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Volunteering and Its Relationship to Youth Social Capital Development: Study of University Students in Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

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Abstract:

Objective: This study examines volunteers and non-volunteers at universities to determine their differences in social capital and its dimensions (social relations, participation, confidence, tolerance, and cooperation). **Method:** The study applied the social survey approach and used a questionnaire with a purposive sample consisting of 272 students of King Saud University. SPSS 23 was used to analyse the collected data, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to measure the internal consistency of scale sentences, and the data were analysed with an independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA. **Results:** For social capital and its dimensions, there are statistically significant differences at the 0.05 significance level between volunteers and non-volunteers with positive associations for volunteers. From the findings, this study recommends volunteering as an effective and important method for raising social capital levels and promoting innovative plans and strategies to increase youth participation in university volunteering.

Keywords: Social capital, Volunteering, Social work, Youth, Social relations, Participation.

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Introduction:

As a modern concept, social capital was first examined by Bourdieu (1983) and Coleman (1988) and then defined by the World Bank (1997) (Khawaja, 2018). Social capital is the real wealth owned and invested by societies for economic development and social welfare, and all countries seek to increase the social capital of their members. The concept of social capital refers to many features of social life, including confidence, social networks, social interactions, social relationships, and the quality of mutual benefits through social work (Khosravi et al., 2019; Pillai et al., 2011). Social capital is a way to identify the intangible resources of society, shared values, and confidence on which we base our daily life. This concept has been widely used in politics and sociology to explain the decline in social cohesion and values in societies (Field, 2008). Additionally, Aghabakhshi and Gregor (2007) argue that in the absence of social capital, societies would not advance. Therefore, all societies seek to raise the level of social capital for the individual and society; in this regard, Saudi Arabia seeks to raise its social capital index from 26th to 10th (Saudi Arabia Vision 2030, 2021).

As mentioned above, social capital links individual work and social structures together; therefore, it is important for social work. Furthermore, as forms of social capital, interdependence and communication play an important role in helping people and communities (Rapeli, 2018). Putnam (1995) identified that social capital includes social life advantages, such as networks, rules, and confidence, based on which participants can coordinate and cooperate to achieve mutual benefits. Putnam also mentioned the dimensions of social capital, which are determined by the extent to which citizens participate in collective decision-making and equality in rights and responsibilities, solidarity, confidence, and tolerance (Hampton, 2010). Putnam added that the weakness of social and civil networks negatively affects and weakens social capital and all related civil advantages (Harraka, 2002). Pillai et al. (2011) also pointed out that social capital indicates the size and diversity of networks in society.

The concept of social capital focuses on the network of intensive social relations, and social work incorporates confidence and reciprocity as essential elements in its work, such that social workers with their skills and experience have a clear and strong role in promoting, supporting, rebuilding, and maintaining social capital with the units they work with; thus, social workers can act as a bridge to social capital (Aghabakhshi & Gregor, 2007). Social work focuses on developing social capital through different means and methods because social capital protects people and enables them to adapt and coexist in society. Subsequently, social

workers play a key role in building resilience and promoting social capital for individuals and communities (Rapeli, 2018).

Volunteers also play an important and key role in society's development by promoting social cohesion, increasing the skills and abilities of young people, and developing capabilities that allow them to participate in their communities' progress and growth (Khalifa & Al-Salami, 2021). Volunteering and volunteerism are key goals of the United Nations (UN), and since 1970, the UN Volunteer Program (UNVP) has been directly responsible for the employment and recruitment of volunteers. In 2018, the UN deployed 7,201 volunteers worldwide, of which 81% were in the Global South (United Nations, 2022). Volunteerism is also a strategic goal of Arab and foreign countries and is a mechanism for increasing and supporting social capital.

To implement volunteerism and develop social capital, social workers manage volunteers wherein volunteering contributes to social and community identity (Gil-Lacruz et al., 2015).

There is increasing interest in volunteering globally and locally, as countries seek to increase the number of volunteers because of the social and economic benefits of volunteering to society. However, in Saudi society, volunteering is rare, despite all the efforts to motivate individuals to volunteer. According to Vision 2030 (Government of Saudi Arabia, 2021), Saudi Arabia is striving to increase the number of volunteers to one million in the nonprofit sector annually compared to 11,000 volunteers at present.

