.

Recreation in Saudi Arabia is affected by and modelled on the past, as well as the present, in various respects. Besides culture, aspects of the country’s environment, in particular the harsh climate, have played a significant role in shaping the history of recreation in Saudi Arabia.

Saudi Arabia is one of the driest of the large countries on earth; desert forms a very large part of it, almost 70% of its area. The Arabian peninsula, of which Saudi Arabia forms by far the largest part, is surrounded on three sides by sea, though lack of water is the dominant feature. Moreover, the temperature in summer reaches up to 45 or 50 degrees Celsius, and sometimes even more in the southern deserts.

Also, because the lack of moisture of the air reaching Saudi Arabia, and the subsequent lack of cloud, allows heat to escape from the ground surface at night, particularly in winter, so temperatures drop quite noticeably between day and night and between summer and winter. In addition, Schofield (1986) points out that, because of the scarcity of clouds in general, rainfall is also scanty, irregular and undependable.

The way of life within Saudi Arabia was clearly controlled by the hardships of the region, its aridity and the subsequent scarcity of good soil. Consequently, Saudi Arabia was able to support only a small population, estimated at around 1.5 to 2 million in the 1930s.
Apart from a few traders and fishermen, around half of this population could be regarded as village craftsmen, cultivators (rural settled), and shepherds moving locally over short distances with their animals. The rest of the population was wholly nomadic, usually following a pattern of rough grazing of camels, sheep and goats, which involved substantial movement annually (Schofield, 1986).

With such a harsh lifestyle, the majority of the population had neither the time nor the energy for planned recreational activities. The tough environmental situations did not encourage the creation of any well-organized form of outdoor recreational activities. The ordinary people were content with religious holidays and occasional celebrations. As an example, when the air temperature dropped down in the evening, family members and sometimes neighbourhood residents (males together and females together) gathered for coffee and story-telling, while children played in the narrow shaded streets (Bahammam, 1995).

Only the wealthy and more fortunate people used their farms for recreation, or involved themselves in hunting and camping trips in the breezy rainy seasons. This was the general situation of the people in regard to outdoor recreation before the discovery of oil in Saudi Arabia.

Since then, there has been a dramatic modification in circumstances of lifestyle, as a consequence of the improved economy, in both the rural and urban environments. Huge numbers of local people now work for the government and large companies, in particular oil companies. Consequently they now enjoy the privileges of defined working hours, weekly, yearly, national and other approved holidays.

Extended leisure time and the development of transport, particularly the road network within the country, and the option of other advanced services of travelling, have enhanced and contributed to the current overall view of recreation, so that the people now feel its importance.
Accordingly, they practice their outdoor recreational activities in various ways: picnicking on farms, camping and hunting in the desert, picnicking on natural beaches or within the city fringes.

The rise in oil prices in the world market after the year 1973 affected most Saudis, who were touched by the economic prosperity which followed this increase. The enhanced road network, which extended throughout most of Saudi Arabia, combined with the ownership of cars by virtually every household, motivated people to travel for long distances seeking enjoyable types of recreation (Ady and Waller, 1989). Consequently, with time, the government became aware of the need for recreational sites. Public gardens sprung up within almost every city in Saudi Arabia. Further, natural parks in unique areas such as Al-Ahsaa Plantation Project in the eastern desert of Saudi Arabia, and Asir National Park in the attractive natural lands in the western mountains of Saudi Arabia were developed and constructed (Bahammam, 1995). Moreover, as a result of the government’s extension of public recreational facilities in the early 1980s, the idea of a recreational sea front came about in the city of Jeddah in the west of Saudi Arabia. After around 10 years it was followed by the recreational sea front of the Dammam metropolitan area in the east of Saudi Arabia.

4.2 RECREATION IN THE CONTEXT OF SAUDI CULTURE

Nowadays, in Saudi Arabia, the term ‘recreation’ implies a specific meaning to Saudis. Considerations of the cultural and social traditions of life, which stem from an Islamic basis as well as involving environmental considerations, are important for the provision of appropriate recreational facilities. The Saudis take to recreation during leisure time, especially at the weekend, and on occasional vacations, when they leave their houses to spend time in farms, parks, near the sea, and in deserts (Al-Abdullah, 1991).
In order to understand fully certain behaviour and demands related to recreation, it is important to re-state that there are various values affecting the trends and forms of recreational patterns; among them are socio-cultural values (Al-Abdullah, 1991; Al-Shahrani, 1992 and Bahammam, 1995). In connection with this Rapoport (1995) claims that, in order to have a reliable interpretation of the meaning of a physical form in the built environment, some social and cultural knowledge is required.

Therefore the researcher intends here to investigate and highlight the most prevailing and specific socio-cultural values of Saudi society that affect the recreational behaviour of its people in the outdoor environment.

To understand how these values operate, firstly Islam, as the culture of this society, has to be defined; then recreation in the context of Islam should be explained. Focusing on Islam is important, because it is the force that directs the Muslim way of life; its values delineate the behaviour of Muslims in every sphere.

Consequently, Islam as the primary source that shapes the culture of Saudi society should be taken into consideration in this research, and the teachings that influence the social values of its followers and control their recreational behaviour in the outdoor environment should be fully understood.

4.2.1 Culture of Saudi society : Islam

The term 'culture' is widely used in various study fields, for example anthropology and sociology, where various definitions exist for it (Jackson, 1994). However, in general all these definitions can be categorised into four main components (Altman and Chemers, 1984). These components were explained and illuminated in Chapter 3 of this study.
Herskovits (1952) defined the term 'culture' as the man-made element of the human environment. It is also 'the man's medium' as defined by Hall (1977), where he argues that there is not one aspect of human life which is not touched and altered by culture. In relation to this Clarke et al. defined culture as: "the way the social relations of a group are structured and shaped: but it is also the way those shapes are experienced, understood and interpreted." (Clarke et al., 1976: 11). In the same vein Rapoport (1980) argues that, 'culture' is a way of life in which a society believes in and shares certain behaviour, norms and values. Also, it is a world view and a symbol system which are learned and transmitted. In addition, he argues that all these beliefs and values create a system of rules and habits which reflect ideals and create a lifestyle, guiding behaviour, roles, manners, the food eaten - as well as built form.

However, as these values and norms pass to the next generation and are reflected in the environment and the people, they become traditional (Al-Shahrani, 1992). The translation of the word 'tradition' in Arabic comes under the term 'Turath' or 'Erth', meaning the heritage and the personal belongings left after one's death. This term also includes the intellectual and social organisation of the society passed on to the next generations. To sum up, Muslims in general and the people of Saudi Arabia in particular consider Islam as a way of life from which their tradition and their socio-cultural values stem.

As an Islamic society, Saudi society is affected and controlled by Islamic regulations (Sharia). Islam is the religion, where Allah's (God's) last message for humankind was revealed to the Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him) 1400 years ago in the west of the Arabian Peninsula. Islam is an Arabic word which means peace, purity, acceptance and commitment (Al-Awais, 1986). Al-Fahim (1989) argues that the word 'Islam' is derived from the Arabic noun 'Istislam'. This Arabic word could be translated into English as 'surrender' or 'submission'. Thus in this context the word 'Muslim' means a person who has surrendered and submitted himself to the will of Allah (God) (Al-Fahim, 1989).
It is mandatory for Muslims to obey Allah and his Prophet (peace be upon him). This is stated in the Quran; one translation of the relevant passage is as follows:

"It is not fitting for a Believer, man or women, when a matter has been decided by God and his Apostle, to have any option about their decision: If any one disobeys God and his Apostle, he is indeed on a clearly wrong Path." (Quran translation, Ali, 1989: 1068)

Muslims believe that Allah created people for a specific purpose; thus the relationship between the Creator and His creation is very clear and direct: "I have only created Jinns and men, that they may serve Me. No sustenance do I require of them, nor do I require that they should feed me." (Quran translation, Ali, 1989: 1364-65).

Obeying Allah’s commands is a form of worship and is an essential concept to Muslims. However, Islam does not just consist of going to the mosque every Friday, nor even of each of the five daily prayers; it is a concept and tradition that touches and relates to all aspects of the Muslim’s activities. If performed with the correct intention, every good act, whether removing broken glass from the road, studying for one’s Ph.D., supporting someone financially or emotionally and even sexual relations with one’s spouse, can become an act of worship.

Islam has two main sources of legislation, the ‘Quran’ and the ‘Sunnah’. The ‘Quran’ is the Holy Book of Muslims; it is the word of Allah (God) revealed to the Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him). The ‘Sunnah’ are the sayings and the actions of the Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him) that were gathered and recorded by his companions. Besides being a religion, Islam is a complete way of life which contains laws and solutions for every situation in every place and time.

Islamic regulations are generated and society’s values are defined using the two above mentioned sources. It has been argued that, in Islam, human acts are categorised into four types: halal (allowed), haram (forbidden), mosstahab (commendable), and makruh (reprehensible).
Thus, any act of a person, including his recreational activities or behaviour, will be judged according to these categories, either allowed and commendable, allowed but not commendable, disliked but not forbidden, or forbidden (Al-Wakeel, 1982).

4.2.2 Recreation in context of Islam

It is important at the outset to clarify the position of recreation in Islam as a religion for humankind in general, and as a culture of the Saudi society in particular. The importance of recreation is made clear when we consider that mankind actually needs it in order to remain in a healthy mental and physical state. Although there is no scientific explanation as to why man needs recreation (Chubb and Chubb, 1981), it is generally accepted that recreation is needed in order to maintain the state of biological equilibrium, and to restore the mental balance (Torkildsen, 1986).

However, in Islam recreation is recommended for three reasons (Bakader, 1982, and Al Roshaid, 1982): firstly, as a psychological aspect to restore the mental balance of the person, which in turn will be reflected in society; secondly, as a social aspect to strengthen the social ties between the members of society, thirdly, as an economic aspect to increase the nation's productivity and efficiency. In relation to this Jaddallah (1985) argues that the first two aspects play a considerable role in preparing the individual and the nation to achieve the third aspect.

Actually, recreation is desirable in Islam as long as it does not divert the Muslim from fulfilling his duties toward Allah. Further, it can be said that recreation has been considered favourably since the early stages of Islam, when the Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him) encouraged Muslims to engage in certain recreational activities, such as horse riding.

1 The discussion in this sub-chapter involves certain Islamic beliefs. It should be noted here that this research does not intend to prohibit or permit any aspects of recreation. This is beyond the research aims and objectives.
Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him) said of which the most closest meaning in English is:

"By Allah, in Whose hand lies my life, if you continue in the same state - carry on the invocations - as when you are with me, remembering Allah, Angels would come down to shake hands with you when you are in your beds and in the streets. But Handhalah it is an hour and an hour (and repeated the last words three times)."

( Abu Huthaifah, 1987 : 24 )

These words are interpreted by scholars of Islam as meaning an hour for worshipping and invocation, and an hour for recreation; the recreation hour is supposed to refresh the person to help him to complete the hour of worship. It is important to know that the Islamic character is focused on developing the physical attributes in order to prepare a person for certain targets that are mainly directed towards the hereafter. In the same vein, books of Islamic history report that the Prophet Mohammed (peace be upon him) and his companions, and Muslims in subsequent times, practiced various activities of recreation, among of them picnicking in farms (Abu Suliman, 1982).

Islam as culture is a highly influential factor affecting the behaviour and the activities of the Muslim, including the manner of sitting, eating, speaking and dealing with each other. Recreation is definitely influenced by these teachings (Abu Huthaifah, 1987). In general, the way people perceive recreation, the way they behave and sit in public, and the way they utilise their time, all are related to their culture and belief. In relation to the influence of religion, Chubb and Chubb state that:

“Some doctrines affect recreation participation by designating certain recreation activities as ‘good’ or ‘evil’. Other doctrines influence participation indirectly by specifying how followers should behave or spend their time and money... The degree to which this doctrine persists depends largely on the religious and cultural heritage as well as the homogeneity of the population” (Chubb and Chubb, 1981 : 125)

However, we should remember that there are various factors relating to recreation which should be viewed in their context, among of them socio-cultural values (Al-Abdullah, 1991; Al-shahrani, 1992; and Bahammam, 1995). However, the degree of their influence in society is dependent on the degree to which society follows
the teachings of Islam, and also on how people interpret acts which are neither explicitly allowed nor forbidden (Jadallah, 1985 and Al-Shahrani, 1992). For example, some Moslem scholars concluded that watching T.V is forbidden at the time of the obligatory duties (such as prayer times), where others did not conclude the same.

4.2.3 Particular socio-cultural values influencing recreational behaviour of the local people in the outdoor environment

It is argued that different groups stress different things, rank them differently, and relate to them differently, so that for any group there is a core of elements which are important and define the group to itself and to others, and which are not easily given up (Rapoport, 1980). Further, he argues in the same vein that one can see the result of these core elements of a particular society, from, at one level, the landscape of a region to, at another, the furniture arrangement of a room or a small space, as the organisation of space for different purposes and according to certain rules.

However, the consistency of these rules gives a continuity in space organisation at different levels of design. Among various examples, San Cristobal Las Casas is found to be the best example that demonstrates continuity in space (Rapoport, 1980). In relation to this Bahammam (1995) argues that consistency can be seen, for example, in the layout or the design of the house, the neighborhood, and private open spaces as well as in public open spaces (see Fig. 4.1).

In order to design an environment which is culturally supportive, an essential question arises: which behavioural values are considered the most important? The concept of the cultural core, those elements most important to the influenced group, becomes significant. In relation to the study at hand, the core can be predicted to influence the behavioural values of society, the values that relate the organisation of the space or place to the needs of society.
Figure 4.1: The continuity in space organisation. The continuity at different levels of layout, (1) in the house, (2) in the neighborhood, and (3) at the town level, reflects the consistency in society's needs. (Source: Bahammam, 1995: 39)

In the Saudi culture, three important and specific values affect participation in recreation: privacy, territoriality, and the style of the activities practiced, which together give the outdoor spaces different functions and meanings from those in other cultures (Al-Abdullah, 1991; Al-Shahrani, 1992; and Bahammam, 1995).

Hence, for the purposes of this study, the following section will discuss these values which are assumed to be the most important to Saudi society and have a strong influence on the selection of picnicking areas, as well as the formation of picnicking places on the recreational sea fronts.

This will illustrate their importance to Saudi society and its culture, and help to understand their involvement and their influence and impact on the landscape development of recreational sea fronts.
Privacy is one of the most important human needs along with personal space and social interactions. The search for privacy is a significant socio-cultural value that has an effect on the built form in almost every society (Chermayeff and Alexander, 1963; Rapoport, 1980; Altman and Chemers, 1984; and Rutledge, 1985). The need for privacy was expressed by Gottlieb:

"The most basic function of a dwelling is to create shelter and privacy. Physical shelter is created by constructing a roof and walls that will keep the cold and the rain off one's head. But there is a need to have a feeling of shelter that demands more of our dwelling. A glass could be made to satisfy all of one's needs for physical shelter, but there are very few people who would feel sheltered in one. ...Shelter must satisfy the need for a physiological feeling of protection, a feeling that there is something solid around one" (Gottlieb, 1968: 155)

Privacy could be defined as 'selective control of the access to the self' (Altman and Chemers, 1984). It can be said that privacy is a changeable process whereby people adjust their openness and closedness to others. In the same vein Rapoport (1980) defined the privacy as 'the ability to control unwanted interaction and to achieve desired interaction, where the unwanted can be controlled through several processes.' Actually, a wide range of measures have evolved in various cultures to serve people's need for privacy, which are achieved in built forms through physical means by planning, arranging and creating an order of spaces that work together to provide privacy (Altman, 1975).

It can be said that the primary requirement for privacy in the built form exists among most cultures and societies, where there are several kinds of privacy, each of which serves a different purpose. Also, it can be said that the required levels and forms of privacy vary from one culture to another.

In relation to this Westin (1970) has identified four levels or types of privacy as follows: solitude, intimacy, anonymity and reserve. He explained them as follows: 'Solitude' is the state of being or wanting to be free from observation by others.
'Intimacy' is the state of being with another person but free from the outside world. 'Anonymity' is the state of being unknown even in a crowd. Finally, 'Reserve' is the state in which a person employs psychological barriers to control unwanted intrusion. Further, he argues that in every society clear and explicit cultural and/or religious rules exist to preserve and guard these levels and forms of privacy. However, these levels can be defined and detected by examining the existing built forms of that society.

With regard to Saudi society, the built environment is controlled by explicit rules in relation to privacy, and the traditional architectural space is classified and arranged to match with the preferred level of privacy needed (Bahammam, 1995). In the Saudi culture as a Muslim society, the need for privacy for individuals and groups is highly respected. In relation to this Al-Shahrani (1992) argues that privacy in recreation is an important value for two significant reasons. Firstly, there are certain types of privacy in Islam that are not selective, in which the person might or might not desire or choose the interaction or the access, which is in conflict with the previous definitions. This is a religious requirement and a sort of worshipping which must be followed.

The second, is for the mature females, who are requested, as a special kind of privacy, to wear a head covering in view of men who are not 'mahram'. The Quran has identified the term 'mahram' as a close relationship by marriage or close blood ties, where Allah (God) says of which the closest meaning in English is:

"...that they should not display their beauty and ornaments except what (must ordinarily) appear thereof; that they should draw their veils over their bosoms and not display their beauty except to their husbands, their fathers, their husbands' fathers, their sons..." (Quran translation, Ali, 1989: 873-74)

Rules of the privacy in Islam, however, start from the most private parts of the body which is called 'awrah', where looking at these parts even between equal sexes is prohibited except for husband and wife.
These rules then progress to control the privacy of the whole family, where breach of its privacy is prohibited. Therefore, it can be said that privacy between sexes is a result of Islamic teachings, involving segregation between females and males not only in public but also in private surroundings, unless they are 'mahram', as stated earlier.

The issue of the veil or covering the head and hair for privacy is a matter of great argument among Islamic scholars. Some scholars insist that women should cover their faces as well since they argue that the face is an essential part of the female's beauty. Others say that the verse of the Holy Quran referred to above has clearly stated the bosom only (Lemu, 1978). However, Saudi society follows the first point of view.

This means that, when a Muslim female leaves her private place and goes to semi-private, semi-public or public spaces, she is obligated to observe certain rules regarding dress. She is required to wear a dress which covers all her body's parts, not to reveal her figure. The whole outfit, i.e. loose fitting clothes plus head covering, is called 'hejab'. In connection with this Allah (God) says of which the closest meaning in English is:

"O Prophet! Tell thy wives and daughters, and the believing women, that they should cast their outer garments over their persons (when out of doors): that is most convenient, that they should be known (as much) and not molested. And Allah is Oft-Forgiving, Most Merciful" (Quran translation, Ali, 1989: 1264-65)

This Quranic verse identifies a specific form of privacy to guard Muslim females from being looked at by strangers. When Islam prohibits a matter, it also discourages and sometimes prohibits the behaviour that may lead to it. Thus, since pre-marital sex is totally forbidden, men are commanded in Islam to lower their gaze and not to stare at women, while women are command to cover themselves by the hejab.

In connection with this the Prophet Mohammed (pbuh) said of which the closest meaning in English is:

"O Ali when your gaze falls upon a women, do not continue looking at her; the first look is yours, but the second look is not your right" (Al-Bokari, 1985: 369)
The interpretation of this Sunnah is that the Prophet was warning Ali \(^2\) that if your gaze falls upon a women, do not keep looking at her figure because what you see in the first glimpse is beyond your control and is therefore not a sin, but it is forbidden deliberately to choose to continue to look at her or to look away and look again.

In Saudi society this type of privacy between sexes who are strangers (i.e. not mahram/ no relation by blood or marriage), is translated into reality in many forms and actions. It is most obvious in the regular dress of Saudi women while they are in public, which is usually a loose cloak and scarf which provides total privacy for her body.

In relation to this Bahammam (1995) argues that the representation of this behaviour is also apparent in the traditional Saudi built environment, where the architectural forms are directed towards the inside with few openings to the outside, in order to provide the preferred privacy. Further, he argues that the separation between public and private domains is clear in the hejab, which veils the entire face and body of a female in public as well as the entrance veiling the inner spaces from the public. The female's hejab is removed when she is in the company of family in the private interior of a building or in the inner private spaces that are open, but only in complete privacy with no visible intrusions from the outside (see Fig. 4.2). To recapitulate, privacy is greatly valued by Saudi families, where commonly women do not appear unveiled in public.

Control of privacy varies greatly from one culture to another, some cultures having more complex privacy particulars than others (Rapoport, 1980). However, the psychological feeling of peace and relaxation within a space or a place is correlated to the competence of the person to call it his own, to maintain a certain degree of privacy (Rutledge, 1985). This competence to achieve the desired level of privacy partially affects the perceived quality of the built environment (Westin, 1970).

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2 Ali ( may Allah honor his face and be pleased with him ), is the Prophet's cousin, one of the very first Muslims and also a very close companion.
For example, Al-Abdullah (1991) found that for the sake of families' privacy and segregation in places of recreation on beaches, cars are driven right to the edge of a viewpoint or shoreline to minimise exposure, whatever is in the way - whether sand or large crushed stones.

Therefore, it is essential in this research to present the nature of privacy in Saudi society as one of the significant socio-cultural values that influence the behaviour of the local people in the outdoor environment and their perception towards the built environment, which in turn is assumed to affect the landscape development of the picnicking sites along the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia.

Figure 4.2: The reflection of behaviour on the built environment
(Source: Bahammam, 1995: 46)
4.2.3.2 Territoriality

‘Territoriality’ is an expression or a term that refers to territorial behaviour. It is a concept that permeates every aspect of our lives; territories serve to articulate the boundary between the self and others, whether the self is an individual or a group (Ardrey, 1967). Territoriality is also an important organiser of human life at the level of communities and large groups, small groups, and individuals (Goffman, 1966 and 1971; Altman, 1975 and 1984). Edney (1976) argues that, territoriality functions to facilitate social processes such as planning, anticipating others’ behaviour, engaging in uninterrupted activities, and having security. Further, he argues that life would be chaotic without territories, as territoriality permits people to know where their own and others’ places begin and end, also where and how they control access to various resources.

The concept of territory is applicable to humans in relation to the objects and places they possess or control; territories are often marked or personalised and display the presence of an owner or occupant. In relation to this Altman (1975) argues that the regulation of relations within and between groups is an important goal served by territorial behaviour, and it contributes to the smooth functioning of social systems. However, territorial behaviour is complex (Rutledge, 1985), having several dimensions or properties, as described by Altman:

“Territorial behaviour involved the following characteristics: 1) ownership or control over access to places, 2) variation in scale from small to large, 3) service for a variety of functions, including social and biological needs, 4) personalisation or marking, and 5) possible defense against intrusion by outsiders.” (Altman and Chemers, 1984: 150-51)

Altman and Chemers (1984) argue that territorial behaviour not only functions to establish and maintain personal identity but also plays a central role in a person’s or group’s well-being. Furthermore, they argue that territorial behaviour is one of several behavioural mechanisms that operate in the service of privacy, since it helps to regulate access to the self.
Altman (1975) categorised territories into three types: primary, secondary, and public. ‘Primary territories’ are exclusively owned, occupied, and controlled by individuals and groups on a long-term basis, and are quite important to the lives of their users, for example a person’s bedroom. Uninvited intrusions into primary territories are a serious matter and can lead to strong defensive actions, because such territories are so important to a person’s or group’s well-being and viability. Primary territory and privacy are interrelated and inability to control a primary territory successfully may be a serious affront to the psychological well-being of a person or group.

‘Secondary territories’ are somewhat less important to occupants and are often controlled in a limited way on a long-term basis, for example team workspaces. The idea of secondary territory does not necessarily involve continuous use and control of a place; both can be intermittent. Also, an important aspect of secondary territories is their potential for misunderstanding and conflict; because they involve a blend of public accessibility and private use, it is easy for people to misread and even be unaware of the existence of secondary territories. In other words, disruption and conflict often occur around secondary territories, where people and groups have overlapping access and control. Thus, clearly defining secondary territories through markings and other environmental messages may make conflict less likely.

‘Public territories’ are available to most members of a society, usually on a short-term basis; occupancy and control are temporary, for example parks or public beaches. In fact, anyone has the right to use public territories on a temporary, short-term basis as long as he or she observes minimal social rules.

To sum up, primary, secondary, and public territories permit people to survive physically and psychologically and to conduct life’s functions in an orderly and systematic way. However, territorial behaviour can also be understood in relation to other spatial studies concerned with expectations.
Goffman (1971) identified three types of public territories: 'stalls', which are public spaces to which people can lay temporary claims; in such places control is largely restricted to the time of occupancy, such as tennis courts; 'turns', where order of access to some source is involved, for example a place in line at the movies; and finally 'use space', which refers to the area around a person that is temporarily recognised as being under the person's control and is illustrated by a person viewing an art exhibit and is usually not intruded on by others; passers-by tend to go around and behind the viewer.

However, there are specific types of territories which can be discussed from varying points of view to offer clear definitions of aspects like personal space, privacy, and boundary (Rutledge, 1985; Sanders, 1990; and Al-Said, 1992).

In general, Goffman (1966) claims that it would be hard to function well without any territories at all. This is not to say that it is the territories themselves that are important; rather, what is crucial is access to the resources they contain.

Territorial behaviour in humans, therefore, functions as a boundary or privacy regulation, where territorial control is often symbolised by markers or other indicators of ownership, or by occupancy itself as a symbol of territorial control (Altman, 1975). In spite of arguments over its applicability, territoriality has become a popularly discussed social philosophy and a less widely applied design construct (Hester, 1984). Anyhow, the dimensions of a territory can shift through time, size and location depending on its socio-physical context (Sanders, 1990).

In relation to this, it can be said that territorial claim is usually arranged in a hierarchy of strengths, shown in different degrees of personalisation, ownership and control, where the territorial markers or indicators can be conceptual or physical, verbal or non-verbal.
However, the manifestations of control of territory vary considerably from one culture to another, where some cultures have more intricate territoriality demands and gradients than others (Altman, 1975). Further, except for privacy, territoriality seems to be the most prevalent value of the behavioural environment.

Islam, as the culture of Saudi society, highly respects the need for territory control, both for individuals and groups. In relation to this, the Prophet (peace be upon him) said of which the closest meaning in English is:

"He who knocks a door of a house should knock three times, then if he is permitted, he may enter. But if there is no answer he must not enter" (Abu Muntasir ibn Mohar, 1990: 26)

To fully understand this Sunnah and its interpretation, it should be integrated in the broader context of the following Sunnah, in which the Prophet (peace be upon him) said of which the closest meaning in English is: "There should be neither harming nor reciprocating harm" (Abu Muntasir ibn Mohar, 1990: 107). The first Sunnah is interpreted by Islamic scholars as meaning that private territory must be respected, and the second Sunnah as meaning that private freedom ends where public rights start; public territories being included in these rights (Jadallah, 1985).

