جامعة البحرين
المكتبة
LIBRARY
University of Bahrain

الأستاذ الفاضل الدكتور جليل العريض.
عميد كلية التربية والعلوم والآداب
جامعة البحرين.
مع وافر التقدير.
١٧/٢/١٩٨٧م.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE REORGANISATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE ARAB STATES OF THE GULF: BAHRAIN, KUWAIT AND SAUDI ARABIA

رفع إلى مكتبة جامعة البحرين
مع التحية
د. جليل ابراهيم العريض
١٦/٢/١٩٨٨

by

Salha Abdulla Yusuf Issan
B.A. (University College of Beirut, Lebanon)
M.A. (University of Hull-U.K.)

كلية البحرين الجامعية
المكتبة
LIBRARY
University College of Bahrain
هدية
Presented

Submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
University of London Institute of Education

June, 1986

جامعة البحرين
المكتبة
LIBRARY
University of Bahrain

Table of Contents

		Page
Acknowledgements...		v
Abstract		vii
Chapter One:	Problem under Investigation and the Approach...	1
Chapter Two:	Comprehensive School Models and their Origins in Sweden, England and the U.S.A.	23
2.1	Introduction	23
2.2	Sweden	24
2.2.1	Ideological roots of the comprehensive school	24
2.2.2	The institutional patterns...	32
2.2.3	Evaluation	37
2.3	England	40
2.3.1	Ideological roots of the comprehensive school	40
2.3.2	The institutional patterns...	51
2.3.3	Evaluation	53
2.4	The United States of America	58
2.4.1	Ideological roots of the comprehensive school	58
2.4.2	The institutional patterns...	64
2.4.3	Evaluation	70
2.5	Conclusion	77
	References	79
Chapter Three:	Comprehensive School Curricula in Sweden, England and the U.S.A.	87
3.1	Introduction	87
3.2	Theoretical consideration	90
3.2.1	Definition of curriculum	90
3.2.2	Theory of the 'nature of knowledge' and the curriculum...	92
3.2.3	Methods of curriculum planning	93
3.3	The Comprehensive School Curriculum in Sweden	107
3.3.1	The curricula content..	108
3.3.1.1	The compulsory comprehensive school curriculum (grades 7-9)	108
3.3.1.2	The integrated post-compulsory school curriculum	113
3.3.2	Career's education	116
3.3.3	Methods of teaching and grouping practices	118
3.3.4	Extra-curricula activities...	120
3.3.5	Evaluation of pupils' achievements. ...	120
3.3.6	Guidance and counselling	125
3.3.7	Teachers: their education and status ...	126

		Page
3.4	The Comprehensive School Curriculum in England	132
3.4.1	The curricula content...	133
3.4.1.1	Curriculum for pupils (11-14 years). ...	133
3.4.1.2	Curriculum for pupils (15-16 years). ...	135
3.4.1.3	The sixth form curriculum	143
3.4.2	Career's education	144
3.4.3	Methods of teaching and grouping practices	148
3.4.4	Extra-curricula activities	150
3.4.5	Evaluation of pupils' achievements.. ...	150
3.4.6	Guidance and counselling	151
3.4.7	Teachers: their education and status ...	153
3.5	The Comprehensive School Curriculum in the U.S.A...	158
3.5.1	The curricula content...	160
3.5.1.1	The curricula offered at the junior and senior levels	160
3.5.2	Career's education	166
3.5.3	Methods of teaching and grouping practices	170
3.5.4	Extra-curricula activities	171
3.5.5	Evaluation of pupils' achievements.. ...	172
3.5.6	Guidance and counselling	174
3.5.7	Teachers: their education and status ...	176
3.6.	General Reflections	181
	References	188
Chapter Four:	A Comparison of Societal Conditions in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia	199
4.1	Introduction	199
4.2	Ideology	203
4.2.1	The concept of man	203
4.2.2	The concept of society..	205
4.2.3	The concept of knowledge	210
4.2.4	The Islamic concept of the content of education	216
4.3	Political system and its institutions ...	218
4.3.1	Actual political practices	219
4.3.2	Institutional bases of the political system	224
4.3.3	Nature of the National and Consultative Assemblies (al-majālis al-Waṭniyah wa-Majālis al-Shūra)	228
4.4	Economic conditions	234
4.4.1	Natural resources	234
4.4.2	Economic policies and institutions.. ...	237
4.4.3	Demographic features and distribution of population..	241
4.4.4	Human resources and manpower..	244
4.5	Social structure and social institutions	254
4.5.1	Social structure before the oil era ...	255
4.5.2	Social structure after the oil era ...	258
4.5.3	Social institutions	267
4.5.3.1	The family institution..	268
4.5.3.2	Cultural and social organisation	270
4.6	Conclusion	274
	References	280

		Page
Chapter Five:	The Established Secondary Education System: Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia... ...	290
5.1	Introduction...	290
5.2	General characteristics of the established education system	291
5.3	Secondary education: country profiles...	300
5.3.1	Secondary education in Bahrain	300
5.3.1.1	The general secondary school	300
5.3.1.2	The technical secondary school	302
5.3.1.3	The commercial secondary school	306
5.3.1.4	The religious secondary school	307
5.3.2	Secondary education in Kuwait	308
5.3.2.1	The general secondary school	309
5.3.2.2	Technical/vocational education and its institutions	313
5.3.3	Secondary education in Saudi Arabia ...	317
5.3.3.1	The general secondary school	319
5.3.3.2	The technical secondary school	323
5.3.3.3	The commercial secondary school	325
5.3.3.4	The agricultural secondary school.. ...	326
5.3.3.5	The religious secondary school	326
5.3.3.6	Teacher training	327
5.3.3.7	Women's education	330
5.4	Conclusion	332
	References	334
Chapter Six:	Reorganisation of General Secondary Education in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia	339
6.1	Introduction	339
6.2	The general secondary school in Bahrain..	341
6.2.1	Government policy towards general secondary education	341
6.2.2	Content of the curriculum	344
6.2.3	Methods of teaching and grouping practices	352
6.2.4	Guidance and counselling	353
6.2.5	Evaluation of students' achievements ...	355
6.2.6	Teachers: their education and qualifications	358
6.3	Branching programmes secondary school in Kuwait	363
6.3.1	Government policy towards general secondary education..	363
6.3.2	Content of the curriculum	366
6.3.3	Methods of teaching and grouping practices	369
6.3.4	Guidance and counselling	370
6.3.5	Evaluation of students' achievements ...	372
6.3.6	Teachers: their education and qualifications	373
6.4	The experimental comprehensive schools in Saudi Arabia	378
6.4.1	Government policy towards general secondary education	378
6.4.2	Content of the curriculum	380
6.4.3	Methods of teaching and grouping practices	384
6.4.4	Guidance and counselling	385

		Page
6.4.5	Evaluation of students' achievements ...	386
6.4.6	Teachers: their education and qualifications	387
6.5	Conclusions	390
	References	399
Chapter Seven:	Conclusions and Suggestions	403
7.1	Introduction	403
7.2	Reflections on the comprehensive school: ideological principles and their application	405
7.3	Suggested alternative solutions... ...	410
7.4	Conclusion	430
	References	432
Tables		433
Figures		487
Charts		506
Appendices...		511
Bibliography		539
Addenda		540

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The researcher owes a debt of gratitude to her supervisor, Professor Brian Holmes, formerly Head of the Department of Comparative Education, for his inspiring guidance, stimulating suggestions and unfailing encouragement at all stages of this thesis. She has been highly impressed by his intellectual clarity and rationality of analysis expressed in his writings and seminars. She has applied his methodology in her research, but she would like to submit that any weakness that may appear in this application should be attributed only to her.

She also records her deep sense of gratitude to her joint supervisor, Dr. G.N. Saqeb, Associate Professor at Muslim World Leage, Makkeh, and visiting lecturer at the University of London Institute of Education, whose constant advice and valuable help on many critical stages of this study has given it new dimensions and guided her to a deeper understanding of the crucial issues of education in the Islamic World.

The researcher acknowledges her indebtedness to the University College of Arts, Science and Education of Bahrain, which has sponsored her throughout her study.

She also wishes to thank the Ministries of Education in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia and the staff of the Educational Research and Documentations Units within these States for their cooperation in supplying the researcher with the up-to-date data.

Her special indebtedness is also due to Dr. Muhammed Al-Ahmed Al-Rasheed, Director General of Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States in Riyadh and Mr. Muhammed Abdulha Al-Sān'a, Director or Arab Gulf States Educational Research Centre in Kuwait

and their staff in sending her all documents and research papers concerning education in the region.

She would like to express her gratitude to all her friends as well as those personnel and institutions who have been a source of help and encouragement throughout all the stages of this research.

Last but by no means least, she wishes to acknowledge her profound personal sense of praise for her husband whose encouragement and patience have tremendously helped to sustain her spirits during the period of this study.

Her gratitude is also due to her parents especially her late father,"Peace upon his soul", who alas, passed away one year before her completion and could not share with her her joy. They both have always been so keen for her education and have made many sacrifices to support her throughout her educational mission. She would like to end with the Quranic verse praying for them:

"My Lord! bestow on them
The mercy just as they
Cherished me in childhood."
(Surah XVII Al-Isrā, Verse 24)

Salha Abdulla Issan
S.A. Issan

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE REORGANISATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN THE ARAB STATES OF THE GULF - BAHRAIN, KUWAIT and SAUDI ARABIA

ABSTRACT

Asynchronous changes in the rapidly transforming socio-economic conditions in the Arab State of the Arabian/ Persian Gulf after the discovery of oil and their relative slow-moving systems of education have led to a failure to or an inadequate response especially of their secondary education to meet the present-day and future needs and aspirations of their young people. This is a 'problem' in education which needs to be investigated in a comparative context in order to study different policy formulations and solutions, attempted by different states in the region to a common problem.

It has been realised by the educational planners of the three states in this study namely, Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, that a reform of their prevailing general secondary schools has become extremely urgent as the majority of their secondary level students in fact attend this instead of the technical/vocational type of schools. Recent policy statements in all the three states have visualised that the introduction of a comprehensive school system would offer good all round general education as well as qualify those young people whose education is terminated at this level, with the skills and attitudes required for certain occupations which are currently manned by expatriate, contracted employees.

The study follows Holmesian methodology viz. the 'Problem-Solving' approach in comparative education. It is divided into seven chapters. Chapter One attempts to define and intellectualise the 'Problem'. It also discusses the

methodological considerations as applied to the research.

Chapter Two attempts to study the ideal-types of comprehensive schools in the three selected countries i.e. Sweden, England and the U.S.A. where comprehensivisation and reorganisation of secondary education has been achieved with some measure of success. Chapter Three examines their actual functioning and organisational structures, selection procedures and curriculum organisation.

Chapter Four attempts the contextual analysis of the normative and institutional patterns of the states under study to highlight the environment in which the 'problem' has arisen and the background in which its solutions have been sought. Chapter Five analyses the educational system of these three states with special focus on their secondary school systems and their curricula structure. It also highlights the changing manpower needs and the inadequacy of their traditional secondary schools to meet them. Chapter Six studies the actual introduction and functioning of the experimental comprehensive schools in these states.

Finally, Chapter Seven draws conclusions from the research and puts forward some suggestions, in the light of the study, in order to help these states to overcome the existing problems of their comprehensive secondary schools to suit their particular conditions.

Chapter One

PROBLEM UNDER INVESTIGATION AND THE APPROACH

Introduction

This chapter gives a general idea about the problem and its analysis. A discussion of the method of enquiry and its characteristics will be outlined.

(1) Problem Statement

The implementation of the process of development depends for its success primarily upon human resources. This is particularly so in the case of Arab States of the Gulf.

Since 1970, the educational authorities of Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia have taken several steps to develop their educational system. Many attempts have been made to introduce a policy of combining education with productive work. There is an awareness that the inherited state of education needs to be replaced by a new one designed for the needs of the emerging society. In fact, there is a process of modernisation going on in these states and schools are considered to be an important factor contributing to the social and economic changes. Planners and policy-makers in the region agreed that,

> "Our states are in need of thousands of nationals for the promotion of agriculture, construction and industry, and so as to obviate the need for foreign manpower. Our people must be capable of replacing the imported manpower. This goal can only be attained through radical reforms of the educational system. The objectives of giving students an insight into various professions and trades and making it easier for them to choose their own vocations is important to overcome the one-sided intellectual education." (1)

Many researches and studies have been carried out to investigate the relationship between education to development and most of them have revealed identitical observations. For

example, the following observation is predominant. The Gulf States are in critical need of qualified manpower, engineers, trained technicians and assistant technicians,because at present the majority of these qualified groups are foreigners. (2) In order to meet this need, efforts have been directed to reorganise the existing general secondary schools. The Ministers of Education in these states believe that the reorganisation and changes they have introduced in the general secondary schools are necessary to achieve two kinds of purposes. The first purpose is to provide students with the best type of all-round general secondary education to suit their personal abilities, and the second purpose is to provide an education necessary for different occupations to meet the increasing need for trained technical and professional manpower. (3)

To what extent are these educational purposes realistic and can they be reconciled? Holmes and Lauwerys in their editorial to the 1965 World Year Book of Education on the theme of 'Education Explosion' have explained the problems created by the unprecedented scale of demand for education world-wide. The ingredients of which are the explosion of people's educational aspirations, population growth and its effect on educational institutions' enrolment, and the expansion of knowledge. These explosions then tend to require their own solutions. The authors stress that policies designed to meet one kind of educational purpose may be incompatible with those intended to meet another. The most powerful determinants of policy are:

(a) education for all as a human right and

(b) education for economic and occupational training.

And both these arguments impinge upon the educational

system at all levels and particularly at the secondary and higher levels of education (4).

Frequently education for all and education for social prosperity and employment cannot be reconciled and give rise to certain dilemmas. The industrialised countries give an implicit example of these educational problems. In the recent decade, in the highly complex and technological societies, official policy guiding educational reforms has been a reflection of the liberal philosophy of an open society with equality of opportunity and self-realisation as an aim. T. Hus'en highlights the previously mentioned dilemma by pointing out that on the one hand, the school provides competencies that constitute an individual power base. On the other hand, he asserts that a marked streak of egalitarianism emerged which led to a considerable increase of formal equality of opportunity - but not to an increase in the equality of outcomes or results. (5) He proposes to solve this dilemma by the adoption of a system of 'life-long' or 'recurrent' education closely related to career pattern or career changes and within a wide range of individual options for children and adolescents. (6)

Therefore, 'recurrent' education is now beginning to be viewed by many educationists and policy makers within the Western World as the most suitable strategy to achieve both greater equality and self-fulfilment and greater flexibility of educational provision between education and work. In Sweden especially,this strategy has been adopted to overcome the contradiction between educational objectives. For instance, the 1976 Budget recommended as a long-term aim that the conditions and organisation of post-secondary education should be arranged in such a way as to encourage students to choose

between employment, education and other activities. The Swedish government and the Parliament (Riksdag), in the same year, established that 'recurrent' education would in future be a realistic alternative to a long period of continuous youth education, on the grounds that 'recurrent' education can:

(a) give people better opportunities of planning their education on a long-term basis;

(b) contribute towards a more equitable social allocation of educational resources;

(c) facilitate the closer mutual adjustment of education and the labour market;

(d) give students wider experience and better motivation;

(e) make it easier for young persons to enter working life. (7)

In the developing countries and especially in the Arab Gulf States, there is indeed a crisis. The education system is constantly proving itself inadequate to match performance with expectations. There is also a disparity between the hopes of individuals and the needs of society and the ability of the educational system to meet these needs.

Policy makers in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia take the view that the comprehensive school will prove an appropriate solution to the problems created by a surplus of general secondary school graduates who lack skills appropriate to available jobs and will qualify members of the indigenous population, in the long run, with the specific skills and qualifications needed for jobs now predominantly in the hands of non-nationals. Therefore, comprehensive schools were set up in these states experimentally between 1396-1399 AH (1976-1979 AD) as a solution to the above problem.

However, the reorganisation of the general secondary schools in the various states on the comprehensive lines is not identical. Each state has attempted to modify its general secondary school by applying some features of comprehensivisation found in the advanced western countries of Europe and the U.S.A. For instance, certain principles of the American comprehensive school model have been adopted in Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, while Bahrain has adopted certain aspects of the Swedish comprehensive school model.

This study focuses on the different approaches adopted by the three Gulf States under study to the reoganisation of secondary education as a solution to a common problem. This will help to discover similarities and differences of the context and to examine the hypothesis of the above 'proposed solutions'.