Volunteering is defined as 'any activity that includes spending time, working, or doing something, without pay, to benefit someone individuals or groups other than close relatives or in addition to them; or working for the benefit of the environment' (Madziva & Chinouya, 2017). Barker (2003) also identified a volunteer as a person who serves of their own volition, without pay.

The global and local literature on volunteering indicates that the youth are among those who volunteer the most, and volunteering is an important and influential element for the youth. The youth have different motivations for volunteering. Jones (2000) indicated that students in Canada are more likely to volunteer than other youth to improve employment opportunities, and full-time students are also more likely to volunteer part-time, with one of the possible reasons for volunteering is keeping up with their volunteer friends. Haski-Leventhal et al.'s (2008) study also revealed that youths volunteer frequently and for long hours in Israel and are committed to and satisfied with their volunteering. The study further revealed

that the most important motivations of young people to volunteer are making new friends, meeting new people, and communicating with the community, each of which satisfies their need to feel useful, form relationships, and develop a sense of gratitude. Most volunteering acts by the youth are organised collectively, and a few individually. These motives are directly linked to the dimension of social relations, which is a fundamental dimension of social capital.

Hoskins et al. (2020) suggested that volunteering in England offers some benefits to the youth but has nothing to do with employment, especially if it does not provide job-related experience or is imposed instead of self-initiated. The results of Shantz et al.'s (2019) study in Canada indicated that women volunteer more than men; yet, there is a pay difference between them in favour of men.

Some studies have focussed on the ways to attract the youth to volunteer, such as Kolomok's and Krapivensky's (2013) study in Russia, in which it was suggested that media campaigns via television, the Internet, and text messages could be used as a means of engaging the youth in volunteerism. Huštinx et al. (2012) also revealed that young students in China and Canada respond to the opportunities posed by institutional and regulatory systems.

While some local studies in Saudi Arabia and Arab countries have drawn attention to the constraints facing youth volunteering, others have indicated difficulties in encountering youth volunteering due to the lack of programmes that train volunteers before volunteering and the lack of information on volunteer areas (Al-Bakar et al., 2017; Khalifa & Al-Salami, 2021). Khalifa and Al-Salami (2021) and Al-Amer (2006) further agree that there are no programmes that illustrate volunteer opportunities. Ben Askar's (2015) study also confirmed that volunteerism faces administrative and organisational constraints. Al-Amer's (2006) study identified the following barriers to volunteering among university youth: family burden 75%, lack of community awareness 73%, lack of curriculum focussing on volunteering 73%, and lack of volunteering practice and activities at university 69%. Al-Tayar (2020) added that the youth refrain from volunteering due to a lack of motivation, encouragement, and the availability of volunteer care programmes.

Hence, local, Arabic, and foreign studies have reconfirmed the multiple constraints on youth volunteering, warranting mechanisms to motivate the youth to volunteer; this may be especially important considering the positive attitudes of the youth towards volunteering (Khamas, 2019; Nabulsi, 2007; Sultan, 2009). Khalifa and Al-Salami (2021) revealed that the most positive effects of youth volunteering are the development of a sense of social responsibility, strengthened

loyalty, and belonging to the nation. Volunteering also protects the youth from delinquency (Al-Sagheer, 2020). Al-Bayati and Al-Saadi (2018) recommended that volunteerism should not be monopolised, should be open to contributions, and promote the creation of new leaders; they further emphasised that schools and universities should play a greater role in encouraging the youth to volunteer, and the media should be more active in advocating volunteering and defining community volunteering activities. Bashir (2016) confirmed that diversity in and availability of volunteering opportunities along with the experiences gained by volunteers are factors driving the youth to volunteer. Some studies, such as that by Khalifa and Al-Salami (2021), have focused on volunteering among youth in crisis and identified their participation in awareness and education campaigns, patient services, and entertainment.

Many studies on volunteering and youth focus on different areas, including attitudes towards volunteering, volunteer incentives, volunteering areas, and the constraints facing volunteering. However, none of these directly relate to the social capital of the youth and its relationship to volunteering, which is what the current study seeks to investigate.