Territoriality, therefore, is important in Saudi society in terms of the relationship between individuals or groups and the rest of society. For example, on recreational beaches, the territorial aspects can be seen and understood in the case of the intrusion of single males into the territory of seated family groups, their physical presence and/or their noise disturbing the families and sometimes leading them to leave the place (Al-Abdullah, 1991).

The reader may feel that there is some conceptual overlap between privacy and territoriality. For the purpose of this research, therefore, territoriality will be considered to be the space, occupied by groups of families, needed for picnicking and associated activities, and about which families would feel annoyance if intrusions were to occur.
4.2.3.3 Style of the activity practiced

Every built environment has a basic set of activities and/or actions (functions) which it is expected to accommodate. Activity data, therefore, must be gathered on how these activities are carried out, for example when they take place, who carries them out, who does what and in what context (Fogg, 1986). Fogg (1986) goes on to claim that supporting activities/actions (behaviours and functions) that go with the primary activity must also be defined.

Since ancient times, creating spaces and places that suit human purposes has been the challenge of design (Rapoport, 1984). Rapoport (1990) argues that built environments, at least in principle, are built to be helpful for the activities and life style of the users. The nature of the site, and how its users will act in it and value it, are the two things that are involved in conducting, evaluating and/or analysing design (Rapoport, 1980; and Lynch and Hack, 1984).

The conception of fit between the built environment and users' actions is the key aim behind design (Rapoport, 1990). In connection with this, Alexander writes:

"It is based on the idea that every design problem begins with an effort to achieve fitness between two entities: the form in question and its context. The form is the solution to the problem; the context defines the problem. In other words, when we speak of design, the real object of discussion is not the form alone, but the ensemble comprising the form and its context. Good fit is a desired property of this ensemble which relates to some particular division of the ensemble into form and context. ... The form is a part of the world over which we have control, and which we decide to shape while leaving the rest of the world as it is. The context is that part of the world which puts demands on this form; anything in the world that makes demands of the form is context." (Alexander, 1964: 15-18)

In the same vein, it is important in the outset to mention that the word 'value' has various meanings; one of them is: "something intrinsically desirable" (Webster's dictionary, 1994). Further, as been mentioned formerly, the word 'culture' has a wide range of meanings, one of them being habits/norms or customs. In essence, the style of the activity practised is considered a socio-cultural value.
In relation to this, discussion regarding the style of activity should be explored from three points of view:

1) the practiced activity - associated actions; 2) how it is practiced - associated physical settings; and 3) what its related activities mix is - activity system (Rapoport, 1980; Lynch and Hack, 1984; and Fogg 1986).

First, the practised activity. This describes the activity that occurs. The physical setting of the built environment is determined by the intended activities behind the design (Rapoport, 1980); for example, a boating area has to be arranged to fit the intended activities (Al-Abdullah, 1991). In outdoor recreational areas, the kind of activities that occur within the various settings determine the physical arrangement of those settings. Al-Abdullah (1991) gives an example of camping areas on natural beaches, which have to be sited away from the shoreline in order to give enough space for the picnickers who come for a short time. Hence, it can be said that, if the physical setting is not suitable to the type of activities or functions, the place or space will not be utilised as it was proposed or designed.

In connection with this, Bahammam (1995) argues that, in contemporary public gardens in Saudi Arabia, the elements or form are mostly structured without considering the context or the type of activities the users desire. He gives an example of seats or benches in most gardens in Saudi Arabia which are located along the footpaths for people to sit and enjoy watching people walking by; but in fact nobody uses those seats. He concludes that this is because, when sitting along the footpaths, a person is in full view of passers-by, and is thus losing a very significant value of the Saudi culture, which is his own need for protection and privacy.

However, picnicking is one of the most noticeable activities practiced on the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia by local families; therefore, it will be explored for this study.

3 For more detail see Chapter Five of this study.
Second, how it is practiced (associated actions). This describes the required physical setting of the actions that form the activity, along with describing the activity; different activities require different forms and spatial dealings. Sitting outdoors as one of the actions of picnicking, for example, could be done either on a seat, or on the ground as it is in Saudi Arabia and many other cultures.

It is essential therefore, to know how the activity occurring in the space/place, is practised, through defining the interrelated actions that form it and then the related physical settings.

Lastly, what its related activity mix is (activity system). This describes the activity from the viewpoint that it is not an isolated activity, but it is integrated with other activities take place around. To put it another way, what things other than the primary activity will a user do? The primary activity must be viewed in the context of the other secondary activities, as there are relationships between them. These relationships are considerable in determining the efficiency of the design (Fogg, 1986). In relation to this, Fogg (1986) gives an example of Pennsylvania State park users, who participate in an average of 2 or more activities when they come to a park (see Fig. 4.3).

![Figure 4.3: Activity mix for picnickers (Source: Fogg, 1986: 7)](image-url)
Rapoport (1980) argues that variability with lifestyle and ultimately culture goes up as one moves from the activity itself, through ways of carrying it out, the system of which it is part, and its meaning. Further, he argues that considering the activities as a system involves many variables which are very important in determining the performance of these activities and the required behaviours. In the same vein, Bahammam (1995) suggests important variables, such as the order or sequence in which the activities/actions occur, the nature of these sequences, how they are linked or separated, who is involved or participates (or is excluded). Moreover, he adds where and when they occur, and the need to be considered as part of the system of activities/actions, in order to address the main questions of who does what, where, and when, including or excluding whom, and why.

Islam has a strong effect on types of recreation activities in Saudi Arabia. As a common principle, the activities practised should not violate Islam teachings, breach the guidance on prohibited acts, or be done at a time dedicated to obligatory duties, such as the prayer times. Though Islam did not precisely settle all types of activities, it determined certain forbidden activities such as gambling. For example, horse racing is an allowed recreational activity unless it involves gambling, and then it is forbidden.

While the western ideology of recreation appears to be premised on individual psychological and physical gratification, Islamic recreation encourages spiritual, physical, and psychological propriety (Abu Huthaifah, 1987). This can be interpreted to mean the encouragement of social interaction, the observance of privacy with others, and the building of the mind and body to help ease and encourage religious and daily obligations. Islam, however, encourages Muslims always to look around them and think about the different creations of Allah (God) which will lead them to appreciate the greatness of the Creator (Al-Awais, 1986). In the Sunnah, it was reported that one hour of looking and thinking about Allah's creations is better than praying all night (Abu Muntasir, 1990).
Hence, the sea front is one place where the Muslim can find a significant environment for this faith. A person can recognise the greatness of Allah as he watches the sea birds, waves, floating objects, high and low tides (fluctuation), the sun rising and setting and the magic of the horizon where the blue of the sky meets the blue of the sea, and so on.

4.3 GENERAL OUTLOOK OF THE CASE STUDY

4.3.1 Location and natural environment of Dammam city

Dammam city is located along the shores of the eastern coast of Saudi Arabia, which is the western coast of the Arabian Gulf, on longitude 50.06 ° between latitudes 26.06 ° and 26.30 °. It is surrounded by the Gulf waters on the east and the south. On small scale maps of Saudi Arabia the coastline may appear quite straight but actually it is winding, with irregular bays and lagoons, estuaries and inlets. The Gulf in general is very shallow, the deepest point being 78 m, and the sea currents and waves are not very strong. However, the fluctuating tidal levels range between -0.80 and +1.00 meter (Saudi Aramco, 1981). The coastal shoreline of Dammam city has the following physical characteristics:

1. The topography generally is very flat (averaging less than 1% slope per linear kilometre).

2. The ground surface is sandy soil with a good rain water absorbency, and some places are silty soil with weak rain water absorbency.

3. The ground surface reflectance for the sun light and rays is high.
Temperature

The Dammam area weather is generally hot in the summer, and moderate during the rest of the year. The temperature reaches between 47 ° and 50 ° Celsius on the hottest days. The hot weather starts in May and reaches its peak in July and August, and it continues very warm up until September. Occasional winds, however, allow for more moderate temperatures along the coastline. The cold weather commences in December and the coldest months are January and February, reaching a minimum temperature of 2 degrees Celsius (see Fig. 4.4).

![Figure 4.4: Air temperature for Dammam city](Source: Meteorological Department, Dhahran, Saudi Arabia, 1996)

Humidity

Dammam city is located on the coast of the Arabian Gulf, which is a large surface of open water; this raises the level of humidity and makes it relatively high, ranging on a daily basis from 5% to 100%. The figures for Dammam gave a mean R.H. range from 31% to 71%. The lowest point is in June (15%) and the highest points are reached in January, August, and October (93%). During the summer the humidity is uncomfortable because of the hot weather (see Fig. 4.5).
Rainfall

Rainfall in Dammam is very slight and extremely irregular. The period from May to November is completely dry, while rain occurs during the rest of the year in irregular patterns. In other words, the occasional rainfall lasts from the end of November to the start of May, a period when the maximum levels of heat is relatively low and the maximum levels of humidity is relatively high. The average annual rainfall in Dammam is approximately 47 mm (see Fig. 4.6).
Wind

The prevailing winds in Dammam city are recorded as being in the sector between 180-330 degrees ranging from the south to the northwest. However, it is observed in the wind diagram that the northwestern prevailing wind has a percentage of occurrence of about 42% with velocities ranging from 7 to 13 knots.

Associated with the wind is the problem of sandstorms which occur especially during late spring and early summer. When the wind speed exceeds 20 knots, dust is lifted into the air creating dust storms hundreds of metres high, that considerably reduce visibility and often persist for days. Records indicate that the Dammam area experiences 12 such storms on average per year, and their distribution is predominantly in the months of February to September (see Fig. 4.7).

Figure 4.7: Diagram of the wind directions in Dammam
(Source: Meteorological Department, Dhahran, Saudi Arabia, 1996)
4.3.2 Historical Background of Dammam City

The name ‘Dammam’ probably originates from the sound of drums (dam-dam-dam…) which once announced the beginning and the end of the pearl season (see Fig. 4.8). According to legend Dammam fort had a large drum which was also sounded to warn inhabitants of invasion. The ‘dam-dam…’ sound could be heard over long distances.

Figure 4.8: Sketch of a typical drum used to announce the beginning or end of the pearl season (Source: Dammam municipality - the permanent exhibition hall, 1997).

History has left very few records of Dammam’s past except for the many Bronze Age objects found along the coastal area, and the ruins of the large stone fort which stood offshore to the north of the present city until the 1950s. Archaeologists believe that there were several successive constructions of the Dammam fort following the earliest work carried out by Arab builders (Ministry of Education, 1975).
The bulk of the Dammam fort was probably built by the Portuguese at the beginning of the 16th century (10th century AH). It was built on a coral reef close to the rocky coast, which at high tide was surrounded by the sea. The fort boasted a high tower which offered excellent views of the nearby harbour as well as of Bahrain. For hundreds of years Dammam fort played a leading role in the events of the region and witnessed many battles for the control of the lucrative trade routes of the Arabian Gulf. Up until the early 1940s a rusting cannon could still be found within the courtyard of the fort, reflecting its former formidable power (Al-Shuaiby, 1976; and Al-Subaiei, 1987).

Until 1935, the city of Dammam had been simple fishing settlement of five hundred hectares or less (see Fig. 4.9 and Fig. 4.10). The rapid pace of its growth began with the discovery of oil in 1938 and has continued ever since, so that the land area now exceeds 50,000 hectares, reflecting a one thousand percent growth.

Figure 4.9: Aerial view showing the settlement of Dammam in 1935, where we can also see the remains of Dammam's fort in the sea.
(Source: Dammam municipality - the permanent exhibition hall, 1997).
Figure 4.10: Pictures show the old fishing lifestyle of the Dammam settlers (Source: Dammam municipality - the permanent exhibition hall, 1997).
The exploration and discovery of oil, however, offered great opportunities for employment in Dammam city and was a catalyst for its increasing settlement (Al-Shuaiby, 1976). One of the key infrastructural projects that resulted from the oil industry in the area is King Abdulaziz Port. It was built in the 1950s to accommodate ships carrying oil drilling equipment and other machinery. The port has since been developed and expanded many times to become the main eastern gateway to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, through which different materials and goods are imported (Al-Noghaimishi, 1993).

Due to various economic and social activities Dammam, along with other urban centers in the area, attracted high numbers of immigrants (Al-Dosari, 1997). Increased economic development coupled with population growth, therefore, led to the choice of Dammam city as the capital of the Eastern Province in 1953. The population of Dammam city is estimated to be approximately 516,680 and the growth rate of population is about 3.7% (Ministry of Planning, 1994).

4.3.3 Recreational habits of the Saudis

Saudis tend to fall into 3 groups when participating in outdoor recreation: single-family groups (with children or without children), two or more families together in one group, and groups of young and unmarried men (bachelors). Each group has its own recreational habits in terms of behaviour and activities (Al-Abdullah, 1991).

Leisure time in Saudi Arabia is enjoyed generally in four distinct forms of grouping: one family together, older boys and men together, older girls and women together, and young children (Fogg, 1989). In order to have a clear idea about recreation habits of each group, this will be highlighted in the following discussion.
The family. This is the main social unit in Saudi Arabia. A family unit is a union of a man and women by marriage, sometimes along with their children. Within this unit various leisure-time activities are performed (Al-Awais, 1986; Fogg, 1987; Al-Taisan, 1989; and Al-Abdullah, 1991).

However, Fogg (1987) argues that as in any community organised recreation takes place at the time that the parents are at home from work. This is particularly true for Saudi Arabia with the limited mobility of women, since they are not allowed to drive or go outdoors without mahram, as been explained formerly.

The prime weekend and holiday activities of the Saudi families (other than foreign travel) are picnicking, camping, and most regularly visiting friends and relatives (Al-Abdullah, 1991). In relation to this, many other recreation activities take place within the range of the previously mentioned recreational activities, particularly for children and young people (Fogg, 1989).

Older boys and men. Mobility and cultural customs make this group the most active and visible. Much of the current recreation facility development by the Kingdom is directed towards providing high quality facilities for this group, including both public and private sports clubs (Fogg, 1987).

Al-Abdullah (1991) observed that this population portion of Saudi society has by far the widest range of recreational facilities and opportunities. In general, these opportunities involve the whole spectrum of active and passive activities, from football to smoking shisha (hubble-bubble pipe).

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4 Family means a group of persons united by the ties of marriage, or blood, or adoption, constituting a single household, and interacting with each other in their respective social positions of husband and wife, mother and father, son and daughter, brother and sister (Webster's Dictionary, 1994).

5 Sprott W. (1958) argues that a family, in the simplest terms, is the union of a man and a women along with their offspring, usually living in private and separate dwelling. Further, he argues that this type of living arrangement, more specifically known as the nuclear family, is believed to be the oldest of the various types of families in existence. Sometimes the nuclear family is extended to include not only the parents and the unmarried children living at home but also children that have married, their spouses, and their offspring; such a grouping is called an extended family.
Older girls and women. Restricted mobility, strict separation of the sexes, and an almost complete lack of facilities severely limit women's recreation opportunities. As a result, their prime recreation activities consist only of visiting other women, shopping, and family outings (Fogg, 1987).

Young children. Fogg (1989) finds that very young children of a Saudi family, ages 5 and under, are almost always accompanied by an older relative when they participate in any outdoor recreation activities. However, in general, Saudi families do not like to have their children unmonitored while playing. Accordingly, while in a public recreational area, such as public gardens or parks, the children who like to use playgrounds are usually accompanied by adults or older members of the family. Fogg concludes that this presence of adults becomes a significant factor because facilities must be provided for their (the elders') comfort, and in the case of women, their reasonable privacy.

In the same study, Fogg (1989) finds that in Saudi Arabia there is a major change in recreation needs and opportunities between the ages of 10 and 12, as the age of separation of the sexes by Islamic rule is between 10 and 12 years old, with the actual age being a matter of family background and tradition.

Fogg (1989) points out that the provision of public recreation facilities for children below ages 4-5 would not be very useful. Physiologically, the children are not sufficiently developed and lack adequate eye-hand coordination. Socially, children do not normally acquire the ability to play happily with others in public children's playgrounds until the age of 4-5.

To sum up, as the families are the largest stratum of Saudi society and as its structure in terms of members mostly contains all the other previously mentioned groups, the families' picnicking behaviour on recreational sea fronts are given most attention in this study.
4.3.4 Outdoor recreational projects in Dammam, and the recreational sea front

The Dammam area is known for its sandy beaches, but until the late 1980s only the beaches of Aziziah and Half-Moon Bay existed as the region’s main public coastal recreational centres. Both centres host increasing numbers of residents and tourists from the neighbouring cities, as well as Riyadh at the weekends.

Services provided by the Dammam Municipality on the beaches include sun shelters, playgrounds, and drinking water. Utilities, mobile kiosk services, waste collection and other support facilities have also been established. In addition, to increase the beaches’ potential, specialised national firms have been invited by the Municipality to invest in recreational and secondary services such as resorts and petrol stations.

Besides the beaches, Dammam city boasts about 70 public gardens and parks. These attract city residents, as well as visitors from neighbouring areas. The King Fahad Park is the largest of them. The park consists of large grassed areas furnished with various pools, water fountains, and an amusement area. Services provided in the park include a restaurant, food stands, an open-air coffee shop, and horse and carriage transport.

Since the early 1990s the Eastern Province Corniche, including Dammam’s recreational sea front, has taken its place as a major coastal recreational centre beside the beaches of Aziziah and Half-Moon Bay (see Fig. 4.11).

The Eastern Province Corniche is one of the recent massive coastal recreational development projects in the area. It is a coastal road with facilities, which has been constructed on the shoreline of the Arabian Gulf, thereby allowing for the formation of man-made bays and lakes.

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6 The scope of the Municipalities in Saudi Arabia is comparable to that of local council in the UK.
Figure 4.11: Photo-satellite image of a portion of the Saudi Arabian coastal area along the Arabian Gulf, with the locations of Dammam, Al-Khobar, and Dhahran cities, as well as the beaches of Aziziah and Half-Moon Bay. (Source: Satellite Imagery Department, Research Institute, KFUPM, Saudi Arabia, 1990).

In general, the Corniche provides an axis for various activities that occur at the coastline, including King Abdulaziz Port. The Corniche is accessed and interwoven with the urban fabric of Dammam city by the means of a system of arterial roads that meet at right angles to the coastline.

It stretches 50 kilometers, starting north of Dammam city and extends south through Al-Khobar city towards the Aziziah beach, with a width varying between 60 to 150 metres. In most of its developed parts the width partly comprises 30 metres of three-laned asphalted dual carriageway, with pavements, lighting, and landscaping. The remainder of the width stretches to the sea as a landscaped grassed area with a promenade; and in some areas car parking, playgrounds and fishing sites are available.
In addition, various service facilities are provided, such as toilets and public telephones. At the water's edge is a rocky barrier designed to protect the promenade and the coast from sea erosion.

The Corniche is divided into two sections, the Dammam section, which is 20 kilometres long and the Al-Khobar section, 30 kilometres in length. Only 7 kilometres of the Dammam section (the recreational sea front) are built on. Only 13 kilometres of Al-Khobar section are built on, but here its development is more or less solely as a road for cars.

The Dammam recreational sea front, however, provides recreational opportunities, including children's playgrounds, picnicking areas with some benches along the promenade, and areas for practising sports such as boating, jogging, walking, kites-flying, and cycling, as well as car parking, restaurants and grocery kiosks (see Fig. 4.12). Further, a number of fine sculptures and monuments have been placed on the various roundabouts along the sea front.

In general, looking at the Dammam Corniche plans, it can be said that its design is almost identical to the completed works, the general theme being cars parking alongside the road, a grassy area, promenades, a rocky barrier (at some points there is a beach instead of the rocky barrier), and the sea water (see Appendix 5).
Figure 4.12: A typical view of the Dammam recreational sea front after completion of the construction works. (Source: Dammam Municipality, 1994)
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CHAPTER FIVE

COLLECTION PROCEDURE FOR EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DATA, AND THE ANALYSIS STRATEGIES
CHAPTER 5 : COLLECTION PROCEDURE FOR EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DATA, AND THE ANALYSIS STRATEGIES

5.1 INTRODUCING THE TECHNIQUES

It has been noted earlier in the literature review of this research that there is little information and sometimes a lack of data in Saudi Arabia regarding the outdoor behaviour of local users using the recreational areas in general, and the recreational sea fronts specifically. In general, the subject of leisure and recreation and its relationship to open space design is a largely disregarded subject in Saudi Arabia (Al-Abdullah, 1991).

It may be helpful here to restate the fact that the users' socio-cultural values should be considered in the design process of any recreational development. In connection with this Rapoport (1990) argues that these values should be respected in the earliest stages of designing the built environment, as they define the function(s) and form(s) of the designs.

A key role of this research, therefore, was to define the impact of certain socio-cultural values of the local families on the picnicking areas and places along the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia. This was approached through examining the local families' picnicking behaviour, by means of recording and attempting to understand their behaviour within the context of picnicking areas as a whole and the individual picnicking places as well, on the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia.

The researcher's personal experience in his Master's study (1991), led him to conclude that the best way to deal with the research matter at hand was to carry out a field study. The importance of the field study is stressed by Shaffir and Stebbins:
At-4bdullah 5/ Collection Procedure for Empirical Research Datm and the Analysis Strategie:

"Unlike controlled studies, such as experiments, field studies avoid pre-judgment of the nature of the problem and hence the use of rigid data-gathering devices and hypotheses...... Rather, their mission is typically the discovery of new propositions that must be tested more rigorously in subsequent research specially designed for this purpose." (Shaffir and Stebbins, 1991 : 18)

Moreover, the type of questions this research intended to answer suggested a 'case study' as the most appropriate method of research (Yin, 1989 and 1993, Hamel J. et al 1993; and Stake, 1995): Why do many of the local families who use the Dammam recreational sea front complain that it does not suit their socio-cultural requirements? How in general, do socio-cultural values interrelate with the built environment? What is the influence of the particular socio-cultural values of the local families' in Saudi Arabia on their behaviour in the outdoor built environment? What are the impacts of these values on the local families' behaviour while picnicking on recreational sea fronts? How should such impacts be considered in the landscape development of picnicking areas and places on the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia?

In relation to this Molnar and Rutledge (1986) points out that constructed design projects are ideal laboratories in which landscape architects themselves gather empirical evidence on behaviour; they state:

"The perception of the park as laboratory offers designers and recreators a potential so far only partially tapped for evaluating the overall success of design work...... Postconstruction evaluation findings provide evidence of what worked and what didn't. And such evaluations go a long way toward pinpointing where adjustments are deserved or preventing the duplication of mistakes in the next job." (Molnar and Rutledge, 1986 : 25-26)

The case study method, in general, depends on qualitative or quantitative approaches or both of them together (Yin 1989 and 1993; and Stake, 1995). These approaches usually provide descriptive data and they are of a high exploratory nature, but they also can provide some explanations about the researched subject (Moser and Kalton, 1986; Yin, 1989 and 1993; and Stake, 1995).
Further, Moser and Kalton (1986) argue that using them in the case study is found to be helpful in providing a comprehensive picture of the investigated situations besides being flexible and microscopic. In addition they allow for more innovation and informality in the application of these approaches, which permits the researcher to use any type of relevant evidence obtainable to him through out his investigations (Hakim, 1987).

In connection with the research topic posed in this study the following questions need to be investigated through the case study:

1) Which sites/sections of the Dammam recreational sea front do local families use for picnicking, and which of these sites are the most used?

2) How are local families who use the Dammam recreational sea front affected by the existing design condition of these sites, and do they adjust their socio-cultural requirements to meet the existing situation?

3) If they do adapt to the existing situation, how is that achieved, and, if they do not adapt, why not?

Thus, the behavioural attitudes of the local families in the space had to be recorded, based on the interaction between the users and their surrounding context (other users and / or spaces). In addition their views and reactions about the picnicking areas (sites) and places, and their related socio-cultural physical requirements needed to be collected.

Taking into consideration the fact that there have been no previous studies regarding the development of recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia or related studies regarding their users' behaviour, the qualitative research approach was found to be more suitable and was preferred by the researcher.
As Patton (1987 and 1990) indicates, that the qualitative approach permits the evaluator to study issues of his selection both in detail and in depth. Furthermore, it offers a proper understanding through in-depth examination of specific cases, which in turn provide knowledge about common patterns (Ragin, 1994).

For conducting the in-depth examination of the study at hand, there was a need in the beginning to define the strategies of data collection. In connection with this, Ragin and Becker (1992), Yin (1989 and 1993) and Stake (1995) argue that more than one technique could be used together in conducting research that is socially related. In the same vein Patton says:

"There are strengths and weaknesses to any single data collection strategy. Using more than one data collection approach permits the evaluator to combine strengths and correct some of the deficiencies of any one source of data." (Patton, 1987: 60).

More than one technique was applied in this study, in order to have a clear understanding of the subject from different angles or different points of view and so that the data would be mutually supportive. In order to answer the above questions in regard to the case study, and to acquire the necessary related knowledge of the research topic, two techniques commonly used in such qualitative research were chosen. The selected techniques which were found to be appropriate are the 'natural setting observation technique' and the 'survey technique by using interviews'. Together they both are more human, since they acknowledge the differences among people and restore the complexity of human subjects to the research agenda (Sommer and Sommer, 1985).

The observation technique was chosen as it helps in examining the impact of the particular socio-cultural values of local families on their picnicking behaviour, and to delineate the relations between these values, where these values are assumed to influence the local families' behaviour in the outdoor environment.
This behaviour is usually expressed as forms of various interactions between the users (local families) and their physical surrounding context (other users and/or spaces). In connection with this, Zeisel (1981) argues that observing behaviour in natural settings generates data about people's activities and the relationships needed to sustain them, about regularities of behaviour, about expected uses and misuses of a space or a place, and about behavioural opportunities and constraints that environments provide.

However, two dimensions of the naturalness, namely unobtrusive observation of a natural behaviour and natural settings, have been emphasised in the observations used in this study. Judd and et.al (1991) defines natural behaviour as that which is naturally occurring with or without the attendance of the researcher in a natural setting, while natural settings refer to contexts that are not established for research purposes, in this case Dammam recreational sea front.

The interview as another technique was chosen to enable the researcher to collect data that would help him to understand the behavioural attitudes of the people. These attitudes are sometimes considered as a silent language, and the perceptions that relate to them are sometimes called a hidden dimension (Hall, 1959 and 1966). The interview was used mainly to decode the behavioural attitudes of the local families picnicking on the recreational sea front.

Moreover, the interview was used to ensure that the codes of behaviour have been clearly recorded and understood by the observer, so that he does not misinterpret the findings later. In other words, the interview method was used to help in providing an understanding of the attitudes, perceptions and motivations of the local families that could not be obtained from observation alone.