(2) Intellectualisation of the Problem

The intellectualisation of the problem requires an investigation of the practical implications of the concept 'comprehensivisation'. Many attempts have been made to combine general education for all with education for work in both developed and developing countries. What matters most in these attempts in any country is the conception of education itself and the sociological and ideological framework in which it operates. Therefore, the intention of studying western comprehensive school models is to see how and to what extent these models have solved labour market problems in various western countries.

Comparative educationists have explained the purposes and advantages of studying the educational systems of other countries. V. Mallinson, for example, justifies this in the

following words:

> "Becoming familiar with what is being done in some other countries.... and why it is done, is a necessary part of the training of all serious students of educational issues of the day. Only in that way will they properly be fitted to study and understand their own systems and to plan intelligently for the future." (8)

G. Bereday (1964) defines comparative education as the analytical survey of foreign educational systems, which helps to explore systematically the quality of foreign schools as a means of evaluating one's own educational system. He emphasises comparison and is concerned to develop valid methods of comparison (9). But Bereday values educational comparison for its own sake. He sees comparative education as having a most challenging intellectual content (10). While B. Holmes sees comparative education as a helpful means toward the improvement of education. He states:

> "It should help administrators to reform their schools more effectively and efficiently." (11)

In fact, Bereday's model enables research workers to area studies of educational systems and juxtapose them without explaining the how and why. His approach also allows for the study of problems. Holmes' approach, on the other hand, addresses itself to a problem and provides models for the investigation of policy formulation as proposed solutions and ways of predicting success. Holmes also does not ignore the importance of theory in comparative education. He insists that data should be selected on the bases of an intellectualised problem which directs attention to data of a certain kind. He stresses the need to relate measurement to conceptualisation.

To be familiar with 'why' it is 'done', or why a certain model of comprehensive school should be adopted rather

than another is necessary. The specific initial conditions in which each model is applied should be investigated. In addition, awareness of the values associated with particular comprehensive school models and their potential for serving the general aims of societal modernisation will illuminate the way the investigator selects the appropriate model for a specific context and avoids the dangers that may arise in using ideal typical models, which are identified by Max Weber as,

- they may be considered accurate expressions of historical reality;
- they may be used by the theorist as a Procrustean bed, with only those historical details which fit the model being described and commented on and all others ignored;
- they may be wrongly hypothesised into forces which are looked upon as directing the course of history. (13)

Holmes stresses that if models are to be useful it must be possible to replicate them. That is, the sources on which they are based must be known and open to inspection. (14)

Holmes objects "to the use made of ideal typical models" other than for comparative analysis. He believes that they are necessary if we are to compare extremely complex situations, analyse certain problems and in particular if we are to compare the aims, hopes, expectations and attitudes of individuals and organised groups in different societies. He adds that it may be assumed that they simplify some constituents of national character but they should not be used to stereotype the behaviour of citizens of a nation state. (15) However, relevant aspects of Holmes' approach will be discussed in detail in a later section.

According to T.G. Monks, comprehensive schools in the West have been introduced to serve some specific objectives such as:

- to bring about greater equality of educational opportunity;
- to bridge the barriers between different social classes;
- to cater for the whole range of abilities;
- to provide a more flexible form of school organisation, and
- to prepare students for occupations. (16)

Douglas Holly asserts that the true comprehensive school is characterised by being unitary and is concerned with the full development of young people in the process of education. It is also non-selective and a neighbourhood institution.(17)

In the West, the comprehensive school is designed to solve the dilemma between technical and general education. It is widely accepted that since compulsory schooling has been prolonged to the age of 15 or 16, it is necessary within a common framework to organise an all-round education before specialisation.

S. Marklund and P. Soderberg assert that the task of the comprehensive school is therefore to provide a general education for its clients. It should provide welfare, study training, skills in languages and mathematics, general knowledge, aesthetic training, practical and vocational training, careers guidance, health training, social training and character training. (18)

However, in reality, a universal ideal typical model of the comprehensive school is not in existence anywhere because,

even in the West, each individual country has developed its own comprehensive school designed to fit in with its contextual conditions and the traditional inherited values.

As the Gulf Arab States have, because of their oil wealth, embarked on a process of rapid modernisation, some of these objectives and characteristics of comprehensive schools, mentioned by Western authors may not be applicable to the Gulf States or capable of being realised by them. Their culture, normative pattern and future aspirations may not be the same as those of the developed western coutries. Therefore, it is necessary to examine comparatively the three models of Sweden, England and the U.S.A. to find out which model or features of the comprehensive school models is preferable and could be adapted or modified to solve the problem faced by these states.

There is a contextual unity in the Gulf region and all the three states have identical problems. Culturally and ideologically, the most comprehensive basis of the value systems, permeating these states is clearly Islam. Recently, these states have been experiencing similar changes. Traditional society is disappearing and a modern one is replacing it. Modern economic institutions have mushroomed and the employment and production structures have been changing in many ways as a result of the oil boom and the accumulation of wealth. The most significant changes can be observed in the decline of agriculture and the traditional crafts and trades and in an increase in the industrial and public sectors especially in a rapid shift to wage-earning employment. These states face the dilemma of a shortage of qualified human resources as their educational systems have not been able to cope with social and economic changes. The imbalance between general and vocational

education has not enabled them to overcome the acute shortage of middle level skills in the modern economic sector.

From its individualistic manner in which problems were faced in the 1950s and 1960s, a new awareness of regional cooperation and coordination has dawned among these Gulf States. They now aim at general integration at all levels under the umbrella of the Gulf Cooperation Council (1981) which was created to fulfill the desire for joint development towards common goals. One important common goal is to generate an educational and training system which will achieve independence in human resources and uniformity of standard in the educational systems so as to allow more flexible workforce movement throughout the region.

The assumption that the human resources in these states, as members of the new G.C.C., are complementary and not in competition, leads to a revision of present strategies for development, including the strategies for education and training. The aim of achieving integration is documented in the G.C.C. Charter. Article Four states,

> "One of the basic objectives of the G.C.C. is to formulate similar regulations in various fields including:
>
> - Economic and financial affairs;
> - Commerce, customs and communications;
> - Education and culture;
> - Social and health affairs;
> - Information and tourism;
> - Legislative and administrative affairs." (19)

Education is considered to be the backbone of this G.C.C. plan to achieve coordination, cooperation and integration, and some efforts have already been made in the field of education. The establishment of the Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States was the first step to coordinate educational policies in the region. Since its establishment, it has

directed its efforts to fulfil its objectives. Coordination has, to some extent, been accomplished in the field of educational researches, workshops and seminars. General meetings and seminars are usually held and discussions cover various educational matters. However, there is a general feeling among the G.C.C. member states that there is need to revise present secondary school curricula to ensure positive integration. What is needed is a general policy accepted by all members to avoid conflict and duplication in the reorganisation of their educational systems in general and secondary education in particular.

In this study, the experimental comprehensive schools are critically analysed to show whether or not the recently adopted solutions have actually been based on the concept of integration. Have they solved the problem of the general secondary school and the needs of the societies in which they function? The study also analyses the sources of the continuing lag between educational reforms in the area of manpower development and the economic and social structure of these states as well as the public perception of the role of education.

In practical terms, there is already some indications that structural changes (comprehensivisation) cannot bring about the desired results without accompanying changes in curricula and in pedagogical orientations. The problems hindering progress can be summarised as follows:

- these states have adopted short-term policies;
- they have different conceptualisations of comprehensive schools;
- minor changes have been introduced into the curri-

culum content, and methods of instruction. (Schools usually suffer from inadequate equipment and facilities);

- public examinations place too much stress on students as well as on teachers;
- the present and future expectations of higher education, students, parents and society do not coincide with the aspirations of secondary schools.

These issues will be examined in detail in each individual state. As a general observation it can safely be stated in the beginning that, in fact, the comprehensive schools introduced in these states are inadequate in their response to the requirements of national and regional development plans in terms of producing adequate secondary school graduates who have mastered skills comparable to non-national manpower needs.

Solutions to the problem involve two main hypotheses:

(1) the more the objectives of the comprehehsive education in the Arab Gulf States are linked to the inherited norms vis-a-vis the economic, social and occupational changes that are taking place in the region, the more it is that they will be successful;

(2) the more the curricula are reorganised in accordance with integrated policies and take account of economic and manpower changes, the more these states will achieve their objective of regional independence in terms of qualified human resources.

(3) Methodology

'The Problem Approach' advocated by Holmes, in his Problems in Education and referred to in most of his writings as a method of inquiry in comparative education will be employed

as the intellectual framework for this study. Therefore, a brief description of some of its main features and its scientific bases seems necessary.

Holmes bases his method on John Dewey's 'Reflective Thinking' in his book, How We Think and on K.R. Popper's 'Critical Dualism or Critical Conventionalism', in his book The Open Society and its Enemies.

The function of the 'reflective thinking' according to Dewey is to clarify a situation in which obscurity and doubt are experienced. Dewey states,

> "Reflective thinking can proceed, with the intent to transform a situation in which there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbance of some sort, into a situation that is clear, coherent, settled, harmonious." (20)

Between the pre-reflective and post-reflective situations occur five phases. These are grouped under:

- problem intellectualisation or analysis;
- hypothesis or solution formulations;
- analysis of specific context;
- logical deductions of consequences; and
- practical verification - or testing the hypothesis by overt or imaginative action. (21)

Another element in the theoretical framework of the problem appraoch is the 'critical dualism' of Popper. 'Critical dualism', in fact, assumes that some regularities operating within any social environment are similar to those found to apply to man's physical surroundings. Holmes claims that 'critical dualism' provides an adequate taxonomy for comparative education. It suggested that three broad and somewhat different types of relationship enquiries were feasible in comparative education:

(a) theoretical analysis of relations between concepts or normative statements;

(b) functional relations between institutions or sub-institutions; and

(c) relations between stated policies and institutional outcomes. (22)

According to 'critical dualism', in any society, there can be identified and distinguished two types of law - normative and sociological.

Norms or normative laws can be either accepted or rejected or changed by man. They are statements about what ought to be. They usually find expression in a written constitution or a legal code. They can also be found in innumerable codes of values, beliefs and ideas accepted by members of a society. (23)

Holmes stresses that normative statements and laws representing man's belief are part of the context in which schools are run. They must be known if we hope to understand how schools function. (24)

Sociological laws apply to the functioning of societal institutions and are statements we make about relationship between institutions. They are neither normative nor prescriptive. They bear to man's social environment the same kind of relationship that natural laws bear to physical environment. (25) Holmes confirms that there are common characteristics between sociological and natural laws within the framework of 'critical dualism'. He states these three characteristics as follows:

They are

- man-made statements, remain hypothetical, and if they are to be scientific should be refutable;

- not universally valid; they are contingent;
- never certain, only probable;
- and some events can be predicted and we can do little or nothing to prevent them. (26)

He adds that,

> "In Dewey's conceptual framework, the sociological laws are hypothetical policy solutions to identified problems. They are the basis on which the planned development of education should be built, and of course, they are statements which can and should be tested in experience." (27)

Holmes refers to the 'environmental pattern' which, according to him, does not arise directly from the assumption of 'critical dualism'. It is constructed from the data relating specifically to the resources, geography, geology, demography and other aspects of the natural world. Understanding physical conditions helps to predict educational 'outcomes'. He points out that the discovery and extraction of oil, for example, in countries such as Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, and so on, have had a profound influence on the success of educational policies. (28)

The problem approach basically deals with and emerges from the phenomenon of social change. According to Holmes, the emphasis is not focused on changes or transformations in the long-run or 'evolution', but mainly on observable and verifiable innovations in shorter periods. His theory of social change stresses that asynchronous social change is useful in the identification and intellectualisation of problems in comparative studies and in the formulation of hypothesis. He says,

> "Here social change is considered to be the sequence of events initiated by innovation in any one of the three social configurations." (29)

If all the essential elements or parts of the social order (norms, values, attitudes etc.) on the one hand and social institutions

on the other hand, change in a physical environment at the same pace, then no problem arises as a result of the change. But in fact, not all the elements within a particular social order change at the same time or at the same pace. So Holmes argues,

> "In the light of many theories of social change, problems arise from asynchronous changes. The asynchronous changes should be identified within normative, institutional and environmental patterns." (30)

(4) The Constituents of the Problem Approach

The integral parts of this approach in comparative education include:

(1) problem analysis or intellectualisation,

(2) hypothesis or policy solution formualation,

(3) the specification of initial conditions or the context under which the problem is found,

(4) the logical prediction from adopted hypothesis of likely outcomes, and

(5) the comparison of logical predicted outcomes with observable events. (31)

All these stages are interrelated and comparativists should be aware of the importance of each stage.

The selection of a 'technical problem' depends very much on the investigation based, as Holmes suggests, on a researcher's own experience, background knowledge, and awareness of current educational discussions and debate which focus his attention either on issues which appear important in his own culture, or on questions which have international significance.

Having identified the problem, the comparative educationist should analyse it in general terms and reveal its

specific features in a selected context. (32) The purpose of the analysis of the problem is to identify the asychronous changes within normative, institutional and environmental patterns.

The attempt to formulate proposals is a difficult task. The main difficulty, Holmes refers, is that what may work in one kind of society may not work in another. Thus it is highly necessary, given policy proposals or alternatives, to make rational decisions and this can only be done for a specific situation. The identification and description of relevant data should be directed towards the infrastructure of the societal or educational problem under study. However, a description of a social context would involve a statement of all the social institutions, and an account of the geographical and demographic features of the society. (33) Holmes stresses that,

> "In the problem approach, however, the problem itself determines what degree of importance should be attached to each of the identified contextual factors. In practice, some kind of reduction is based upon a selection of factors using directing problems and hypotheses." (34)

Prediction is the final step in the problem approach. Holmes points out that the investigator should beware of the difficulties associated with this task which he underlines as below:

> "the first is that one may fail to predict all the outcomes of a policy in a particular context. The second is that of paying attention to the predicted short-term consequences, to the detriment of long-term results." (35)

Therefore, it is important to establish carefully certain criteria of success for accurate predictions. Two principles of classifying outcomes should be noted. First, there are those which can be regarded as measurable in terms of either

social returns or the benefits (or losses) sustained by individuals. Secondly, in either case returns can be classified as economic, social class, political and educational and so on (36).

(5) Applications of the Problem Approach to this Study

The investigator attempts in this thesis to follow the 'Problem approach'. The starting point is the awareness of the Ministries of Education of the G.C.C. member states that there is an imbalance in terms of enrolments in general and vocational secondary education and that the system is not responding to changes taking place in the Gulf States. There is consensus that the general solution in the Gulf is to introduce some kind of comprehensive school system in each individual state.

Assuming that the countries studied, i.e. Sweden, England and the U.S.A. have passed through similar circumstances to those the Gulf Arab States are now experiencing an analysis of concepts of comprehensive education and the forces which influenced their acceptance and the movement to reform education will be made in Chapter Two.

The models of comprehensive schools in these countries will be examined with particular reference to their structure, selection, grouping of pupils and curriculum organisation. Then their policy processes and the contribution of these schools to the manpower problems will be examined in Chapter Three.

The problem of secondary education in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia is intellectualised in Chapter Four where the changes and the relative no-changes in the normative, institutional and environmental patterns of the societies are identified. Attempts are made to define the inconsistency between

changes in the social and economic aspects on the one hand and education on the other.

A discussion of education systems in these states, focusing on secondary education and the curriculum structures are the bases of Chapter Five. The analysis covers the changing of manpower needs and the persistence of traditional educational practices. The experimental comprehensive schools' structure and a critical appraisal of the forces and constraints facing their progress are analysed in Chapter Six.

Finally, out of the analysis of the comprehensive school models, evolved in the West, proposals and suggestions are drawn and predictions about the probability of their application is made.

References

(1) Mansoor, Hussain 'Aumar, "Tatiweer al-Quwa al 'Aamiylah wa-Ikhtiyar al-Taqaniyah al-munasibah Ka-a'sas lil-Tanimiyah wa al-Takamal al-a'qtisadi fi-Duwal Majlis al-Ta'aawan al-Khaliji", Being: "The Manpower Development and the Selection of Appropriate Techniques as a Base for Economic Advancement and Integration in the GCC State Members." A Paper presented on the Seminar about Economic Integration of GCC States, held by King Saud University, Riyadh with the Coordination of the Arab Planning Institute, Kuwait, 13-16 Rabi'a al a'wal 1404 AH (17-20 December, 1983 AD), p.12.

(2) Ibid., p. 13

(3) Tazi, Abdel-hadi, Education in The Arab States in the Light of the Abu Dhabi Conference 1977, (Paris: Unesco Publication, 1980), pp. 15-16.