There have been many studies on social capital, and they have differed in terms of the variables and mechanisms adopted for increasing social capital. However, this study focuses on the youth because social capital has positive effects that benefit the youth. Additionally, building social capital has been linked to improving the mental health of young international students in Malaysia (Khosravi et al., 2019), and Yan and Lam (2009) found that social capital in China could also be adopted to solve the problem of youth unemployment.

Osman and Al-Rashoud's (2018) study in Saudi Arabia revealed that confidence, the spread of volunteerism among the youth, and cooperation against societal problems are forms of social capital among the youth. Qaleah (2021) indicated a positive relationship between confidence and social capital in Algeria, where the greater the confidence there was in an individual, the greater an individual's social capital. This relationship varies depending on the strength of social relations, and strong relationships enable access to social and emotional support. By promoting volunteering, we can raise confidence among the youth, especially as volunteering strengthens and enhances social relationships. In Osman and Al-Rashoud's (2018) study, the objectives behind developing social capital for the youth were ranked, with increased access to informal social work being ranked first, fostering of confidence between the youth and state institutions being ranked second, and development and support for cooperation against community

problems being ranked sixth. This explains that the youth are willing to develop social capital; hence, it is necessary to create channels that make it easier to raise their social capital. Moreover, Yan and Lam (2009) suggested developing social and educational plans to connect the youth with resources and social networks that their families cannot access. While in Egypt, youth empowerment has been directly linked to promoting social and human capital (Abdelkader, 2019).

Some studies have focussed on differences in the level of social capital between men and women. Hassan and Bettah (2017) revealed that 54% of Egyptian men in their study displayed a high level of social capital, while 50% of women displayed a low level. There are also statistically significant differences between women and men in social relations and confidence dimensions. Abdelkader and Abdulrazzaq (2016) indicated that in Algeria, addiction to social media websites negatively affects structural and cognitive social capital: they also demonstrated that male and university students experience a greater impact on their social capital than female and other youth, respectively, and the longer the period of usage, the greater the negative impact on social capital.

The literature review clarifies that social capital has positive effects on the youth's empowerment, mental health, and social relationships. Hence, relevant mechanisms need to be introduced to raise social capital among young people, such as through volunteering, and address changes that limit the formation of social capital, such as addiction to social media networks.

Social capital is a key goal for the youth when participating in volunteer activities (Khosravi et al., 2019). Kay and Bradbury (2009) indicated that sports volunteering among youth in the UK contributes to increasing social capital. Storr and Spaaij (2017) also confirmed that sports volunteering among youth in the UK provides benefits that include personal and professional competencies, expansion of social networks, promotion of citizenship, and development of skills such as leadership, training, and communication. Sports volunteering in Brussels has also been demonstrated to play an important role in developing the competencies of vulnerable youth (Buelens et al., 2015) and preserving the values of citizenship among the youth (Storr & Spaaij, 2017)

Bashir (2016) emphasised that volunteering promotes social capital values, such as tolerance, cooperation, patriotism, and social participation, among the youth in Gaza. Atum (2020) demonstrated that volunteering helps build and develop social networks for the youth with other members of society in Jordan. Lotah (2014) revealed the need to promote the values of volunteerism and community participation in the UAE. In contrast, Khalifa and Al-Salami (2021) indicated

that building social relationships is one of the most important motivations for volunteering among youth in crisis in Saudi Arabia.

Most of the previous Arab and local studies, such as studies by Khalifah and Al-Salami (2021), Al-Amir (2006), and Bashir (2016), have examined both volunteer and social capital using quantitative methods, social surveys with purposive or random samples, and applied questionnaires tool, while foreign studies varied between quantitative and qualitative methods with in-depth interviews and questionnaire tools.

Study Problem:

The concept of social capital is a key objective of Saudi Arabia's 2030 Vision (Government of Saudi Arabia, 2021), where the Kingdom has set an indicator for the advancement of social capital from 26 to 10th position. While the number of volunteers has increased from 11,000 when the 2030 Vision was launched in 2016 to 409,000 in 2020, the second goal is to reach 1 million volunteers in the nonprofit sector annually by 2030 (Government of Saudi Arabia, 2021).

The studies mentioned above indicate that the youth seek to raise their social capital, and volunteering promotes many dimensions of social capital such as social relations, participation, confidence, tolerance, and cooperation.