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1 Unobtrusive observation means an observation of natural behaviour (for example eating) as it happens in its natural setting (for example outdoor recreational areas).
To sum up, the interview method was used to generate information and general comments from the local families about their behavioural attitudes, interactions and opinions towards the existing situation at the Dammam recreational sea front in general, and the used picnicking areas (sites) and places specifically. All the techniques that were used in collecting the empirical data for this research were used to ensure the validity of the results. In connection with this Silverman (1994) argues that it is an increasingly accepted view that work becomes scientific by adopting methods of study appropriate to its subject matter. In the same vein, Kirk and Miller state:

"The assumptions underlying the search for objectivity are simple. There is a world of empirical reality out there. The way we perceive and understand that world is largely up to us, but the world does not tolerate all understanding of it equally."

(Kirk and Miller, 1986: 11)

Further clarification and a more detailed explanation of each technique will be produced in the relevant sections.

5.2 OBSERVATION AS A TECHNIQUE FOR COLLECTING DATA

It has been argued that the researcher must determine which information is useful in the course of the investigation, and then become more selective as additional knowledge about each case is gained. In the course of learning more about the research subject, the investigator sharpens his understanding of the case by refining and elaborating 'images' of the research subject and relating these to analytic frames. These emerging images serve to structure further inquiry by marking some data collection paths as promising and others as dead ends (Ragin, 1994, Coffey and Atkinson, 1996).
Observation was used in this research to gather a wide range of information. However, in this research two different types of observation were conducted. The first was a pilot/general observation which was used in the early stages in order to gather data about the users of the Dammam recreational sea front in general and the local families in particular. More specifically it was used to acquire information about the practised activities by the local families, the forms of their groups, their use of time on a weekday basis and the environmental settings (sites) they used most.

The collected data from this pilot (general) observation was the foundation for the next type of observation which has been termed the 'actual observation'. This is the core of the field study of this research. The findings of the pilot observation defined how the actual observation was conducted. The actual observation had two main points of interest.

One was concerned with collecting data connected with the picnicking areas (sites) and the other was concerned with collecting data regarding the picnicking places. The observation was aimed at describing the behavioural patterns of the local families while picnicking on the Dammam recreational sea front with regard to:

1) their selections of picnicking areas (sites), and
2) the locations and formations of their picnicking places.

In general, the natural setting observation as a data collecting technique is characterised by its capacity for recording and detecting behavioural patterns in the actual setting in which they occur at the time of their occurrence (Judd and et.al, 1991). Moreover, this technique has been found the most productive in obtaining data about how people behave in and experience their environment (Lang and et.al, 1974; and Madden et.al, 1982). Due to the nature of observation being qualitative; it consists of descriptive rather than purely numerical data.
The purposes of observation can be summarised as introductory assessment, familiarisation, formulating and testing hypotheses, and recording actual behavior (Dayaraten, 1992). In essence, regarding this research, the pilot observation objective was mainly assessment and familiarisation, whereas the actual observation was to explore normality, how the picnicking activity occurs, and to find clues to help in understanding certain behavioural patterns. These behavioural patterns which result from the actual use of picnicking areas (sites) and places that used by the local families picnicking on the Dammam recreational sea front.

Both of the different types of observation were conducted to ensure the reliability and validity of the study. Whenever it was possible, the picnicking behaviour of local families was observed under different circumstances, locations and conditions in order to increase the external validity of observational findings. External validity can be defined as the extent to which the results or conclusion of a study extend beyond the limited sample used in the study (Fielding and Fielding, 1986). Different forms of local families in different sites along the recreational sea front of Dammam at different times of the weekend were observed. In connection with this, Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1985) claim that by sampling different situations researchers reduce the chance that their results are peculiar to a certain set of surroundings or conditions. In addition, they claim that behaviour often changes as a function of the context in which it is observed, such as the case of children who do not always behave the same when a parent is present as they do when no one is present. They add that the diversity of the subject observed can be increased and consequently a larger generalisation concluded, by selecting different settings (sites) and situations (time and form of the family).

As indicated by many in the field of environment-behaviour, settings exert a dominant influence on behaviour; therefore, settings in which behaviour can be expected to occur with sufficient regularity were chosen to make observations practical.
The pilot/general observation was conducted to define these settings, whereas the actual observation was conducted later in the selected settings. In relation to each type of actual observation regarding picnicking areas and picnicking places, various observable measures are defined (what to observe?) in the following discussion.

5.2.1 Observation targets at picnicking sites (what to observe?)

The behaviour of people in any given space is usually a function of the interaction between the users of that space with its physical elements and in relation to the activity practised in it. Zeisl (1989) and Judd, et.al (1991) argue that the selection of behaviour to observe is guided by the focus of interest and by practical and ethical concerns that limit what is observable.

Hence, in this research, observation was selective as to what physical features and behavioural attitudes had to be observed. In essence it is an impossible task to observe everybody and everything. Accordingly, observation was conducted in selected areas (sites) where picnicking activity largely by local families was most frequent.

The selected sites were characterised as being representative in terms of containing the forms (composition) of the local families picnicking on the sea front. However, the observation was based on recording events as they occurred in relation to the existing physical features, with emphasis on the following specific points that are of interest to the issue of this research:

1) Type of the picnicking site (the environmental settings of the site)

a - Shape of the spatial domain, which primarily influences visual and perceptual relationships.
b - Accessibility and zoning features within the area, which primarily influence the relationships between the user groups, especially in regard to territory and privacy.

c - Physical elements of the area, which primarily affect picnicking locations within the area and the possible associated or combined activities taking place in the area’s context.

2.) Users

a - Their positioning in the area (their locations) and their types.

b - Form of the local families (with children or without children, and either single family or group of families); also their locations in relation to the context of the area and the approximate distance to the nearest groups around them.

5.2.2 Observation targets of picnicking places (what to observe?)

The procedures for observing the individual picnicking places are almost the same as those used for observing the overall picnicking site. In collecting data concerning picnicking places a systematic approach around clear and concise concepts of what to observe is essential. Therefore, observation depends on recording events and attitudes as they occur, taking into consideration the related physical elements. The emphasis of this research was on the following points (see Appendix 1):

1.) Type of picnicking place

a - Shape of the place and its orientation, which primarily influences visual and perceptual relationships.
b - Contextual physical elements that are supportive for choosing the place, which primarily influence the relationships between the user groups, especially in regard to territory and privacy.

2 Users
a - The family form (this is how the family is composed).
b - The approximate number of the users in the picnicking place.

3 The picnicking activity:
a - How is the picnicking as an activity carried out (different associated actions or activities that are practiced inside the place) ?
b - How are these associated activities fitted in the space domain of the place ?
c - How are they related to each other spatially ?

Carr and et.al (1992) consider that an analysis of the collected behavioral observation data in a space should reveal detailed knowledge about the users, the relationship between the users and the physical settings of the used space, and the type of activities taking place in the various settings of the used spaces.

In general observing behaviour in the outdoor physical environment of the Dammam recreational sea front was intended to generate information about the picnicking areas (sites) and places of local families and the relationships needed to sustain them, about regularities of behaviour, about the mode of use, and appropriateness or inappropriateness of the existing design for those local families.

To sum up, the collected information of the observation technique and related procedures of the analysis as a process of satisfying the aim of the behavioural observation should reveal the following :
1) Detailed knowledge about the users in regard to:
   a- Their forms (composition).
   b- Their approximate number of the users within groups.
   c- The time of use and related facilities, such as shade structures when it is sunny or lighting at night, and so on.

2) The association between the local families as picnickers and the physical features of the picnicking area (site) and place in regard to:
   a- The characteristics of the area (site) and place elements.
   b- The distribution of the local families in the picnicking area and related considerations of the privacy.
   c- The defined sizes of the picnicking places.
   d- The way they are being used.
   e- The distribution of belongings and their interrelation with controlling territory and its definition.
   f- The physical considerations of the local families in regard to their privacy in the picnicking places.

3) Picnicking as an activity taking place on the recreational sea front in relation to:
   a- The way it is carried out.
   b- The association between the different activities that constitute the picnicking activity (inside the place) and the required shape or form of the place accommodating them.
   c- The different activities carried out in the area and their relation to the picnicking place.
5.2.3 General Observer Tactics

As is the case with any research technique, there is always the danger of making errors in observation. Since the information recorded is subjective in nature, it may be biased or may not reflect a total picture of the observed space (Madden et.al, 1982). Generally, the observation system consists of three parts: the observer; the people being observed; and the spatial domain where the action is taking place (Madden et.al, 1982).

However, as humans are involved in the observation parts, the validity of the observation could be questioned. Therefore, in relation to what features and events need to be observed, the observer should be selective. Rationally, it was not possible to observe everybody or everything that is going on.

Actually, the observer should be unbiased in the sense of not having preconceived ideas about what is going on, as this may affect the result of the observation. However, if the observer has some familiarity with the observed people, this can be beneficial as inferences drawn later may have greater validity.

Conducting an observation in the study of human behaviour is usually a long procedure (Babbie, 1973; Baily, 1978; and Madden et.al, 1982). However, the time and budget limitations of the researcher had to be considered. Moreover, as the field study was conducted in Saudi Arabia, related religious and cultural ethics (already discussed in Chapter Four), such as avoiding direct contact with unrelated women and requiring permission to take photographs, had to be observed in order not to offend anyone.
5.2.4 Observer Tactics for this Study

The researcher has to be careful in conducting on observation in order to avoid contamination of the observation. Bahammam (1995) argues that the observer can be a source of bias that influences the external validity of the data.

Among various forms of bias in conducting the observation, two particular forms can be caused by the observer that have been avoided in this research. The first is what can be called 'reactivity'. It refers to the influence that an observer has on the behaviour under observation (Bahammam, 1995). In other words, a reactive condition is a condition in which subjects react to the attendance of an observer. Accordingly, such behaviour may not be representative of behaviour when an observer is not present.

In this research particularly, avoiding this kind of observer bias was very important. Therefore, the observation was made unobtrusively. Thus the researcher became a regular user of the selected areas. After the subject had been selected for the observation and the interview later, the researcher took a quiet spot within the site and behaved like any other user. From the chosen picnicking place, the researcher observed and recorded events and behaviours as they occurred, including the selected subject for 30 minutes in a completely natural setting with no reaction (reactivity) from the observed subject.

The second form of observer bias can occur in the interpretation of what has been observed. Behaviour must be recorded exactly as in occurs with no personal interpretations included. In other words, the data collection must preserve behaviour rather than interpret it; interpretation can be carried out later.

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2 For the samples' (subjects') selection see sub-chapter number 5.6 of this thesis.
Further, as a tactic the visual approach was used through the observation stage to support it; this was done as it is highly recommended by most of the researchers in this area of the field of environment-behaviour (Sanoff, 1991, and Ball and Smith, 1992).

In connection with this Rapoport (1990) argues that culture is seen in the built environment as at the most a system of meanings which form important determinants of action and social action as a meaningful activity of human beings. This system of meanings is defined by him as 'non-verbal communication'. It deals with non-verbal behaviour, which is perceived by visual and other sensory cues by which behaviour in the built environment can be understood.

Non-verbal behaviour is different from verbal behaviour, in the sense that the latter is perceived by the auditory sense. Therefore, to help the understanding of the families' picnicking behaviour on the sea front, and to achieve the correct interpretation later, the field observations were accomplished with the use of an auto-focusing camera equipped with a telephoto lens.

In the same vein Jorgensen (1989) has stressed that the camera is an extension of visual perception and still photography is an outstanding way to note observations when a literal visual record is necessary or desirable. Further, he points out that it is a useful tool since it records mechanically, and it permits comparison, sorting, analysis, and interpretation, in much the same way as verbal or written records. In relation to this Jorgensen says:

"Aside from being a way of recording the visual details of the physical environment, photography is especially useful for making records of nonverbal human scenes and interactions." (Jorgensen, 1989: 103)

In general, the camera was used for the purpose of recording events wherever it was applicable.
The photographs were taken in the mild weather of the winter season during the day at the weekends, when some local families besides other users were seen picnicking on the sea front. This was done in order to have clear photographs and a good picture of the picnicking areas and places utilised by the local families; however, it should be noted that these pictures do not represent the peak season or the peak time for sea front use.

When taking photographs, the privacy of the local families as a sensitive issue was considered. Moreover, in the case of a family being photographed closely, permission was taken first, and as far as possible no facial details were shown. In the case of finding difficulties in photographing the users' actions, photographs of the picnicking areas (sites) and places were taken in the morning or the afternoon of the day after.
5.3 INTERVIEW TECHNIQUE AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF RELATED QUESTIONS

Of all methods of data collection used by social sciences, the survey-interview is the best known and most popular; millions of interviews are conducted yearly in order to obtain data about the attitudes, opinions and behaviour of individuals or groups (Kvale, 1996). The idea of using a survey-interview for data collection in this research was not mainly to obtain numerical data, but to illustrate how a variety of different local families perceive or practise their picnicking activities on the sea front. Thus the type and format of the interview used was the 'guided survey-interview' (see Appendix 2).

It is a technique in which the interviewer has a predetermined series of questions on topics or issues that need to be explored (Madden et.al, 1982, Patton, 1987, Foddy, 1995; and Kvale, 1996). This type of interview allows the interviewer to obtain in-depth and specific information from the groups of local families about their picnicking experiences in relation to the sea front and surrounding physical context as documentary evidence.

Since the information is generally qualitative in nature, it is important to obtain, in the record, some of the interviewees' actual words and phrases which can be analysed and interpreted later (Schuman and Presser, 1981; Foddy, 1995). Therefore, some open-ended questions were asked on the interview sheet. The guided interview does not usually obtain information that can be statistically analysed, although the interviewer may include a few questions that can be quantified (Bradburn and Sudman, 1979; and Foddy, 1995).

An interview is basically a form of social interaction; therefore, various skills must be considered, some of which are social skills (Payne, 1951 and Survey Research Center, 1969).
These skills include having a good attitude and being a good conversationalist, interest in others, a comfortable relationship with strangers, an ability to put others at ease. Van der Zouwen and Dijkstra (1982) point out that improving the quality of interview data should be based on an understanding of the interview process itself. In relation to this, as it is a guided interview, the interviewer should be alert to ambiguities in the respondents' responses and to deliberate or unconscious deceptions (Sudman and Bradburn, 1974; Madden et al., 1982; Patton, 1987; and Foddy, 1995).

To design the interview and develop its questions, certain criteria were considered (Bradburn and Sudman, 1979; Van der Zouwen and Dijkstra, 1982; and Foddy, 1995):

1) The interview contained separate parts with their related questions regarding socio-cultural values, in order to ease analysing the responses.

2) The interview started with filter questions to ensure the validity and reliability of the selected group as being regular users of the sea front who had experience in using it, in addition to help forming a profile of the group. This was followed by sections regarding the picnicking site selection with the picnicking place location, privacy, territoriality, way and style of practising activities, and finally general comments. These parts contained questions about how the members of the local family interacted with physical features surrounding them, their feelings about the sea front in general, and their points of view or comments regarding the used site and place in relation to picnicking in particular.

3) The questions were carefully worded, since the wording of a question profoundly affects the answer (Bradburn and Sudman, 1979; Schuman & Presser, 1981; Van der Zouwen and Dijkstra, 1982; and Foddy, 1995). In general, the questions were developed following these guidelines:
a) Simple language has been used, and technical terms were avoided as much as possible.

b) Embarrassing or potentially embarrassing questions were avoided.

c) Ambiguous questions were avoided.

d) Leading questions were avoided.

4) The interview questions were tested before the final format was addressed and used for collecting data. For the test, six random samples presenting the two different forms of local families (families with children and families without children) who were picnicking on the sea front of Dammam at different times were asked the questions in the interview. The researcher checked whether they had difficulty answering or understanding any of the questions. Finally, the necessary modifications were then made before the actual interviews were conducted.

Around 35 minutes per group was required for the purpose of recording (sketching) the group's behaviour in the picnicking place, asking the questions and writing down the answers.

To conduct the interview, various procedures were set up and followed. First of all, a brief statement typed on official stationary defining the purpose of the research and showing the interviewer's name was displayed; the interviewer carried an identification (see Appendix 4). This process was carried out in order to dispel any suspicions the respondents may have had as to the legitimacy of the interview.

Then the interviewer addressed the man assumed to be the head of the selected family group (in most cases, the father). His approval for conducting the interview was sought, after its purpose was explained. In addition, the interviewee was given a copy of the interview questions so that he could read along as the questions were being asked, while the interviewer was recording the answers on his copy.
5.4 THE PILOT OBSERVATION AND ITS ROLE IN SELECTING SITES FOR THE ACTUAL OBSERVATION

Since the location of the case study was defined - the Dammam recreational sea front - considerable effort was devoted to the selection of picnicking areas (sites). Various environmental settings along the Dammam recreational sea front were utilised by the local families as picnicking areas (sites).

Due to the researcher's limited resources and the physical impossibility of observing everything, there was a need to select picnicking areas (sites) where the observation and interview could be conducted and applied. The selected sites had to be as far as possible representative as being the most used by local families, and picnicking local families had to be present and available in these selected areas (sites) while the process of observation and interview was taking place. It was also necessary to make decisions about where to conduct the observation from and during what periods.

Presenting and analysing the findings of the pilot (general) observation at the outset below, was essential to enable the researcher to conduct the actual observation correctly, since it depended heavily on them. It is also important to highlight these findings early on as clarification for the next process of observation and to achieve strong consistency in the study.

Before presenting the findings, it is worth remembering that Dammam recreational sea front is about 7km in length with a width varying between 60m and 150m. It was therefore logical to divide it into more manageable sections to better enable the researcher to observe and describe the different types of users and their varying behaviour and demands.
These sections were defined by their dominant physical built features which served as unmarked boundaries (Fig. 5.1). In general, the observable measure of each section included:

a) Physical description.
b) Who the users were.
c) Time of use in general, and peak time of use in particular.
d) Density of users in general, and density of the local families in particular as well as their forms such as whether with or without children and whether an individual family or a group of families.

In general, the author’s suggestion to divide the Dammam recreational sea front to more manageable sections, is as follows:

Section #1
This starts from the coastguards' building located at the south of the sea front project, and continues up to the south side of the 'Pizza Fun Time' restaurant.

Section #2
This starts from the west side of the 'Pizza Fun Time' restaurant and goes up to the east side of the 'Sea-Shell' restaurant.

Section #3
This starts from the south side of the 'Sea-Shell' restaurant and goes up to the entrance of 'Watching Island'. (This section is excluded from the study, because at the time the survey was conducted it was still under construction and not accessible to the public).
Section # 4
This starts from 'Watching Island' and runs up to the mosque which is situated by a sculpture of 'Sailing Boats'.

Section # 5
This is located between the two sea front mosques.

Section # 6
This starts at the north side of the mosque next to the 'Sea-Shell' sculpture and runs up to the open roundabout that leads to 'Al-Morjan Island'.

Section # 7
This starts from the open roundabout that leads to 'Al-Morjan Island' and runs up to the beginning of the Island's parking area.

Section # 8
Al-Morjan Island itself.

Section # 9
This starts from the west side of the open roundabout and stretches across to the east side 'Traditional Boats' sculpture. This portion consists of two strips. The first is the grass area which is located beside the road, given the number (9 - a). The second is located parallel to the first, but beside the water's edge (beach) and given the number (9 - b).

Section # 10
This starts from the north side of the 'Traditional Boats' sculpture and runs towards the south for 500m, stopping at the storm water drainage outlet pipe.
Figure 5.1: Map of the Dammam recreational sea front, showing the researcher’s suggestion for sub-dividing it to more manageable sections.
The pilot observation was conducted during the summer of 1996 from 7 to 20/9/1996 inclusive, when there were no special events occurring. They were normal weeks in a summer season.

The observation procedure started at the beginning of the week on Saturday and continued till the end of the week on Friday. The observation, which was conducted on a daily basis, was started from Saturday to Wednesday in the afternoon at around 3:00 p.m., and on Thursdays and Fridays in the early morning at around 8:00 a.m. This observation covered all the above sections of the Dammam recreational sea front. The observation stopped on each day when it seemed that no more activities were taking place on the sea front.

The findings showed that, type of users, activities practised, and time of use are as follows (see Table 5.1):

1) During the weekdays (Saturday, Sunday, Monday and Tuesday) the users generally were single or groups of bachelors. The activities practised by them varied from sitting and drinking refreshments, walking or jogging along the promenade, and fishing, to playing football on the grass areas. The presence of the families in general and local families in particular was irregular and very limited (very low numbers of scattered groups in the sea front area). They were mainly located near the children's playgrounds. On some days, local families did not show up at all. Also, the observation showed that on these days the sea front was usually used from around 6:00 p.m. till around 10:00 p.m.

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3 Because of the high demand for sea front usage at weekends, the pilot observation was conducted with the help of the author's brothers and close friends, who are also landscape architects, under the supervision of the author of this research. They were divided into groups, and each group was given a map for a pre-determined section to be covered. The task was to count the groups in each portion, their types, their forms, and the activities practised by them during the observation time.
2) With regard to Wednesdays, Thursdays and Fridays the sea front was used by all the user types (local families, non-local families and bachelors). Picnicking as a main activity, sea-related activities such as fishing, and other various recreational activities such as walking or jogging along the promenade were observed.

The sea front was used from around 4:00 p.m. till around midnight on Wednesdays. On some Thursdays and Fridays it was used from the morning at around 8:00 a.m. till around 10:00 a.m., but the users’ presence was infrequent and irregular. Yet, the regular use of the sea front on Thursdays was from around 4:00 p.m. till the early morning of the next day at around 2:00 a.m. On Fridays it was used from 4:00 p.m. till around 10:00 p.m.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weekdays</th>
<th>Saturday</th>
<th>Sunday</th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>Friday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Types of sea front users</td>
<td>Singles &amp; groups of bachelors</td>
<td>Singles &amp; groups of bachelors</td>
<td>Singles &amp; groups of bachelors</td>
<td>Singles &amp; groups of bachelors</td>
<td>Singles &amp; groups of bachelors</td>
<td>Singles &amp; groups of bachelors</td>
<td>Singles &amp; groups of bachelors</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular time of the use</td>
<td>6 to 10 p.m.</td>
<td>6 to 10 p.m.</td>
<td>6 to 10 p.m.</td>
<td>6 to 10 p.m.</td>
<td>4 to 12 p.m.</td>
<td>4 p.m.</td>
<td>4 to 10 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities practised</td>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Mainly Picnicking</td>
<td>Mainly Picnicking</td>
<td>Mainly Picnicking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1: Type of users, activities practised, and time of use on Dammam recreational sea front
Density of use per day on Wednesdays, Thursdays and Fridays, as a part of the pilot observation, showed the following (see Table 5.2):

1) The greatest density occurred on Thursdays, when the recreational sea front was fully and comprehensively used. On Thursdays, the groups of users were counted regularly from 3:00 p.m. until 2:00 a.m. the next day on an hourly basis. The greatest density occurred between 5:00 p.m. and 11:00 p.m., and the number of groups using the sea front peaked at around 9:00 p.m. when they totalled about 1130 groups. The second highest density was Friday; again the groups were counted hourly from 4:00 p.m. until 10:00 p.m.; the time of greatest density occurred between 5:00 p.m. and 8:00 p.m., and peaked at around 7:00 p.m. when there was a total of about 720 groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weekdays</th>
<th>Saturday</th>
<th>Sunday</th>
<th>Monday</th>
<th>Tuesday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>Friday</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>M</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>S</td>
<td>06</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2: Detailed time of use for the Dammam recreational sea front
Wednesdays came third; hourly counting started at 4:00 p.m. and finished at midnight; the greatest density occurred between 5:00 p.m. and 11:00 p.m., and peaked at around 8:00 p.m. when 570 groups were counted. The group size varied between 2 persons and about 24 persons.

2) In relation to the local families in particular; the hierarchy of density per days was different. The highest density was on Thursdays when about 280 groups of local families used the sea front at the peak time. The next was on Wednesdays when about 170 groups of local families used the sea front at the peak time. Last was Fridays when about 90 groups of local families used the sea front at the peak time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weekday</th>
<th>Wednesday</th>
<th>Thursday</th>
<th>Friday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Density time</td>
<td>5 - 11 p.m.</td>
<td>5 - 11 p.m.</td>
<td>5 - 8 p.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of groups using the sea front at the peak time</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>1130</td>
<td>720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at around 8:00 p.m.</td>
<td>at around 9:00 p.m.</td>
<td>at around 7:00 p.m.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number and % of local families' groups using the sea front at the peak time</td>
<td>170 (30%)</td>
<td>280 (25%)</td>
<td>90 (12.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.3: Density of use per weekend days on the Dammam recreational sea front

Regarding the type of users in each section of the sea front, the pilot observation showed that (see Table 5.3):

1) On Wednesdays and Thursdays, at around 4:00 p.m., local families were seen coming to and using various sections/sites of the Dammam recreational sea front on a scattered basis, when it was still sunny.
They were mainly families with children. They sat close to the children's playgrounds. They chatted while sitting, drinking tea or coffee, and enjoying the sea view and surroundings while watching their children playing. An increase in density occurred around the time of sunset, which varied between 5:00 p.m. and 5:30 p.m.

2) In general, the pilot observation showed that sections #1 and 7 were mainly and frequently used by singles and groups of bachelors with a very low number of non-local families on scattered basis. Sections #2, 4 and 5 were mainly and frequently used by groups of non-local families with a few groups of local families, and some groups of bachelors.

3) Local families were found and seen frequently and mainly using sections #6, 8, 9-a, 9-b and 10. In section #9-a primarily families with children were observed. In the other sections, #6, 8, 9-b and 10, both forms of local families were seen.

However, the previously mentioned sections, #6, 8, 9-a, 9-b and 10, included various environmental settings; thus the researcher chose all of them for the purpose of conducting the field work of this study (the actual observation and the interviews).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector #</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9-a</th>
<th>9-b</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of users</td>
<td>Mainly singles and bachelor groups</td>
<td>Mainly non-local families</td>
<td>This section is excluded from the study</td>
<td>Mainly non-local families</td>
<td>Mainly local families with some non-local families</td>
<td>Mainly singles and bachelor groups</td>
<td>Mainly local families with some non-local families</td>
<td>Mainly local families with some non-local families</td>
<td>Mainly local families with some non-local families</td>
<td>Mainly local families with some non-local families</td>
<td>Mainly local families with some non-local families</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.4: Type of the users observed in each section of the Dammam recreational sea front.

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4 The environmental settings of the Dammam recreational sea front can be characterised as follows:
(9-b) is a beach area with car access, (9-a) is a promenade along with grass sitting area, (10) is a promenade along with grass a area and beach, (6) is a promenade along with paved sitting areas on a beach, and (8) is an circular-shaped island. All of them included car parking and service facilities such as toilets and grocery kiosks, except section # (9-b). Children’s playgrounds are located only in sections #9-a and 10. For more details see Chapter Six of this study.
5.5 SELECTING SAMPLES FOR THE SURVEY INTERVIEWS

Many in the field of research methodology have noted that too large a sample wastes resources, while too small a sample diminishes the usefulness of the results. What then is the optimum representative sample size for this study? A large sample size is beyond the scope and nature of this qualitative study and in this case considerations of limited time and resources available to the researcher also limited the size of the sample. Backstorm (1981) points out that the accuracy of the inquiry depends primarily upon the representative quality of the sample; thus in homogeneous populations, the sample may be extremely small.