(4) Bereday, G.Z.F. and Lauwerys, J.A., The World Year Book of Education, 1965, The Education Explosion, Evans Brothers, Ltd., London, 1965, p. 19.

(5) Huse'n T., The School in Question. A Comparative Study of the School and Its Future in Western Societies, Oxford University Press, New York, 1979, p. 178.

(6) Ibid., p. 179

(7) NSBE, Information Section, A Report on the Vocational Emphasis of Upper Secondary Schooling, (Translated by Roger Tanner) 1976-08-31, op.cit., p. 11

(8) Mallinson, V., Introduction to Comparative Education, Heinemann, London, 1957, p. 10.

(9) Jones, P.E., Comparative Education - Purpose and Method, University of Queensland Press, St. Lucia, Queensland, 1971, p.84.

(10) Ibid., p. 85

(11) Holmes, B., "Comparative Education as a Scientific Study" in British Journal of Educational Studies, Vol. 20, No.2 June, 1972, pp. 205-219, p. 212.

(12) Shimshon, S. Equality of Educational Opportunity Through the Comprehensive School - A Comparative Study of Comprehensive Secondary (unpublished Ph.D. 1975), State University of New York at Buffalo, U.S.A., 1975, p. 19.

(13) Weber, Max., The Methodology of the Social Sciences (translated and edited by Edward Shils and Henty Find), The Free Press, New York, 1949, pp. 94-5.

(14) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, George Allen and Unwin, London, 1981, p. 112.

(15) Ibid., p. 112.

(16) Monks, T.G., Comprehensive Education in England and Wales: A Survey of Schools and Their Organisation, Comprehensive Research Project, N.F.E.R., Slough, King Thorne and Stace Ltd., U.K. 1968, p. XI.

(17) Holly, Douglas, Society, Schools and Humanity - The Changing World of Secondary Education, Macgibbon & Kee, U.K., 1971, p. 44.

(18) Marklund, S. and Soderberg, P., The Swedish Comprehensive School, Longmans, London, 1967, p. 18.

(19) Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf Charter, GCC Publication, Saudi Arabia, 1981, p. 7.

(20) Dewey, J., How We Think, D. Heath & Co., Boston, USA, 1933, p. 107.

(21) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, op.cit., p. 78.

(22) Holmes, B., "Comparative Education as a Scientific Study", op.cit., p. 211.

(23) Holmes, B., Problems in Education: A Comparative Approach, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1965, p.34.

(24) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, op.cit., p. 78.

(25) Ibid., p. 78

(26) Ibid., pp. 78-79

(27) Ibid., p. 78

(28) Ibid., p. 84

(29) Holmes, B., Problems in Education, op.cit., p. 74.

(30) Ibid., p. 73

(31) Ibid., p. 76

(32) Holmes, B., A Comparative Approach to Education, University of London Institute of Education, U.K., p. 35.

(33) Holmes, B., Problems in Education, op.cit., pp. 42-43

(34) Holmes, B., A Comparative Approach to Education, op.cit., p. 41

(35) Ibid., pp. 44-45

(36) Ibid., p. 45

Chapter Two

COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL MODELS AND THEIR ORIGINS IN SWEDEN, ENGLAND AND THE U.S.A.

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate some ideal typical models of comprehensive school systems that have developed in the West, particularly in Sweden, England the the U.S.A. in order to identify some outstanding features that could successfully be introduced in the Gulf Arab States.

Clearly, their models have their roots in a prevailing educational philosophy. The organisation and structural aspects of comprehensive schools reflect contending interpretations of a philosophy which differs in major respects from a more traditional one. Broadly speaking two philosophies according to T. Husen, have influenced all educational systems in the West in recent time, i.e. the elitist and the comprehensive (1). Elaborating on this point, D.A. Pidgeon, in his paper "Conceptualising the goals of educational Institutions", remarks that the acceptance of either of these philosophies leads to the development of fundamentally different kinds of educational systems, although two countries with the same basic philosophy may not necessarily develop identical systems (2).

In principle, under socialist concepts, the comprehensive philosophy rejects any system of selection and demands that all the resources of an education system are equitably shared among all the children. In terms of organisation, this implies only one kind of school - at the first and second level of education - emphasising freedom of choice of subjects and programmes of study on the basis of guidance. Ideally, a truly socialist comprehensive philosophy rejects selection even at the

university stage so that the best resources and teachers are available to all who "choose and not merely those who are selected as suitable" (3).

Therefore, comprehensive secondary schools in the west were established under the influence of socialism to meet demands for equality of opportunity and to provide access to secondary education for the majority of children. At the same time, they were also designed to solve the dilemma of the dichotomy between academic and technical secondary education.

Moves to expand high school education in the U.S.A. took place during the final quarter of the nineteenth century. In England and Sweden, post-1940s, pressures from Socialist parties led to the introduction of non-selective schools. Initial proposals to set up comprehensive schools in these countries aimed at adjusting to various social and economic changes and the demands they made on education. Each of the three countries has responded to these pressures in a somewhat different manner.

So an attempt will be made in this chapter to analyse the ideological bases on which the comprehensive school system in each country was based; to highlight the institutional patterns of each model particularly the organisation and structure of the system, and then to deduce what features of each model could be of value in the conditions prevailing in the Arab Gulf States under study.

2.2 Sweden

2.2.1 Ideological roots of the comprehensive school

During the last three decades, the Swedish educational system has been developing continuously towards more democratic forms. Figure No.1. shows the development of the Swedish school

system from 1945-1975. The leading ideological and philosophical principle underlying the reform efforts has been the idea of "equality of opportunity". A circumstance of primary significance in reform activities in general has been Sweden's political stability (4). An additional feature of importance has been the growth of material prosperity in that country during the same period. S. Marklund states that Sweden during this period climbed to the top level of the Gross National Product (GNP) per capita among industrialised countries (5). Another element has been the success of socialist rule, per se, with a social policy that all political groups in Sweden have accepted the country's commitment to invest a sizeable portion of its national wealth in education reforms (6). R.G. Paulston refers to other features which have facilitated the development of Sweden's educational system at various levels. He states,

> "One of the significant objective forces is the absence of ethnic, religious and linguistic diversity, which ensures a basic homogeneity of the Swedish nation." (7)

On the other hand, Marklund contends that for the past fifteen years the multiplicity of opinions and value systems has clearly increased because every tenth inhabitant of Sweden is now an immigrant. Therefore the homogeneity which may once have existed has been considerably reduced (8).

Whether pedagogical or social ideologies weighed uppermost in the minds of those favouring the introduction of the comprehensive system is a matter of debate. According to Husen's view, the Swedish School Commission of 1946 regarded the social aims as most important. It conceived the psychological aims, the differentiation of aptitudes and the possibility of assessing them as only subsidiaries to the social aims (9).

Therefore, to conceptualise the aims of the Swedish comprehensive school, it is necessary to understand the general socialist ideology, how it has been incorporated into the educational system as a whole and how it has been implemented, in particular at each level of schooling.

Swedish Social Democrats interpret the human being exclusively in behaviouristic terms. From this follows, in accordance with Marxist doctrine, that by altering his surroundings, man can be moulded in a certain, predetermined way (10). Hence the kind of schooling offered is important.

The Social Democrats have attempted to build an educational policy around democratic-socialist principles which dictate that,

> "If a country wants to be one country and a democratic country, the general school system must be of one standard for all the people. Education must be used as a basis for social and cultural amalgamation and not for segregation within a nation." (11)

The two main touchstones of Swedish reforms have been equality and participation. However, equality as a concept and a practice has gone through different stages since the 1940s. During the 1940s and 1950s, it often meant equality in the sense of expanded opportunities for everyone regardless of social class, geographical origins and sex differences.

S. Marklund argues that the previous optimistic belief in "equal opportunity" has thus been partially repudiated. He believes that this was one of the reasons behind the shift in the definition of social equality since the 1950s (12). In Sweden, equality is no longer confined to equal opportunity to compete. Nor does it mean that everyone receives the same education. Equality becomes synonymous with freedom from deficiencies and with the achievement of basic competence (13).

One aspect of equality relates to gender. Since the sixties, extensive programmes for changing the traditional stereotyping of the sexes through education have been drawn up by authorities. Classes have been co-educational throughout the whole system. Among the first measures the educational system has consistently tried to enforce has been to provide all types of education to both sexes and to seek to recruit both male and female teachers and other educational officials. However, Marklund has pointed out that in practice efforts to achieve equality are often in conflict with the principle of free choice (14). He corroborates his point by referring to the elective courses in grades 7-9 in the Compulsory Comprehensive School (Grundskola) and the conditions for choosing study lines in the upper secondary school and the common observation that boys initially choose technology, while girls choose art and economics. The same is true of choice of study lines in the upper secondary school after the age of sixteen. Girls are in a majority in the nursing line, the home economics line and the clothing manufacturing line, while boys are correspondingly over-represented in water engineering, electro-technical and the workshops lines (15).

Related to the aspect of equality is a wish to ensure social mobility for all social classes and in particular the working class. The 1946 Comprehensive School model proposed and set up throughout the country according to law and regulations in 1962 intends to remove traces of class or social divisions in Sweden. The old classification of schools as pre-primary, primary and secondary has been abolished and replaced by a system of pre-compulsory, compulsory and post-compulsory schools.

Another feature of comprehensive school philosophy has turned on participation. Conventionally, participation

has long meant participation through the electoral process. But now, in the context of Swedish democratic principles, it means,

> "participation through non-governmental institutions such as trade unions and other associations, participation as a client or a student or a pupil or as a professor, researcher or other practitioner who has a right to join in and help formulate the way in which services are created and delivered." (16)

An argument of the 1946 Swedish School Commission which published its report in 1948 was that the comprehensive compulsory school creates cultural and social unity. The Commission stressed that school, by means of its organisation and instruction, had to widen the social sphere of the students so that the spirit of unity which is brought about in school will maintain itself in a wider context (17). Furthermore school is part of society and since the student is going to be educated to be a member of this neighbourhood society, this education both can and should be carried out in cooperation with the community of which he is going to be a member. This implies that direct contact of the school with the surrounding community, its citizens and public institutions in every respect ought to be facilitated and stimulated (18).

Both the Education Act and the School Statute of 1962 also undertake, in general terms, to ensure that suitable provisions are made to enable students to participate in the shaping of school activities. The formal structure of this participation is defined in one respect: every upper-secondary school must have a joint Committee comprising the headmaster, two teachers, two students and two other members - appointed by the local authority (19).

The traditional bodies promoting cooperation between

home and school are known, somewhat obviously, as Home and School Associations, which are normally directed by the parents. There are other means of collaboration, such as general meetings for certain school levels or grades, separate discussions between the teacher and individual pairs of parents, and what are known as 'listening days' when parents are allowed to visit the school while instruction is in progress.

Linked with the philosophy of equality are views about societal prosperity which the Swedes have achieved with considerable success. To a large extent the Gulf Arab States are also obsessed with the ideal of societal prosperity and the dilemma that it poses in terms of their manpower needs.

From the labour market point of view, within the Swedish context, an efficient utilisation of resources (human and natural) that facilitate economic growth and societal prosperity. The educational system can be regarded as a link between 'raw labour' and the labour market. A. Sohlman stressed that,

> "the individual must be provided with knowledge and skills demanded on the labour market and get informed about what is demanded on the labour market. These individuals must also be knowledgeable about their interests and the job they are suited for." (20)

Swedish politicians and specialists are aware of the fact that the educational system must become more flexible in the sense that the type of education offered should adapt to the changing conditions of the labour market. Major organisational educational reforms were motivated by two things:

- the first and most visible motive has been the social one, aiming at the creation of a school system that offers the same opportunity for everyone;
- the second motive has been to create a school system

that qualifies labour in accordance with the structural changes in society (21).

It has been stressed by the Swedish Authorities, especially recently, that the educational system must become more flexible in the sense that the types of education offered must adapt to the changing conditions on the labour market. To achieve these goals increased information from the labour market to the educational system and from the educational system to individuals is needed. The 1976 Government Bill on Working Conditions in School and the Community, stressed the relationship between school and working life. The OECD's report referred to the passage where the Bill declared,

> "It is hoped that work should be a place of learning. It can give concrete lessons whereas schools can only be abstract." (22)

School authorities are now expected both by the National Board of Education and the Labour Market Board to provide more places either in the educational establishments, or practical work-experience places for students, or apprenticeship courses. One way of financing increased provision by the school authorities is to use the state grant which is available for teaching based on a place of work; another is for the authorities to find more practice places; a third is to extend school-based apprenticeships (23).

Supporters of general education are not in favour of a school system which is solely geared towards the prospect of future employment. L. Boucher asserts that the most satisfactory move must be to make the link between school and work part of the education process. But places of work are geared to 'produce' or to 'serve', not to teach; the goals are necessarily different from schools' goals (24). On the other hand, T. Husen and

G. Baalt argue that the swiftness of technical change requires not only an increased amount of technical knowledge and know-how but also education for flexibility: the ability to adapt to change. They contend that the school should lay a solid foundation of general education, i.e. based on the knowledge and skills that can be applied to a large repertoire of unforeseen situations both in the job world and society at large (25).

However, there are many reforms being made to link school with society and working life. Successful contact can be achieved, the supporters of polytechnical education assert, if local authorities and organisations react positively. But they do not deny the fact that it is not possible to forecast how quickly and how well this contact can be developed, or how great the variations will be between different municipalities in the Swedish context. But there is a strong conviction that at least, to some extent, that students should be given a better picture of the society outside and should be better prepared for the choice of further education or work (26).

The creation of, first, the compulsory comprehensive all-through school (Grundskola) then the comprehensive upper secondary school (Gymnasieskola), and the unified higher education system are therefore the result of extensive efforts of different groups in the society to state the principles to democratise and improve education as a whole to achieve in practice the ideal principles of comprehensive education. Therefore the following section will focus on the institutional patterns of the compulsory comprehensive and the integrated upper secondary schools.

2.2.2 The Institutional Patterns

2.2.2.1 The Nine-Year Comprehensive School

The organisation and structure of this school was proposed in 1946, experimented with till 1960 and put into practice throughout the country in 1962.

In Sweden, compulsory school starts at the age of seven. The municipalities are mandated to offer pre-school to all children at the age of 6 but pre-school is voluntary. The compulsory school has been extended to the age of 16. Figure 2 shows the compulsory school structure in Sweden.

Since 1945, there have been successive efforts to improve this type of school in order to realise the general social and pedagogical aims as defined by the national ideology. The following statement made by the Swedish Ministry of Education in 1948 states the main objectives of the comprehensive school:

> "One main reason for introducing the comprehensive system in Sweden was intended to bridge the old gaps between social classes. The school system ought to appear to all groups in society as a unitary construction, within which there were available and open ways for all young people and where each growing individual, independent of this social starting point in life would have the opportunity to learn how he could best utilise his potentialities for his future tasks." (27)

The Swedish School Act of 1962 also emphasises similar general objectives which apply particularly to the comprehensive compulsory as well as the upper integrated secondary school. These are:

> "To implant knowledge to the pupils and to train their ability and also, in collaboration with the homes, to promote the development of the pupils to become harmonious persons and active citizens aware of their responsibilities." (28)

The 1946 Swedish School Commission laid out the general lines of development for the democratisation of the Swedish comprehensive school system. These can be summarised as follows:

- a nine-year unity school divided into three stages;
- one school to replace all existing schools up to the age of sixteen, except those for the severely handicapped;
- the school to be undifferentiated for these first eight years and then divided into three streams called 'g' (Gymnasium - i.e. academic), 'a' (Callmann - i.e. general) and 'y' (Yrkes - i.e. vocational);
- no terminal examination, i.e. the abolition of real examen, the old lower secondary school examination and selection to be replaced by election of alternative courses;
- reorganisation of teacher education with class teachers up to grade six and subequently subject teachers (29).

The Commission did not reject the idea of differentiation by lines of study, but argued that such differentiation should be postponed until the age of fifteen because it was not appropriate to start it as early as seven.

The evaluating bodies in their reports to the government emphasised that the 1946 School Commission thought a good many of the proposals were characterised by wishful thinking and were typical "blueprints" produced at the desk without roots in reality. They added that the Commission had been too optimistic in its proposals for the solution of organisational and pedagogical problems (30).

Despite criticisms of the committee proposals, the experiment was put into practice in fourteen selected districts, representing diversified types of areas. The experiment comprised 142 classes of 2,483 pupils (31).