. Thus, volunteering may be a powerful and effective way to build social capital. However, there is limited literature on the concept of social capital and volunteers from the perspective of social work. Specifically, few studies have focused on the fundamental differences in the level of social capital between volunteers and non-volunteers, focusing on the volunteer as a mechanism for promoting and building social capital for young people. Social work aims to achieve both goals, and there are strategies and mechanisms that social work professionals can use to support and raise social capital among young people and motivate them to volunteer. Subsequently, one of the objectives of social work in the youth field is to develop, motivate, and refine the skills of young people in society. Therefore, the research objective of this study was to determine whether there are significant differences between volunteers and non-volunteers in the dimensions of social capital while controlling for the volunteering period.

The Social Capital Theory

The social capital theory is a multidimensional framework consisting of multiple social relationship networks, characterised by relationship-building,

confidence, and exchange standards (Bin Shelwan, 2020, p. 25), and there are five dimensions of social capital (Putnam, 1995): society, organisational participation, participation in public affairs, volunteerism, informal social interaction, and social confidence.

Bin Shelwan (2020, p. 25) outlined Putnam's social capital hypotheses as follows:

1. High-level social cohesion and participation networks increase confidence and the acceptance of exchange standards.
2. Exchange standards increase the level of public confidence.
3. Social capital is found in different quality associations, ranging from sports clubs to trade unions.
4. There is a relationship between social participation networks, confidence, and exchange standards.

Amin (2019) added the following hypotheses:

1. The higher the individual in society, the greater the chance of investing available resources.
2. Individuals interact directly or indirectly within social networks according to their resources.
3. The stronger the cohesion between individuals, the more the individual can use the resources available in expressive acts, which develops resources owned by individuals and groups to which they belong.

The Social capital theory applies to the current study as it examines volunteering as a method by which students enter into broad social relationships, build multiple social networks, increase their confidence, exchange and cooperate with others, build tolerance, and participate in society, which are the social capital dimensions examined by the current study.

Study Significance

1. Theoretical significance: This study provides additional knowledge on the theoretical aspect of youth in social work and the mechanisms for enhancing and strengthening their social capital.
2. Applied significance: This study demonstrates the benefits of volunteerism as a method of refining and developing the skills of university youth and increasing their social capital.

Study Concepts:

Volunteer:

Volunteering is defined as any activity that includes spending time or work or doing something without pay to benefit an individual or group other than close relatives or in addition to it or for the environment (Madziva & Chinouya, 2017). A volunteer is also defined as the effort made by a person voluntarily, without pay to participate in a program or to provide a service to a voluntary association or government institution (Hijazi & Sharkaw, 2013, p. 49).

Voluntary:

Barker (2003) identified voluntary acts as those by someone who serves of their own volition, without pay. The volunteers in this study are young university students and volunteers at King Saud University, both inside and outside King Saud University.

Social Capital:

Putnam defined social capital as ‘social relationships, expectations, commitments, and standards that contribute to the production of human activity’ (Cronin & King, 2014). Putnam (1993) also stated that the dimensions of social capital are the extent to which citizens participate in collective decision-making, equal rights and responsibilities, solidarity, confidence, and tolerance (Hampton, 2010). Putnam (1995) also contended that social capital includes social life advantages such as networks, rules, confidence, coordination, and cooperation to achieve mutual benefits. In this study, the five dimensions of social capital owned by university youth are defined as social relations, participation, confidence, tolerance, and cooperation.

Youth:

Al-Dakhil (2013, p. 202) defined young people as individuals between the ages of 18 and 24, Individuals at this stage of life tend to avoid guidance and are more liberal, so this is one of the stages that need attention and care. In this study, young people are defined as students enrolled in the bachelor and postgraduate programs at King Saud University.

Study Hypothesis:

The main objective of this descriptive study was to determine the difference

between volunteerism and social capital among the youth by ensuring the validity of the following null hypothesis: There are no statistically significant differences in volunteering and the dimensions of social capital among the youth. In addition, the following sub-hypotheses—each of which focuses on a different dimension of social capital—were derived from the main hypothesis:

1. There are no statistically significant differences in volunteering and the social relations of the youth.
2. There are no statistically significant differences in volunteering and youth participation.
3. There are no statistically significant differences in volunteering and the confidence of the youth.
4. There are no statistically significant differences in volunteering and the tolerance of the youth.
5. There are no statistically significant differences in volunteering and the cooperation of the youth.