The actual process of sample selection is complex, wending its way among diverse practical contingencies, from cost considerations to physically locating respondents (Holstein and Gubrium, 1995). Backstorm and Hursh (1981), Moser (1986), and Hakim (1987) argue that in survey research, subject (samples) selection is principally addressed in terms of representativeness, that is, how well the characteristics of those sampled represent the characteristics of the population of interest.

This study aims to learn about the behavioural patterns of local families picnicking in recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia, and therefore samples were deliberately limited to these families. Patton (1987) argues that the logic of purposeful sampling in qualitative methods is quite different from the logic of probabilistic sampling in statistics. Moreover, the power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting ‘information-rich cases’ for study in depth. He says:

"Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the evaluation, thus the term ‘Purposeful Sampling’. " (Patton, 1987: 52)
Observing the behaviour of spatial users in the outdoor environment usually involves events that occur unpredictably. An arrangement was made to spend time for the observations and the interviews in each selected section (site).

The resulting interactions of local families picnicking on the sea front were determined to be the unit of analysis for defining their picnicking patterns in relation to their socio-cultural values. The primary focus of data collection was related to the picnicking behaviours of the local families regarding their socio-cultural values.

These values were assumed to play a significant role among other variables in terms of the selection of picnicking sites and picnicking places, and also the formation of picnicking places by the local families on the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia.

In other words, the picnicking behaviour of local families as users of the recreational sea front was used as the 'unit of analysis'. This behaviour is assumed to stem from their interaction with the physical context surrounding them. This interaction Kathleen and et.al, (1982) recommends to be the 'analysis frame' of the man-environment relationship regarding recreation, and is called 'user analysis'. In connection with this, Patton states:

"The key factor in selecting and making decisions about the appropriate unit of analysis is to decide what unit it is that you want to be able to say something about at the end of the evaluation." (Patton, 1987: 51)

In the same vein it can be said that results of user analysis depend on different techniques, among them the observation and interview, which allow the researcher to consider the combined picture of what the users do (from observations), and the reasons behind what they do (from interviews). Behaviour sampling is generally achieved by various techniques of sampling.
In this research, the 'event sampling' technique was selected as it was considered to be more efficient in sampling behaviour which occurs infrequently (Shaughnessy and Zechmeister, 1985), such as how people face each other whilst sitting, how they arrange themselves when picnicking and so on. Related information about the surrounding context where the observed behaviour took place was recorded as well.

5.6 PROCESS OF CONDUCTING THE OBSERVATIONS AND INTERVIEWS

The pilot observation showed that the highest rate of usage by local families during the weekends is on Wednesdays and Thursdays. Thus, in order to conduct a proper observation and gather enough data to interpret, these two days were selected for collecting the empirical data (field related data) in sections # 6, 8, 9-a, 9-b and 10. Nine weekends were needed to complete the survey. Sections # 6, 8, 9-b and 10 were given two weeks each, and section # 9-a was given only one week. This was done in order to cover both forms of the local families (either with children or without children).

The survey was processed in each chosen section (site) as follows: The survey began following a schedule of pre-defined weekends with dates fixed for each section. After the section (site) was determined and one of the family forms was selected, the related map was prepared.
Therefore, on each one of these weekends the researcher surveyed a pre-determined section (site) on both days of the weekend, Wednesday and Thursday. A particular family form was pre-defined to concentrate on during the survey.

In each day, various observation rounds were conducted for the whole section (site) at different time intervals. The first observation round was at usually around 5:00 p.m. Each round took between 20 and 25 minutes depending on the length of the section (site) and the density of the groups using it. To be more efficient and systematic, the first round of observation usually started from the right side of the section (site) and moved down towards the left.

It was a problem choosing a sample from a population of users whose arrival at, and departure from, the sites are totally uncertain. Thus, a random sample of users was deemed practical. Moreover, because the resources available were inadequate to study the total population of local families using the sea front, there was a need to find a technique for picking the interviewees.

Therefore, during the observation each family group was given a number. At the end of the observation round one number was selected randomly to be interviewed in its picnicking place. Before the subject (the selected family) was interviewed, a quiet spot nearby was chosen, where the researcher sat down on a mat and behaved like any ordinary user. From this position, the researcher observed and recorded behaviour and events that were occurring around him, including the selected subject for 30 minutes. As previously mentioned, the interview time per group was about 35 minutes.

5 As a thank-you gift, after the completion of each interview, the interviewee was given an attractive notebook shaped like starfish with a sketch of sea life on its cover. This was done in order to give a good impression. It is expected that the interviewed persons might tell their friends and relatives, and consequently this might encourage them to cooperate with similar surveys in the future.
Thus the total time required for completing one round of a section (site) observation, selecting the subject, observing behaviours and events, and interviewing the subject was about one hour and a half.

In order to be present at the times when events of interest occurred, this process was followed on a regular weekend basis on the previously mentioned days and times for nine weekends, in order to cover fully the selected sections (sites) as well as the various forms of the local families.

Generally, the process was stopped at around 11:00 p.m. each day of the survey (Wednesday and Thursday). This means four rounds of observation were conducted and four subjects (families) were interviewed in each section (site) per day. Thus, the total number of interviewees representing families with children was 40, and the ones representing families without children was 32.
5.7 ORGANISATIONAL ISSUES SUPPORTING THE FIELD STUDY

Two field trips to Saudi Arabia were carried out from September 1996 - January 1997 inclusive, and from April 1997 - July 1997 inclusive. The first trip was designed for the pilot observation (general observation), preparation and testing process, which enabled the researcher to organise appropriately and develop the actual fieldwork. The purpose of the second field trip was to conduct the actual observation and the interviews with the local families who were picnicking on the sea front.

The first three weeks, prior to the actual collection of data by observation and interviews, were devoted to familiarisation with the selected picnicking sites on the sea front. This involved obtaining the necessary research permits (see Appendix 4), and settling any administrative or financial problems before the survey began. For these reasons various steps were followed:

1) Government agreement and permission for carrying out the observation and interviews was obtained.
2) Official letters were obtained to photograph the sea front sections; the financial support which covers transportation, living expenses and other financial matters needed for the conduct of the survey were finalised.
3) Maps and plans of the selected sections (sites) and documents for the study areas were prepared.

It should be indicated that the preliminary fieldwork verification and testing stages were invaluable in establishing the proper survey technique. The general observation of the Dammam sea front as a pilot study was essential in understanding and providing a complete organisational plan for the study.
5.8 STRATEGIES FOR ANALYSING THE EMPIRICAL DATA

Different techniques have been used to collect empirical data for this study; therefore, it was important to have clear link between the collected data, and to understand how they are integrated with each other. It is essential here to remind the reader that the major approaches used for data collection were observation of behaviour in a given setting or context, and the interviews; visual data (still photographs) was used as supporting evidence.

Observing behaviour in a setting is a broadly applied approach; it involves watching and recording how the targetted people as individuals or groups use and interact with the context or the environment surrounding them. It has been concluded earlier on in this chapter that there are group of variables involved in the observation which perform significant roles in shaping the resulting observed behaviour.

These variables can be subsumed under one main question: What do people do in a given setting, and itemised as follows: Where do people settle? How do their actions or activities relate to one another spatially? How do spatial relations influence participants? And what is the unity between what is going on and the contextual or the environmental setting?.

The recorded observations gained from this study contain data about sequences of events that took place in certain environments involving certain groups of actors. The content of the observations was analysed, which involved exploring the occurrence or repetition of particular categories of events or behaviour.

This approach has been adopted from a commonly used technique mostly known in the field of the research methodology under the term 'content analysis'.
The basic procedure in content analysis is to design categories that are relevant to the research purpose and to sort all occurrences of relevant events or other recording units into these categories (Tesch, 1990; Silverman, 1994; Miles and Huberman, 1994).

However, it is argued that the possible applications of content analysis are limited only by the imagination of the researcher (Holsti, 1969). In relation to this, Bordens and Abbott (1991) demonstrate that content analysis technique has been conducted on a broad range of research materials such as observational records, written material and spoken records. It is a useful approach to help in understanding human behaviour in the outdoor environment (Bahammam, 1995). It seems logical, especially since the observational technique used for this study was purely a descriptive one. In relation to this Bordens and Abbott (1991), Miles and Huberman (1994), and Silverman (1994) report that response categories must be clearly defined and developed according to the occurrence of specific behavioural events. Further, they add that the most important requirement for this kind of analysis is the clear operational definition of terms, and the derived categories must remain focused on the research questions.

On another level of data analysis, in order to gain a clear understanding and proper interpretation of the observed behaviour, the role of the collected information from interviews and visual data becomes essential as their purpose is to decode the meanings embedded in the behaviour and/or motivating it. On one hand, the behaviour is decoded through relating it to the formerly defined particular socio-cultural values - privacy, territoriality, and style of the activity practised - where the meanings of the behaviour have been revealed by the interviewee through their answers. Answers were summarised into five categories: the respondents' characteristics, the three socio-cultural values and respondents' comments and opinions.
In relation to this, it has been demonstrated by Patton (1990) that qualitative findings are long, have extensive details, and are variable in content (significance); further, their analysis is difficult because responses are neither systematic nor standardised. He argues that, even so, open-ended responses permit one to understand the world as seen by the respondents.

An additional and reliable way to analyse the visual materials has been developed to meet the theme of this research, which depends on analysing the content of the photographs in terms of relating what has been photographed to the researcher's explanation (see Chapter Seven). In general, the visual data analysis is used to support the researcher's interpretations of the data, where it is applicable.

To sum up, the analysis followed a thematic approach, which means the observational records and interviews were analysed in the form of categories. These categories present the occurring activity and/or event (picnicking) and its related actions, the settings/sites where the activity took place, the actors or users who carry out the activity, and the preferred locations (picnicking places) within each observed section (full analysis of the sections are presented in Chapter 6).

However, the thematic categorisation is only for clarification purposes, in order to focus on specific aspects of the observed picnicking behaviour which are related to the aims of this study. Discussion of each theme involved the other themes because they are all interrelated, but an emphasis was given to each one separately in order to recognise its role in the resulting behaviour.

The researcher is all too aware that the strong interrelations between the different issues will result in some repetition; however, he found this difficult to avoid and hopes the reader will bear with it.
Finally, the following figure shows the 'research analytical frame', which was developed by the researcher to enable both himself and the reader to understand how the empirical data and the analysis are interrelated, and how this interrelationship will guide the study towards satisfying its aims and objectives (see Fig. 5.2).

![Figure 5.2: The research analytical frame](image-url)
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CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS OF THE
FIELDWORK FINDINGS
CHAPTER SIX : ANALYSIS OF THE FIELDWORK FINDINGS

6.1 THE ANALYSIS SCHEME

Analysing the environmental settings of the 5 sections that have been included in the study is the first step towards enabling the researcher to interpret and discuss the users' picnicking behaviour later. The observational records of each section (site) will be investigated in the form of categories. This categorisation is only for simplification purposes in order to concentrate on certain aspects of the observed behaviour which are focused on the research questions and related to the aims of this study. Analysis of the interviews, however, will follow the same approach of analysing the observational records where a related categorisation is used.

Each category of the analysis regarding observation and interviews will discuss all related behaviour and situations that took place in each section. The analysis of the observation records for each one of the previously mentioned sections has been classified into four parts ¹, where each part then has been sub-divided into a number of categories. Parts of the observation analysis as follows:

1) General information regarding the method of observing the section.

2) Analysis of the section's physical setting.

3) Analysis of the observations of families with children at the picnicking site (the entire section).

4) Analysis of the observations of families without children at the picnicking site (the entire section).

¹ For information regarding pictorial observation see Appendix 5.
Regarding interviews, the analysis has been classified into two parts: one part for the analysis of families accompanied by children, and the other for the analysis of families without children. Further, each part has been classified into six categories:

1) Characteristics of the subjects (picnickers).
2) Privacy.
3) Territoriality.
4) Picnicking activities.
5) Preferred picnicking sites on the sea front in general.
6) Opinions and comments.

Many in the field of research methodology, especially those interested in qualitative studies, have pointed out that the analysis process is usually used to summarise and categorise the gathered observation data in such a way that they afford answers to the research questions. Further, the related interpretation process is used later to look for the broader meaning of these answers by linking them to other available data (Fielding and Fielding, 1986; Tesch, 1990; Judd and et.al, 1991; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Ragin, 1994; Silverman, 1994; and Coffey and Atkinson, 1996). In relation to this, the link between both the analysis of observations and the analysis of interviews was made in this research in order to justify, clarify and reinforce the issues that are interpreted and discussed in the following chapter.²

² The researcher admits that there is some repetitiveness in the presented data regarding the analysis of the families' behaviour, yet he feels it is important for it to be presented in such way, in order to enable the reader to understand clearly the interpretation which will take place in Chapter 7.
6.2 ANALYSIS OF THE FIRST SITE (SECTION # 6)

Figure 6.1: Plan of section # 6 (see Appendix 5).
6.2.1 General information regarding the method of observing the section

Date:

The first observation. Wednesday and Thursday, 23rd & 24th of April 1997, of families with children.
The second observation. Wednesday and Thursday, 18th & 19th of June 1997, of families without children.

Time:

5:00 p.m. - 11:00 p.m. on the above mentioned days.

Form of the family:

Families with children & families without children.

Climatic conditions:

First observation. Mild with low humidity, and moderate breeze from the north east direction.
Second observation. Hot with noticeable humidity, with no breeze to ease the humidity.

Lighting conditions:

Direct from the lamp post in each place. At the beach the light is indirect from the street's lamps.

6.2.2 Analysis of the section's physical settings

Location:

It is located to the north side of the mosque next to the 'Sea-Shell' sculpture and runs to the open roundabout that leads to Al-Morjan Island (see Fig. 5.1 in Chapter 5).

The section layout:

The site is formed of a linear combination of individual concrete paved sitting places. These are located between the shoreline/beach and the promenade along the street; the area of each is 2x2m. The promenade is lined by trees on both sides.

Parking availability:

The parking is linear alongside the street.

Service facilities:

One kiosk for snacks and refreshments. No toilet.

Playgrounds:

None
6.2.3 Analysis of the observations of families with children at the picnicking site
(the entire section)

Preferred locations:
Either on the paved places themselves, or on the sandy area of
the shoreline/beach (see Fig. 6.1). A distance interval of 8m are
left between the constructed paved places. Usually there was a
greater distance left between groups that used the beach; this
varied between 10m at peak times, and up to 30m or more at
off-peak times.

Settling in the place:
Either sitting on a carpet/mat, or on portable chairs; belongings
were distributed irregularly around the place, especially towards
the promenade side.

Picnicking actions:
These were varied: lying down on the mats, sitting, chatting,
viewing the surrounding scene, drinking tea, having snacks or
sometimes barbecuing, walking along the promenade. Further,
the children sometimes paddled in the nearby shallow sea water,
or played with the sand of the beach. Usually, a mixture of these
actions was carried out.

6.2.4 Analysis of observations of families without children at the picnicking site
(the entire section)

Preferred locations:
Either on the paved places themselves, or on the sandy area of
the shoreline/beach (see Fig. 6.1). A distance interval of 8m are
left between the constructed paved places. Usually there was a
greater distance left between groups that used the beach; this
varied between 10m at peak times, and up to 30m or more at
off-peak times.

Settling in the place:
Either sitting on a carpet/mat, or on portable chairs; belongings
were distributed irregularly around the place, especially towards
the promenade side.
Picnicking actions:
The actions varied between lying down on the mat, sitting, chatting, viewing the surrounding scene, drinking tea, having snacks or barbecuing, walking along the promenade. Usually, a mixture of these actions was carried out.

6.2.5 Analysis of the interviews of families with children at the picnicking place

Characteristics of the subjects:
Groups of families accompanied by children and who come to the sea front more than 5 times a year. Mainly they are groups of individual families; a few of them are groups that contain a mix of families who are either relatives or friends. On Wednesdays most of them stay about 1-3 hours. But on Thursdays most of them stay around 4-6 hours or even more, specially when the weather is nice and breezy.

Privacy:
Mainly this is a visual-related privacy, where females sit with their backs to the promenade and the street. In some cases the portable chairs are used as barriers. If there is a group of mixed families, the females orient themselves also to sit with their backs to men within the group. Places where lamps are not working are more desired, though these places are mainly lit indirectly from the street lamps. However, some interviewees mentioned that they sometimes deliberately smash the bulbs in order to achieve their required privacy.

Territoriality:
The picnicking place territories are clearly marked by the concrete pavement. However, distributing the belongings around the place, and laying down a carpet or a mat are means of strengthening and demarcating the boundaries of the paved picnicking places or the ones created on beach.
Picnicking activities:

Various actions are carried out by the family members. Sitting, chatting, barbecuing, eating, and watching the surrounding scene are the activities practised in the place by both males and females, except for lying on the ground for the purpose of relaxation, which is only practised by males. Walking, fishing, and paddling in the shallow water on the shoreline are the activities practised away from the place, either by the males individually or females when accompanied by males. Further, children fly kites on the beach in the day time; they also play with the sand on beach, beside taking part with one or more of the above activities.

On Wednesdays because the families stay for a short time (1-3 hours), the majority bring light picnic equipment with them, easily managed even if the family has to walk some distance from the car. But on Thursdays they spend a longer time, and most of them bring a lot of picnic equipment; cars need to be very close to the picnicking place.

Preferred sites on the sea front in general:

Sections # 8, 9-a, 9-b, and 10 as well as this section are the sites on the sea front most preferred by the interviewed families. This site is chosen as the families feel that the site offers them the ability to maintain or preserve their privacy and territory; also it provides them accessibility to the sea or the beach. Having the cars very close is essential for some families, especially on Thursdays when a lot of picnic equipment is brought.

Opinions and comments:

Comments noted have varied between the hardness of the ground at the paved place, the small size of the place, the lack of playgrounds, and the danger of the children being close to the street without a proper barrier. Further, the site's general boundaries are not clear in terms of grouping type, where families prefer sites separate from the bachelors.
6.2.6 Analysis of the interviews of families without children at the picnicking place

Characteristics of the subjects:
Groups of families who are not accompanied by active children, although sometimes infants are in buggies. Most of them visit the sea front more than 5 times a year. Mainly they are groups of individual families, but groups containing a mix of families who are relatives or friends are not usual. Mainly they do not stay more than 3 hours on Wednesday. On a Thursday two different groups of families who are couples mentioned that they were not going to stay more than 3 hours, while the other interviewed families who are two larger different groups of a same family, showed interest in staying more than 3 hours.

Privacy:
Mainly this is a visual-related privacy; the females sit with their backs to the promenade and the street. In some cases the portable chairs are used as barriers. Moreover, places where the lamps are not working are more desired. However, these places are mainly lit indirectly from the street lamps. Sometimes, the interviewees select places on the beach if there are no available places without light.

Territoriality:
The picnicking place territories are clearly marked by the concrete pavement. Moreover, distributing belongings around the place, and laying down a carpet or a mat on the beach or the paved areas are means of illustrating the place's territoriality.

Picnicking activities:
Various actions were carried out by the family members. Sitting, chatting, barbecuing, eating, and watching the surrounding scene are the activities practised in the place by both males and females, except for lying on the ground for the purpose of relaxation, which is only practised by males. Walking on the promenade or on the beach are the activities practised away from the place, either by the males individually or females when accompanied by males. Because of the short picnicking time (around 3 hours) and the low number of family members (4-5 in average), the family bring light picnic equipment with them, easily managed even if the family has to walk some distance from the car.

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3 Infants, those who are not left to go about by themselves because of their age (see sub-chapter 4.3.3).
Preferred sites on the sea front in general:
Sections #8, 9-b, and 10 as well as this section are the sites on the sea front most preferred by the interviewed families without children. This site is chosen as it provides accessibility to the beach, and also as the territory of the picnicking place is clear. Further, the females feels that they can manage or preserve their privacy while enjoying the other activities.

Opinions and comments:
Two main comments were generally mentioned: the hardness of the ground at the paved picnicking places, and the site’s general boundaries not being clear in terms of grouping type, where families prefer sites separate from the bachelors.
6.3 ANALYSIS OF THE SECOND SITE (SECTION #8)

Figure 6.2: Plan of section #8 (see Appendix 5).
6.3.1 General information regarding the method of observing the section

Date:
The first observation. Wednesday and Thursday, 21st & 22nd of May 1997, of families with children.

Time:
5:00 p.m. - 11:00 p.m. on the above mentioned days.

Form of the family:
Families with children & families without children.

Climatic conditions:
First observation. Hot with reasonable humidity, accompanied by slight breeze from the north east direction.
Second observation. Hot with noticeable humidity, with no breeze easing the humidity.

Lighting conditions:
Direct and strong from high lamp posts distributed within the site. Further, shading shelters contain strong light sources inside them, over which the users have no control.

6.3.2 Analysis of the section's physical settings

Location:
It is a circular shape island linked to the rest of the seafront by a road (see Fig. 5.1 in Chapter 5).

The section layout:
The site is shaped like a mound, with a monument like an old minaret located at the top. The site is accessed from the car park through two upwards ramps located at each end. There is a monumental entrance with high columns, arches, and high steps at the centre of the car park. The paths within the site are a group of circles inside each other, starting from the bottom of the mound to its top, and the grass sitting areas are located between them. In the bottom at the outer circle, which is near the rock barrier that separates the island from the sea water, a group of semi-spherical shaped shading shelters are located.
Parking availability:
There is a closed curve-shaped car park at the end of the road connecting the island with the rest of the sea front. It is set lower than the rest of the island.

Service facilities:
One kiosk for snacks and refreshments. Two toilet buildings are available, one of them at the edge of the parking area. The other is located within the site.

Playgrounds:
None

6.3.3 Analysis of the observations of families with children at the picnicking site
(the entire section)

Preferred locations:
Between the shading shelters, behind the existing shrub hedges, on the grass area surrounding the monument, and on the rocky barrier (see Fig. 6.2). A distance interval of 6m are left between the constructed shading shelters. Usually there was a greater distance left between groups that used the grassy areas; this varied between 10m at peak times, and up to 30m or more at off-peak times.

Settling in the place:
Either sitting on a carpet/mat or on portable chairs. Often, belongings and sometimes the children's play equipment were distributed irregularly around the place, especially on the side near the footpaths.

Picnicking actions:
These varied between children playing around, while adults lay down on the mat, sitting, chatting, viewing the surrounding scene, drinking tea, having snacks or barbecuing, and walking along the promenade. Often a mix of these actions were carried out.
6.3.4 Analysis of observations of families without children at the picnicking site

(the entire section)

**Preferred locations:**
Between the shading shelters, behind the existing shrub hedges, on the grass area surrounding the monument, and on the rocky barrier (see Fig. 6.2). A distance interval of 6m are left between the constructed shading shelters. Usually there was a greater distance left between groups that used the grassy areas; this varied between 10m at peak times, and up to 30m or more at off-peak times.

**Settling in the place:**
Either sitting on a carpet/mat or on portable chairs. Often, belongings were distributed irregularly around the place, especially on the side near the footpaths.

**Picnicking actions:**
These varied between lying down on the mat, sitting, chatting, viewing the surrounding scene, drinking tea, having snacks or barbecuing, walking along the circular paths of the island, and once in a while a mix of some of these actions was carried out.

6.3.5 Analysis of the interviews of families with children at the picnicking place

**Characteristics of the interviewees:**
Groups of families accompanied by children, who come to the sea front more than 5 times a year. Mainly they are groups of individual families; a few of them are groups that contain a mix of families who are either relatives or friends. On Wednesdays most of them stay about 1-3 hours. But on Thursdays most of them stay between 6 to 8 hours, specially when the weather is nice and breezy.
Privacy:
Mainly this is a visual-related privacy, where the females sit with their backs to the footpaths. The walls of the shelters, the shrub hedges and the portable chairs are all used as visual barriers. However, if there is a group of mixed families, the females orient themselves to sit with their backs to the men within the group. Moreover, places where lampposts were not working were more desired; these places are mainly lit indirectly from lampposts situated some distance away.

Territoriality:
The site's boundaries are not clear in terms of zoning regarding the grouping types. However, apart from the existing shelters, distributing belongings around the place, and laying down carpets or mats are means of strengthening and illustrating the picnicking places' boundaries. Some families bring play equipment with them. This equipment is used by children to play with, or used as boundaries markers when the children are not using it. If the children decide to play with the equipment, the family re-distribute their belongings in a way that maintains its picnicking place territoriality.

Picnicking activities:
Various actions are carried out by the picnickers. Sitting, chatting, barbecuing, eating, and watching the surrounding scene are activities practised by both the males and females, except for lying on the ground for the purpose of relaxation, which is only practised by males. Walking, and fishing are the activities practised away from the place, either by the males individually or by the males and females together.
Further, children play various games within the picnic place; they play with the bikes on the nearby footpaths, and play hide and seek, besides taking part in one or more of the activities described above.
On Wednesdays because the families stay for a short time (1-3 hours), the majority bring light picnic equipment with them, easily managed even if the family has to walk some distance from the car. But on Thursdays they spend a longer time, and some of them bring a lot of picnic equipment; therefore the picnicking place is chosen as close to the car park. Others, on Thursdays, do not bring too much picnic equipment, as they know the nature of the car park on the site, and the selected picnicking place sometimes may not be very close to the car park used.
Preferred sites on the sea front in general:
Sections # 6, 9-a, 9-b, and 10 as well as this section are the sites most preferred on the sea front by the interviewed families. This site is chosen as the families feel that the site domain enables them to maintain and preserve their privacy and territory, in terms of being near the shelters or the hedges. Moreover the site offers them accessibility to deep sea water, where fishing takes place.

Opinions and comments:
The shelters are too big; the nature of their construction material (concrete) means they become like ovens in the hot seasons; and also users cannot control the lighting inside them for the sake of privacy. There is a lack of playgrounds, especially for children. There is no zoning regarding user types. There are complaints regarding the high number of lampposts which provide over-illumination that disturbs the users' privacy. Some of the interviewees would like steps down to the sea water near the rocky barrier, so they can put their feet in the water.

6.3.6 Analysis of the interviews of families without children at the picnicking place

Characteristics of the subjects:
Groups of families who are not accompanied by children, although sometimes infants are in buggies. Mainly they are groups of individual families; groups containing a mix of families, whether relatives or friends, are not usual. Mainly they do not stay more than 3 hours on Wednesdays or Thursdays.