Many research projects were carried out during the experimentation period through the whole country and in particular in Stockholm. One well-known research project by N.E. Sevensson, concentrated on the experimental schools in Stockholm in 1955. Sevensson concluded, from the data collected and statistical analysis of experiences, that,

> "Organisational differentiation did not have the great influence on academic achievement that was frequently maintained in debate." (32)

Boucher believed that Sevensson's study did not seek to take into account aspects of school work such as discipline or teacher working conditions. His mode of analysis itself, according to Boucher, tended to dictate the results achieved (33).

According to the 1962 regulations eight of the nine grades in the basic school were to be untracked. Not until the ninth grade would students be divided into different study programmes, of which one (9g) was preparatory to the upper secondary school (Gymnasium), some were vocationally oriented and others had a more general character.

In planning, it was assumed that about one-third of the students from comprehensive basic school would be placed in grade (9g)the grade theoretically oriented to the upper secondary programme in the final year (34).

It soon turned out that the number of students in (9g) exceeded this proportion, while the percentage in non-academic oriented programmes was very small. To avoid this, the government abolished the tracking system in Grade 9; this has meant the nine-year compulsory basic school has become entirely untracked. Marklund pointed out that the decision was regarded as a victory for the efforts to achieve social equality; but it also meant that, more than previously, the problems of indivi-

dualisation moved from the administrative level to the internal pedagogical level (35).

In addition to the abolition of the tracking system, the diversification of students into different fields of study has been postponed until after the school leaving age. All students remain in heterogenously composed classes until the age of sixteen. Exceptions to this rule are the elective subjects which occupy some 15 per cent of the timetable in grades 7-9.

The reform of the compulsory school provided a foundation for subsequent changes in upper-secondary education. The demands for change in the secondary school was clearly expressed in the number of students examined as well as in the students' knowledge and skill repertoires (36)

The following section will focus on the Upper Integrated Secondary School and its development.

2.2.2.2 The Upper Integrated Secondary School

The Upper Integrated Secondary School system was reorganised in 1971. Until then Sweden had a variety of schools for the post-compulsory age 16-19 years. These schools could be grouped as follows:

- upper secondary school (the academic gymnasium for students aged 16-19); (37)
- continuation school (two-year courses in social, economic, and technical studies for students aged 16-18);
- vocational schools, schools of agriculture, schools of forestry, rural schools of home economics (courses of varying length for those aged 16 and upwards).

The new upper integrated secondary school was to incorporate not only the new Gymnasieskols and the specialised professional schools introduced according to the 1964 reforsm, but also the vocational schools which had exisded in verious forms over a long period.

U.P. Lundgren claimed that much of the reform work related to upper secondary education, was linked to the idea of recurrent education. He explained that the reason for the reform was that, with the prolongation of schooling, the increasing number of individuals who had not been given the opportunities of continuous studies made the need for more education urgent. He added that the reason for the increase in recurrent education was due not only to the desire to provide everyone with opportunity to study, but also to changes in the labour market (38).

In general the Swedish integrated upper secondary school was introduced to achieve these ideal objectives:

- to provide students with greater freedom of choice;
- to help students choose the study routes that suit them, but without being swayed by outmoded ideas of class and status;
- to break down the artificial barriers between vocational and academic education;
- to provide more theoretical studies in the vocational lines: and, on the other hand, to give the theoretical study routes a more practical content (39).

Therefore the multiple functions assigned to the new combined Gymnasieskola are found in the goals which the school is supposed to meet. These include: basic general education, vocational education, training in techniques useful on the job

market , training in techniques useful in further higher education (40).

The majority of students in the integrated upper secondary school are at present in one of twenty-three lines. In addition to the lines there are a large number of special courses. Figure No.3 shows the various lines of the upper secondary school which are grouped into three main sectors.

Since 1976, it has no longer been necessary to have attended traditional three-year academic upper secondary school Gymnasium in order to go to university. Any two-year upper secondary course even vocational is sufficient provided that the course includes Swedish and English.

The reasons for the amalgamation of different kinds of post-compulsory education into one kind of school, states Marklund, are mainly three:

> "- financial reasons - administrative cost could be reduced, buildings, special facilities and expensive technical equipment could be used more effectively;
>
> - educational reasons - a better range of teaching posts, so that more qualified teachers would be available for more subjects. Students could be taught by the teacher best qualified for the work at hand;
>
> - social reasons - it would eliminate or at least reduce the social connection attached to different subjects and make them equally attractive. Individual students would choose a line of study on the basis of their wishes, interests and aptitudes, not on the basis of their social class origin." (41)

2.2.3 Evaluation

The purpose of evaluating the existing Swedish Integrated Upper Secondary School is to see what might be relevant to the Arab Gulf States in terms of the dilemma existing between general and technical secondary education. The intention is also to

find out what positive features of this school which might be adopted.

As mentioned earlier, integration, within the context of this school, means that academic, technical, vocational and general courses are taught in the same school. The courses ought then to be accorded the same value and prestige. Equality, democratisation and free choice of specialisation are ensured and inculcated in the curriculum and in the school's general organisation.

Some believe that these aspects have to some extent been implemented. Others hold the opposite view. For example, B. Stenholm thinks that the new organisational reforms, as implemented, will decrease the educational standards of Swedes and will lead to educational retardation. Stenholm adds that it is argued by policy makers that the first-year level of the integrated upper secondary school is designed to take in nearly 100 per cent of all 16 year olds. This means that all students could pass straight from Grade Nine in the compulsory comprehensive school to the integrated upper secondary school, or to a special course based on the comprehensive school. But in practice 10 per cent of 16 year olds receive no upper secondary education. As a result they are often in a difficult position viz-a-viz the labour market and are the ones to be made redundant first when the demand for labour decreases; they are unskilled (42).

The integrated upper secondary school has succeeded in removing social differences in recruitment against the theoretically biased lines for students with highest marks from lower class, but the majority were deprived. In the Swedish study comparisons were made between three different groups of students born in 1934,1948,1953. The study shows that the majority of students born in 1953 came from

comprehensive schools. The study also reveals that some equalisation seems to have come about among the three major socio-economic groups - upper, middle and lower class - but the social differences in choices of upper secondary studies remain for the most part (43). Marklund comments that when the pessimist says that equalisation did not occur, the optimist says it started. According to him, equalisation takes time, but the time is coming (44). On the other hand the OECD report (1980) states that a degree of social levelling has occurred in the transition of more students to theoretical and other coveted studies. But it is fairly evident that individuals' desires are coloured by his/her social geographical background and sex (45). In theory, all routes prepare students for both vocational and theoretical studies, and can qualify all students for entrance to universities and colleges. But Boucher refers to some problems concerning the integrated upper secondary schools which do not coincide with the ideal objectives. They are summarised as follows:

- The validity of Gymnasieskola marks in terms of access to higher education. These comprise, at present, separate quotas for those applicants who come from two-year lines on the one hand, and the three- or four-year lines on the other.
- The less able and the less motivated 16-17 year olds, most of whom are placed in the two-year practical lines, have acquired a low self-image and see little point in staying at school; they would take the first opportunity to leave and take a job. But even if they have finished two years of study, they find it hard to get a job (46).

It has been, however, argued that 'Intregation' is not simply a matter of organisational provision. Even when administratively 'integrated' the various sections of the school are often quite separate. Students in different lines of study rarely have much opportunity to mix during the day. Integration among staff members is also limited.

2.3 England

2.3.1 Ideological Roots of the Comprehensive School

If the Swedish comprehensive school emerged from a clearly spelt-out socialist doctrine which stressed equality and participation, aimed at removing deficiencies and inequalities, and was enforced by a centralised authority its counterpart in England has had a more chequered history. The English social stratification and varieties of English secondary schools controlled variously by local bodies, religious denominations and private organisations within a decentralised system, have made the development of the comprehensive school a more complicated though interesting phenomenon.

In England, secondary education is a term used to denote a type of education which follows the primary school. According to the regulations for secondary schools issued by the Ministry of Education, a secondary school is the one which makes provision for pupils between the age of twelve and seventeen or nineteen (47). While the term 'secondary school' has a fairly clear connotation worldwide, the term 'secondary school', in England, is somewhat ambiguous since so many institutions of this type received pupils at the end of primary school, in the tripartite system. The three parts of the tripartite system were grammar school, technical schools and secondary modern schools were at first approved

under the Education Act 1944 by the Ministry of Education. The Education Act 1944, although prescribing that free secondary education suited to age, ability and attitude should be made available to all children did not lay down how the schools should be organised. Figure No.4 shows the English School System as it was in 1945.

The definition of the comprehensive school encapsulates secondary education, but its advocates give it a distinctive definition. R. Pedley defines the comprehensive school as it was stated in the 1951 Labour Party document, The Policy for Secondary Education,

> "The comprehensive school caters for all children through a system on a central core of subjects common to all, from which branches classes in specialised subjects taken according to the desires, aptitutes and capacities of the children." (48)

However, the concept of comprehensive school, within the English context, is interpreted as entirely contradictory to the notion of sameness and uniformity of turning out all children to one pattern. It is rather, Pedley contends, the concept of equal worth. All children equally deserve and need help to further their personal growth (49). T.W.G. Miller defines the comprehensive concept as it evolved in England and Wales as a modification of the multilateral idea. The mutually exclusive 'types' of multilateral schools being replaced by a variety of courses in the same school designed to meet the needs of children of all abilities and aptitudes (50).

Certainly, these concepts have their origins in a Democratic/Socialist ideology which is not accepted on the whole by all sections of society. Socialism, in England, has evolutionary characteristics and its strongest supporters, within the political arena, is the Labour Party. Therefore, it seems

necessary to look through the Labour Party social philosophy and see how it is incorporated in educational institutions.

Between 1902-1920, the Labour Party had developed a more uniform and solid labour socialist philosophy and programmes of action that were essentially its own. A.M. Kazamias claims that labour groups, during that period, were neither egalitarian in their ideology in the strict meaning of the term nor militant or revolutionary in their methods. He contends that the radical labour views of equalitarianism in education outside the existing system is a post-World War II phenomenon (51). Before the 1940s, the Party believed in the doctrine of 'inevitability of gradualism' and the labour groups called for a widening of the rungs of the educational ladder so that through scholarships and bursaries more working-class children could gain access into the existing type of secondary school.

In the post-war period, the demand for equality of educational opportunity was strengthened by certain equalitarian tendencies which can be summarised as:

(a) the further blurring of the 'social classes';

(b) the continued efforts by the government to improve the general standard of living and to continue the collectivistic policy in certain services, e.g. insurance, housing, pensions, education, etc.;

(c) the attention of the reformers to the kind of schooling that would best serve the complex structure of a democratic society; and

(d) the increase in certain occupations, notably those which absorbed most of the young persons who received secondary education and who needed to be qualified with skills appropriate to the labour market (52).

In the 1950s and early 1960s educationists and politicians postulated equality of access, not to an appropriate secondary school, but to an appropriate education within a common comprehensive school. They rejected the selective system, which fostered inequality and hindered social mobility among classes.

With the 1964 general election, the issues of selection and segregation in education were for the first time prominently featured by the Labour Party electorally, as M. Parkinson observed and quoted by P. Gordan that the presentation of the tripartite system as socially devised was not popular with the electorate. Therefore, it was decided to emphasise the ideological rather than the social justice importance of comprehensive education, stressing the economic advantages of a system which did not fail to capture talent on the point of entry to secondary education (53).

The comprehensive view of equal opportunity was favoured by the Labour Government in office from 1964 to 1970. The government visualised,

> "a full system of comprehensive schools, with the abolition of the grammar schools and of selection, matched in practice with the principle of equal opportunity and equal access to an appropriate education." (54)

But the Labour Party's policies of comprehensivisation were not accepted in principle by all groups and political parties in the country. The major opposition party, the Conservatives, until the 1940s had consistently held to the principle of retaining grammar schools and ensuring the independence of the public schools which they contended had an important contribution to make to the supply of first-rate talent and leadership and, naturally, they favoured a segregated secondary school system (55).

However, in opposition, the Conservatives strongly opposed the comprehensive idea all along and when they were

elected to office in 1951, they refused to close grammar schools existing beside comprehensive schools within certain L.E.A.s, but they continued the previous Labour government's policy of cautious experiment.

Miller presumes that the steadying influence of the permanent officials at the Ministry, at that time, tended to offset the effects of the extremist elements of both parties. Even the Conservative Conference in 1965 acknowledged that comprehensive schools had an important part to play (56).

What produced renewed Conservative opposition to comprehensive organisation was Circular 10/65 which implied the demise of the grammar school which had been one of the persistent features of English education: but more about this circular is in a later section dealing with official laws and regulations concerning the reorganisation of English comprehensive school.

Indeed, the policy of comprehensivisation has also been supported by educationists and psychologists who argue for equality of access to a common school. Some educationists maintain that offering a choice of different types of schools has shown more clearly the effect of social class influences on the input and output of these schools. The tripartite system limited opportunity for working class students. The statistics before the abolition of the 11+ examination showed that about 75 per cent of children were deprived at eleven of the chance to take the General Certificate of Education, to embark on higher education, or to enter the high status professions. This unfairness was compounded by the fact that the proportion of places in selective schools varied greatly from area to area. Some authorities placed only 10 per cent of children in grammar schools, some nearly 40 per cent (57).

Among psychologists in the early 1950s, some confusion began to emerge as to how reliable tests were in measuring 'innate ability' and as to the validity of tests, when it was realised that performance in them could be influenced by many factors - such as social background, previous learning experience and rate of physical and mental growth. Sociologists and other critics of selection pointed to the wide margin of error involved in their use and attacked their 'objectivity' and value in predicting future educational performance.

Linked with the philosophy of equality and social justice are views about societal prosperity.

In England, there has been a great debate about the school's role in qualifying its clients in the appropriate skills for an advanced industrial society. One aspect of the self-fulfilling prophecy notion as it related to early selection is contained in the idea that different types of schools 'feed' different occupations (58). But it is perceived by comprehensive education advocates that the occupational horizons of children in a common school will be widened, compared to those of children in tripartite schools. This school will offer more opportunities for students from the working class to obtain jobs according to their abilities and achievements. There is an awareness that the acquisition of technical skills in the widest sense will help to produce well adjusted members of society who are able to earn their living and assume full responsibility for their lives. However the English comprehensive school is envisaged as an institution which ought to provide general education and not to provide training for a specific trade or occupation compared to technical schools. A. Kazamias mentions that prior to the Second World War, the employers themselves, for the

most part, preferred general type of preparation for employment after school rather than specific, vocational one (59).

Educationists also held different views about the comprehensive school's role in widening children's occupational horizons. It has been said that for the ordinary child transition from school to work does not represent a 'choice' at all. He is at the mercy of the forces of demand and supply in the labour market; he has no more choice in the matter than any other economic commodity (60).

But J. Ford rejects this assumption. She believes the school should help the individual determine his/her entry into the labour force. Her interest is not in predicting the patterns that children's lives can be expected to take in fact, but in the subjective expectations they have for the future. She is less concerned with the real 'empirical' world of the future than with the perceptual world of the present, because it is real now for the children concerned. It has been argued recently, that many occupational skills required for certain professions at present in technology. Therefore certain efforts should be directed by schools to develop the alternative skills that will be needed in future (61).

As for laws and regulations relating to secondary education and in particular the comprehensive secondary schools, the Education Act of 1944 marked a 'climax' in the development of secondary education which began in 1902. It made statutory most of the principles and proposals of the Hadow (1926), Spens (1938), Norwood Committee (1944) Reports and the White Paper on Educational Reconstruction (1943).

The Hadow Committee was the first body to promulgate the principle of secondary education for all and the view that

elementary and secondary education were two successive stages in a continuous process. The Hadow Report did not reject selection and the allocation of children to different types of institutions. Elaborating its view on the question of selection, the Report asserted, "selection by differentiation takes the place of selection by elimination" (62). The Report flatly rejected the idea that the role of any secondary school should be training for a specific trade or occupation (63).

The 1944 Education Act charged the Minister of Education, the Local Educational Authorities and the parents with the duty of 'promoting' and 'providing' a national comprehensive system of education according to different ages, abilities and aptitudes of the students. This Act, however, did not enforce the policy of comprehensive schools on a nationwide scale. The Act, while prescribing free compulsory secondary education to all children,did not lay down how the schools should be organised.

Therefore, Local Educational Authorities, initiated the setting up of comprehensive schools in their own areas between 1944-1951, and adopted different kinds of structural patterns. Experiments with comprehensive schools were in fact implemented in areas which posed few threats to existing grammar schools or entrenched interests, and involved new towns and estates and war-damaged cities where the necessity to undertake large-scale rebuilding already existed.