Methodological procedures for the study:

1. Participants:

Table 1. Participant responses to the questionnaire details (N=272)

Gender	Frequency	Per cent
Male	61	22.4
Female	211	77.6
Marital status	Frequency	Per cent
Unmarried	221	81.3
Married	44	16.2
Divorced	4	1.5
Widowed	1	1.1
Departments	Frequency	Per cent

Humanities departments	210	77.2
Science departments	62	22.8
College	Frequency	Per cent
College of Arts	136	50
College of Education	25	9.2
College of Political Science	19	7
College of Languages and Translation	19	7
College of Science	17	6.3
Others	56	20.6
Have you ever volunteered?	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	199	73.2
No	73	26.8
Are you a volunteer now?	Frequency	Per cent
Yes	123	45.2
No	149	54.8
How long have you volunteered?	Frequency	Per cent
Less than one year	92	33.8
One year to less than three years	53	19.5
Three years and more	38	14
Volunteering areas	Frequency	Per cent
Charitable	106	39
Entertainment	17	6.3
Health	29	10.7
Other fields	47	17.2

Volunteering place	Frequency	Per cent
Inside and outside the university	109	40.1
Inside the university	42	15.4
Outside the university	48	17.6
Volunteer position	Frequency	Per cent
Within a team	95	34.9
Individually	22	8.1
Individually and within a team	82	30.1

The study population details are summarised in Table 1. They comprised 60,453 students at King Saud University, and purposive sampling was used to select a study sample, which comprised 272 students. These were both volunteers and non-volunteers, between 19 and 33 years of age, with an average age of 22.84 years. Of these, 22.4% were male, and 77.6% were female. Most participants were unmarried (81.3%) and concentrated in the humanities departments (77.2%). Regarding the specific colleges, 50% of the participants belonged to the College of Arts. Their average monthly family income was 14,528,000 riyals.

While 73.2% of participants had engaged in volunteering, 26.8% had not. At the time of data collection, 45.2% of participants were volunteers, and 54.8% were not. While 33.8% of participants had been volunteering for less than a year, 19.5% had been volunteering for one to three years, and 14% had been volunteering for more than three years. The areas of volunteering varied, with most volunteers opting for charities and NGOs (39%). Students volunteering inside and outside the university were the highest (40.1%), followed by students volunteering outside the university (17.6%) and students volunteering within the university (15.4%). Most students also volunteered within a team (34.9%).

2. Measures:

The current study is an analytical study that used the quantitative method, specifically the social survey approach on a purposive sample of 272 students of King Saud University volunteers and non-volunteers. This study focused on students at King Saud University in Riyadh; 77.6% of students had a bachelor's degree, and 22.4% had a master's degree or doctorate. The data were collected from 19 August to 16 September 2020.

An electronic questionnaire about the focus of the study was designed, stating that ‘the data of this study are confidential and will be used only for the purpose of scientific research’. A data collection tool was developed for this study focusing on three elements. First, demographic data were obtained, including sex, age, social status, educational stage, college, specialisation, school year, and monthly income. Second, information on volunteering was obtained, including volunteering experience, whether the student is currently a volunteer, duration of volunteering, the field of volunteering, and type of volunteering. Third, the following five dimensions of social capital were measured: social relations (10 items), for example: ‘I like to talk to others’ and ‘I have broad social relationships within the university’; participation (9 items), for example: ‘I participate in university celebrations’ and ‘follow local news’; confidence (10 items), for example: ‘I have a lot of confidence in my family members’ and ‘I always trust my friends’; tolerance (11 items), for example: ‘respect different cultures in the world’ and ‘accept the differences of cultures in the world’; and cooperation (8 items), for example: ‘I like helping others’ and ‘I like individual acts’.

The response to the items was along a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The scale items were developed by referring to previous research and scientific references related to social capital and were reviewed by five specialists in social work and sociology in the Department of Social Studies of King Saud University. Some paragraphs were amended by observing the arbitrators on the dimensions of the scale.