Privacy:
Mainly this is a visual-related privacy, the females sitting with their backs to the footpaths. The walls of the shelters, the shrub hedges, and the portable chairs were used as visual barriers. Moreover, places with no lampposts, like those at the rocky barrier, were more desired; these were mainly lit indirectly from lampposts situated further away.
Territoriality:
The site's boundaries are not clear in terms of zoning regarding grouping types. However, apart from the existing shelters, distributing the belongings around the place, and laying down carpets or mats are the means of strengthening and illustrating the picnicking places' boundaries.

Picnicking activities:
Various actions are carried out by the picnickers. Sitting, chatting, eating, and watching the surrounding scene are the activities which are done within the place by both males and females, except for lying on the ground for the purpose of relaxation, which is only practised by males. Walking, and fishing are the activities done away from the place, either by the males individually or by the males and females together. Sometimes, fishing is done at the place when it is located on the rocky barrier. Because of the short picnicking time (around 3 hours) and the low number of family members (4-5 in average), the family bring light picnic equipment with them, easily managed even if the family has to walk some distance from the car park.

Preferred sites on the sea front in general:
Sections # 6, 9-b, and 10 as well as this side are the sites on the sea front most preferred by the interviewed families who were not accompanied by children. This site is chosen as the families feel that the site domain enables them to maintain and preserve their privacy and territory, in terms of being near the shelters or the hedges. Moreover the site offers them accessibility to deep sea water, where fishing takes place.

Opinions and comments:
Some of the interviewees want to go boating. Some of them want the rocky barrier to be levelled by covering it with concrete, so they can sit easily on it near the water. Some of them who fish want fishing piers built as the sharp rocks of the barrier damage and cut their fishing lines.
6.4 ANALYSIS OF THE THIRD SITE (SECTION # 9-a)

Figure 6.3: Plan of section # 9-a (see Appendix 5).
6.4.1 General information regarding the method of observing the section

Date:
Wednesday 30th of April 1997 & Thursday 1st of May 1997.

Time:
5:00 p.m. - 11:00 p.m. on both days.

Form of the family:
Families accompanied by children.

Climatic conditions:
mild with low humidity, and moderate breeze from the north east direction.

Lighting conditions:
Direct and strong from the lamp posts distributed throughout the site.

6.4.2 Analysis of the section's physical settings

Location:
Upper area located alongside the north side of the road connecting the 'open roundabout' and the monument of 'Traditional Boats', (see Fig. 5.1 in Chapter 5).

The section layout:
The site is divided into two major stretches of open linear grass areas. There is an indoor amusement building for the children, located to the middle of the site between the two grass areas. However, the whole site is surrounded by footpaths alongside its edges.

Parking availability:
There are three parking lots alongside the road. Two are located in front of each grass area, while the third is located in front of the amusement building.

Service facilities:
There is only one toilet building and one kiosk in the whole site, both of which are located to the middle of the site adjacent in the car park of the amusement building.

Playgrounds:
In each grass area there is a children's playground located at the end adjacent to the amusement building.
6.4.3 Analysis of the observations of families with children at the picnicking site  
(the entire section)

Preferred locations:
The most preferred and crowded locations were those adjacent to the playgrounds (see Fig. 6.3). Usually, there were distances left between the groups which varied between 5m at peak times especially around the playgrounds, and up to 40m at off-peak times.

Settling in the place:
Sitting on a carpet or mat, with various belongings or children’s play equipment or bikes distributed irregularly around the place. In addition, cars were used as visual barriers in the places near the parking lot.

Picnicking actions:
The actions for the adults varied between lying down on the mats, sitting, chatting, viewing the surrounding scene, drinking tea, having snacks or barbecuing, walking along the footpaths, and watching the children in the nearby playground.
For the children the actions varied between playing in the nearby playgrounds, biking and skating, either alongside the footpaths near the picnicking places or in the small plaza located in front of the amusement building. Sometimes, the children were taken to the amusement by the males of the family. Often, a mix of some of these actions happened together.

6.4.4 Analysis of the interviews of families with children at the picnicking place

Characteristics of the subjects:
Groups of families accompanied by children, who come to the sea front more than 5 times a year. Mainly they are groups of individual families; a few of them are groups that contain a mix of families who are either relatives or friends. On Wednesdays most of them stay about 1-3 hours. But on Thursdays most of them stay around 4-6 hours or even more, specially when the weather is nice and breezy.
Privacy:
Mainly this is a visual-related privacy, the females sitting with their backs to the footpaths, and trying to orient themselves so that they do not face the males in the neighbouring groups. If this is not possible they cover their faces with veils. Sometimes, the portable chairs are used as visual barriers. In the case of a group of mixed families, the females try to sit to avoid facing the men within the group. Further, cars are used as visual barriers in the places near the parking lot and the places on the edge adjacent to section # 9-b. Places where lampposts are not working, are the most popular after those adjacent to children's playgrounds; these places, however, are mainly lit indirectly from lampposts situated some distance away.

Territoriality:
The site's boundaries are not clear in terms of zoning regarding the grouping types. However, distributing belongings around the picnic places, and laying down carpets or mats are means of strengthening and illustrating them. Despite the existence of a playground in the section, some families bring play equipment with them. These equipments are used by children to play with, or used as boundaries markers when the children are not using them. At the case the children decided to play with the equipment, the family re-distribute their belongings in a way that maintain its picnicking place territoriality.

Picnicking activities:
Various actions are carried out by the family members. Sitting, chatting, barbecuing, eating, and watching the surrounding scene are practised in the place by both males and females, except for lying on the ground for the purpose of relaxation which is only done by males. Walking, and fishing are practised outside the place, either by males individually or by males and females together. Further, children play various games within the picnic place; they play with the bikes on the nearby footpaths, and play hide and seek, besides taking part in one or more of the activities described above.
On Wednesdays because the families stay for short time (1-3 hours), the majority bring light picnic equipment with them, easily managed even if the family has to walk some distance from the car. But on Thursdays they spend a longer time, and most of them bring a lot of picnic equipment; therefore cars need to be a part of their picnicking place or very close to it. Moreover, when the families stay late, it is common to use the cars as sleeping places for their children.
Preferred sites on the sea front in general:
Sections # 6, 8, 9-b, and 10 as well as this section are the sites on the sea front most preferred by the interviewed families. The site is chosen as it contains two children's playgrounds. Moreover, the size of the site offers the family the ability to maintain and preserve their privacy and territory most of the time, especially when it is not crowded. Also, having the cars very close (either in the nearby car park or at the edge of the site adjacent to section # 9-b) is very important, especially on Thursday when the families bring a lot of picnic equipment or the children use the cars as sleeping places.

Opinions and comments:
There were complaints regarding the high number of lampposts which provide over-illumination that disturbs the users' privacy. There is a lack of privacy in terms of visual barriers or protections. Further, the site also lacks zoning regarding the user grouping type, and there are complaints of disturbance from bachelor groups who practice irresponsible actions such as gazing at the females of the family groups, playing football too close to the picnickers or roller skating on the nearby footpaths. Some of the families asked for more playgrounds especially for children to avoid problems caused by overcrowding.
6.5 ANALYSIS OF THE FOURTH SITE (SECTION # 9-b)

Figure 6.4: Plan of section # 9-b (see Appendix 5).
6.5.1 General information regarding the method of observing the section

Date:
The first observation. Wednesday and Thursday, 7\textsuperscript{th} & 8\textsuperscript{th} of May 1997 of families with children.
The second observation. Wednesday and Thursday, 28\textsuperscript{th} & 29\textsuperscript{th} of May 1997 of families without children.

Time:
5:00 p.m. - 11:00 p.m. on the above mentioned days.

Form of the family:
Families with children and families without children.

Climatic conditions:
First observation. Mild with low humidity, and moderate north easterly breeze.
Second observation. Hot with reasonable humidity, accompanied by slight north easterly breeze.

Lighting conditions:
Indirect lighting from the adjacent lampposts distributed within the nearby section # 9-a.

6.5.2 Analysis of the section's physical settings

Location:
It is the lower area located alongside the north side of the road that connects the 'open roundabout' and the monument of 'Traditional Boats', (see Fig 5.1 in Chapter 5).

The site layout:
This site is considered incomplete and waiting sufficient finance (this information is taken from the proposed layout of the sea front, and from an informal discussion with the project construction supervisor, Mr. F. Al-Thani ). On completion it should consist of a grass area alongside a promenade with a rocky barrier; currently, however, it is a beach.

Parking availability:
There is no clear parking area and at present the whole site is accessible to cars.
Service facilities:
There are no facilities within the site, and therefore the users use the facilities provided in the nearby section # 9-a.

Playgrounds:
None

6.5.3 Analysis of the observations of families with children at the picnicking site
(the entire section)

Preferred locations:
No location was preferred over another, since the beach is similar in all places (see Fig. 6.4). Usually, there were distances left between the groups’ places; these varied between 15m at the peak times and up to 60 m or more at off-peak times.

Settling in the place:
Sitting on a carpet/mat and sometimes on portable chairs. Often, belongings and children’s play equipments were distributed irregularly around the place. The families’ cars were used as visual barriers and as means to define territory.

Picnicking actions:
The actions varied between children playing around, adults laying down on the mats, sitting, chatting, viewing the surrounding scene, drinking tea, having snacks or barbecuing, walking along the beach or paddling in the sea water, and taking children to nearby playgrounds or to the amusement building in section # 9-a. Sometimes, a mix of some of these actions took place.
6.5.4 Analysis of observations of families without children at the picnicking site
(the entire section)

Preferred locations:
There were no preferred locations, since the whole beach is similar in its parts (see Fig. 6.4). Usually, there were distances left between the groups' places; these varied between 15 m at the peak times and up to 60 m or more at off-peak times.

Settling in the place:
Sitting on a carpet/mat and sometimes on portable chairs. Often, belongings were distributed irregularly around the place. Once in a while, families of couples sat inside their cars.

Picnicking actions:
The actions varied between lying down on the mat, sitting, chatting, viewing the surrounding scene, drinking tea, having snacks or barbecuing, and walking along the beach or paddling in the sea.

6.5.5 Analysis of the interviews of families with children at the picnicking place

Characteristics of the subjects:
Groups of families accompanied by children who come to the sea front more than 5 times a year. Mainly they are groups of individual families; a few of them are groups that contain a mix of families who are either relatives or friends. On Wednesdays most of them stay about 1-3 hours. But on Thursdays most of them stay around 4-6 hours or even more, specially when the weather is nice and breezy.
Privacy:
Mainly this is a visual-related privacy, where cars are used as barriers. In the case of having one car per family group, the car is parked parallel to the shoreline dividing the place into two parts; one of them face the sea and the family is placed within it, and the other part face outward towards the road. However, when there are more cars, they are parked in either a V or U shape to form a more complete barrier. In such a case if the users are from one family, the whole family usually gathers in the inner part, but when they are a mix of families, the females use the inner part and the males use the outer part. Most interviewees prefer their places to be lit indirectly, and thus the existing situation of indirect light coming from the lampposts in section # 9-a is convenient.

Territoriality:
Distributing belongings around the place, and laying down carpets or mats are the normal means of signifying boundaries and this is strengthened and illustrated further by the use of cars.

Picnicking activities:
Various actions are carried out by the family members. Sitting, chatting, barbecuing, or having snacks, and watching the surrounding scene, are the activities practised in the place by both males and females, except for lying on the ground for the purpose of relaxation which is only done by males. Fishing, walking along the shoreline and paddling in the shallow water in front of the picnicking place are the activities practised outside place, either by the males individually or by the males and females together.
For the children the activities vary between playing with sand and water, and playing with the bikes nearby the picnicking place. They play other games within the places, or use the playgrounds and amusement building in section # 9-a, besides taking part in one or more of the activities described above.
On Wednesday and Thursday the cars are used sometimes as sleeping places for the families' children, especially when the families stay late.

Preferred sites on the sea front in general:
Sections # 6, 8, 9-a and 10 as well as this section are the sites on the sea front most preferred by the interviewed families.
Opinions and comments:
The interviewee comments were mainly related to the lack of toilets, shading shelters, and playgrounds. They also complained about the lack of zoning in terms of grouping types where definite picnicking sites for families are needed separate from the bachelors’ ones.

6.5.6 Analysis of the interviews of families without children at the picnicking place

Characteristics of the subjects:
Groups of families not accompanied by children, although sometimes infants are present in buggies. Most of them come to the sea front more than 5 times a year. Mainly they are groups of individual families, and groups containing a mix of families who are relatives or friends are not usual. On Wednesdays most of them stay about 1-3 hours. But on Thursdays most of them stay around 4-6 hours or even more, specially when the weather is nice and breezy.

Privacy:
Mainly this is a visual-related privacy, with cars being used as barriers (as explained formerly in section 6.5.6). Most interviewees express a preference for indirect lighting, and therefore the existing situation of indirect light coming from the lampposts in section # 9-a is convenient.

Territoriality:
Distributing belongings around the place, and laying down carpets or mats are the normal means of signifying boundaries and this is strengthened and illustrated further by the use of cars.
Picnicking activities:
Various actions are carried out by the family members. Sitting, chatting, barbecuing, or having snacks, and watching the surrounding scene are activities practised in the place by both males and females, except for lying on the ground for the purpose of relaxation which is only done by male. Fishing, walking along the shoreline and paddling in the shallow water in front of the picnicking place are the activities practised outside the place, either by the males individually or by males and females together.

Preferred sites on the sea front in general:
Sections # 6, 8, and 10 as well as this site are the sites on the sea front most preferred by the interviewed families without accompanying children.

Opinions and comments:
The interviewee comments were mainly related to the lack of toilets and shading shelters. However the issue of lack of zoning in terms of grouping types was also raised.
6.6 ANALYSIS OF THE FIFTH SITE (SECTION # 10)

Figure 6.5: Plan of section # 10 (see Appendix 5).
6.6.1 General information regarding the method of observing the section

Date:
The first observation. Wednesday and Thursday, 14\textsuperscript{th} & 15\textsuperscript{th} of May 1997 of families with children.
The second observation. Wednesday and Thursday, 5\textsuperscript{th} & 6\textsuperscript{th} of June 1997 of families without children.

Time:
5:00 p.m. - 11:00 p.m. on the above mentioned days.

Form of the family:
Families with children and families without children.

Climatic condition:
First observation. Mild with low humidity, and moderate north easterly breeze.
Second observation. Hot with a noticeable humidity and no breeze to ease it.

Lighting condition:
Direct and strong from the lampposts distributed throughout the site.

6.6.2 Analysis of the section's physical settings

Location:
This section is located to the west of sections # 9-a and 9-b, starting from the north side of the 'Traditional Boats' roundabout and stretching towards the south for about 500m (see fig. 5.1 in Chapter 5).

The section layout:
The site is a mix of three environmental settings. The first is the area adjacent to the roundabout, which is a grassy area with a rocky barrier towards the sea water. This area has footpaths through it linking the promenade along the shoreline and the main footpath along the road. There are palm trees along the footpaths within the grassy area. Parallel to this, the section stretches to the south of the roundabout for about 120m. The second setting runs for about 380m and is similar to the first, but there are no palm trees alongside the inner footpaths, and instead of the rocky barrier there is a beach alongside the promenade.
In addition, the playground located within it divides it symmetrically into two parts. The third setting is just a grassy area, which is surrounded by two footpaths towards its north and south ends, linking the promenade alongside the beach with the footpath alongside the road.

Parking availability:
Parking for the first setting is alongside the road. For the second setting there are two car parks located alongside the road within its two symmetrical parts. Parking for the third setting is the same as for the first.

Service facilities:
One kiosk for snacks and refreshments. Two toilet buildings are available, one of them at the edge of the parking area. The other is located within the site.

Playgrounds:
One playground, in the middle of the second setting.

6.6.3 Analysis of the observations of families with children at the picnicking site
(the entire section)

Preferred locations:
The most preferred and crowded locations are those adjacent to the playground. The next most preferred is the beach area, and the area which contains palm trees adjacent to the inner footpaths; the females of the group sit next to the trunks. Usually, there were distances left between the groups' places, which varied between 5m at peak times, especially around the playground, and 40m at off-peak times. In the parts furthest from the playground, the average distance between groups varied between 20m at the peak times up to around 60m at off-peak times. (see Fig. 6.5).
Settling in the place:
Either sitting on a carpet or mat, or once in a while on portable chairs. Further, belongings and children's playing equipment or bikes are distributed irregularly around the place, especially on the side near the footpaths.

Picnicking actions:
For the adults these varied between lying down on the mat (males only), sitting, chatting, viewing the surrounding scene, drinking tea, having snacks or barbecuing, walking along the footpaths, and watching the children in the nearby playground. For the children the actions varied between playing in the nearby playground, biking and skating alongside the footpaths, usually those near the picnicking places. Sometimes, children were seen paddling in the shallow sea water. Usually, the children were taken to the children's playground by the males of the family. However, often a mix of these actions took place.

6.6.4 Analysis of observations of families without children at the picnicking site
( the entire section )

Preferred locations:
On the beach or on the rocky barrier, and sometimes in the area that contains palm trees, with the females of the group sitting next to the trunks. (see Fig. 6.5).

Settling in the place:
Sitting on a carpet/mat and sometimes on portable chairs. Often, belongings are distributed irregularly around the place, especially on the side of the footpaths.

Picnicking actions:
The actions varied between lying down on the mat (males only), sitting, chatting, viewing the surrounding scene, drinking tea, having snacks or barbecuing, walking along the promenade, and fishing when the place is on or near the rocky barrier. Once in a while a mix of these actions was observed.
6.6.5 Analysis of the interviews of families with children at the picnicking place

Characteristics of the subjects:
Groups of families who are accompanied by children and who come to the sea front more than 5 times a year. Mainly they are groups of individual families; a few of them are groups that contained a mix of families who are either relatives or friends. On Wednesdays most of them stay about 1-3 hours. But on Thursdays most of them stay around 4-6 hours or more, specially when the weather is nice and breezy.

Privacy:
Mainly this is a visual-related privacy, with the females sitting with their backs to the footpaths or the promenade, and to the men facing them in neighbouring groups. Sometimes, the portable chairs are used as visual barriers. However, if there is a group of mixed families, the females orient themselves to sit with their backs to men within the group. When this is not possible, the females veil their faces. Moreover, places away from strong direct light are more desired; these places are mainly lit indirectly by distant lampposts or from street lamps. In addition, the trunks of the palm trees offer good barriers for visual privacy, where the females of the group sit next to these trunks.

Territoriality:
The site's boundaries are not clear in terms of zoning regarding the grouping types. However, distributing belongings and children's playing equipment around the place, and laying down carpets or mats are means of strengthening and illustrating them. Despite the existence of a playground in the section, some families bring play equipments with them. These equipments are used by children to play with, or used as boundaries markers when the children are not using them. If the children decide to play with the equipment, the family re-distribute their belongings in a way that maintains their picnicking place territoriality.
Picnicking activities:

Various actions are carried out by the family members. Sitting, chatting, barbecuing, eating, and watching the surrounding scene are practised in the place by both males and females, except for lying on the ground for the purpose of relaxation which is only done by males.

Walking, and fishing are the activities practiced outside the place, either by males alone or by males and females together. Further, children were playing with bikes on the nearby footpaths, flying kites, also playing a variety of games within the places, or playing hide and seek out of the places, besides taking part in one or more of the former actions.

On Wednesdays because the families stay for a short time (1-3 hours), the majority bring light picnic equipment with them, easily managed even if the family has to walk some distance from the car. But on Thursdays they spend a longer time, and most of them bring a lot of picnic equipment; therefore cars need to be very close to the picnicking place.

Preferred sites on the sea front in general:

Sections # 6, 8, 9-a, and 9-b as well as this section are the sites on the sea front most preferred by the interviewed families. This site is chosen as it contains a children's playground. Moreover, the size of the site and the trunks of the trees offer the families the ability to maintain and preserve their privacy and territory most of the time, especially when it is not crowded. Also the site provides them accessibility to the sea and the beach.

Opinions and comments:

There is only one playground on the whole site, and even this is unsafe as it is not well protected from the car park. There is no zoning regarding the user types. There were complaints regarding the strong lighting from the high number of lampposts within the site, which provide over-illumination that disturbs the users' privacy. There were continuous complaints regarding the lack of visual privacy; in addition, related physical measures are needed, such as barriers.
6.6.6 Analysis of the interviews of families without children at the picnicking place

Characteristics of the subjects:
Groups of families not accompanied by children, although sometimes infants are present in buggies. Mainly they are groups of individual families, and groups containing a mix of families who are relatives or friends are not usual. Most of the families on Wednesdays, and families composed of couples on Thursdays have no intention of staying more than 3 hours. On Thursdays, the larger groups of families show interest in staying between 4 and 6 hours.

Privacy:
Mainly this is a visual-related privacy, with the females sitting with their backs to the footpaths or the promenade, and to the men facing them from the neighbouring groups. Sometimes, the portable chairs are used as visual barriers.

Territoriality:
The site's boundaries are not clear in terms of zoning regarding the grouping types. However, distributing belongings around the place, and laying down carpets or mats are means of strengthening and illustrating them.

Picnicking activities:
Various actions are carried out by family members. Sitting, chatting, eating, barbecuing, and watching the surrounding scene are practised in the place by both males and females, except for lying on the ground for the purpose of relaxation which is only done by males. Walking, and fishing are the activities practised outside the place, either by males alone or by males and females together. Because of the short picnicking time (around 3 hours) and the low number of family members (4-5 on average), the family bring light picnic equipment with them, easily managed even if the family has to walk some distance from the car. But the families who are willing to stay longer and who bring a lot of picnic equipment with them on Thursdays leave their cars very close to their picnicking place to manage the picnic equipment.
Preferred sites on the sea front in general:

Sections # 6, 8, and 9-b as well as this section are the sites on the sea front by most preferred the interviewed families who are not accompanied by children. This site is chosen as its size and the trunks of the palm trees offer the families the ability to maintain and preserve their privacy and territory most of the time, especially when it is not crowded. Also the site provides them accessibility to the sea and the beach.

Opinions and comments:

Some of the interviewees wanted to go boating. Some of them wanted the rocky barrier to be levelled by covering it with concrete, so they could sit easily on it nearer the water. Some of them who were fishing wanted fishing piers instead of fishing at the rocky barrier, as the sharp rocks cause damage and cut their fishing lines.
6.7 CONCLUSION OF THE ANALYSIS

By carefully reviewing the analysis categories regarding the families' picnicking behaviour in all the 5 sections, where each one of them has its certain built environment characteristics, it can be said in simple terms that each one of them has included data concerning sequences of events which took place in it by certain forms of groups of families. Regarding each event there is a certain patterns of behaviour related to it, as has been shown formerly in analysing the families’ picnicking behaviour within each section.

To this point, a question rises about how these picnicking behavioural patterns can be interpreted socio-culturally in relation to the landscape development of the picnicking sites and places on the recreational sea front.

In connection with this, Madden and et.al (1982), Rutledge (1985), Francis (1989) and Bahammam (1995) point out that to have a clear understanding and a proper interpretation of behavioural patterns that occur within a given outdoor built environment, logical related indicators or factors pinpointing the nature of that behavioural patterns in the given space have to be defined.

With a general outlook and a comprehensive review of the categories that tend to reflect the picnicking patterns of the local families on the Dammam recreational sea front, various factors related to the predefined socio-cultural values can be defined.

The factors, generally, can be identified as kind of relationship describing the families' picnicking behavioural patterns within the context of the built environment on the sea front (see Fig. 6.6).
Discussion related to these factors, consequently, will enable us to define a set of guiding themes for the landscape development of picnicking sites and places on the recreational sea fronts in a way that is socio-culturally appropriate for the local families.

Fig. 6.6: Thematic approach to derive the factors that are socio-culturally associated with the landscape development of picnicking sites and places on recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia.
These factors, however, will be discussed under three categories that has been mentioned above in Chapter 5, and which present the process of the picnickers' interactions with outdoor space on the recreational sea front. They are:

1) The picnicking site selection, and the related factors are:
   - Categories of site users.
   - Activities involved in picnicking.
   - Car accessibility within the site.

2) The picnicking place location, and the related factors are:
   - Pedestrian flow within the site.
   - Distance left between neighbouring groups.
   - Lighting.
   - Existence of visual protection screens.
   - Barbecuing.
   - Proximity to the water's edge.
   - Children's play.
   - Car parking.

3) The picnicking place formation, and related factors are:
   - The marking of boundaries.
   - Using screens for visual protection.
   - Kinship and members' position grouping.
   - Sitting direction and activities practised within the place.

Each factor will be discussed and elaborated under its related category in the next chapter.
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FACTORS ASSOCIATED SOCIO-CULTURALLY WITH THE FAMILIES' PICNICKING SITES AND PLACES

CHAPTER SEVEN
CHAPTER SEVEN: FACTORS ASSOCIATED SOCIO-CULTURALLY WITH THE FAMILIES’ PICNICKING SITES & PLACES

Picnicking on the recreational sea front is a set of behavioural patterns or a process shaped out of various events, which mostly are sequential. Apart from the final product of this process - the activity of picnicking, involving a mix of recreational activities - the picnicking site selection, the picnicking place location and its formation (organisation) constitute major parts of the picnicking process.

Discussion related to these primary parts of the process will take place through a consideration of the factors that influence them socio-culturally. This discussion is an essential stage towards understanding the role of the local families’ socio-cultural values as these affect the landscape development of both recreational sea fronts in general, and picnicking sites and places located on them in particular.

To put it another way, the discussion related to these sequential interactions or the process of picnicking through the various determining factors that are socio-culturally associated with them, is a necessary step towards enabling us to draw conclusions about the pertinence of the local people’s socio-cultural values when we create landscape developments for picnicking sites, picnicking places, and the other spaces or facilities that constitute the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia.

7.1 FACTORS RELATED TO THE PICNICKING SITE SELECTION

When Saudi families go outdoor for recreation, they differ in the destinations they choose to accommodate their outdoor recreational desires (Al-Abdullah, 1996).

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1 As has been mentioned previously in Chapter Five about the sensitivity and difficulty of photographing the families while picnicking, photographs of the recreational sea front that are taken in different occasions by the photographers of the Dammam municipality, are used in this Chapter to support the author’s arguments and ideas. Otherwise, if the source of a picture is not the municipality’s archive, relative information is mentioned.
As the families arrive at their destination, various determining factors play a part in their selection of a site on the preferred outdoor recreational space. The following discussion seeks to illuminate the role of these factors, which are socio-culturally related, in the selection procedure and its associated perceptions.

7.1.1 Categories of site users

Despite the previously mentioned differences among the Saudi families when they take part in public recreational outdoors, there is a common perception on selecting a site that is used only by families or that is away from the groups of bachelors (Al-Abdullah, 1991 and 1996).

In the interviews that have been conducted by the author for the purpose of this study, the issue of separation between the sites used by bachelors and the ones used by families was crucial. Some of the interviewees mentioned that they would move and leave the site if even a single group of bachelors took up a place beside them.

This results from the past experience of these families or the stories that have been told about the irresponsible actions or noise created by the bachelors near the families, which has caused the families trouble or inconvenience in such situations. Accordingly, the families select sites that are mainly occupied by families.