In 1964 there was a government declaration of policy in favour of a universal pattern of comprehensive secondary education, and in July 1965 the Department of Education and Science (DES) issued Circular 10/65, declaring that the Government was to end selection. The Circular listed six main forms

of organisation, although not all of them met the general comprehensive school's criteria. The most common type of organisation is the 'orthodox' comprehensive school which caters for all students between the age of eleven and eighteen. In other types, the age range is limited and pupils may attend junior high or middle schools to thirteen or fourteen, then move to senior schools. If the transfer is at sixteen the senior school may be a sixth form college. Other variations include schools for all pupils up to thirteen or fourteen and then the transfer of some pupils to senior schools or a choice at this age between senior schools which run examination courses to sixteen or eighteen and those which do not. There is no unified system or specific form requested by the central authority. Some educational authorities operate two or more of the above systems side by side, offering a choice to some children. Many have introduced comprehensive or partly comprehensive systems, but also take up places in direct grant, and/or maintained grammar schools within or outside their own area.

Later, Circular 10/66 declared that no funds would be available for secondary building projects other than those compatible with the reorganisation criteria mentioned in Circular 10/65 (64).

The Local Education Authorities did not respond equally to government policy. M. Pattison points out that while many LEAs willingly accepted reorganisation in the mid 1960s, that period also marked the beginning of resistance to government policy. Several authorities delayed, obstructed or completely rejected reforms. He justifies their reaction as a consequence of the form which government policy took, and believes that the government's decision to use Circular 10/65 to enforce its policy was crucial in the build-up of resistance by local authorities (65).

Four years after Circular 10/65, the DES Report (1970) showed that there were approximately twenty-two LEAs with no reorganisation scheme acceptable to the Labour Government and many more with plans covering only part of the authority, or with plans not due to be implemented in the foreseeable future. Others had formally declined to do so, ever (66).

Despite the opposition to comprehensive policy the 1960s marked the high point of support for reorganisation of secondary education by many Local Education Authorities. S. Jenkins states that during that period, schemes for comprehensive reorganisation had either been implemented or approved for implementation by the DES for 100 of the 162 Local Education Authorities. Of these about 70 schemes were for the whole or major part of an area of an LEA, the remainder were for only a part while the full plan was being worked out. A further 22 schemes were actually under consideration by the DES and approved could be expected. He adds that 23 LEAs had not yet submitted schemes. Only 12 schemes had been rejected by the DES as incompatible with comprehensive principles and just four authorities had refused to submit schemes at all (67).

To sum up, comprehensive reorganisation policy has achieved only partial success because it depends on who is in power, the way the government's circulars are interpreted by the LEAs and individual school response to the concept of reorganisation. The emerging institutional pattern of the English comprehensive school and the principles of comprehensivisation as put into practice within the English context are discussed in the following section.

2.3.2 The Institutional Pattern

The English comprehensive school is the secondary school which aims to provide all the secondary educational facilities needed by the children of a given area, but without being organised in a clearly defined site.

Connection with what has been stated previously about the comprehensive school's ideology, a working party of educationists identified the following objectives for this school:

- to eliminate separation in post-primary education by gathering pupils of the whole ability range in one school so that by their association pupils may benefit from each other, and that easy readjustment in grouping and in subjects studied may be made as pupils themselves change and develop;
- to collect pupils representing a cross-section of society in one school, so that academic and social standardisation may be achieved: an integrated school society and a gradual contribution to an integrated community beyond the school may be developed out of this amalgamation of varying abilities and social environment;
- to concentrate teachers, accommodation and equipment so that pupils of all ability groups may be offered a wide variety of educational opportunity and that scarce resources may be used economically (68)

The movement from a tripartite to a comprehensive organisation of secondary education was seen differently by Ford. She believed that it would cause:

- a greater development of talent;
- a greater equality of opportunity for those with equal talent;

- the widening of children's occupational horizons;
- a relative decline in the social interaction in school which normally take place within the boundaries of anticipated occupational categories and a relative increase in interaction across such categories (69)

These objectives, in fact, make manifest the concepts of integration in education, equality of access of educational opportunities, utilisation of educational resources in addition to preparing students for work.

So how does the internal organisation of the school contribute to achieve these objectives?

2.3.2.1 Internal Organisation

The ideal internal organisation of the English comprehensive school is based on differentiation and calls for mixed ability grouping at all stages. However, there is a difference between what ought to happen and what is happening inside the comprehensive school.

The arrangement of teaching groups in the schools is very variegated. Unstreaming or total mixed ability grouping has not been totally achieved. In general, different kinds of grouping are used in the comprehensive school.

Streaming is used to channel the pupils in any given year of a school into classes of pupils of equal ability and to teach all or most subjects to these classes, while setting is a more refined process where pupils are grouped into homogeneous classes based upon ability in one given subject.

The supporters of mixed ability groups condemn these forms of streaming. They believe that the practice is against the comprehensive school's objectives. They believe that, for

instance, streaming produces errors of allocation, just as selection for different types of school does. The social development of children of average and below average ability is affected. E. Halsall referred to work by C.J. Willig which confirms this observation. Willig noted that social interaction, adjustment and attitudes were better in unstreamed classes than in streamed ones. Usually there is only limited transfer between various streams and this takes place mostly from the more able to the less able streams (70).

However, in a National Foundation for Education Research Study, 1974, it was found that streaming throughout the ability range was practised by 40 per cent of the comprehensive schools in the first year, 50 per cent in the second year and third years and 34 per cent in the fourth (71).

S.E. Gunn states that in large comprehensive schools the most common pattern is a broad banding to be achieved sometimes in the first years and sometimes later, with the possibility of setting within each band, usually for a sequence or structure of subjects, such as foreign languages, mathematics or sciences (72). He adds that most teachers seem to favour, certainly by the second or third year, some form of streaming or setting which produces classes of relatively homogeneous ability (73).

2.3.3 Evaluation

The analysis of the ideology, principles and organisational patterns of the English comprehensive school shows that there are differences of opinion regarding its value as an educational institution.

In general there is a great controversy concerning the three basic ideal characteristics of a typical comprehensive

school - non-selective, co-educational and neighbourhood school - within the English context, and there is a great difference of opinion on how they are or should be applied. This reflects the country's ideology and long educational tradition. The opponents of the comprehensive school stress that the philosophy of the comprehensive school is idealistic: such a school cannot achieve its objectives since the country's ideology emphasises differences, the superiority of talent and elitism.

Nevertheless, propositions about comprehensive schools stated earlier have fascinated educationists since 1945 who investigated their merits and demerits. Some intended to show that goals had been genuinely achieved, others believed that action was only partially implemented. The third group believed and remain convinced that the objectives were confusing and hard to apply.

Pedley thinks the most remarkable feature of the comprehsnsive school movement is that it is in every respect a 'limited movement'; by 'limited' he refers to the interpretation of what is meant by comprehensive. For example, a local authority which objects to dividing children on a basis of attainment decides then to divide them on a basis of sex. The comprehensive school movement is limited again in its general adoption of traditional practice concerning the internal organisation and government of schools (73).

Miller's 1960 study of the achievement of comprehensive pupils, their attitudes and interests with those in separate grammar and secondary modern schools showed that comprehensive education can achieve something not gained in grammar and secondary modern schools. The morale, interests and sense of belonging are enhanced in the academically less able pupils in comprehensive

schools and this is achieved without lowering the attitudes and standards of the abler pupils. It showed that in the comprehensive school, grammar type boys and 'secondary modern' type boys were equally happy about the school they were attending. They also agreed about their school's standing in the community. Concerning other matters too, there was a similarity in the views of the comprehensive and the grammar school boys. On the other hand, the boys in the secondary modern schools, compared with those in grammar schools, thought less highly of their schools, its courses and its standing in the community.

But evidence from this study indicated that the fostering of cultural unity is not achieved merely by bringing children of all abilities together in one type of school; complete cultural unity is not by any means an inevitable outcome of comprehensive secondary education. Miller's study did not provide evidence that the comprehensive secondary school in comparison with the segregated secondary schools created a better climate for the eradication of racial and religious discrimination, nor that this discrimination was due more to social and home conditions rather than to the school environment (74).

In 1970 T.G. Monk's survey of comprehensive schools and their organisation revealed that they adapted streaming and banding at an early stage with little opportunity for transfer, this produced a bipartite selection system within one school. The ability grouping (streams, bands or subject sets) was generally imprecise because there was considerable overlep between ability and social class. Comprehensive schools in his sample did not receive the expected proportions of the more able pupils: only 15 per cent of the 45 schools had 15 per cent or more of

their intake of pupils in the top 20 per cent of the national population with regard to attaniment and ability (75). In fact, parental choice played an important role. Parents have the right to send their children to schools they, the parents, wish (in certain circumstances). The catchment areas might be affected by population distribution. If an area is working class it means that the majority of pupils will be from that class while the percentage of children of middle class origin will be very low. Therefore the courses offered in this school will be oriented towards non-professional employment and apprenticeships rather than towards the professions and, further, will not be much concerned with college and university entrance.

The Black Papers, published between 1969-1977, criticised the education system in general and, in particular, progressive methods of teaching, comprehensive schools, private education and students' revolts. Their editors C.B. Cox and A.E. Dyson, attacked the ideology of comprehensive schools and education in general (76).

A. Maude in his paper 'The Egalitarian Threat', contended that the most serious danger facing England at that time was the threat to the equality of education at all levels. The motivaing force behind the threat, he thought, was the ideology of egalitarianism. He claimed that this ideology destroyed or 'transmogrified' those schools (grammar schools) which made special efforts to bring out the best in talented children (77).

M. Hinton believes that English comprehensive schools are what history has made them. Now, as in the past, they socialise children according to their sense of what is required of them by the community. They are intensely conscious of the individual, though what would a century ago have been called a

concern for a child's moral soul is now called a concern for his personal development. He adds that, now even more than in the past, English schools are autonomous in a way unparalleled elsewhere, each comprehensive school very much a creation of the educational philosophy of its staff (78).

To sum up, the English ideal model of comprehensive school is based,by and large, on the socialist ideology. But English national ideology also recognises inherent differences of talent and elitism. It has not been possible to incorporate the opposite concepts of equality and excellence within the English comprehensive school. Therefore, the institutional pattern and the internal organisation that have emerged within the English model have not been without controversies. Its critics point out that the English comprehensive school systems (a) limits integration among students of different abilities; (b) does not bridge the gap between different social classes; (c) does not bring about an effective integration between academic and vocational studies and finally (d) that it is not a model institution which functions to prepare and qualify the young for the world of work after school leaving age.

It seems that there is no unanimous agreement on its objectives among those who favour comprehensive school. Some favour child-centred education; others prefer societal-centred education.

In general, within the English context, there is an agreement on some of the comprehensive school's fundamental principles and values. These are summed up as below:

(1) this school is regarded as the natural way for a democracy to order the post-primary school of a 'given area' and an essential institution for the

development of a truly democratic society;

(2) it promotes mutual regard and understanding between persons of different kinds and ability, social class origin and gender (79).

But there is less agreement on objectives of secondary education which are totally based on child-centred education. And the least agreement is on the introduction of comprehensive schools nationwide. The opponents prefer setting up appropriate secondary schools catering for different needs, interests and abilities.

2.4 The United States of America

2.4.1 Ideological Roote of the American Comprehensive High School

The Americans have always had to explore new ideas and develop new systems in order to solve their peculiar problems and to satisfy the demands of their pluralistic society.

In education too, whereas the Swedes have been influenced by the ideology of socialism and the English by their traditions of freedom of choice at the grass roots level, the American reformers have been guided by the philosophy of pragmatism. This philosophy was first developed by Charles S. Peirce (1839-1914), but its most famous exponents have been William James (1842-1910), John Dewey (1859-1952) and George H. Mead (1863-1931). I.L. Kandel, in his article 'Philosophical Theories of American Education" explains that pragmatism rejects any metaphysical approach, idealism, absolute or permanent values of any kind. The two focal points, Kandel explains, are 'insistence on scientific methods in thinking and definition of knowledge and truth in terms of the consequences of thinking,

experience or experiment" (80).

For Dewey who was the celebrated articulator of this philosophy and an advocator of progressive education based on it, pragmatism is both a philosophy and a method. Therefore, he preferred to call it 'instrumentalism' or 'experimentalism' to indicate his concern with methodology. The essence of this philosophy of education is summarised by Dewey in his book Democracy and Education.

The raison d'etre of pragmatism was the theory of evolution which even considered the human mind in its evolutionary role as a tool of adjustment rather than a thing in itself. Dewey strongly believed that knowledge is power and that education should be a problem-solving exercise and training,

> "Philosophy of education", he contends, "is not an external application of ready-made ideas to a system or practice which has a radically different origin and purpose of the problem; it is only an explicit formulation of right mental and moral attitudes in respect to the difficulties of contemporary social life." (81)

In general, pragmatic theory of education directs attention to the child as the centre of the educational process, considers education as life in miniature and not merely a preparation for life, emphasises learning by doing and upholds the ideals of democracy by promoting participation by children in school life.

Dewey's pragmatism was therefore a revolutionary movement which challenged all traditional concepts of education. Dewey criticised the schools of his time for discouraging active investigation and intelligent activities. He argued that "they perpetuated the errors of the past and contribute to the cult of authoritarianism. They thus created dependent rather than autonomous human beings" (82).

Traditionalism has reasserted itself in one form or another in the American education and today, there are pro-pragmatic and anti-pragmatic educationists, yet no other concept has symbolised the ideal-typical bases of a changing scientific American society, according to Holmes, as Dewey's pragmatism in education (83).

According to the progressive liberal reformers and advocates of pragmatism, schools must fulfill at least the following functions:

(a) they must help to integrate youth into the various occupational, political and other adult roles;

(b) they should help to promote social equality by equalising economic extremes;

(c) they should be concerned with the full development of the moral, cognitive and the aesthetic for the fulfillment of the individual (84).

S. Bowles and H. Gintis call these functions - integrative, egalitarian and the developmental functions of education. They refer to Dewey's argument that these functions must be related to each other. They think that the main problem concerning these functions is that the school cannot really promote human development and social equality at the same level. They claim that progressive liberal reforms failed and their failure stems from the contradictory nature of the integrative, egalitarian and the developmental functions in a society governed by the institutions of corporate capitalism" (85)

The more recent liberal perspective is based on a conception of the economy as a technical system where work performance is based on technical competence. The advocates of this technocratic meritocratic view argue that inequality of

income, power and status is basically a reflection of an unequal distribution of mental, physical and other skills. According to this view, the more successful individuals are the more skilful and the more intelligent. While Dewey argues the necessary association between the three functions - integrative, egalitarian and developmental - of education in a democracy; the technocratic-meritocratic view of schooling argues only their mutual compatibility (86). The technocratic-meritocratic view of schooling sees the development of the American economy and technology requiring the increasing mental skills of the labour force as a whole. And as formal education has extended to the masses, it opens the upper levels in the job hierarchy to all with the ability and willingness to attain high mental skills. Hence, the increasing economic importance of mental skills enhance the power of a fundamentally egalitarian school system to equalise economic opportunity (87). Therefore, the egalitarianism of schooling is complemented by the meritocratic orientation of industrial society. And since, ability is fairly equally distributed across social classes, and since actual achievement is the criterion for access to occupational roles, this view emphasises that whatever social-class based differences exist in an individual, 'natural' aspirations to social status are minimised by the competitive orientation of schooling, therefore expanding education represents a potent instrument toward efficient and equitable distribution of jobs, income and status (88). But if inequalities remain at the end of this process, they must simply be attributed to inevitable human differences in intellectual capacities or pattern of free choice (89).

However, the progressive liberal and technocratic-meritocratic views concerning educational reforms have found their

way into the American comprehensive school. They do go along with American convictions and interpretations of equality. The Americans' concept of equality does not imply that men are equal in all respects. According to J. Gardner, the fundamental view of equality is that all men are equally worthy of the state's care and concern. Further, men should be equal in enjoyment of certain familiar legal, civil and political rights. But men are unequal in their native capacities and motivations and hence in their attainments. So the most widely accepted means of dealing with the problem of equality has been to assert equality of opportunity (90).

The American conception of equality of opportunity within education is that it recognises differences in achievement and direct educators' attention to cultivate the ideal of excellence while retaining the moral values of equality (91). According to this interpretation of equality of opportunity, educational institutions are expected to achieve the goal of equal educational opportunity. On the other hand, they can preserve the freedom which counts for so much in terms of individual aspirations.

In terms of American manpower development and societal prosperity, there is a general belief that the school is supposed to help through the 'sorting' and training of the labour-force. J. Spring, explains 'sorting' as the identification of individual abilities and interests, and the determination of the best type of individual training for future employment (92).