Table 2. The Cronbach’s alpha values:

Dimensions	Cronbach’s alpha	Items
Social relations	0.726	11
Participation	0.777	10
Confidence	0.841	11
Tolerance	0.882	12
Cooperation	0.760	9
Social capital	0.920	48

The Cronbach’s alpha values or the items reflect the reliability of the results obtained from the scale, and these are detailed in Table 2.

3. Statistical methods:

Descriptive statistics and a variance analysis, including repetitions, percentages, arithmetic means, and standard deviations, were calculated for demographic data. A variance analysis using t-test (independent samples) and one-way ANOVA was employed to determine the significant differences in the level of social capital based on the demographic variables.

Results:

Table 3. Mean and standard deviation for social capital and its dimensions (N=272)

	Social Relations	Participation	Confidence	Tolerance	Cooperation	Social Capital
N	272	272	272	272	272	272
Mean	3.34	2.84	3.19	3.95	3.68	3.41
Standard Deviation	0.602	0.694	0.794	0.902	0.730	0.581

Table 3 illustrates that social capital among the sample has a mean of 3.41, while the social capital dimension of tolerance has the highest mean at 3.95. The lowest mean is for the social capital dimension of participation at 2.84. The standard deviation values indicate differences between individuals, with social relations reflecting the most homogeneous measurements and tolerance reflecting the most varied measurements.

Table 4. Results of the independent samples t-test for social capital and its dimensions based on the experience of volunteering (N=272)

Have you ever volunteered?		N	Df	Significance	T	M	Standard Deviation
Social capital	Yes	199	270	0.000	4.050	3.49	0.56
	No	73				3.18	0.55
Social relations	Yes	199	270	0.019	2.364	3.39	0.61
	No	73				3.20	0.55
Participation	Yes	199	270	0.000	4.749	2.95	0.68
	No	73				2.52	0.62
Confidence	Yes	199	270	0.014	2.467	3.26	0.80
	No	73				2.99	0.73
Tolerance	Yes	199	270	0.024	2.275	4.02	0.86
	No	73				3.74	0.96
Cooperation	Yes	199	270	0.000	4.483	3.80	0.68
	No	73				3.36	0.77

Table 4 illustrates that there are statistically significant differences between the volunteer and non-volunteer groups in terms of the social capital dimensions of participation, and cooperation, with a value of $t=0.001 > p$. Social relationships, confidence, and tolerance have a value of $t=0.01 > p$.

The table also shows that there are statistically significant differences between youth volunteers and non-volunteers, as follows:

1. Volunteers (M = 3.49, SD = 0.56) and non-volunteers (M = 3.18, SD = .55; $t(270) = 4.050, p = .000$) at the level of social capital.
2. Volunteers (M = 3.39, SD = 0.61) and non-volunteers (M = 3.20, SD = .

0.55; $t(270) = 2.364, p = .000$) at the level of social relations

3. Volunteers ($M = 2.95, SD = 0.68$) and non-volunteers ($M = 2.52, SD = 0.62; t(270) = 4.749, p = .000$) at the level of participation.
4. Volunteers ($M = 3.26, SD = 0.80$) and non-volunteers ($M = 2.99, SD = 0.73; t(270) = 2.467, p = .000$) at the level of confidence.
5. Volunteers ($M = 4.02, SD = 0.86$) and non-volunteers ($M = 3.74, SD = 0.96; t(270) = 2.275, p = .000$) at the level of tolerance
6. Volunteers ($M = 3.80, SD = 0.68$) and non-volunteers ($M = 3.36, SD = 0.77; t(270) = 4.483, p = .000$) at the level cooperation.

Also, the t-test was applied to 199 volunteers to determine the significant differences between current and non-current volunteers. The results did not reveal any statistically significant differences between the two groups in overall social capital or its dimensions of social relations, participation, tolerance, and cooperation, where $t=0.05 < p$. However, a statistically significant difference was found favouring the current volunteers in the dimension of confidence, with a value of $t=0.05 > p$.