In general, it has been observed that the various activities which family members indulge in during the activity of picnicking take place simultaneously, or at least in random order, rather than in a specific sequence, whether at the actual selected picnic spot (place) itself or within the greater area of the picnic site. Such activities (at the place itself) might include eating, talking, viewing the surrounding scene, and watching the activities of others, and (within the general site) walking, playing along with the children, paddling in the shallow water along the shoreline, and so on.
However, in order to conduct such activities, local families require various levels of privacy. Privacy on the level of the place itself (this will be discussed later in the relevant section) and privacy on the level of the site as a whole will be presented in the following discussion.

In the case of Dammam recreational sea front there are in fact no clearly marked zones or even indicators defining sites for families from others for bachelors, except the non-verbal message of the presence of either one of the groups, which in turn defines the site’s suitability for use by families.

Females of Saudi families feel inhibited in participating freely in any activity within the site while there is a bachelor group near them. For example, some of the females in the interviews stated, through their husbands, fathers, or brothers, that they would love to walk on the promenade without being accompanied by a male from their group (to escape from bachelors' noise), but the actual existence of any nearby group of bachelors or the probability of its existence, due to the lack of predefined zones for specific types of users, does not give them the chance to carry out such an activity.

In another case observed during the pilot study, one of the sites which contains children’s playgrounds (section # 9-a) was occupied by a large group of bachelors totalling about 30 in number, who were located in the middle of the zone opposite to one of the section’s two car parking areas, and who had arranged to gather there for some specific occasion or other. The closest family group to them was about 70 metres away.

The presence of the bachelor group resulted in a large portion of the section not being utilised by family groups, who instead felt forced to crowd in the peripheries of the section (see Fig. 7.1).
Figure 7.1: Existence of bachelor picnickers, and their practice of activities that may disturb the families such as playing football, result in a large portion of the site not being utilised by families.

7.1.2 Activities involved in picnicking

Saudi families who picnic on the recreational sea front of Dammam basically can be identified into two types. Either a family that is accompanied by children or a family without children. Both of these types are consist of persons who sometimes are of different ages, and different sexes. Indeed the family composition, age and sex, have their effect on the type and nature of the activities practised. Therefore, in the procedure of the site selection, the perception of the family’s members regarding the nature and type of the activities that will be practised as a group or by individuals is usually considered by the family as whole in selecting the picnicking site.
The family usually try to select a site that provides most of the choices of recreational activities that match the picnicking perception of its members. Regarding families accompanied by children, the children are given priority to practise their desired activities. This is very clear from the observations and interviews that been conducted, where in some cases the families are found crowded around the children's playgrounds watching their children playing. In the meantime the rest of the family are performing a set of passive activities in the place, e.g. drinking refreshments, chatting and enjoying the surrounding scene or activities of others around them. All this takes place in an environment that is usually uncomfortable, where the females need to keep their faces covered all the time in order to maintain their privacy. This, however, becomes a really difficult situation when the humidity increases.

Sometimes, activities practised by females of the family accompanying children are given priority as well, but under the condition that there is more than one adult male with the family. One of the males keeps an eye on the children playing, and the other accompanies the females on a walk along the promenade or the beach.

Regarding families who are not accompanied by children, in most of the cases that been interviewed females are given priority to practise their desired picnicking activities. This seems logical, taking into consideration that the mobility of females is somehow very limited when compared to that of the males. This is true also for a few of families accompanied by children. For example, some females like fishing or paddling in the water; therefore sites that offer these kind of activities have been selected.

Accordingly, we can see that different activities go together, which a total form the picnicking activity. This is what can be called the activity mix (Fogg, 1986). Generally the site that matches the picnicking activity mix of the family is preferred and selected (see Fig. 7.2), if there are no other barriers preventing them from utilising it, such as the previously mentioned factor, the type of users of the site.
Put another way, the perception of family members regarding their picnicking activity mix has an obvious role in selecting the picnicking site.

Figure 7.2: Activity mix for families' picnicking

7.1.3 Car accessibility within the site

Private cars play a significant role in shaping the contemporary Saudi lifestyle. Obviously, they are the most used means of transport which the people of Saudi Arabia depend on, especially as they almost are the only means of transport for recreation in the outdoor environment. Despite the existence of public transport in buses that pass by the Dammam recreational sea front, and apart from walking to it from the nearby residential neighbourhoods, private cars are the major means of transport to it.
In his description of the relevance of the Saudi family structure and size in relation to the use of cars for going out for recreation Bahammam (1995) states:

"The family mostly comprises of parents and the children who stay within the family until they get married and then form families of their own. Sometimes the sons continue living with their parents even after they are married. In many cases the grandparents also live with their sons. Therefore, the Saudi family is a very large family. In order to go out for recreation even for a couple of hours it is impossible to transport such a big family without using cars." (Bahammam, 1995: 132)

For many of the Saudi families picnicking on the recreational sea front of Dammam, the need for the car/s to be very close to or even a part of the picnicking place is considerable and meaningful for three different reasons. These reasons are taken into account by the families either individually or collectively.

Because of the large size of the Saudi family and the activities mix involved in picnicking, a large quantity of belongings are commonly taken to the picnicking site, for example, one or more mats (blankets) to sit on, one or more large picnicking boxes (containing coffee and tea pots, and disposable cups and plates), water container/s, and playing equipment (such as tricycles, bicycles, roller skaters, kites and balls).

For the active members of the family to carry all these belongings from the car/s, and for the very old and even the very young members to walk some distance to the selected picnicking place within the site is very difficult and inconvenient for many of the families. Accordingly, the cars need to be parked as close as possible, in a way that makes them a part of the picnicking place.

This perception leads people to drive their cars within the site, if it is accessible to the edge of the water on the beach. In other cases like grassy sites, if there is no accessibility for cars within the site bringing them to the picnicking place location, people try to find access leading the cars to the edge of the grassy area where their picnicking places are selected.
The second reason for the car to be a part of the picnic place is related to the length of the picnicking time. A quick look at the routine lifestyle of a typical Saudi family will be helpful in understanding the reasons behind this. As has been mentioned already, without the company of an adult male as a member of the family the mobility of the females and even the children is limited. Therefore, apart from those who go to school or work by car, women and children of the family commonly stay the entire weekday in the home. Accordingly, when families go away from the house for outdoor recreation at the weekend, and the weather is nice or mild in terms of reasonable temperature, low percentage of humidity, and a breezy wind, families tend to stay as long as they can to enjoy being on the sea front under such conditions. As has been noticed, they stay late till around midnight or even sometimes till early next morning. In such cases, for the families who have children, especially young ones who go to sleep early, cars are needed at the picnicking place to accommodate the sleepy children.

The last reason for the keeping the cars at the picnicking place is related to family privacy. As the Saudi family goes for recreation in the outdoor environment, the females intend to enjoy some entertainment, at least in its simplest and passive form which is watching the surrounding scenes freely. This means that they keep their face cover off, although their privacy is otherwise well-maintained. However, this is not possible till there is a visually protected space maintaining their privacy, so that they can see without being seen. Cars, therefore, are used to provide such space; they are driven to the water’s edge and parked parallel to the shoreline, dividing the place into two parts, one of them facing the sea where the family is placed, and the other part facing outward towards the road on the other side of the car (see Fig. 7.3).

In other cases, cars are parked on the footpaths surrounding the edge of the grassy picnicking site, forcing the passers-by to shift their direction away from the families’ picnicking places, so that the cars function as barriers providing the families their needed privacy (see Fig. 7.4).
Figure 7.3: Cars are driven to the water's edge on the beach for the purpose of privacy.

Figure 7.4: Sometimes cars are parked on the footpath as privacy barriers.
7.2 FACTORS RELATED TO THE PICNICKING PLACE LOCATION

Selecting an area or a place for the family to picnic within a site on the recreational sea front is influenced by different necessities that are environmentally and socio-culturally related. It is important to remind ourselves here again that in this study our aim is limited to the socio-cultural factors.

Also, as has been mentioned already, to understand the families’ picnicking process on the recreational sea fronts, three related procedures have to be clarified. One of them is the procedure of choosing a place within a site, where various picnicking activities can be experienced. In general, factors that are socio-culturally related to this procedure will be highlighted in the following discussions.

7.2.1 Pedestrian flow within the site

Being near the open surface water bodies, including the sea, offers a great chance to carry out different types of recreational activities. Among them is walking alongside the water’s edge for pleasure. To allow this, the Dammam recreational sea front offers a 4 metre wide promenade alongside the water’s edge in most of its parts. In general, the same type of promenade is offered as well in the parts under construction and in the remaining designed parts that are scheduled for completion in the near future.

This promenade, however, is connected with the pavement of the parallel nearby roads by a net of footpaths. Spaces that are left open between the net of the promenade, the roads pavements, and footpaths, are planted with grass. These grassy areas or spaces have rectangular shapes with a size of around 8 metres by 40 to 45 metres. In general, on the drawing plans of the Dammam recreational sea front, these grassy areas are defined to be utilised fully for the purpose of sitting.
Yet the way it is designed, being left completely flat and open, is not socio-culturally practical or acceptable to local families. Local families do not accept sitting in the middle of such open areas, as such a situation makes them feel that they are exposed to all the passers-by using the footpaths that surround the four sides of the grassy area. In general sitting in the middle of an open outdoor space is against the privacy that the family seek in such environments, and such a situation makes it very difficult to control or preserve it. Accordingly, in such a site, local families have responded according to two different patterns regarding the location of their picnicking places.

One pattern is presented in the families who avoid sitting in the middle of the grassy area; instead they sit on the grass near the promenade or the footpaths that define the edges of the grassy area. In these picnicking locations, privacy is maintained by the orientation of the females who turn their backs, whilst sitting, to the passers-by and face the internal part of the grassy area (see Fig. 7.5).

The other pattern is presented in the families who cannot find a proper place at the edges of the grassy area. They choose their picnicking places either on the hard concrete paved top of the rocky barrier at the water’s edge or at some sites on the beach, parallel to the promenade, which are covered with small crushed stones. Apart from the discomfort of sitting on these hard surfaces, these locations offer them the privacy they demand, where the females turn their backs whilst sitting to the passers-by and face the sea (see Fig. 7.6).

It is clear now that the improper layout of the pedestrian flow within a site has a negative impact on the local families locating their picnicking places inside that site, which in turn ends up with the site not being fully utilised for the purpose it is designed for, or sometimes not used at all.

2 An exception is found in the sites that contain children’s playgrounds, where the family sit in the middle of the flat open space to monitor the children playing. This situation will be explained in its relevant section in this chapter.
Figure 7.5: Local families avoid sitting in the middle of the grassy sites; instead they sit on the site edges (near the promenade or footpaths), where the females usually turn their backs whilst sitting to the passers-by and face the internal part of the grassy area.

Figure 7.6: Families who cannot find proper picnicking locations at the grassy areas, alternatively they select locations at the water’s edge, which is not deep water.
7.2.2 Distance left between neighbouring groups

One of the factors that influence the local families' selections for their picnicking places within a site on the Dammam recreational sea front is the opportunity offered to sit some distance from neighbouring groups. The existence of groups within a site is considered as a non-verbal message, which indicates the distance to be left.

Apart from the need of some distance to maintain the females' privacy, in terms of protecting them from any visual intrusion, especially when there are no provided visual screens, this distance has another meaning related to the types of the females' activities practised inside the place itself.

Though the females' level of privacy is preserved while they are carrying out passive activities like sitting, chatting and even drinking refreshments, by having a distance varying between 10 and 30 metres between themselves and neighbouring family groups.

However, there is a need to have greater level of privacy while the more active pursuits are practised inside the place, for example, barbecuing, playing games, and sometimes fishing.

This type of pursuit, which is active, is interrelated with visual privacy, in that females do not like to be observed by others while they are conducting any activity that forces them to move or run about. This results in that some families groups leaving a greater distance, sometimes reaching about 70 metres, separating them from the closest neighbouring groups.

Therefore, as there are no existing visual barriers within a site, leaving some distance between the family's selected picnicking location and nearby groups becomes sometimes an important factor in locating the place within a site.
This distance, however, varies accordingly to type of the neighbouring group. For example, the distance left between a family group and a neighbouring bachelor group would be greater than one left between neighbouring family groups (see Fig. 7.7).

Figure 7.7: Aerial view shows pattern of the distances that are normally left between the family groups.
7.2.3 Lighting

The nature of the light, whether natural or artificial, is one of the most significant elements influencing the use of the outdoor environment (Appleton, 1996). Important as it is during the day, it is clear that the quality of the light becomes more crucial at night, when it may have an influence on the amount of visibility to enable the pursuit of some recreational activities. Lighting intensity might be referred to as the amount of illumination needed by people to carry out an activity, or to 'see without being seen' (Fogg, 1981; and Appleton 1996).

To see without being seen is the expression that signifies most properly the local families' reactions regarding the light intensity while picnicking on the Dammam recreational sea front. In fact powerful lighting sources in the form of numerous lamp posts distributed alongside and within all the area of the sea front have resulted a very high illumination where the impression is given that it is a lighted international football stadium.

As the local families are so keen to preserve their privacy at the time they carry out their picnicking activities (watching the surrounding activities or scene is part of this), the locations of their picnicking places have been influenced by the level of the lighting intensity. The local families chose spots or places that are quite distant from the direct light of the powerful lighting sources, which they have no control over. Some selected locations, for example the ones on the beaches of section # 9-b and section # 10, are usually lit by indirect lights. As a matter of fact, these indirect lights are composed of the reflections of the light from the water surface, which originally have been lit by the light reaching it from the nearby powerful sources of light (see Fig. 7.8).

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3 For more information regarding the light and landscape, see Jay Appleton, *The Experience of Landscape*, 1996.

4 In general, the sea front is usually visited around sunset time or even after (during the darkness hours), due to both the high temperature and lack of shaded areas or shading structures, that are protecting users from the scorching sun in the day time.
These indirect lights that illuminate the selected places are usually enough for the local families to carry out their picnicking activities within the place, and to some extent the lighting level is convenient enough to maintain their privacy.

Figure 7.8: A picture shows an example of how a beach is lit by indirect lights which are composed of the reflections of the light from the water’s surface.

At other selected locations, for example, the ones on the grassy areas of section #9-a and section #10, the local families select their picnicking places on the fringe of the circle of the direct light, which receives lower intensity of lighting or illumination. By contrast the spaces and spots that receive direct light and which are highly illuminated have been avoided by the local families.
This results in large areas of the inner spaces of the sites not being utilised for sitting. Instead children of the families have interacted with the entire space by joining in group or individual games. Apart from the local families' desire to see without being seen the activities that take place in the inner space where they are not sitting, it is essential for them to have a view of the space in order to monitor their children at play (see Fig. 7.9).

![Diagram showing interrelation of lighting and picnicking areas]

**Figure 7.9**: Interrelation of the lighting of a grassy site on the Dammam recreational sea front with the local families' selected picnicking locations within this site.

In the sites that contain defined picnicking places, such as section # 6, which contains concrete paved places or section # 8 (the Island), that contains picnicking shelters, the local families choose the places where the lights are not working.
However, if there are no more paved places left with no working lights, the local families choose to sit on the nearby beach, which is lit indirectly with low intensity lighting coming from the lamp posts of the road alongside the site.

Unlikely though it may seem, some interviewees mentioned that they had on some past occasions actually damaged the bulbs of the lights at the concrete paved places, in order to enjoy the gloom denied to them by direct lighting.

However, in the case of the Island, the picnickers in general have no control over the high intensity of the picnic shelters' lighting. This factor, associated with other various climatic factors, results in the local families avoiding using these shelters.

In general, as has been mentioned already, members of the local families in their picnicking places practise a mix of various picnicking activities, such as sitting chatting, having some food or drink, relaxing and enjoying the surrounding scene; some male members of the families even lie down for relaxation. Also, the female members would like to take off their face cover and enjoy some freedom like they have in home, and share activities with rest of the family members while picnicking.

To sum up, in order to be able to enjoy all these activities, the family members require some level of privacy and freedom from exposure. Consequently, picnicking locations with a low density of lighting that match the required level of the families’ privacy are selected, while the locations with high lighting density are avoided as sitting areas.
7.2.4 Existence of visual protection screens

Observations of the study that have been supported by the family interviews have shown that, among the spaces provided within a picnicking site, those that have vertical barriers (either built or planted) are chosen as picnicking places.

This is obvious, as the local families who go out of doors into public spaces for some recreation try to maintain their privacy outdoors in a way that is completely manageable and similar to the situation in their houses.

Local families, in general, have revealed that as far as possible they do not like to be exposed to others while picnicking, as the females of the families would like to enjoy the freedom of being out of the house atmosphere. This change of the house domain or environment is expressed at its lowest level by the ability to take off the face cover, and to enjoy the simplest and most passive recreational activity of picnicking, which is sitting still and watching the surrounding scene.

However, the interviewees have brought to light the fact that maintaining or preserving the privacy of their females in the public outdoor domain, which is less controlled and more open than the rigid environment of the house, is not an easy task.

This difficulty arises from the conflict that results as all the family members desire to enjoy together the feeling that they are away from the inflexible environment of home in the open spaces of the outdoor environment; yet they desire to keep the privacy of their females from being violated.

 Accordingly, spaces that can match these desires together are selected. At the Dammam recreational sea front two sections only of all the sections studied in the project were found offering some spaces that contain vertical screens, which were beneficial to their users, the local families, by providing them with some of their required privacy while picnicking. These are section # 8 (the Island) and section 10.
In section # 8, one of its inner parts contains some shrubs and hedges that are located alongside a grassy area which is parallel to one of the circular inner footpaths of the Island. Moreover, the walls of the concrete picnicking shelters have been constructed to hold plants (the tops of the walls are designed to be plant containers). However, spaces at the backs of the hedges and spaces located outside the shelters’ walls in the grassy area, which both face the inner part of the grassy area, are selected by the local families as they can provide them with some of the privacy they need (see Fig. 7.10).

![Figure 7.10](image-url): A picture shows how the local families locate their picnicking places near the hedges or walls of the Island’s shelters to seek privacy.

In section # 10, one of its parts contains palm trees planted alongside its inner footpaths. Spaces next to the trunks of the palm trees are selected by the local families, as the females sit next to these wide trunks to be protected from the vision of the passers-by, which helps them to maintain some of their required privacy.
These spaces, which can be described in general as niches, have provided the families with various patterns of picnicking places, where several picnicking activities such as sitting, seeing or watching the surrounding scene, take place, in the meantime their privacy is preserved as well.

7.2.5 Barbecuing

One of the most enjoyable recreational activities that local families practise in the outdoor environment is barbecuing. After a long day or a week of hard work for the members of the family, being outdoors at the sea front enjoying the coolness of the sea breeze, viewing the pleasant surrounding scene, and watching the lively activities going on around, are the main pleasures of gathering the family members for picnicking.

One of the most interesting things that the local family members like to do in their picnicking is to pursue their recreation activities in the form of a group or groups, such as chatting together while sitting, walking in groups, playing games together, preparing food together, as well eating it together in one big group or small groups. Sometimes, the food or the snacks that are eaten while picnicking are ready made, and at other times they are prepared at the picnicking place.

Many of the local families who like to stay three hours or more in their picnicking places, among them the ones who have children with them, have shown and expressed their desire to have their food prepared at the picnicking place, usually in a form of barbecue. Members of the Saudi family commonly like to share in the process of barbecuing in a way that every one of them finds a pleasure. Some of them enjoy setting up or building a fire, some grilling the food, while others enjoy watching all these barbecuing activities.
In order to conduct such activities, and in the meantime considering the municipality regulation that bans building fires on the grass, a proper location for the family picnicking place that satisfies the desire of the family to barbecue and respects the municipality regulations, generally chosen. Accordingly, local families may be seen sitting on the grassy areas adjacent to the hard paved footpaths putting the barbecuing grill on it, which results in a conflict of use with the passers-by.

Others prefer to select their picnicking places adjacent to vacant spaces that are not yet planted and which are usually located on the fringe of the grassy areas. Further, some local families choose to sit on the beaches where the ground is usually either sandy or composed of very small crushed stones.

7.2.6 Proximity to the water’s edge

It is obvious that being in a recreational site that contains water features or at a recreational site that is located alongside a water body is a real privilege (Pitt, 1989; Torre, 1989; Breen and Rigby, 1994). This kind of appreciation of water in some recreational sites stems from the psychological and physical relationship that people have with water as a recreational element.

Psychologically the sound of the water, either natural or man-made, and the vista it offers to people helps them find relaxation. Physically, the challenges it offers to people such as swimming and fishing, and the cooling effect of wading or paddling in the water gives the people performing these activities some level of enjoyment.

The benefits that water can provide for site visitors has led people in general and local families in particular to build an intimate relationship with the water body on two different levels.
Some of the local families desire only to have a view of the water from their picnicking places, and they sometimes orient their sitting arrangement for this purpose. Others desire to be very close to the water's edge, either to enjoy the sound of the waves or to have physical contact or interaction with the water body, as has been mentioned already.

Depending on the general desire of the family members and the nature of the water's edge, the location of the family picnicking place is chosen. For security reasons, some families who have small children never go near the edge of deep water, such as the edge of the Island, as it is considered hazardous for them. Instead, beaches with shallow water are favoured, where the children of the family can play with the sand, or where other members of the family (in particular the females) can enjoy paddling in the water (see Fig. 7.11).

Figure 7.11: Local families with young children prefer to locate their picnicking places on the beaches, where children enjoy playing with sand and water.
Other families of small groups of adults only, or the small groups of families accompanied by teenage children have been observed using the edge of both deep and shallow water areas. At the beaches with shallow water, the same previously mentioned activities are carried out. At the deep water's edges some of the family members fish, while others watch them, or chat to each other.

In general, the interviewed families who like to be close to the water's edge in order to carry out a related activity (mainly fishing) have spoken about proximity from two basic standpoints. Some of them want their picnic places to be on the water's edge directly as described above. Others want their picnic places to be very close to it in order to have quick access and a short walk to it.

7.2.7 Children's play

One of the most significant outdoor recreation goals of local families with children is to get the chance of a short break allowing the children to play in an open space unlike the more limited confines of their home environment. Dammam sea front affords children this freedom in a number of ways.

Usually, while the local families are picnicking on the sea front, their children from the age when they can first walk up to four years old are allowed to play on their own, only within a very close range of the picnicking place. This proximity is essential as the children can be watched by the rest of the family members, who are involved in their own activities. Their games mostly include playing with toys, rolling balls, and riding tricycles.
Older children aged four to twelve have a wider chance of freedom, either to use equipment in the existing playgrounds, or use their own toys (playing equipment) playing either around or away from the picnicking places, but within the range that their parents can watch them. Their games usually involve flying kites, riding bicycles and tricycles, roller-skating, and playing football, if there is enough adjacent space. Sometimes playing football by children is prohibited by the municipality rangers in order to avoid trouble that arises from the noise and disturbance produced by such games.

However, Saudi families do not like to have their children playing unsupervised, particularly the small children, as has been mentioned above in Subchapter 4.3.3; this has led to different patterns of picnic place location.

It is observed that most of the families who are accompanied by children desire to find picnicking places near or very close to the children’s playgrounds if possible. This is either to provide short walking access for their children to reach the playgrounds easily, or for the parents to have a clear view enabling them to watch their children while playing.

However, in the whole length of Dammam recreational sea front, around seven kilometres, only 4 children’s playgrounds are allocated and constructed. Naturally, due to this limited number, crowding of families around them has been an outcome.

As a result, feelings of displeasure from local families were observed. These feelings were presented in the way they behaved while sitting. For example females of a family group were seen sitting very close to each other, in order to offer visual privacy. Also, the women kept their veils on all the time, because this was the only way to maintain their privacy, another indicator of their displeasure. Such a situation is neither relaxing nor enjoyable, particularly while the females are chatting with the other members of the family, drinking or even eating (see Fig. 7.12).
Figure 7.12: An example of a sitting behaviour of females of a local family, whilst monitoring their children at the playground.

Other families who do not want to be in such a crowded situation, and want all their members to enjoy being at the sea front while the females' privacy is maintained as well, select their picnic places within sites that have enough spaces (large spatial domain), in order that their children can enjoy playing in the spaces left between the neighbouring groups.

Some types of children's games that require specific equipment need certain settings, for example, riding bicycles, tricycles, and even roller-skating, where a hard paved surface is needed. Therefore, we might find some local families have located their picnic places on the grassy areas that are adjacent to proper settings that enable their children to play their desired games; in the meantime the family can watch their children playing.
7.2.8 Car parking

Large amounts of personal belongings have been seen to be brought to picnic places by local families who have either been observed to spend three or more hours there or who have admitted their intention to stay for such a long time in interviews. This applies both to families accompanied by children and those who come without children.

It is obvious, as Al-Abdullah (1991) has found, that there are two types of Saudi picnicking: short-term picnicking, where the time spent for picnicking does not exceed three hours, and long-term picnicking, where the picnickers stay sometimes up to eight hours. Naturally as the time spent in picnicking increases, the mix of activities performed by the group members is increased.

However, to do all these activities various things are usually brought with the picnickers, and as been mentioned before the amount depends on the size of the group (number of its members). Commonly these things are: sitting mats, large boxes or containers that contain either ready made food or uncooked food with cooking equipment for use at the place, tea and coffee pots, other boxes containing equipment for serving the food, such as food plates, cups and tissues, and also equipment for the children's games such as toys, balls, tricycles, bicycles, and roller skates, and containers of cold water.

However, all these belongings have to be moved and unloaded from the cars to the selected picnic location, and have to be loaded again into the cars at leaving time. For families who have some young children and old people, it is a very difficult task to handle all these belongings and walk some distance to a distant picnic location.

Consequently, as been mentioned already, local families select picnicking sites that are accessible to cars, or select sites where cars can be parked parallel to them in order to enable the families to have their cars very close and handy.
In the case of sites which have actual specific car parks, the situation is similar. One such site is the Island. Some family groups are relatively mobile and carry little in the way of personal belongings; they are thus free to use the inner parts of the Island, some distance from the car parks.

Other families who either have brought lots of belongings, or who have in their number members who cannot walk far carrying equipment, tend to select picnic places (spots) on the fringe of the Island in close proximity to the car parks, in order to ease the loading and unloading of their cars. This has resulted in overcrowding of some parts of the Island by the picnickers, and the under-utilisation of a large paved parking area (see Fig. 7.13).

Figure 7.13: A view of the Island (section # 8), where the parking spaces are left empty and the cars are parked improperly near the footpath, just to have short distance to the picnic places.
7.3 FACTORS RELATED TO THE PICNICKING PLACE FORMATION

Once the picnicking site on the Dammam recreational sea front is selected by the local family, and then the picnicking spot or place is located within the preferred site and the belongings are loaded and brought to it, it is time to discuss the factors that relate socio-culturally to settling in the picnicking place and 'forming' it. These factors involve how the boundaries of the place are set or how its territory is defined, what the supportive elements needed for privacy are, how the members position themselves within the place, and how they arrange their sitting and orient it.