Since the 1940s, there has been a mounting criticism in the USA concerning American education's efficiency to meet the nation's need of adequate skilled manpower at all levels. The progressive education movement, between the World Wars, had

essayed mainly to liberalise, humanise and reorganise the American high school. Most efforts had been directed to child-centred education while education for the societal prosperity was almost neglected. However, certain events taking place outside American, e.g. the Russian lead in space technology (Sputnik) made a strong impact upon the American educational policy. Legislation was introduced to commit the educational system to rapid technological progress and manpower development.

Tracing the background of the new manpower development policy in the 1960s, A.C. Bolino considers the failure of the Employment Act of 1946, and the constantly growing numbers of 18 year old school leavers who were entering the labour force without adequate technical training were important factors that forced this change of educational policy (93).

Among the laws to reflect the new approach to manpower was the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961, which was designed to help areas of low economic development. But the most important piece of legislation was the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (MDTA), which recognised that there was a crucial need for more and better trained personnel in many important occupations, especially in the sub-professional, technical and crafts categories, and the law emphasised the school's role in respect of manpower development.

Maximum efforts to link school with work conditions extend beyond the school. The major Federal response to the problem of youth employment and their education concentrates on passing legislation including several programmes designed to satisfy different group needs, such as unemployed youth, disadvantaged youth and prospective school leavers.

The 1965 Elementary and Secondary Act (P.L. 89.10)

provided large-scale direct federal aid to elementary and secondary schools. The act specifically prohibited direct Federal control of education or Catholic schools. It authorised aid to children attending parochial schools, but placed control of the expenditure with the public school agencies. The act especially authorised grants for elementary and secondary school programmes for children of low-income families. It also authorised expenditure on school library resources, textbooks and other instructional materials for schools and supplementary education centres and services, strengthening of state education agencies, and educational research training (94). The most important section of the act was Title I which stressed allocation of 78 per cent of the total $1.25 billion Federal educational aid to provide improved educational programmes for children designated as educationally deprived (95). The Youth Employment Act of 1977 supports different kinds of programmes for these different categories. For example, the Youth Employment Training programme is designed to improve the employability of disadvantaged young people, those identified as having 'the most difficult employment problems'. The programme contains a mixture of apprenticeships, job sampling and training. This programme also puts greater emphasis on vocational training than on custodial aspects (96).

However, though these programmes have not been successful nationwide, they do provide opportunities to experiment with new proposals to solve youth unemployment, and to provide school leavers with occupational skills demanded in American society.

2.4.2 The Institutional Patterns

To understand the comprehensive high school structure, it is worth drawing a general picture about the total structure of

the educational system in America.

The decentralisation of educational policy-making in fifty separate states' system has brought about a great variety of structural patterns in secondary schools in the United States (Figure No.5). Many local school districts have now reorganised the structure and adopted new patterns of organisation including but not limited to 6.6, 7.5, 6.3.3, 6.4.4, 5.3.4, 5.2.4, 5.3.3, 7.2.3, 7.3.2, 8.2.2. (97).

The first high schools were almost without exception organised on the basis of the grades 9, 10, 11, 12 to continue where the 8-grade elementary or grammar school ended. This organisation of high school grades has become known as the traditional 4-year high school in an 8-4 system. By the 1920s, some high schools were organised to recognise the seventh and eighth grades as a part of the high school. This approach has become identified as the 6-year or junior-senior high school (6-6). D.O. Bush states that in practice, the popularity of the 6-year high school is greatest in the smaller communities because it affords a means of improving the quality of instruction with limited staff, facilities and enrolment. Except in states where state laws discourage or complicate the high school organisation because of the district organisation, the separate junior high (grades 7,8,9) and senior high (grades 10, 11, 12) organisation has been adopted particularly in the larger population centres (98).

When educators refer today to a high school without using modifiers, they may be referring to a regular four-year high school, a three-year senior high school or the senior segment of a junior-senior high school.

The American high schools have been typified by periods as traditional, progressive, community and comprehensive (See

Figure No. 6 for the basic characteristics of each as changes have taken place.)

In general, the major proposed reforms of the American high school concentrate on the curriculum organisation and content rather than structure especially after the 1920s.

In the 1940s, the general criticism of the educational system did not exclude the high school because its curriculum organisation was in contradiction to its original philosophy which promised to offer educational experience of a more general nature to all youth. Most of the criticism came from advocates of social efficiency rather than from those who may have been identified with the conventional interpretation of progressive education as freedom for the child.

Originally, the American high school had a three-fold purpose; its function was in part utilitarian, to teach skills and tools knowledge; partly descriptive - to acquaint young people with facts of their world, history and culture; and thirdly, to train them in the ethical principles which were considered to give the right guidance for personal and communal life (99).

J. Hemming commented on the high school, pointing out that,

> "Things did not work out as planned. It is one thing to make a declaration of purpose, and very important and necessary thing too - but it is quite another to work that purpose out in terms of subjects, curricula, text-books, teaching methods and the social pattern and personal relations of the school communities - In fact, the academic purpose of the old Latin Grammar school survived the changes in the educational system and was soon dominating all other purposes." (100)

The Eight-Year Study (1932-1940) on The American High School covered 2,000 pupils in thirty senior high schools. The Study examined the following four issues:

(1) how to free secondary education from the rigidity of a subject-bound curriculum without sacrificing the good and wholly desirable standard of attainment that had been achieved in the past;

(2) how to impart a higher social content to the curriculum;

(3) how to pattern the time-table and motivate the young people once the rigid framework of a specialised examination course had given way to something more flexible;

(4) what was the best preliminary training to give to those students who would be proceeding to universities or other places of higher education (101).

This eight-year experiment was launched because it was found that the reconstruction of secondary education was seriously blocked by the college entrance requirements and the original objectives of the American high schools, as stated earlier, had been almost neglected. Therefore this 'study group' was examined in relation to its counterpart, the 'comparison group' under the following headings: intellectual competence, philosophy of life, character traits, emotional balance, social fitness, sensitivity to social problems and physical fitness (102). The results of all this experiment showed that the students in this study group were slightly ahead of their comparison group in English, humanities, social studies, biology, physics, mathematics and were slightly behind in foreign languages. Those results were reflected in the proportion of students winning academic honours also (103). In general the study directed the American educationists' attention to the fact that rigid, 'bookish' curricula ought to be replaced by programmes which deal with matters of vital concern to the students' and society's needs.

Well known criticisms of American high schools were made by J.B. Conant in the early post-war period. His criticisms concentrated on both academic offerings and organisational concepts in the public high school.

In his first study of 103 schools in 26 states in the 1950s, he found only eight high schools which, in his judgement were satisfactorily fulfilling the three main objectives of the American comprehensive high school. Most schools imposed a restricted specialist curriculum. The academically talented students were not sufficiently challenged. Vocational programmes were not valued parallel to academic oriented programmes (104).

According to him, the proposed alternative solution to overcome these problems is the introduction of new curricula into the comprehensive school. He defines the American Comprehensive school as a school whose programmes correspond to the educational needs of all the youth of the community (105). He adds that,

> "it offers, under one administration and under one roof (or series of roofs), secondary education for almost all the high school age children of a single town or neighbourhood. It is responsible for providing good and appropriate education, both academic and vocational, for all students within a democratic environment, which the American people believe serves the principles they cherish." (106)

Conant submits that the essence of a comprehensive school lies in the principles of 'electives' to solve the problem of a large number of young people who are either unwilling or unable to do the amount of work that is implicit in a programme for the academically talented. He believes that the prime advantage of a comprehensive school over a selective school is the opportunity provided for students from different backgrounds to learn how to get on with one another. He believes that it is important

for the future of American democracy to have as close a relationship as possible in high school between the future professional man, the future craftsman, the future manager of industry and the future engineer (107).

Conant draws up the following three main objectives of the American comprehensive school:

- to provide a general education for all future citizens;
- to provide good elective programmes for those who wish to use their acquired skills immediately on graduation;
- to provide satisfactory progrmmes for those whose vocations will depend on their subsequent education in a college or university (108).

He draws up a list of fifteen items as criteria for determining whether or not comprehensive education in any fundamental sense occurs in a given school. These criteria are listed in Appendix No. 1.

He recommends that wherever possible small high schools should be eliminated, based on his assumption that such schools are not in a position to provide a satisfactory education for any particular group of their students - the academically oriented, the vocationally oriented or the slow learner. A small comprehensive school, according to him, cannot by its very nature offer a comprehensive curriculum. Furthermore, such schools use the time and efforts of administrators, teachers and specialists uneconomically (109).

The American comprehensive high school provides different streams or tracks for students with different abilities, talents, educational and vocational intentions, or, as Conant has urged, 'grouping by ability, subject by subject' (110).

Recently, streaming and tracking have been criticised. M. Trow argues that these arrangements ignore the effects of the students on one another, and of the students 'mix' on the intellectual climate of the school. In a school where academically motivated students are in a minority, they cannot help but be affected by the predominantly anti-intellectual values of the majority. Similarly, where the low-achieving terminal students are in the minority, it is hard for them not to be defined as second-class students by other students and teachers (111).

However, in an attempt to overcome the more undesirable characteristics of large schools and streaming and tracking arrangements, many school districts have been examining the concept of the school-within-a-school or the'house plan organisation'. They have been attempting a variety of grouping procedures which will be discussed in the following chapter.

2.4.3 Evaluation

Generally speaking, the ideal principles of the American comprehensive high school do coincide, to some extent, with its English and Swedish counterparts, but not all its ideals have been achieved. For example, Conant's study of student opportunities to study a variety of subjects (1967)* revealed many drawbacks. It indicated considerable differences in many aspects of school life and programmes. There were also many variations among the states. He concluded that only a few schools could be regarded as highly satisfactory in terms of applying the comprehensive school principles.

The 1972-73 National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education in the U.S.A. criticised the American high schools. The Commission Report by B.F. Brown visualised the

* J.B.Conant's study took place in 1967 and covered 18,500 comprehensive high school of medium size, it was financec by the National Association of Secondary School Principles in the U.S.A.

American high school as an institution which served the needs of society, and thus the purpose of education must be modified as society changes. If educational goals are to be of practical value they cannot clash with the realities of a changing economic and social situation (112). The Committee took the position that if the reforms and programmes described in their report were to be of a practical value, goals must be developed in a participatory way, involving students, parents, and the general citizenry, as well as educators. The report emphasised that if educational goals are to be realised they must form a frame of reference for students' objectives, to help them establish personal goals and objectives and enable them to measure their individual progress (113).

The Commission saw the goals of secondary education differently from Conant, viewing them as the long-range results which society expects its secondary schools to accomplish. They were divided into categories of 'content' goals and 'process' goals. The content goals are the general skills that students must acquire if they are to function at a level that is both personally and socially rewarding, while process goals are the individual abilities and attitudes which are influenced by the procedures, environment and activities of the school. The responsibility for achieving them rests with teachers, administrators, school board members, parents and, to a very considerable degree, the students themselves. A graphic comparison of the differences between the 1918 Seven Cardinal Principles and the 1973 Goals for Secondary Education appears as Appendix No. 2.

A United States Office of Education National Panel on High School and Adolescent Education (1975) was also given the task of preparing a report on the status of secondary education

and identifying and analysing the problems of adolescent education in American society. The Panel's Report by J.H. Martin (for the U.S. Office of Education) criticised many high school practices.

The Panel observed that there are major failures in the secondary schools in meeting the demands of adolescent growth and development which result in frequent unrest and racial conflicts, a growing drug problem, inadequate preparation for work or for higher education, alienation and lack of motivation.

Little attempt, the Panel said, was being made to analyse these problems and their causes, and still less effort was being made to solve them. The USOE Panel recommended that ideas that were unworkable in practice and concepts of the comprehensive high school that proved inadequate should be replaced with the more practical goal of providing comprehensive education through a variety of means, including but not limited to school. In the view of the Panel, the large comprehensive high school has failed to provide true breadth of courses, either because 'comprehensiveness' is applied in only one area (college, preparation) or because courses which are supposedly offered to broaden student options really attract only students with a negative self-image that has been imposed on them by school structures and policies. The American comprehensive high school never really integrated young people from different backgrounds as a result of expansion of parent and student choice. The Panel decided that the concept of the American comprehensive high school had imposed on that one institution 'all the variations in programmes and services required to serve the needs of an extraordinary diverse population'. The result, they felt, was oversized institutions increasingly difficult to manage, arti-

ficially held to narrow pedagogic practices, overburdened with custodial responsibility, and isolated from the community (114).

Although large comprehensive high schools permit many benefits, they are not without fault. S. Shimshon quotes R.G. Barker and P.V. Gump in their study of extra-curricular activities in large comprehensive schools: they found that pupils on average took less part in voluntary pursuits though they have more opportunities to specialise (115).

Many parents, teachers and administrators also criticised the large comprehensive high school. Shimshon also refers to R.G. Corwin's study of 28 schools located in and around Ohio. This shows that there are correlations between school size, organisational characteristics, such as hierarchy, standardisation, complexity and staff turnover. The study revealed that increasing size tends to be accompanied by increasing standardisation (the degree to which procedures within the school are fixed by rules). Students in schools with high standardisation are likely to suffer less variability in instruction or grading but are also less likely to be treated personally or to experience education that is meaningful to their individual needs. The loss of identity and security is notorious in large secondary schools (116).

The intellectual and academic standards were also criticised by R.K. Bent and others. They claimed that even the academically upper 20 per cent of students in comprehensive schools were being taught to conform to the college requirements without having to pursue certain basic courses. This is attributed to the philosophy of 'life adjustment education' which stresses social aims and neglects the intellection aspects (117).

The 'back-to-basics' trend, which dates from the early

1970s, sparked off a shift to more traditional requirements in secondary schools. Public concern about what caused the decline in Scholastic Aptitude Test scores fuelled some of this change. The 'competency testing' movement, while aimed primarily at elementary level studies, added another pervasive dimension (118).

V. Til argues that even principles such as equality of educational opportunities, integration among different social classes, segregation between sexes have not been achieved. He thinks that the comprehensive high school is limited in many ways by the nature of the community itself. He contends that if the community happens to be all white Christian and upper middle class, it would not allow the school to play the integrating function (119).

There are criticisms also concerning vocational education and the comprehensive schools' role in terms of qualifying its graduates with skills needed in the labour market. Conant considered vocational education as an integral part of the comprehensive high school programme but he advocated the introduction of elective vocational programmes rather than the required ones (120). His proposals were planned according to national objectives; they were not part of the requirements for all students.

Most criticisms were high-lighted in the National Commission Report, 1972-73, referred to earlier. The Report pointed out that in the American system of secondary education 'work' is an obscene four letter word: far too many teachers and principals are not even sure it has a redeeming social value outside the academic professions (121). The Commission avowed that suitable job placement must be an integral part of 'careers

education' programmes for students planning to enter the labour force upon leaving school. According to the Commission, a national objective was of great importance to the upgrading and expansion of occupational education for all, until all secondary school students who wish to do so can leave high school equipped with marketable skills, whether or not they plan to continue their education (122).

T.R. Sizer has identified the following seven trends in most of the recent American statements about educational reforms:

(1) there must be a return to 'the basics';

(2) the connection between school and the economy needs strengthening;

(3) adults must regain authority in the high schools and students should have less freedom than they may have had in the 1960s;

(4) the principal agent of reform should be state government;

(5) there should be various kinds of schools, and families should be able to choose the ones their children will attend;

(6) schools and students should be judged on the bases of measurable results of teaching and learning;

(7) the cost of schools must be reduced. (123)

To conclude this section, the American comprehensive high school reflects the American belief that the unity of American life can be served by having the majority of American youth attend one school together so that they may acquire common values and understanding. It is designed to prevent divisions in society along lines of social class, economic privileges,

religious conflicts or intellectual elitism. It aims at offering equal educational opportunities for all children and catering for individual aspirations, abilities and occupational interests.

In America, revolutions in the economic structure and progress in technology have also been accompanied by comparable educational transformation in contrast to England where economic changes have not facilitated comparable educational transformation. Within the American context, these economic and occupational changes have, to a large extent, affected the comprehensive high school.

However, as the comprehensive schools offer non-academic programmes on an elective basis, therefore full integration between vocational and academic education has not been achieved and not all youth are exposed to vocational education regardless of their future aspirations. Again, the American comprehensive high school has not yet been able to help those whose education is terminated at this stage. In other words, their educational experience is not preparing them for the world of work.

It is also obvious that this school has not been able to integrate students from different social backgrounds. Variations between suburban and urban area schools still persist.

As in England, some of these problems are a reflection of the American policy of decentralisation. While schooling is, constitutionally, a state obligation, in most of the country, the power to implement policies, has long resided in local authorities. The decentralisation of the educational system results in the diversification of school organisation.