Table 5. Results of one-way ANOVA for social capital and its dimensions based on the duration of volunteering (N=199)

Duration of volunteering		N	Df	F	Significance
Social capital	Less than a year	106	2	5.128	0.007
	One to three years	54	195		
	Three years or more	38	197		
Social relations	Less than a year	106	2	6.822	0.001
	One to three years	54	195		
	Three years or more	38	197		

Duration of volunteering		N	Df	F	Significance
Participation	Less than a year	106	2	5.329	0.006
	One to three years	54	195		
	Three years or more	38	197		
Confidence	Less than a year	106	2	0.591	0.555
	One to three years	54	195		
	Three years or more	38	197		
Tolerance	Less than a year	106	2	2.113	0.124
	One to three years	54	195		
	Three years or more	38	197		
Cooperation	Less than a year	106	2	5.769	0.004
	One to three years	54	195		
	Three years or more	38	197		

Table 5 illustrates that there are statistically significant differences between the participants based on the duration of volunteering in terms of social capital and its dimensions of social relations, participation, and cooperation, with a value of $t=0.01 > p$. However, no statistically significant differences exist between the participants based on the duration of volunteering in the dimensions of confidence and tolerance, with a value of $t=0.05 < p$. Using Tukey's test for pre-test measurements revealed that the differences were statistically significant between volunteers for less than a year and volunteers for more than three years were statistically significant for social capital and its dimensions of social relations and cooperation, with a significant value of $0.01 > p$. However, the participation dimension had a significant value $=0.05 > p$. Regarding volunteers for one to three years and volunteers for three years or more, there was a statistically significant difference in the two dimensions of social relations and cooperation, with a significant value of $0.05 > p$.

Discussion:

The current study sought to examine the main null hypothesis of no statistically significant differences between volunteers and non-volunteers in social capital. It further examined the sub-null hypotheses of there being no statistically significant differences between volunteers and non-volunteers in the dimensions of social capital (social relations, participation, confidence, tolerance, and cooperation). The study results resulted in the rejection of the main and subsidiary null hypotheses

Using independent samples t-test, this study found statistically significant differences between volunteers and non-volunteers in social capital and its dimensions (participation and cooperation). All values were higher for volunteers, with $t=0.001 > p$, whereas social relationships, confidence, and tolerance had a value of $t=0.01 > p$. The mean for social capital was 3.49 among volunteers and 3.18 among non-volunteers. This result is similar to Sultan's (2009) and Khamas's (2019) studies; both studies revealed that university youth have positive attitudes towards volunteering that can be utilised to increase the number of young volunteers and raise their social capital.

Building relationships and social networks are among the most important motivations for volunteering among the youth (Atum, 2020; Khalifa & Al-Salami, 2021). The current study results indicate this through the higher scores on the dimension of social relations among volunteers. Bashir (2016) emphasised that volunteering promotes social capital values, such as tolerance, cooperation, citizenship, and social participation among the youth.

This study used the independent samples t-test to identify the significant differences between the current and non-current volunteers (for the 199 participants with volunteering experience) in social capital and its five dimensions. No statistically significant differences between the current and non-current volunteers were indicated in social capital and its dimensions of social relations, participation, tolerance, and cooperation, with $t=0.05 < p$. However, a statistically significant difference between the current and non-current volunteers was found for the dimension of confidence, with a value of $t=0.05 > p$. The mean of current volunteers on this dimension was 3.35, while that of non-current volunteers was 3.10, indicating that the current volunteers scored higher. This result underscores the effects of volunteering on the formation of social capital that continues to be sustained among the youth even after they stop volunteering.

To encourage the youth to volunteer and benefit from it to raise their level of social capital, it is necessary to provide diverse opportunities and not monopolise

volunteering. Furthermore, universities must encourage the youth to volunteer, and media campaigns must be initiated to introduce community volunteering activities (Al-Bayati & Al-Saadi, 2018). Al-Sagheer (2020) revealed the need to motivate the youth to volunteer and create voluntary initiatives to this end.

This study used a one-way ANOVA test to determine differences in social capital and its five dimensions based on the duration of volunteering. The study results revealed the presence of significant differences based on the duration of volunteering in social capital and its dimensions of social relations, participation, tolerance, and cooperation, with the value of $F=0.01 > p$. However, no statistically significant differences were found based on the duration of volunteering for the dimension of confidence, with $F=0.05 < p$.