What is of particular interest here are the factors related socio-culturally to what might be termed the 'formation' of the selected picnic place, that is to the process of creating a definite space, that takes on the characteristics of a private family domain, within an open public zone such as the sea front. The discussion which follows will analyse this process and will highlight the related variables.

7.3.1 The marking of boundaries

After the picnicking place is selected by the local family in an open grassy area at a picnicking site on the sea front, laying down a mat/mats is the first thing they do, in order to show that the place is reserved. This is non-verbal communication to others that the place has became temporarily a private territory. Also, it is a visual message for the newcomers to the site who wish to select a place for picnicking near the existing users of the site, to enable them decide the distance that needs to be left over between them and the surrounding groups. Moreover, the actual sitting on the mat can be interpreted as a way of strengthening these two messages.

However, it is common that when the Saudis go outdoors for recreation, they do not use picnicking tables or benches for sitting. Instead, they sit on the ground after covering it with a blanket or mat, whatever the nature of the ground surface.
In general, it has been observed that the local families who used the grassy picnic sites have reinforced the territory of their picnicking places by two different types of procedure, in order to show clearly to others the boundaries of their private domain and ensure that these boundaries are very well defined and perceived by others.

The first is the case where the families are not accompanied by children; apart from laying down the mat on the ground and sitting on it, the family usually distribute their belongings around their sitting zone to create another zone as transitional between their private domain and the public surrounding domain.

For example, children from another group may be playing with a ball in the area around the place where a family is sitting at a picnic. If a ball rolls towards the picnicking group and a child seeks to retrieve it, the fringe of the transitional zone is normally the area where the child will stop; if he goes beyond that he will be met with angry stares.

The second type of demarcation procedure is seen in the case of the families who have children with them. This transitional zone is strengthened and enlarged by having their children playing around. Also, the distribution of the children's toys (playing equipment) around the place is another way to specify that transitional zone and emphasize it more (see Fig. 7.14).

At other picnicking sites that are accessible by cars, such as section # 9-b, which is a beach, defining the territory of the picnic place takes another form. Apart from the distance left over between the groups that are using the picnicking site as a result of the previously mentioned signals, and sitting on a mat at the picnicking place, the cars' presence as a part of the picnicking place is the strongest indicator for the expression of territoriality. This is true as the cars are used as definite markers of the picnic place boundaries (see Fig. 7.15).
Figure 7.14: While local families are picnicking on an open grassy site, they usually define their picnicking places' territories by distributing their belongings around their sitting places and having their children playing adjacent to them.

Figure 7.15: Cars are used as definite markers of the picnicking place boundaries at the beach sites that are accessible by car.
However, it can be said that, despite the measures taken by the families to indicate the territoriality of their picnicking places and emphasize their boundaries, most of the interviewed families desire to have picnicking places with physically defined boundaries.

This desire is very strong in the families using the grassy area, in order to avoid the physical intrusion that takes place by some irresponsible bachelors who like to wander and walk for fun in the areas left over between the family picnicking places, or sit very near to them. This results as has been mentioned before from the lack of definite picnicking sites for families that are different from the bachelors’ ones.

### 7.3.2 Using screens for visual protection

Apart from the sitting orientation where the females turn their backs to the passers-by on the promenade and nearby footpaths, or form a closed sitting circle in order to have some privacy, it has been observed that there is still a need for visual protection screens.

These observations, in general, are highly supported by the interviews with local families, who revealed their desires for physical barriers or screens to maintain their privacy while picnicking, in order to participate freely in their activities within the chosen place.

Local families do not like their females to be seen when the face covers are off or when their hejabs are taken away. Actually, the females are similar to the males, as they would like to share enjoying the change of atmosphere from the home and being outdoors picnicking on the sea front with the rest of the family members. Yet they require to have some level of privacy that matches the level they have in their houses.
To put it another way, the local families would like their picnic places to have the same characteristics and level of privacy that their houses provide for them. This means that they like their picnicking places to be walled but with a semi-enclosed shape, or they want it to look like a niche, where the people sitting inside it can see without being seen, as has been mentioned before.

Therefore spots or places that have hedges or plant screens, and even the back of shelters' walls, are ideal for them as has been observed in section # 8 (the Island). Among the sitting spots on the Island, either in the open grassy areas or the circular picnicking shelters, families have been seen forming their picnicking places near the hedges that are located alongside the nearby footpaths, and also adjacent to the walls of the picnicking shelters.

These hedges and walls are used as screen elements that form a visual protection to hide the females sitting behind them, in order to offer them some level of the required privacy. On the other hand, in such picnicking places, it is common that the males sit in the most visible area, as been shown previously in Fig. 7.10.

At the other sites that lack such visual protection elements, local families have developed other patterns of creating some type of physical screen to offer themselves the required level of privacy.

On the open grassy areas, where there are no hedges or walled spaces, some families have been seen using portable picnicking chairs distributed in a circular shape around their sitting area, in order to offer themselves a visual protection from the surrounding and neighbouring groups (see Fig. 7.16).
Figure 7.16: Use of portable picnic chairs to form visual screens for a local family picnicking place on the grassy areas that lack hedges or walls.

In addition, at the open beaches that are accessible by cars, such as section # 9-b, local families have parked their cars parallel to the beach, where these cars used as ideal visual protection screens that prevent intruders from seeing their women, in order to maintain their desired level of privacy, as been shown previously in Fig. 7.3.
7.3.3 Kinship and members' position grouping

It has been observed that when local families come to the Dammam recreational sea front, they come either in the form of one family group or a group of two families or more together.

In the case of one family group, as all members of it are of the same family, males and females of the family gather in one circle, either for chatting, eating, or any other activity they would like to share together (see Fig. 7.17).

However, when they have children with them, they either sit with rest of the family or they create another circle, where this positioning depends on the group's interest and the activities that the members are participating in jointly.

Figure 7.17: Members of the same family usually sit in one circle, where males and females sit together.
In the case where two families or more who are relatives or friends come to picnic together, it is common to have separate sitting circles or groups, one for the females and the other for the males. This is logical, in terms of privacy and separation between the sexes who are not mahram, as been mentioned before in Chapter Four.

This separation takes two patterns, depending on the nature of the picnicking site. Firstly, in the grassy areas which have hedges or walled spaces, these visual screen elements are used as natural space dividers that separate the position of the females’ sitting circle from the males’ circle. But if the open grassy picnicking site does not have such screens, there is a distance that is habitually left between the two circles. In such a situation it is common that the females orient themselves by turning their backs to the circle of the males. This left-over distance actually varies according to the crowding of the picnicking site, but usually it is not less than 4 metres (see Fig. 7.18).

Figure 7.18: When a group of two families who are relatives or friends are picnicking together, two separate sitting circles are formed, one for females and the other for males (as seen in the middle of the picture).
In other sites that are accessible by cars, such as the beach in the observed section # 9-b, the separation between the two circles of the females and males in the picnicking place usually takes several shapes or forms that are created by using cars as visual screens. These formed shapes depend on the number of the cars that are brought with the families (see Fig. 7.19).

However, the most simple shape for using the cars as dividers between the two groups in the picnicking place is the ‘V’ shape. Within such a shape the females sit in the inner part, while the males form their sitting circle outside it.

Figure 7.19: At the beaches that accessible by car, when a group of two families who are relatives or friends are picnicking together, cars are used as dividers separating the females’ sitting circle from the males’ circle.
7.3.4 Sitting direction and activities practised within the place

Apart from walking for pleasure along the promenade and even taking children to playgrounds, it has been noticed that all the other activities of the adult members of the local families take place within the picnicking place, usually while they are sitting. For example, chatting, drinking, watching their children playing around, barbecuing, eating, and watching the surrounding scenes are all done while sitting.

These activities, therefore, can be characterised as passive in their nature. By contrast, the more lively activities are mainly practised by the teenagers and the children of the families. Therefore the sitting direction or arrangement within the place takes its meaning from the purposes behind it, which in turn influence the formation of the picnicking place in terms of its orientation. Accordingly, the following section will highlight the observed forms of sitting in relation to the activities practised within the place. These patterns are mainly presented in two forms.

The first one is the circular form. Apart from the purpose of offering the females some privacy while sitting in an crowded open site, the family members usually form a circle while eating, where the food is placed in the middle of the circle on one plate or more. In some cases where the picnicking group has a large number of members, more than one sitting circle is created.

Besides being a social gathering for the members of the same family, some interviewees have revealed that dining together outdoors as members of different families, who are relatives or friends, is one of the pleasures that make these families like going out as one large group.

The other form of sitting is the semi-circle shape. This shape is formed while the members of the family are watching their children playing, as it is essential to keep their children supervised, as has been mentioned above.
Also this kind of sitting form, in general, is shaped in order to view the nice scene of the sea and enjoy watching the activities occurring within the space around the picnicking place.

In general, the size and number of the circle(s) or the semi-circle(s) created for sitting vary according to the group size. However, it has been observed that the large local family groups usually choose the spacious picnicking sites, such as section # 9-b (the beach that is accessible by car) and the east end of section # 9-a (which is a large open grassy space - approximately 40x200 metres), in order to have the freedom to create the desired numbers, sizes, and forms of sitting groups (see Fig. 7.20).

Figure 7.20: An aerial view shows the sitting forms on grassy areas of the Dammam recreational sea front, where different numbers, sizes, and forms of sitting groups are created.
7.4 CONCLUSION: Interrelations of the factors with the landscape development of picnicking sites and places

Through a careful review of the factors discussed above, it can be summarised that the local families' interactions with the built environment are a response to their socio-cultural values, which result in a mix of picnicking behavioural patterns. These patterns, in general, have been interpreted by the researcher on an individual basis (one by one) to understand the role of the predefined socio-cultural values that stand behind each pattern. But in reality these patterns are mixed together in practice, and this - collectively - gives us a proper understanding and a clear picture in regard to the local families' picnicking behaviour at recreational sea fronts.

Further, going through the review, we find that there is a series of elements that exist in the built environment of the picnicking sites and places on the recreational sea front, and which have been utilised by the local families who interrelate them with each other in certain ways that are socio-culturally convenient for them. Among these elements are: sitting areas, cars, promenade or footpaths, lighting, playgrounds, screen plants, and the water's edge. To put it another way, these elements have been related to each other in definite and specific relationships by the local families who use them in a particular way while picnicking on the sea front.

It has been noticed that the families never use the grassy sitting areas provided in exactly the way they are designed, as being just open and flat pieces of land. Some modifications take place, such as the use of objects which can form vertical barriers, like cars, portable chairs and even personal belongings, in order to create the sense of a private place within a public outdoor space (that completely open flat area).

In some sites, the existence of vertical barriers, such as hedges and the walls of picnicking shelters, have helped the families to make clearly recognised choices in locating their picnicking places.
In general, such modifications and choices are made to enable families to create appropriate picnicking places that suit them socio-culturally, in terms of respecting their privacy, territoriality, and the way they carry out the various picnicking activities.

In connection with this it is argued by Manning (1986) that participation in recreational activities, setting preferences, gained experiences and outcomes may vary from person to person, they may even vary from time to time for any one person. In relation to this it is argued that equally there is a real challenge for recreation researchers and landscape architects to integrate these levels of demand in a way that is satisfactory to the visitors to an outdoor recreational project (Rollins and Rouse, 1992).

In essence, behaviour that relates to the above mentioned modifications and choices within the existing built environment of the sea front can be viewed as a series of relationships. These relationships can be collectively viewed and used as thematic guides for those involved in the landscape development of recreational sea fronts.

The planning of picnic sites and the design of picnic places can be made, in the light of these relationships, in a way that is socio-culturally appropriate for the local families who use them.

These relationships are: 'zoning', 'visualisation', 'proximity', and 'orientation'. Each one of them has a significant role in the planning and design of both levels, the picnicking sites, and the picnicking places.

Accordingly, it is important to define these relationships in relation to each level, to understand how they should be considered, while producing the schematic layout or design of the project, in order to lead us to a socio-culturally compatible and functional landscape development.
On the picnicking sites level

It is a socio-cultural demand by Saudi families to have picnicking sites that are definitely separated from the bachelors' sites, as has been explained already in this chapter. Therefore, 'zoning' of the picnicking sites in terms of the user types is an important issue to be considered in the landscape development of such sites, where definite picnicking sites that respect the families socio-cultural demands have to be allocated for their picnicking uses. This could be approached by various landscape means or elements, among which is the signs system.

'Visualisation' is another relationship that should be considered in creating a socio-culturally convenient picnicking site. 'Visualisation' here means the ability to view the surroundings and the activities going on around while sitting inside the picnicking place. It means that the parts which host the activities performed outside the picnicking places, and the parts that contain the services facilities have to be very well lit.

Apart from car accessibility to the site for the reasons that have been discussed above in this chapter, 'proximity' to the car parks is another issue that has to be considered carefully when producing landscape development schemes for the picnicking sites. Further, 'proximity' of picnicking sites to the water's edge, which is either deep and has rocky barrier or which is shallow, such as a beach, is an essential issue, as the existence of the water is the unique environmental feature that attracts people to such projects (recreational sea fronts).

The last relationship that has to be well considered while developing landscape plans for picnicking sites on the sea fronts is 'orientation'. This kind of relationship is clearly perceived on the site level with the pedestrian flow within the site, as has been explained already in this chapter.
In general, the landscape architect should pay attention in his plans or designs of the layout of the pedestrian footpaths and promenade to the fact that local families do not accept being exposed to passers-by. Therefore, 'orientation' of such pedestrian layout access within the site has to be carefully taken into account while producing the landscape development plans.

On the picnicking places level

It has been noticed that local families come to the outdoor environment to be part of it, in terms of practising various activities, interacting with the surroundings, and enjoying the nice weather. Yet they bring with them a strong demand to maintain their privacy, which results in a basic requirement to have a private space, just as in their homes.

Therefore, since picnicking is an outdoor activity usually practised in public spaces, there is always a need to create and define a private space that maintains users' privacy and where their desired activities can be practised as well. Accordingly, 'zoning' of such space and defining its territory to create a picnicking place is an essential stage towards settling in it.

Vertical screens, such as hedges forming a semi-circle, or a distribution of cars in several forms (the simplest is a V or U shape), are found to be very useful in creating the required clear 'zoning' of the local families' picnicking places.

'Visualisation' in relation to picnicking places is completely the opposite of visualisation as defined in relation to the development of picnicking sites. 'Visualisation' here means to see from the picnicking place without being seen, by having indirect lighting or a low level of illumination inside the place, besides having vertical screens around three sides of it, in order to ensure a complete visual privacy for the members sitting inside the place.
'Proximity', is the another relationship that needs to be taken into consideration while developing the landscape plans of picnicking places on the sea front. The landscape architect has to consider carefully the location of picnicking places in relation to the supportive facilities that are provided within the site, such as proximity to toilets, car parking, children's playgrounds, fishing piers, and so on. This is especially important in the case of 'proximity' of car parking as has been explained previously in this chapter.

Finally, it is essential to consider the 'orientation' of the picnicking place while preparing the landscape development plans. 'Orientation' here means the direction that the opening of the place is directed towards.

This is very important as the family members would like to see without being seen, as has been mentioned above, where they need to watch their children playing, enjoy the sea view, and also enjoy the surroundings, including the activities taking place near their picnicking place.

Accordingly, the following sketch can be used as a suggested example that shows how all the above discussed relationships, both on the level of picnicking sites and of picnicking places, can be considered schematically in one context, in order to produce landscape development plans and designs that are socio-culturally convenient for the use of the local families (see Fig. 7.21).
Figure 7.21: A suggested diagram for the landscape development of a picnicking site and its picnic places on a recreational sea front in Saudi Arabia, taking in consideration the relationships that socio-culturally influence the local families' picnicking behaviour.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY AND FINAL CONCLUSION
CHAPTER EIGHT: SUMMARY OF THE STUDY AND FINAL CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize the highlights of this research, and the major findings and results achieved according to the aim and objectives of this study. As been brought up in the first chapter, this study aims to understand and find the relevance of the local people’s socio-cultural values in the landscape of recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia. The research has investigated the Dammam recreational sea front as a case study to delineate the actual recreational patterns of behaviour of the local families while picnicking on it. It also includes brief information regarding the techniques used to collect the required data.

8.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY APPROACH AND METHODOLOGY

A review of the urban evolution of the waterfront in maritime cities around the world carried out in Chapter Two of this study has shown that environmental and cultural forces are commonly the dominant motives behind waterfront developments through history. Both forms of forces have greatly affected the engineering skills, patterns, purposes, and importance of urban waterfronts.

In general, it is noted that, based on differences of functional use and infrastructure characteristics, which require a different site planning, landscape design, and management approach, developments of the water’s edge have been classified by some historians of landscape architecture into the following: quays, fortified harbour towns, grand canals, port settlements, seaside resorts, and coastal highways (corniches).
In particular, it has been noted that, as the 20th century waterfronts have a wide range of uses, they have been classified as follows: cultural waterfronts, environmental waterfronts, historic waterfronts, mixed-use waterfronts, residential waterfronts, working waterfronts, and recreational waterfronts. These types have been classified by their characters, which stem from the functions they offer to their users. Character here means an elusive quality that makes one person or place unique.

In Saudi Arabia we have shown that the development of any waterfront - the recreational type specifically - is a real challenge for the related designers or developers, where the development should be based on the merits of a particular project. This is logical, as it has been argued by Torre (1989) that the real challenge is in balancing the elements of the consensus so as to move in a unified direction and to avoid in-fighting as the project goes from the broad-brush planning stage to the detailed land use and design drawings that will ultimately create the waterfront's character. In essence it can be said that the success of any waterfront development relies on a clear understanding and appreciation of its context, cultural and environmental.

In general, it has been noted by Malone (1996) that in the 1980s most of the contemporary waterfront developments in various countries were launched by the political and economic interests which characterised this period. In consequence, as the factors which drove such urban developments in the 1980s in these countries are now diminished or spent, the question has arisen as to the nature of forces that will carry waterfront development into the next century. Saudi Arabia is one of the countries concerned.

In Saudi Arabia, the literature review carried out in Chapters Two and Four of this study has shown that developing the sea fronts for recreational purposes is a new practice which was started in the early 1980s by the Saudi local authorities on both coastal areas bordering Saudi Arabia, the Red Sea to the west, and the Arabian Gulf to the east.
These massive costly coastal land reclamations and developments were undertaken to define the borders of the coastal cities’ expansion towards the sea. This definition resulted in the construction of two coastal roads, one along the waters of the Red Sea and the other along the Arabian Gulf, to the west and east of Saudi Arabia respectively.

In the meantime, as a consequence of rapid development and growth, of an increase in the population, and of the rise in the standard of living in Saudi Arabia, the demand grew for the greater provision of open spaces, the recreational use of which had increased and had taken on more importance, and for the regulation of the use of such outdoor spaces. As a result, the idea came about of developing sea fronts recreationally in Saudi Arabia by utilising more fully the areas surrounding the coastal roads, to meet the expected increasing requirements of the local population for more coastal parks, recreational spaces, and leisure time beach facilities.

In this context, since the development for recreational purposes of sea fronts is one example of waterfront developments, this research aims to understand the relevance of one particular force that, it is argued, is the most important amongst a number of forces shaping the concepts and images which determine the development of recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia. This force is assumed to be the socio-cultural values of the users.

It has been argued by many in the field of the man-environment behaviour studies that the final form of the built environment is usually shaped according to the influence of social and environmental aspects. Among the social aspects are socio-cultural values.

Yet it is noted by others (Altman, 1975 and 1984; Rapoport, 1976, 1984 and 1995; and Sommer, 1982), that the influence of social aspects is primary, while the influence of physical aspects is secondary.
This argument depends on a basic and logical principle that designers design for people, and while the environmental needs are usually constant and shared by all humankind, such as the need for protection from the scorching sun, the socio-cultural aspects are dynamic, where people cannot act or interact at all in meaningful ways except through the medium of culture, which is usually different from one society to another (Hall, 1966). However, this latter argument is used to be the approach of the study at hand.

The review of the interrelations between culture, society and the built environment has shown that most experienced social scientists feel that a successful development of a built environment must be socially and culturally sound. In other words, the social and cultural issues must be considered and a related analysis must occur very early in the project cycle, and recur in the subsequent phases. Landscape architects should therefore only begin the design process when sufficient information is available about the users' behaviour and their activities at the project site.

Accordingly, public recreational projects must be developed in relation to the users' social needs, which in the case of Saudi Arabia stem from their socio-cultural values. However, it is evident that in the outdoor recreation sector, social interests in the context of site planning and designing have not been sufficiently addressed in Saudi Arabia.

In general, as has been discussed in Chapter Three, the convenience and suitability of the built environment for its users are normally strongly related to the symbolic meanings which the users hold, and how the built environment reflects or respects these meanings. It has been noted that for certain people the meanings of the built environment, including its outdoor aspect, are related to their specific shared images and values which are part of their cultural background and, in turn, lead to judgments and choices in the built environment.
In consequence, the study of meaning in this context is the study of the logic of culture applied to the built environment. Thus, when referring to the 'meaning' of the built environment, we refer to all those aspects beyond the face value of its physical properties, to all those things in life to which people attach significance and value, including their purposes, their ideas and their beliefs, which are expressed through choices they make about the built environment and the behaviour patterns they display in the built environment.

This research, in general, gives appropriate attention to the previously mentioned relationship between socio-cultural values and related behaviour in the built environment, because if information about the local users' behaviour at the recreational sea fronts is made available, then we will be in a better position to develop those areas effectively.

In general, through the literature review carried out in Chapter Three, it has been noted that many of the researchers in the field of human behaviour and environment studies have agreed in concluding that design decisions are mostly made without regard for the behavioural impacts involved. In general, too, it has been argued by those researchers that designers often seem to believe in a kind of determinism which suggests that people would adapt themselves to buildings and spaces which look 'nice'. In essence it can be said that it seems that designers have often worried about how things look rather than how they work or affect those who come in contact with them.

In contrast, this research has pointed out that the social and cultural needs of any development beneficiaries must be considered centrally in developing any built environment, including waterfronts, which are considered to be unique spaces. The main beneficiaries of any public outdoor space developments, however, are the people, taking into consideration the development of the environmental settings of the developed area.
As it is commonly understood and accepted that people's recreational behaviour results in a large part from their social and cultural aspects or norms; thus it is a logical step to research and document it more fully. This research is conducted to investigate in specific detail the influence and impact of certain socio-cultural values of local families on their picnicking behaviour at the sea front. These values are the most basic in all societies, and yet the behaviour associated with them usually differs from one society to another. This behaviour relates to privacy, territoriality, and style of the practised activities (how recreational activities are carried out).

Lack of information about the users' social and cultural background is a problem in that designers therefore do not understand the recreational behaviour of Saudis. This means that the factors which should be addressed by those involved in landscape architecture development in Saudi Arabia are ignored by current foreign models of the development of existing recreational projects, including the sea fronts. Consideration of the behaviour patterns of local residents should, however, have been one of the fundamental guiding principles in the development of recreational projects.

In other words, due to the lack of even the most basic data about the recreational behaviour of the native users at the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia, the western designer-consultant of Dammam metropolitan recreational sea front (C.D.E) relied on his own experience to fill the information gap. As a result the project is insensitive to the native users' socio-cultural background, which is normally the most powerful aspect among other aspects affecting the use and form of the outdoor built environment in Saudi Arabia, including recreational sea fronts.

The Dammam metropolitan recreational sea front, therefore, is investigated as the case study. The reason behind that is to have a real situation that can help us to pinpoint the characteristics of the picnicking sites and places which should be taken into consideration by landscape architects and municipal decision makers in future developments and modifications.
These developments are needed in order to provide more functional and suitable recreational sea fronts for the 80% majority population of Saudi Arabia (the locals) in general, and local families specifically.

In general, in order to provide satisfactory and convenient facilities in any project's development, information about the users' desires and behaviour must be provided. Therefore, 'user analysis' has been found to be the most appropriate method to gain such information. The user analysis method which this study depends on, has used two different techniques, observations and interviews; both of them have been applied for the purpose of this research at the recreational sea front of Dammam City.

The qualitative approach, with its emphasis on in-depth knowledge and on the refinement and elaboration of images and concepts, is considered to be the most appropriate and has therefore been chosen to conduct the case study of Dammam recreational sea front presented in this thesis. It has been shown in Chapter Five that one major feature of qualitative data is that they focus on naturally occurring ordinary events in natural settings, so that we have a strong indication of what 'real life' is like.

In connection with this Van Maanen (1983), and Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that qualitative data, with their emphasis on people's lived experience, are basically well adapted for searching out the meanings people put on the events, processes, and structures of their lives - their 'perceptions, assumptions, prejudgments, presuppositions' - and for adjoining these meanings to the social world around them.

The purposefully qualitative nature of this research and the techniques used, such as observation and interview, do not lend themselves to quantification; therefore quantitative measurements and debate on quantification are not within the scope of this research.
The findings of the field study regarding observations and interviews have been analysed in the form of categories. This categorisation is only for simplification purposes in order to concentrate on certain aspects of the observed behaviour which are focused on the research questions and related to the aims of this study.

Each category of the analysis regarding observations and interviews encompasses all related behaviour and actions that took place in the observed areas of the Dammam recreational sea front. The parts of the observation analysis are as follows: general information regarding the observed area, analysis of the area’s physical setting, analysis of the observations regarding families accompanying children at the picnicking site (the entire observed area), and analysis of the observations regarding families without children at the picnicking site (the entire observed area).

Regarding interviews, the analysis has been classified into two parts: one part the analysis of families accompanied by children, and the other the analysis of families without children. Further, each part has been classified into six categories: characteristics of the subjects (picnickers), privacy, territoriality, way of carrying out picnicking activity, preferred picnicking sites and their selection, and opinions and comments.

8.2 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

It has been found that picnicking on the recreational sea front involves a series of actions or a process shaped out of various events, which are mostly sequential. Apart from the final product of this process - the activity of picnicking, involving a mix of recreational activities - the picnicking site selection, the picnicking place location, and its organisation constitute major parts of the picnicking process. Discussion related to these primary parts of the process has taken place through a consideration of the factors that influence them socio-culturally.
At this point, the question arises about how this behaviour can be interpreted socio-culturally in relation to the landscape development of the picnicking sites and places on the recreational sea front. In other words, what could be the factors that are associated socio-culturally with this behaviour in relation to the landscape development of these sites and places?

Various factors are in fact suggested following an examination of the behaviour of picnicking families on the Dammam recreational sea front, particularly when this behaviour is categorised according to the interaction of the families, reflecting predefined socio-cultural values, with the built environment of the sea front.