Regardless, however, of its drawbacks, the achievement of the American comprehensive high school models seems to outweigh its weaknesses. It certainly offers a wide range of options at the secondary level for the youth in a pluralistic society.

Conclusion

To sum up, within the context of Sweden, England and the U.S.A. the structure and organisation of comprehensive schools clearly reflects the political ideology and the educational philosophy that prevails in each society. As a matter of fact, there is general agreement among comprehensive education's advocates that such a system can achieve principles such as equality of educational opportunities, ensure integration among different social classes, eliminate segregation between sexes, and contribute to satisfy manpower needs. But different procedures have been used to implement these ideal objectives.

In terms of reorganisation, attention in Sweden is being paid to both structure and curricula organisation; while in the U.S.A. the major concern has been on curriculum organisation rather than structure. Most of the educational reforms, since the 1920s, have largely concentrated on the content. In England, in contrast with the U.S.A., considerable attention of reforms is being paid to organisational structure.

Indeed, there are certain achievements in all the three models that could gainfully be borrowed in the Gulf Arab region. The centralised policy of Sweden and its school organisation have some lessons for the Gulf states where the educational systems also follow a centralised system of control. The English and the American models offer lessons for a democratic concept of unity amidst diversities and the decentralised pattern of school structure.

However, a study of the ideological bases of the growth of comprehensive education systems, their structural and organisational aspects is only a partial clue to the understanding of the functioning of comprehensive secondary schools in these countries. In order to comprehend their full impact and their role in introducing the youth to technical and vocational education and practical as against the theoretical studies, it will be necessary to look into their curriculum principles and organisations. This will be done in the next chapter.

Chapter Two

References and Notes

(1) Husen , T., Problems of Differentiation in Swedish Compulsory Schooling, Institute of Educational Research, University of Stockholm, Stockholm, 1965, p. 62.

(2) Pidgeon, A.D., "Conceptualising the Goals of Educational Institutions", in, Ingenkamp, K., Methods for the Evaluation of Comprehensive Schools, Verlag Julis Beltz, Weinheim, Berlin, 1969, p. 10.

(3) Ibid., p. 9.

(4) The dominant political party in Sweden is the Social Democratic Party founded in 1889. Between 1932-1976 - for forty-four years the Social Democratic Party have been in power, practically without interruption, excepting brief periods of their coalition with other parties. Marklund, S., The Democratisation of Education in Sweden - A Unesco Case Study, Institute of International Education, University of Stockholm, Sweden, 1980, p. 6.

(5) Ibid., p. 6.

(6) Huntford, R., The New Totalitarians, Allen Lane, A Division of Penguin Books Ltd., London, 1975, p. 10.

(7) Paulston, R.G., Educational Change in Sweden: Planning and Accepting the Comprehensive School Reforms, Teachers' College Press, Columbia University, New York, 1968, p.145.

(8) Marklund, S., The Democratisation of Education in Sweden - A Unesco Case Study, op.cit., p.7.

(9) Husen, T., Problems in Differentiation in Swedish Compulsory Schooling, op.cit., p. 55.

(10) Husen , T., Problems of Differentiation in Swedish Compulsory Schooling, op.cit., p. 34.

(11) Huntford, R., The New Totalitarians, op.cit., p. 66.

(12) Paulston, R.G., Educational Change in Sweden, op.cit., p. 70.

(13) Marklund, S., The Democratisation of Education in Sweden, op.cit., p. 26.

(14) Ibid., p. 13.

(15) Ibid., p. 19.

(16) O.E.C.D., Education Reforms in Sweden, OECD, Paris, 1981, p. 81.

(17) Husen, T., Problems of Differentiation in Swedish Compulsory Schooling, op.cit., p. 52.

(18) Ibid., pp. 13,14.

(19) Marklund, S., Democratisation of Education in Sweden, op.cit., p. 38.

(20) Sohlman, A., Education, Labour Market and Human Capital Models, GOTAB, University of Stockholm, Stockholm, 1981, p. 12.

(21) Lundgren, U.P., Model Analysis of Pedagogical Processes, Department of Educational Research, Stockholm, Institute of Education, GOTAB, Sweden, 1977, p. 106.

(22) O.E.C.D., Education Reforms in Sweden, op.cit., p. 42.

(23) Boucher, L., Tradition and Change in Swedish Education, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1982, p. 124.

(24) Ibid., p. 127.

(25) Husen, T. and Boalt, G., Educational Research and Educational Change - The Case of Sweden, John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York, 1967, p. 31.

(26) O.E.C.D., Educational Policy and Planning Goals for Educational Policy in Sweden, O.E.C.D., Paris, 1980, p. 163.

(27) Husen, T., Problems of Differentiation in Swedish Compulsory Schooling, op.cit., p. 30.

(28) Maclure, S., Innovation in Education - Sweden, OECD, Paris, 1971, p. 15.

(29) Husen, T., Problems of Differentiation in Swedish Compulsory Schooling, op.cit., p. 15.

(30) Ibid., p. 55.

(31) In 1948, the School Commission sent out invitations to a large number of school districts to join experimental activities with the nine-year comprehensive schools.

- According to the Education Act of 1950, a Division Experimental activities was established within the Royal Board of Education. Its purpose was to supervise the experiment and prepare evaluational reports for the Royal Board of Education as well as to the Parliament.
- By the end of the 1950s only 14 per cent of the authorities were involved, covering less than a quarter of the population.
- In 1956, to solve the problem of duality, a School Preparatory Commission was set up to draw up the guidelines and detailed structure for the "Compulsory Organisationally Integrated nine-year Unit of School".

- Later the 1962 School Act was introduced and legislation was enacted making a revised form of this nine-year school universal throughout the nation.
- The diffusion of the new school model proceeded rapidly during the 1960s, leading up to its universal implementation by 1971.

(32) Boucher, L., Tradition and Change in Swedish Education, op.cit., p. 30.

(33) Ibid., p. 30.

(34) Husen, T., Problems of Differentiation in Swedish Compulsory Schools, op.cit., p. 17.

(35) Marklund, S., The Democratisation of Education in Sweden, op.cit., p. 16.

(36) Lundgren, U.P., Model Analysis of Pedagogical Processes, op.cit., p. 101.

(37) The Gymnasium introduced in 1905, had four grades and two streams (one classical, the other scientific). In 1953, a third stream was added - the modern and general stream. The three streams offered at least two branches of study. The new Gymnasium according to 1964 reform had three grades (with the exception of the four-year technical branch) and was based on the completion of the comprehensive school. As from grade 2, there were five different streams; liberal arts, social sciences, economics, natural sciences and technical.

(38) Lundgren, U.P., op.cit., p. 102.

(39) N.S.B.E., A Report on the Integrated Upper Secondary School in Sweden, N.S.B.E., Stockholm, 1979, p. 15.

(40) Heidenheimer, A.J., Major Reforms of the Swedish Education System 1950-1975, World Bank Staff Working Paper No. 290, World Bank, Washington, 1978, p. 39.

(41) Marklund, S., The Democratisation of Education in Sweden, op.cit., p. 43.

(42) Stenholm, B., Upper Secondary Education in Sweden - Experience and Prospects, The Swedish Institute, Sweden, 1976, p. 3.

(43) Marklund, S., The Democratisation of Education in Sweden, op.cit., p. 21.

(44) Ibid., p. 22.

(45) O.E.C.D., Educational Policy and Planning - Goal for Educational Policy in Sweden, op.cit., p. 162.

(46) Boucher, L., Tradition and Change in Swedish Education, op.cit., pp. 116-117.

(47) Monroe, P. (ed.), Encyclopedia of Education, Vol. V, The Macmillan Company, Canada, 1913, p. 312.

(48) Pedley, R., The Comprehensive School, C. Nicholls and Co., Ltd., U.K., 1978, p. 10.

(49) Hinton, M., Comprehensive Schools - A Christian's View, S.C.M. Press Ltd., London, 1979, p. 26.

(50) Miller, T.W.G., Values in the Comprehensive School - An Experimental Study, 1st ed. Robert Cunningham and Son Ltd., ALVA, U.K. 1961, p. 5.

(51) Kazamias, A.M., Politics, Society and Secondary Education in England, University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, U.S.A., 1966, p. 324.

(52) Ibid., pp. 266-267.

(53) Gordon, P., Selection for Secondary Education, The Woburn Press, London, 1980, p. 230.

(54) Silver, H., Equal Opportunity in Education, Methuen and Co., Ltd., London, 1975, p. 23.

(55) Miller, T.W.G., Values in the Comprehensive School, op.cit., p. 8.

(56) Ibid., pp. 12-13.

(57) Hinton, M., Comprehensive Schools: A Christian's View, op.cit., pp. 26-28.

(58) Ford, J., Social Class and the Comprehensive School, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1969, p. 13.

(59) Kazamias, A.M., Politics, Society and Secondary Education in England, op.cit., p. 289

(60) Ford, J., Social Class and the Comprehensive School, op.cit., p. 48.

(61) Ibid., p. 49.

(62) Kazamias, A.M., Politics, Society and Secondary Education in England, op.cit., p. 295.

(63) Ibid., p. 302.

(64) When the Conservative Party won the election in 1970, it immediately withdrew Circular 10/65 and replaced it with Circular 10/70, which left re-organisation decisions to the discretion of local authorities. In 1974, the Labour Party came back to power and restored Circular 10/65. In addition, the Labour Government gave firm approval only to all-through schools (of 11-18 age range) and to two-tiered arrangements where all pupils transferred at thirteen or fourteen. Pedley,R and Dent, H.C., Comprehensive Schools Today - An Interim Survey, Councils and Education Press, Ltd.. p. 29.

(65) Pattison, M., "Intergovernmental Relations and the Limitations of Central Control: Reconstructing the Policies of Comprehensive Education", in, Oxford Review of Education, Vol. 6, No. 1., Burgess and Son, (Abingdon) Ltd., Oxfordshire, U.K., 1980, p. 69.

(66) Ibid., pp. 69-70.

(67) Jenkins, S., Conservatives and Comprehensives, Bow Group Publications for Conservative Political Centre, London, 1968, p. 5.

(68) Monks, T.G., Comprehensive Education in Action, NFER, King Thorne and Stace Ltd., U.K., 1970, pp. 19-20.

(69) Ford, J., Social Class and the Comprehensive School, op.cit., p. 11.

(70) Halsall, E., The Comprehensive School, Pergamon Press Ltd., Oxford, 1973, p. 17.

(71) Ross, J.M., et al., A Critical Appraisal of Comprehensive Education, NFER Publishing Company Ltd., U.K., 1974, p. 41

(72) Gunn, S.E., "The Arrangement of Teaching Groups in Secondary Schools", in, Hopkins, D., Standards and the School Curriculum - Analysis and Suggestions from H.M. Inspectorate, Ward Lock Educational Computacomp Ltd., U.K., 1978, pp. 110-115.

(73) Pedley, R., The Comprehensive School, op.cit., p. 29.

(74) Miller, T.W.G., Values in the Comprehensive School, op.cit., pp. 92-83.

(75) Monks, T.G., Comprehensive Education in Action, op.cit., p. 98.

(76) Cox, C.B. and Dyson, A.E. (ed.), The Black Papers on Education, Davis-Poynter, London, 1971, p. 11.

(77) Ibid., p. 37.

(78) Hinton, M., Comprehensive Schools: A Christian's View, op.cit., p. 40.

(79) Miller, T.W.G., Values in the Comprehensive School, op.cit., pp. 17-18.

(80) Kandel, I.L., "Philosophical Theories of American Education", in, Bereday, G.Z.F., and Volpicelli, L. (ed.), Public Education in America - A New Interpretation of Purpose and Practice, Harper and Brothers Publishers, New York, 1958, p. 26.

(81) Ibid., p. 27.

(82) Mayer, F., Foundations of Education, 3rd ed., Charles E. Merrill Books Inc., U.S.A., 1965, p. 97.

(83) Holmes, B., Comparative Education - Some Considerations of Methods, op.cit., pp. 142, 161.

(84) Bowles, S. and Gintis, H., Schooling in Capitalist America - Educational Reform and the Contradictions of Economic Life, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, U.K. 1977, p. 22.

(85) Sarup, M., Marxism and Education, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1978, p. 167.

(86) Bowles, S. and Gintis, H., Schooling in Capitalist America, op.cit., pp. 22-23.

(87) Ibid., p. 23.

(88) Ibid., p. 24.

(89) Ibid., pp. 25-26.

(90) Hahu, R.O. and Bidna, D.B. (eds.), Secondary Education: Origins and Directions, The Macmillan Co., New York anc Collier Macmillan, London, Ltd., 1969, p. 320.

(91) Ibid., p. 322.

(92) Spring, J., An Introduction to Social and Political Aspects, Longman Inc., New York, 1983, p. 16.

(93) Bolino, A.C., Career Education - Contributions to Economic Growth, Praeger Publisher, New York, 1973, p. 136.

(94) O'Reilly, R.C. and Green, E.T., School Law for the Practioners, Greenwood Press, U.S.A., 1983, p. 264.

(95) Spring, J., An Introduction to Social and Political Aspects, op.cit., p. 182.

(96) Ibid., pp. 117-119.

(97) O.E.C.D., Classification of Educational Systems - Belgium, Denmark, The United States, O.E.C.D., Publications, Paris, 1972, pp. 56-58.

(98) Bush, D.O. "Secondary Education: Past, Present and Future", in, Cyphert, F.R. and Harmer, E.W. and Ricco, A.C. (eds.), Teaching in the American Secondary School - Selected Reading, McGraw Hill Book Company, New York, 1964, p. 74.

(99) Hemming, J., Teach Them to Live, Longmans and Co., Ltd., London, 1957, p. 32.

(100) Ibid., p. 33.

(101) Ibid., p. 2.

(102) Ibid., p. 101.

(103) Ibid., pp. 127-128.

(104) Conant, J.B., The Comprehensive High School Today - A First Report to Interested Citizens, 1st ed., McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc., New York, 1959, pp. 40-50.

(105) Ibid., pp. 11-12.

(106) Conant, J.B., The Comprehensive High School - A Second Report to Interested Citizens, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, 1967, p. 3.

(107) Brown, B.F., The Reform of Secondary Education: A Report to the Public and the Profession, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, 1973, pp. 10-14.

(108) Conant, J.B., 1959, p. 77.

(109) Conant, J.B., 1959, p. 77.

(110) Trow, M., "The Second Transformation of American Secondary Education", in,Karabel,J., and Halsey, A.H. (eds.), Power and Ideology in Education, Oxford University Press, New York, U.S.A., 1977 p. 114.

(111) Ibid., pp. 115-116.

(112) Brown, B.F., 1973, op.cit., p. 11.

(113) Ibid., p. 12.

(114) Ponter, J.W., The Adolescent, Other Citizens and their High Schools - The Report of Task Force 74, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, 1975, pp. 60-65.

(115) Shimshon, S., Equality of Educational Opportunity Through the Comprehensive School - A Comparative Study of Comprehensive Secondary (Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis), State University of New York at Buffalo, U.S.A., 1975, p. 88.

(116) Bent, R.K., Kronenberg, H.H. and Baardman, C.C., Principles of Secondary Education, 6th ed., McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, 1970, p. 409.

(117) Ibid., p. 88.

(118) Sizer, T.R., A Review and Comment on the National Reports - Perspectives, National Association of Secondary School Principles, Boston, Virginia, U.S.A., 1983, p. 3.

(119) Til, W.V., Secondary Education School and Community, Mifflin Co., Boston, U.S.A., 1978, p. 142.

(120) Spring, J. op.cit., 1983, p. 20.

(121) Brown, B.F., The Reform of Secondary Education, op.cit., p. 50.

(122) Ibid., p. 51.

(123) Sizer, T.R., op.cit., 1983, p. 1.

Chapter Three

COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN SWEDEN, ENGLAND AND THE U.S.A.

3.1 Introduction

The introduction of a common secondary school in the model countries and the abolition of the system of selection based on the I.Q. and public examination result at the age of eleven for a particular type of school, certainly marked a milestone in the educational reconstruction to satisfy the demands of the rapidly changing socio-economic conditions of their societies. In terms of the organisational and structural innovation, the common secondary school was also a step forward as has been explained in the previous chapter. But these changes, by themselves, were not sufficient to fulfil the aims for which the new school had been set up. Therefore, major problems arose whose solutions had to be found in the curriculum theories and practices followed in each country.