Using Tukey's test for a post-test evaluation revealed statistically significant differences between those with less than a year of volunteering experience and those with three years or more of volunteering experience in social capital and its dimensions of social relations and cooperation. Participants with three years or more of volunteering experience scored higher on each of these "social capital, social relations and cooperation" with a significant value $=0.01 > p$. The participation dimension had a significant value of $0.05 > p$. There was also a statistically significant difference between those with one to three years of volunteering experience and those with three years or more in the social relations and cooperation dimensions. Participants with three years or more of volunteering experience scored higher on both dimensions, with a significant value of $0.05 > p$.

These results indicate that continued volunteering preserves and increases social capital, as the number of volunteers decreased in this study with the increase in the duration of volunteering. While 33.8% of participants volunteered for less than one year, 19.5% volunteered for one to three years, and 14% volunteered for three years or more. Therefore, it is necessary to motivate the youth to volunteer and create volunteering opportunities, especially because there are difficulties facing youth volunteering, such as a lack of programmes that train volunteers before volunteering and a lack of information on volunteer areas (Al-Bakar et al., 2017; Khalifa and Al-Salami, 2021). Moreover, there are no programmes that promote volunteer opportunities (Al-Amer, 2006; Khalifa and Al-Salami, 2021). Ben Askar (2015) also confirmed that volunteerism faces administrative and organisational constraints. According to Al-Amer (2006), the barriers to volunteering for youth can be recognised as a lack of curriculum focus on volunteering and a lack of activities at the university in which the youth can volunteer. Discouraging the youth from volunteering and the lack of volunteer care programmes also cause the youth to refrain from volunteering (Al-Tayar, 2020).

Practice recommendations:

Based on the study results and the above constraints, the following recommendations can be made:

1. Educational institutions should promote the concept of volunteering and adopt strategies for youth volunteering.
2. Educational institutions should provide training programmes and volunteering activities for volunteers.
3. Educational programmes in universities should highlight volunteerism, its importance, and areas within its scientific content.

Future research:

This study is one of few studies on Saudi society to address the relationship between social capital among the youth and volunteering. Undertaking this investigation is important considering that increasing the number of volunteers is a strategic goal of the 2030 Vision of Saudi society; even more generally, increasing social capital is a goal sought by all societies. Future research should focus on:

1. Developing a strategy to motivate the youth to volunteer.
2. Finding different mechanisms to increase their social capital.

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التطوع وتنمية رأس المال الاجتماعي لدى الشباب دراسة مطبقة على طلبة جامعة الملك سعود في الرياض، المملكة العربية السعودية

خولة عبدالله السبتي⁽¹⁾

ملخص البحث:

هدف الدراسة: تسعى الدراسة إلى الكشف عن الفروق المعنوية ذات الدلالة الإحصائية عند مستوى المعنوية 0.05 بين المتطوعين وغير المتطوعين في رأس المال الاجتماعي وابعاده (العلاقات الاجتماعية، المشاركة، الثقة، التسامح، التعاون). المنهجية: استخدمت الدراسة منهج المسح الاجتماعي باستخدام أداة الاستبانة، عينة الدراسة عينة قصدية؛ تتكون من 272 من طلبة جامعة الملك سعود. تم تحليل بيانات الدراسة بواسطة البرنامج الإحصائي SPSS. 23، استخدمت الدراسة معامل الفايرونيخ لقياس الاتساق الداخلي لعبارات المقياس، كما اعتمدت على اختبارات Independent Sample

T Test، وتحليل التباين الأحادي One way anova. النتائج: وتوصلت إلى أن هناك فروقاً معنوية ذات دلالة إحصائية عند مستوى المعنوية بلغت 0.05 بين المتطوعين وغير المتطوعين في رأس المال الاجتماعي وابعاده «العلاقات الاجتماعية، المشاركة، الثقة، التسامح، التعاون» لصالح المتطوعين. أوصت الدراسة بضرورة أن يؤخذ العمل التطوعي بعين الاعتبار كأحد الوسائل الفعالة والمهمة لرفع مستوى رأس المال الاجتماعي والسعي إلى وضع خطط واستراتيجيات جديدة ومبتكرة لزيادة مشاركة الشباب في التطوع الجامعي.

الكلمات الدالة: رأس المال الاجتماعي، التطوع، الخدمة الاجتماعية، الشباب، العلاقات الاجتماعية، المشاركة.

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