These interactions are discussed under three categories which describe how the picnickers relate to the outdoor space on the recreational sea front. They are:

1) The picnicking site selection. The related factors are: categories of site users, activities involved in picnicking, and car accessibility within the site.

2) The picnicking place location. The related factors are: pedestrian flow within the site, distance left between neighbouring groups, lighting of the place, existence of visual protection screens, barbecuing, proximity to the water's edge, children's play, and car parking.

3) The picnicking place formation. The related factors are: the marking of boundaries, using screens for visual protection, kinship and members' grouping positions, also sitting direction and activities practised within the place.

In other words, the discussion related to these sequential interactions or to the process of picnicking through various factors socio-culturally associated with them is a necessary step towards enabling us to conclude the pertinence of the local people's socio-cultural values to creating the landscape developments of the picnicking sites and places on the recreational sea fronts in Saudi Arabia.
Through a careful review of the discussion regarding these factors, it can be summarised that the local families' interactions with the built environment are a response to their socio-cultural values, which have resulted in a mix of picnicking behavioural patterns. These patterns, in general, have been interpreted by the researcher on an individual basis to understand the role of the predefined socio-cultural values that stand behind each pattern. But in practice these patterns are mixed together, and this - collectively - gives us a proper understanding and a clear picture in regard to the local families' picnicking behaviour at the recreational sea fronts.

Further, going through the review we find that there is a series of elements that exist in the built environment of the picnicking sites and places on the recreational sea front, and which have been utilised by the local families who interrelate them with each other in certain ways that are socio-culturally convenient for them. These elements are: cars, footpaths, lighting, playgrounds, screen plants, and the water's edge. To put it another way, these elements have been related to each other in definite and specific relationships by the local families who use them in a particular socio-cultural way while picnicking on the sea front.

It has been noticed that the families never use the grassy sitting areas provided in exactly the way they are designed, as being just open and flat pieces of land. Some modifications have taken place, such as the use of objects which can form vertical barriers, like cars, portable chairs and even personal belongings, in order to create the sense of a private place within such flat and open public outdoor space. In some sites, the existence of vertical barriers such as hedges and the walls of picnicking shelters have helped the families to make clearly recognised choices in locating their picnicking places. In general, such modifications and choices are made to enable families to create appropriate picnicking places that suit them socio-culturally, in terms of respecting their privacy, territoriality, and the way they carry out the various picnicking activities.
Behaviour that is related to these modifications and choices within the existing built environment of the sea front, can be viewed as a series of relationships. These relationships can be collectively viewed and used as thematic guides for those involved in the landscape development of recreational sea fronts. The planning of picnic sites and the design of picnic places can be made, in the light of these relationships, in a way that is socio-culturally appropriate for the local families who use them. These relationships are: 'zoning', 'visualisation', 'proximity', and 'orientation'.

8.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Considering the above mentioned relationships in the designs and development of the picnicking areas and places on recreational sea fronts, is expected to increase their recreational attraction and convenience to the local users in general and the local families in particular. Moreover, it might help in modifying and enhancing the existing development, if possible.

Zoning

It is a socio-cultural demand by Saudi families to have picnicking sites that are definitely separated from the bachelors' sites. To put it another way, zoning of the picnicking sites in terms of the user types is an important issue to be considered in the landscape development of such sites, where definite picnicking sites have to be allocated to be used only by families.

On the other hand, regarding the picnic place, since picnicking activity takes place in public, there is always a need to create and define a private space that maintains family privacy and where the desired activity can be practised as well.
In general, zoning of such a space and defining its territory by using physical elements to create a picnicking place is an essential stage towards settling in it. Vertical screens, such as hedges forming a semi-circle on grassy sites, are found to be very useful in creating the required clear zoning of the local families' picnicking places.

**Visualisation**

Visualisation is another relationship that should be considered in creating a socio-culturally convenient picnicking site. Visualisation on the site level means the ability to view the surroundings and the activities going on around while sitting inside the picnicking place. It means that the areas which host activities outside the picnicking places, and the areas containing the services facilities, have to be very well illuminated.

Visualisation regarding the picnicking place level is completely the opposite of visualisation as defined in relation to the development of picnicking sites. Here it means the capacity to see from the picnic place without being seen, by having indirect lighting or a low level of illumination, besides having vertical screens around three sides of the place, in order to ensure complete visual privacy for the female members sitting inside it.

**Proximity**

Apart from car accessibility to the site, proximity to the car parks is another issue that has to be considered carefully when producing landscape development schemes for the picnicking sites. Further, proximity of picnicking sites to the water's edge, which is either deep and has a rocky barrier or which is shallow, such as a beach, is an essential issue, as the existence of the water is the unique environmental feature that attracts people to such projects (recreational sea fronts).
On the other hand, regarding picnicking places, the landscape architect has to consider carefully the location of such places in relation to the supportive facilities that are provided within the site, such as proximity to toilets, car parking, children's playgrounds, fishing piers, and so on. This is especially important in the case of the proximity of car parking.

Orientation

The last relationship that has to be considered fully when developing landscape plans for picnicking sites on the sea fronts is orientation. This kind of relationship is clearly perceived on the site level with the pedestrian flow within the site.

In general, the landscape architect should pay attention in his plans or designs to the layout of the pedestrian footpaths and promenade, and to the fact that local families do not accept being exposed to passers-by. Therefore, orientation of such pedestrian layout access within the site has to be carefully taken into account when producing the landscape development plans.

On the picnic place level, orientation means the direction that the opening of the place is directed towards. This is very important as the family members would like to see without being seen, as has been mentioned above, and as they need to watch their children playing, enjoy the sea view, and also enjoy the surroundings, including the activities taking place near their picnicking place.

Actually, as it is a socio-cultural necessity for a number of local families to have their cars at their picnic places, it is recommended when developing the landscape plans for a recreational sea front to consider having some of the picnicking sites accessible by car (see Fig. 8.1).
Figure 8.1: The proposed final layout (plan) of the Dammam recreational sea front by the consultant designer, where the site plan is lacking suitable vehicles access to the water’s edge (including beaches). (Source: The Dammam Municipality, 1991)

Further, some recommended water-based activities - such as sports competitions, boat parades and festivals, exhibition of traditional fishing boats - could be arranged and equipped by the municipality, which has the overall management of the recreational sea front. These activities might be appreciated by the locals, as some of the local families have revealed their desires for more water-related recreational programmes. This type of programmes is expected to provide some cultural and social means (including recreational as well) to utilise the water element more effectively than just as a visual attraction or just for fishing; it may also to bring back memories of wonderful past days to the locals who lived once on the shores of the Arabian Gulf.
8.4 FINAL CONCLUSION

Designing for people is a complicated issue. It has various stages in a complex process towards producing a built environment. In connection with this, it has been argued that the built environment in general is a result of the interaction between people with their culture and the physical environment surrounding them. It is a 'system', all of whose parts work together in an integrated way (Altman, 1984).

In the same vein, it has been argued that to have both a functional and a successful project, the process should be thoroughly understood and the related interactions should be fully considered. In connection with this, various actors are involved in producing a built environment. Different interactions on different levels and stages are interrelating those actors in a difficult process, leading a space development idea through various channels towards its implementation (Fogg, 1986; Filor, 1991 and 1994; Guy, 1998; and many others).

Among those actors are the users. 'Users' means those who actually interact with the built environment, who are most exposed to it, who use it most often, are most intimately connected with it, and those whose present and future needs and desires should be the prime concern for developing any built environment, including the recreational sea fronts.

In conclusion, we can say that the development of a recreational sea front can provide a pleasant and agreeable relaxation spot when sensitive site planning and development principles are applied in order to create a location which is in harmony with the socio-cultural background of its majority users. It should be noted, however, that this involves two considerations: the technical expertise of landscape architecture professionals, and the recognition of the role played by those socio-cultural factors in the users' recreational requirements.
One assumption behind such a conclusion is that the needs and aspirations of the project’s users should be first priorities at all stages of the planning and design of any development projects that will affect them. Giving users this priority means eliciting from them the needs for change, identifying culturally compatible goals and strategies for change, and developing socially appropriate, workable and efficient designs for innovation.

In order to do these things, an approach with two distinct but complementary components may be suggested. The first is related to the education and training of the landscape architect, the one who should be able in the future, while practising the profession, to identify the needs of those whom he designs for, and provide for them appropriate and socio-culturally convenient landscape developments.

It is essential that the landscape architect is trained from an early stage in his course not just in the technical aspects of design and planning, but in taking into account the socio-cultural aspirations and requirements of the potential users of his projects.

This itself involves two separate points: one is that the landscape architect needs to recognise the fact that socio-cultural values influence the hopes, expectations, and behaviour patterns of project users; the other is that he needs to have at his disposal techniques that will enable him to identify, assess, and quantify those socio-cultural values and the attitudes they determine. The former should not simply be a matter of theory, but should be something illustrated by practical examples and projects. The latter means that the landscape architect should receive some instruction in the gathering and analysis of relevant data, or at least should know to which fellow-professionals, whether landscape architects or not, he can turn for relevant information and analysis.
The second component of the approach is to involve the people themselves in the design and decision-making process. Socio-cultural values are relatively constant and slow-changing in comparison to the behaviour patterns associated with those values (Rapoport, 1984 and 1995; and Altman, 1984). It is therefore recommended that there should be established committees of local residents, containing also some landscape architecture professionals and academics, which will be aware of the socio-cultural values of the people, and which could monitor and assist in producing the landscape developments of public recreational projects in general and recreational sea fronts in particular in the light of those values and in harmony with them. This is logical as consultation (Shura) is one of the Islam’s basic criteria in decision making.

8.5 SUGGESTED FURTHER STUDIES

Since this study has taken a qualitative rather than a quantitative approach, there are many issues in connection with its subject matter which are still unexplored. The potential therefore exists for further treatment of those issues, either by the researcher himself or by others.

Among the issues not covered is the frequency of the observed patterns of local families’ picnicking behaviour, which has to be defined comprehensively through other research or study. Such a study can be conducted by a structured questionnaire, which in turn will provide the landscape architect with additional data on the locals’ picnicking preferences. Further, measurements of sitting places, distances between the groups, and proximity distances to service facilities, have to be established as well.
Both sorts of additional information may guide and enable the landscape architect to produce appropriate plans and designs that fully satisfy all the project users in general, and the locals in particular. Moreover, such information may guide the management of the recreational sea front facilities.

Further, as the sea fronts are unique environmental areas, there is a need to study the impact of establishing or constructing such recreational projects on their natural resources and ecology. In general, as the area of the Dammam recreational sea front was built on reclaimed coastal land, there is a need to conduct a scientific study by using the 'Environmental Impact Assessment' approach to measure and monitor the effects of the reclaimed water's edge on its ecosystem, including all aspects of vegetation, marine, estuary mangroves, and aquatic wildlife (see Fig. 8.2).

Figure 8.2: A picture of the rich ecosystem and the wonderful aquatic habitats that under the sea water of the Arabian Gulf. (Source: The Dammam Municipality, 1991)
REFERENCES


Sommer, R. (1982), "Territory", in Kaplan and Kaplan (eds.) Humanscape: Environments for People, Ulrich' Books, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA.


SAMPLE OF OBSERVATION SHEET OF A PICNIC PLACE
OBSERVATION SHEET OF A PICNIC PLACE
(FORMATION & ASSOCIATED ACTIVITIES)

SEA DIRECTION

Further observations regarding users' behaviour (notes)

Associated Activities
☐ sitting chatting
☐ eating outside
☐ walking around
☐ playing with children
☐ playing games (which kind?)
☐ others

KEYS
B: Blanket
G: Grill
T: Tricycle/Bicycle
W: Water cooler
C: Chair
P: Picnic box

Others (specify)

Woman's sitting direction ⬆

Men's sitting direction ⬇

(... ) m: Distance between observed group and neighbouring groups

Family Form: Family # in the site:
Section #: Day:
Date:
Time of Observation: p.m.
APPENDIX:

ENGLISH FORMAT OF THE INTERVIEW
Interview Format

Day : Date : Time of Interview : PM
Part # : Segment # : Family Form :
Humidity : Temperature :

A. Users

1 - How many times have your family group been to the sea front in the past year?
   □ 1-2 times □ 3-5 times □ more than 5 times

2 - How do you classify the presenting members of the group with you?
   □ One family □ Relatives ( what is the relationship ) □ Friends

3 - How long do you expect to stay in this picnicking place:
   □ 1-3 hr. □ 4-6 hr. □ more than 6 hr.
   Why ?

B. Selection of the picnicking area ( site )

4 - Does your family group regularly use certain area/s ( site/s ) on the sea front for
   picnicking?
   □ Yes □ No □ N / A

5 - If yes, where is that or where are they?

6 - ( If the current picnicking site is different from the particular site/s that the family
   usually use ); Why have you chosen a different site today ?

7 - What made the family choose this particular site today for picnicking ?

8 - ( If the family group do not have a favourite, regular site ), how is your picnicking
   site selected?

9 - Is this area ( the current site ) the first choice for picnicking today ?
   □ Yes □ No
   If not, why not ?
10 - After sitting here (the current site) for a while, do any member of your group wish to move?
□ Yes □ No □ N / A
If yes, why?

C. Picnicking place in relation to the car's parking

11 - (When the car is left in the parking lot), when settling in your current picnicking place, does your family have any problem with waking the distance from where the car is parked now?:
□ Yes there is a problem □ No, there is no problem □ N / A

12 - If yes, what is the problem?

13 - (When the car is a part of the picnicking place or very close to it), why do you keep your car handy to your picnicking place?

D. Picnicking place in relation to the sea

14 - Having chosen to picnic on the sea front, do the family members actually benefit from or use the sea in any way:
□ Yes □ No □ N / A

15 - If yes, how?:
□ enjoying scenery □ enjoying wave sounds
□ practising related activities (e.g. swimming) □ others

16 - (Still for those who answered yes to Q. 14), is the family satisfied with the current position of the picnicking place in relation to the sea?:
□ Yes □ Prefer it to be closer
□ Prefer it to be farther away □ different opinions (what they are)
□ N / A
Why (for whichever answer selected)?

17 - If the answer to Q. 14 is no, why not?
E. Territoriality in picnicking place

18 - How do you mark out the boundaries of your picnicking place?:
- □ With blankets or mats
- □ By distributing belongings around the edges
- □ Both of them
- □ Other methods (please describe)

19 - (In the case of having the children of the family playing around the picnic place),
Do the children usually bring play equipment with them when coming to the sea front?
- □ Yes
- □ Sometimes
- □ No
- □ N/A

20 - (In the case of having nearby children playground, and the answer for Q. 19 is yes),
why the children bring these play equipment?

F. Privacy in picnicking place

21 - Why are the females sitting as they are?
- □ Socialising
- □ For the sake of privacy, how?
- □ Both

22 - Why the males sitting as they are?
- □ Socialising
- □ For the sake of privacy, how?
- □ Both

23 - Being in the public outdoors, what level of privacy does the family want for its members?:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>□ visual</td>
<td>□ visual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ sound</td>
<td>□ sound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ both of them</td>
<td>□ both of them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ others</td>
<td>□ others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24 - What added features would enhance your family's privacy in the picnicking place on the sea front?:
- □ Existence of screens (what kind of screen?).
- □ Existence of enough distance from the neighbouring groups (how do you define the enough distance?).
- □ Both
25 - Where the above measures are not available, how does your family usually preserve its privacy? :
- ☐ Veils on the faces of the female members.
- ☐ Bringing your own screens. (Please describe).
- ☐ Having a particular seating arrangement. (Please describe).

26 - Do the female members of your family group feel relaxed and enjoy being on the sea front while wearing veils? :
- ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ N/A
(Please comment on your answer).

27 - Regarding the lighting at the night, how do you prefer your picnicking place to be lit with :
- ☐ direct light ☐ indirect light ☐ other
Why? (for whichever answer selected)

G. Activities

28 - What activities do your family members practice while picnicking:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>activity</th>
<th>m. / f. / chi.</th>
<th>age</th>
<th>related equipment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>☐ sitting chatting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ playing (kind of play)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ eating outside</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ walking around</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ playing with children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>☐ fishing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ boating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

29 - Regarding these associated activities, do the family usually require certain criteria for selecting a place within the picnicking site :
- ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ N/A
If yes, (please describe).

30 - Are you willing to have some food prepared while being in this picnic place? 
- ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ N/A

31 - If the answer of Q. 30 is yes, does this influence the choice of your picnicking place :
- ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ N/A
If yes, (please describe).
32 - In the case of having near groups neighbouring your picnicking place, does this situation have an influence on the kind of activities practiced by the female members of your family inside the place:

☐ Yes  ☐ No  ☐ N / A

If yes, (please describe).

H. General comments

33 - Do you have any other criteria/factor influencing the selection of your picnicking site or formation of your picnicking place, which has not been mentioned in this interview:

☐ Yes  ☐ No  ☐ N / A

If yes, (please describe).

34 - Do you have any other criteria/factor influencing the selection or formation of your picnicking place, which has not been mentioned in this interview:

☐ Yes  ☐ No  ☐ N / A

If yes, (please describe).

35 - Do the members of the family have any comments, ideas and suggestions in relation to the sea front in general and to the family picnicking place specifically:

☐ Yes  ☐ No  ☐ N / A

If yes, (please describe).
SAMPLE OF INTERVIEWS
( Questions and answers in Arabic )
1) Sample of an interview with a family accompanying children (at the Island, section 8).
### Observation Sheet of the Historic Place Formation & Associated Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEA ORIENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Riprap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erosion Control Measures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seawall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandbags</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### Appendix 1: Sample of an Interview

[Content related to the interview and the table would be transcribed here, but due to the nature of the image, a detailed transcription is not possible.]

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Page 316
2) Sample of an interview with a family without children (at the Island, section 8).
Appendix 3: sample of an interview

Observation Sheet of the Picnic Place Formation & Associated Activities

Sea Direction:

Further information requested by week's language (NOTES)

Associated Activities:
- [ ] Boating
- [ ] Fishing
- [ ] Hiking
- [ ] Picnic
- [ ] Playing (ball games)
- [ ] Playing (manicure)
- [ ] Playing (sand)
- [ ] Playing (trees)
- [ ] Playing (water)
- [ ] Playing (wet)

- [ ] Ice cream
- [ ] Coke
- [ ] Water
- [ ] Orange juice
- [ ] Coffee
- [ ] Tea
- [ ] Juice

- [ ] Green
- [ ] Red
- [ ] Yellow
- [ ] Blue
- [ ] White
- [ ] Black

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] No

Date: 12/1/97
APPENDIX 4

ADMINISTRATIVE DOCUMENTS FOR CONDUCTING THE STUDY
1) Letter from the Vice Governor of the Eastern province (Emart Al-Sharkiah). It is a permission to photograph the environmental physical settings of the recreational sea front of the Dammam metropolitan.
2) Letter from the Vice Dean of college of Architecture and Planning, confirming to the public that the researcher is one of the college staff. Further, he is asking the interviewee to co-operate with the researcher, as the collected data is just used for the benefit of academic purposes only.
3) An introductory statement, introducing the researcher and the interview's aim to the interviewee, and explaining in brief the purpose of the study. Further, ensuring and promising the interviewee that all the collected data is used for the benefit of the research and academic purposes only.

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

الرحمن
الرحيم

 السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

يسعدني أن أقدم إليكم بأسلوب هذه المقابلة التي هي رمزية تحت وقائع علمية عن (مسد).

استخدام العوائل السعودية للواجهة البحرية بالدمام - الكورنتم - كمسك للمرة.

أرجو منكم التكرم باقتراح جزء يسير من وقتك للإجابة على استمتعها.

وتفتر الإشارة إلى أن هذا البحث هو دراسة لدرجة الدكتوراه والتي اعمل على إعدادها

الآن في بريطانيا علماء جمع المعلومات والآراء التي ستشاركون بها الآن لن نستخدم إلا لغرض

هذا البحث العلمي.

فلا سمحتم ببعض النقاش - تساعدون فيها - ببنيب بعض النقاط المتعلقة بهذا الدراسة من

خلال إجاباتكم على أسئلة هذه المقابلة هذا وأتمنى عند إكمال الدراسة أن تكون نتائجه ذات

فائدة لتطوير الكورنتم بحيث يلام العوائل السعودية بشكل أكبر.

ولكم جزيل الشكر على تعاونكم.

المقدم بالبحث

 المهندس المعماري | محمد مسعود العبدالله
كلية العمارة والتخطيط - جامعة الملك فيصل الدمام
APPENDIX:

5

PICTORIAL INFORMATION
5.1 First site (section #6)

Figure A5.1: View of a typical paved picnicking place with an area of 2x2 meters.

Figure A5.2: A view of the promenade at section #6, where it is lined with trees on its two sides.
Figure A5.3: Among the family members children enjoy being near the water; to play with sand and water.
5.2 Second site (section #8)

Figure A5.4: View of the road linking the island to the rest of the sea-front.

Figure A5.5: View of the island from far away
Figure A5.6: Panoramic view of Dammam city in the daytime, from the island.

Figure A5.7: Ariel view of the island during construction showing its general layout and distribution of the shading shelters.
Figure A5.8: Ariel view shows the car parks located within the island.
5.3 Third site (section # 9-a)

Figure A5.9: View showing the amusement building within the section and the playground.

Figure A5.10: View of one of the grass areas at section # 9-a, also showing the foot paths surrounding it.
Figure A5.11: Playing football on the grass area causes great irritation and discomfort to many families and sometimes causes them to leave. Sometimes, the situation is so bad that the site is left almost empty.

Figure A5.12: Adult males in the family often take the children or accompany them to their playgrounds.
5.4 Fourth site (section # 9-b)

Figure A5.13: Panoramic view of the beach (section # 9-b).
5.4 Fifth site (section # 10)

Figure A5.14: View of the 'Traditional Boats' roundabout at the start of section # 10.

Figure A5.15: View of the grassy area that contains palm trees on its inner footpaths in section # 10.
Figure A5.16: View of the playground in section # 10, which is adjacent to the car’s park with no safety barriers.

Figure A5.17: Typical view of group of picnickers on the recreational sea-front, also showing the strong light sources, where they look planted as trees.
Figure A5.18: Panoramic view of the sea water, beach, promenade, and the grassy sitting area in section #10.

Figure A5.19: Watching birds from section #10.
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BIBLIOGRAPHY


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خلاصة البحث

في خلال فترة الثمانينات جرى في المملكة العربية السعودية تفشي عملين ضخميين وباختصار في التكاليف لاستصلاح وتطوير مساحات من الأراضي، وذلك لتحديد نطاق توسيع مدينتي ساحلتين نسبيًا، جدة البحر، الأول، بدأ العمل بها في مدينة جدة على البحر الأحمر، والثاني بدأ العمل بها في مدينة الدمام على الخليج العربي، في غرب وشرق المملكة العربية السعودية على التوالي. وتم شق طريقين ساحليين على الشريط الساحلي للكلادين.

وفي الوقت نفسه، نتيجة التغيرات الداخلية في المجتمع السعودي، خصوصًا زيادة السكان وارتفاع مستوى المعيشة أصبحت هناك حاجة أكبر لمشروعي ترويج مفتوحة في الفضاء الإقليمي. وقد نجح في هذه الحالة إنشاء عدد من الخدمات الرئيسي، خاصة في المناطق الساحلية، والبحري،، تطور مشروعي على الواجهة البحرية على طول الطرق الساحلية. بما أن فكرة مشروعي السروحي العام تُقُدَّم جديدة نسبيًا على المملكة العربية السعودية، فإن هذه التطورات قد استخدمت اعتمادًا كبيرًا على حملة التصاميم الموجودة في العالم العربي، وتعتبر تعتبرًا وتفاوضًا أملت فيها عاملًا جوهريًا، وهو الخلافة الحضارية والاجتماعية للمستقبل الرئيسي، لذلك المشروع، ونغفي ذلك السكان المحليين. لذا كان هناك تقص في الخدمات الأساسية المتوقعة حول (النزوع) وهو النشاط العربي الأكبر شعورًا بين المواطنين، كذلك حول سلوكيات الواجهة بالمستونة.

وباختصار نتائج مشروع الرؤية على الواجهة البحرية للسعودية، كما هو الحال في المشاريع الرئيسي في المملكة العربية السعودية، فإن هذه الدراسة تبحث في الدور الذي تلعبه الخلافة الحضارية والإشرافية للضمنين المحليين في الواجهة البحرية، وتتأثر ذلك على سلوكيات النزوع هناك، بغية المساهمة في توفير الخدمات الأساسية للمعمرين في箬ين.

هذا النقل وأصبح القرارات الأخيرة المتحرر في تخطيط وتصميم الخدمات الرئيسي في المملكة العربية السعودية.

وفي هذا البحث تم أخذ الواجهة البحرية بالسة بالدلائل جملة محترمًا، ورقدها بواسطة أساليب بحثي نموذجي، مع الاعتماد على أنشطة النزوع للعوامل المحلية، وتضمنت الدراسة الحالية كلاً من المشاهدة والمقابلات الشخصية وخطط أنشطة النزوع للعوامل فيما يخص اختيار واستخدام مواقع النزوع والأماكن الموجودة فيها. وقد أظهرت نتائج التحليل للمعلومات المتجمعة من هذه الدراسة أن سلوكيات المستقبل المنتظرة لمنطقة الواجهة البحرية قد تفهم على أنها متطلبات لنقل الدرجة البيئية الموجبة بالرغم من عدم ملائمة قيمتها الحضارية والاجتماعية. والأمر هو كذلك لأن تلك الأدور تعمل بغيرهم في الاستفادة الأولى الهوية الصغرى من وقته الوفد مع جمهور الهدف، وهم مثلك بعض الدراسات الأخرى، وهم كذلك على حسب الهدف، كلاً من المشاهدة والمقابلات الشخصية وخطط أنشطة النزوع للعوامل المحلية، كما حددت خيارات نتائج الدراسة الخالية عاملًا معينة، مرتبطة أربابًا وفقًا بالقيم الحضارية الاجتماعية للعوامل المبتعين التي تعتبر مهمة في تحديد العلاقات التي تتعدد نماذج السلوكيات والتشكيل الطبيعي للمناطق.

إذا تطور وروائيات بحرية، رؤية مرتبة تُعَد فرضًا، على الخبراء للفضاء للعوامل البيئية، وهم كلاً من المشاهدة والمقابلات الشخصية، كلها في إدارة تطوير المناطق الهوية، والتي تستطيعهم من تطور الخدمات بحيث تكون ملائمة لتنبهتهم وطموحات وقيم مستعملها.

الأصول والزمان والبيئات، يتناول الأصول الكمي في دراسات مستقبلية في الحصول على معلومات أكثر حول الفضاء المستخدمين لخدمات الرؤية، وذلك يمكن الحصول على معلومات إضافية بفضل ذلك أيضًا على مستوى المواقع والتحيز، مما يشجع على أن هناك أيضًا مجالًا للبحث في تأثير تطورات الواجهة البحرية على الواجهة البيئية والطبية.