To elaborate, the basic aims of the reorganised secondary school in the three model countries are briefly reiterated below:

(1) In England, the reorganisation of secondary education as is clear from the Education Act of 1944, was to provide within a common secondary school a kind of education that would be suitable for the individual abilities of all children of the compulsory school age group.

(2) In the U.S.A., it aimed to provide, within the high school, a common type of education which would be relevant to the ability of the individual pupil and useful for their day-to-day life after school, i.e. a pragmatic type of education.

(3) While in Sweden, the introduction of the comprehensive integrated secondary school was designed to meet the societal needs and aspired to achieve social equality and economic development in accordance with socialist doctrine.

But these aims could not be fulfilled unless parallel changes were made in curriculum planning, organisation, teaching methods, evaluation, guidance and careers education as well as the various types of activities in which pupils participated at school. Structural changes were desirable but corresponding changes in the content of education were even more necessary.

However, in all the three countries, for some years, traditional curriculum theories continued to persist and traditional curriculum practices such as those characterised in the grammar school in England, the Academy in the U.S.A. and the Gymnasium in Sweden, were retained within the new type of secondary school.

Therefore, this asynchronous change was bound to give rise to problems. In order to trace the attempted solution to these problems, it is necessary to examine in more detail the fundamental concepts and principles underlying these traditional theories as they had been in operation within the secondary schools in these countries.

Of course, the criteria on which these theories had classically been based, were the nature of man, the nature of society and the nature of knowledge. For the sake of brevity, however, only the concepts of knowledge and the pedagogy based on it will be examined in order to explain why and how various academic disciplines were organised within the traditional types of secondary schools and how they were held over in the comprehensive schools.

Another important aspect which relates to the curriculum is to investigate how selection of curriculum content takes place, what kind of skills and activities are offered for an individual pupil or a group of pupils to meet their different range of abilities and future aspirations for higher education or employment.

While investigating curriculum content, attention will also be given to teaching/learning conditions, methods of teaching, principles of grouping procedures, assessment and evaluation and careers education.

Again, the teaching staff, who provide the actual academic services in the school and represent the 'technical personnel' in the case of educational organisation, they are the ones who put into practice policies proposed by different interest social groups and adopted and legilsated by Government (1). The success or failure of policies is measured, to a large extent, by staff responses and initiatives and positive educational outputs depends on their role in curriculum organisation and implementation. The effectiveness of the teachers' role in policy implementation in turn depends on the quality of their training and qualifications.

On the other hand, still more important partners in the curriculum process are the students, so it is essential in the study of comprehensive school curricula to find out if they have any role to play in determining their curriculum or if they are still considered as essentially the recipients of what has been decided for them by adults.

Indeed, to enhance the scope of comprehensivisation, it will be necessary to examine the process of democratisation throughout the participation of parents and representatives of

Three model countries - Sweden, England and the USA

various educational, social, political and economic institutions of an area in deciding what ought to be offered at school.

The researcher's intention, in studying the curriculum content in detail, is to discover the features, within each individual model, that may be useful to the Gulf Arab States under study especially the features that are related to manpower development.

The analysis of the comprehensive schools' curricula in the U.S.A. will begin with a comparison of the theoretical bases underlying them to provide guidelines about a variety of approaches to common problems.

3.2 Theoretical Considerations

3.2.1 Definition of Curriculum

The term "curriculum" has been defined differently by different educators and curriculum specialists in the West. D. Lawton, for example, identifies curriculum with the culture of a society. "Curriculum", he contends, "is a selection from culture which is everything that is man made" (2). Obviously, Lawton rejects the classical usage of the term culture as "high culture" as advocated by G.H. Bantock who sees culture as sharply divided into two kinds - elite and mass culture - and such a view leads to quite a different curricula for two different groups (3). Lawton's view of culture tends to be more integrative and comprehensive.

L. Stenhouse defines curriculum as the means by which attempts to put an educational proposal into practice are made publicly available. It involves both content and method, and in its widest application takes account of the problem of implementation in the institutions of an educational system (4).

But curriculum, for H. Spears, is not described by its outward features, but rather by the point of view of the thinking from which it springs. Curriculum, for him, is something to be felt rather than seen (5).

To D.F. Cay, the term curriculum covers school experiences just like an umbrella. It is not only a school's educational design, but also a reflection of the political, religious, social and ethical values of a given society. These experiences, for him, involve interaction between those who teach and those who learn. The master plan is designed by educators and other adults in a community, state or nation to best serve their purposes as they see them in terms of the need of children (6).

Gail M. Inlow, defines curriculum as that body of value/goal-oriented learning content, existing as a written document or in the minds of teachers, which as a result of instruction results in changes in students' behaviour (7).

In general, these definitions reflect some educational traditions in the western world. Lawton's, Stenhouse's and Spears' definitions are reflections of the English and the Swedish educational traditions which value traditional culture and accumulated knowledge while Inlow's and Cay's definitions of curriculum reflect the American educational traditions which stress practicality and usefulness of education in qualifying the individual young pupils for an open and changing society.

These differences in the definition of curriculum are peripheral to the fundamental agreement underlying them on the common perceptions of the nature of man, the nature of society and the nature of knowledge and methods of acquiring it which have been debated at length in the west. These norms continue to

influence school curriculum theories, design, operation and evaluation under the changing circumstances in all these countries regardless of their specific objectives of comprehensive education that put more emphasis on equity, equality and the usefulness of learning experiences. Therefore, what follows deals with an analysis of the philosophical bases of the curriculum theories and practices within each individual case study context.

3.2.2 Theory of the Nature of Knowledge and the Curriculum

3.2.2.1 Essentialism in England

The essentialist's concept of the curriculum is built upon the ancient Greek conception of the nature of man, society and knowledge. According to essentialism as represented in Plato's philosophy, men are inherently unequal and so according to the essentialists there ought to be two main classes in a society: the ruling class, which can be subdivided into the true leaders (the guardians) and their armed auxiliaries or warriors, and the workers (8). B. Holmes states that for Plato knowable ideas transcend but determine the nature of things, plants, animals, human beings and social institutions. In the event pure ideas, according to Plato, are imperfectly realised in practice and as things change they become less perfect (9). So he was much concerned about knowledge of pure ideas that cannot change. He believed that education for leadership was essential in his Republic.

In general, the European ideal-typical normative model, Holmes asserts, is derived from Plato's Republic, and education for leadership remains an important aim for many European educationists. For example, R. M. Hutchins'* conceptualisation of knowledge is influenced by Plato and other Greek thinkers who

---

* R.M. Hutchins is a distinguished U.S. educator.

described knowledge as pure ideas that cannot change. However, knowledge for Hutchins, is an organised body of facts that man has discovered, learned, invented or collected, catalogued and organised into logical structures. Therefore, pure rather than practical disciplines within the curriculum should be emphasised, and students should be trained to acquire the skills of dialectic thinking and pure reasoning (10). Hutchins concludes that,

> "education implies teaching; teaching implies knowledge; knowledge is truth, the truth is everywhere the same. Therefore the educational curriculum should be everywhere the same." (11)

J.R. Martin disagrees with Hutchins; she points out that the above epithet contains four premises, two of them epistemological, and Hutchins' conclusion that curriculum should be the same everywhere cannot possibly be drawn from these premises without adding the normative premise that the same truth should be taught to everyone. She adds that epistemological theories are not sufficient to establish conclusions about the curriculum (12). She believed that content should enable the learner to make responsible personal and moral decisions. Self-awareness, imaginative weighing of alternative courses of action, understanding other people's choice and ways of life, decisiveness without rigidity, emancipation from stereotyped ways of thinking and perceiving, all these are bound up with the goal of personal and moral self-sufficiency (13).

Paul H. Hirst broadens the concept of knowledge perceived by Plato and Aristotle, which is strongly opposed, on philosophical grounds, by Dewey and the Pragmatists. Hirst argues that man is more than pure mind, yet mind is his essential distinguishing characteristic from animals and it is in terms

of knowledge that his whole life is rightly directed. He elaborates by asserting that the mind, in the light of reason, comes to know the essential nature of things and can apprehend what is ultimately real and immutable. He adds that all man's experiences can be given shape and perspective by what is finally true, by knowledge that corresponds to what is ultimately real. Further, the particular way in which reason is here represented as a way of attaining knowledge results in a view of the whole of man's understanding as hierarchically structured (14). He agrees with the Greeks that the idea of "liberal education" is most important and gives his interpretation:

> "The Greeks attained the concept of an education that was 'liberal' not simply because it was the education of free men rather than slaves, but also because they saw it as freeing the mind to function according to its true nature, freeing reason from error and illusion and freeing man's conduct from wrong." (15)

He suggests that the forms of knowledge can be distinguished as follows:

(1) Formal logic and mathematics;

(2) Physical Sciences;

(3) Our awareness and understanding of our own and other people's minds;

(4) Moral judgement and awareness;

(5) Aesthetic experience;

(6) Religious;

(7) Philosophical. (16)

Since liberal education, he continues, is concerned with the comprehensive development of mind in acquiring knowledge, it also aims at achieving an understanding of experience in many different ways. Syllabuses and curricula cannot therefore be constructed simply in terms of information and isolated skills.

They must be so built as to introduce students as far as possible into the interrelated aspects of each of the basic forms of knowledge, i.e. each of the several disciplines. He asserts that disciplines must be developed to cover, at least in some measure, the range of knowledge as a whole (17). He believes that it is difficult to offer all the disciplines and fields of knowledge: therefore selection must be made. He offers certain criteria for selection. He states,

> "What is being sought is first, sufficient immersion in the concepts, logic and criteria of the disciplines for a person to come to know the distinctive way in which it 'works' by pursuing these in particular cases; and then sufficient generalisation of these over the whole range of the discipline so that his experience begins to be widely structured in this distinctive manner." (18)

Essentialists believe in a curriculum which is organised to transmit understanding of established disciplines. Since the time of Plato, who introduced the disciplinary concept of education, liberal arts, particularly mathematics and language are thought to deal with universal truths; they are socially superior to the practical and vocational arts. The essentialists assert that the liberal arts curricula could prepare students for any future situation.

According to the essentialists theory of curriculum, the best method of acquiring knowledge is by reasoning and deductive thinking. Selection of curriculum content should be made to meet individual differences. Different curricula and methods of grouping according to abilities should be introduced in schools so that individual pupils may make the most of their unique potentialities.

3.2.2.2 Pragmatism in the U.S.A.

In the U.S.A., Dewey's concept of the curriculum is built upon his conception of the nature of man, society and knowledge. He argues that life is a self-renewing process through action upon the environment: nothing is fixed and permanent. Man therefore, if he is to survive, must struggle to control the process of change, and all he can rely on in his struggle is his creative intelligence. Society also exists through a process of transmission as quite as much as biological life and education therefore, in its broadest sense is the vehicle for this social continuity of life (19).

In a democratic society, all individuals should participate in policy formulation and implementation by using their creative intelligence.

Dewey neither accepts Plato's concept of knowledge as divine, ultimate and changeless, nor Aristotle's, which stresses experience. He believes that both distinguish between reason and experience and in the last analysis regards reason, not experience, as a reliable approach to the acquisition of knowledge (20). From Dewey's point of view, Holmes explains that the dichotomies between theory and practice, between manual work and intellectual activity, between liberal and useful arts and between cultured and educated man and the artisan, are seen as the most damaging to the progress of modern education (21). Therefore, Dewey's concept of knowledge is holistic rather than dualistic; he insists on the integration of both reason and experience and values them equally. If, as he envisages, education is a social process, then the school must be a democratic community and its chief function is to make education a continuous reconstruction of accumulated experience. A curri-

culum must take into account the adaptation of studies to the needs of existing community life (22). Dewey also visualises curriculum content as a balanced system in which each part is dependent on another and cannot be perceived in pieces or hierarchically. Otherwise, fragmentation would characterise human thinking and action. Curriculum, he argues, must coalesce into a coherent relationship if the school and the society are themselves to be coherent. He asserts that subject matter is interesting only when it serves the purpose of the learner. The materials for learning, he emphasises, should start from the current experience of students, not from past traditions; creative intelligence must help a student to master his environment. Therefore the school must encourage creativity and guide and control it without using coercion so that knowledge is not put to haphazard and to wasteful use (23).

According to the pragmatic theory of curriculum, the best method of acquiring knowledge is the training in the problem solving in which emphasis is put on empirical evidence. Selection of curriculum content should be done on a problem-basis. Pragmatists favour the scientific method of teaching which allows for the beliefs of individuals and stresses students' involvement in programmes that teach them how to think.

3.2.2.3 Encyclopaedism and Polytechnicalism in Sweden

In Sweden, curriculum concepts are built upon the communist conception of the nature of man, society and knowledge.

The communists believe that the achievement of men and women is determined by environmental conditions. According to the ideal-types of a communist society, all individuals are members of the same class and consequently self-conscious social

action will not be the result of minority movements, but of the majority of individuals in the interests of the majority (24).

The communists interpret the nature of knowledge in terms of the understanding of material conditions and the economic forces acting on society by using dialectical materialism as their method of inquiry. Their form of dialectic, Holmes asserts, contrasts with the essentialists', especially with Plato's, who stresses that the permanent and therefore real world is one of ideas'(25).

The communists' concepts of knowledge are more practical, they say the application of knowledge is vital to the development and progress of society. All knowledge should be used to illuminate the characteristics of productive life in an industrial society. Polytechnical knowledge the socialists state, include information about the entire cycle of production, how methods of production are organised and the role of industrial institutions (26). "The aim of the polytechnical school includes the preparation of a new generation of people who would be workers and masters of industry in the complete sense of the word." (27)

In general, the Russian educators consider that polytechnical education - its content, organisation and methods - should not be regarded as unalterable. But polytechnical education will develop in step with the development of the country's national economy, science, technology and culture (28). Elaborated the "Ideal-Typical Soviet Model", Holmes analyses the Marxist concept of knowledge by stressing that in Soviet society knowledge of chemical industries, agriculture and light and heavy engineering should receive priority. But such an emphasis, he highlights, should not be taken as a denial of Lenin's dictum that all the accumulated knowledge of mankind is important.

According to the communist doctrine, this accumulated knowledge is the cement that binds individuals and the collective together (29). But communists, on the other hand, stress that theoretical accumulated knowledge should be taught according to the communist doctrine, which stresses the socio-historical experience of mankind and the class struggle.

Equality of educational provision as a central principle of policy in socialist education is justified on the assumption that inequalities of attainment are principally due to differences in environmental conditions. To socialist educators, all pupils should be given an opportunity to study the same intellectual materials. However, in Sweden, educators agree that curricula should be pertinent to the lives of the pupils, but they insist that they also be pertinent to the needs of society. So the curricula plan, in the post compulsory school is based on differential programmes (lines) which cater for different needs.

To sum up, the pragmatists, in the U.S.A. contend that the American high school curriculum should concentrate on practical knowledge and favour human experience as a basis for knowledge. They prefer differentiated curricula to serve the needs of individual boys and girls. The American high schools develop curricula for different purposes such as for college preparation, for general education and for vocational preparation.

The English, on the other hand, prefer the essentialists' view of the curriculum. This results in more emphasis on the essential disciplines within the comprehensive school curriculum. This is attributed to the fact that the English comprehensive school has aspired to maintain a high academic standard in a

few subjects comparable to those offered in the grammar school.

The Swedes favour the Socialists' view of curriculum which lays more emphasis on offering a common curriculum for all at the compulsory level of education to ensure an equality of educational opportunity for all children. But at the post-compulsory level, though they favour the common core, curricula, they believe, should be differentiated so that they can best serve the needs of society. Therefore, many lines of study have now been introduced in the Swedish integrated-secondary schools.

In general, the essentialistis, pragmatists and socialists all believe in differentiated curricula in secondary schools. But they justify their support of differentiation differently. The essentialists base their support on society's need for developing an elite of the specially talented as in the case of England, while the pragmatists base their support of differentiated curricula on the need for developing each individual's potential to the utmost as in the U.S.A. The Socialists in Sweden justify their support for differentiated curricula on satisfying society's needs and to ensure perfect equality of education among all classes and between genders.

3.2.3 Methods of Curriculum Planning

Apart from curriculum theories, it is also important to study the methods followed in the task of curriculum planning with regard to the comprehensive school. Here the analysis will cover two models, i.e. the Behaviouralistic and Process models - that are associated with the curricula of the comprehensive school in the three model countries - Sweden, England and the U.S.A.

3.2.4.1 The Behaviouralistic or Objectives Model

R. Tyler's publication, Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction outlines this model. It states that four fundamental questions were crucial to the process of curriculum planning (Figure No. 7). They are:

(1) What educational purposes (objectives) should the school seek to attain?

(2) What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain their purposes?

(3) How can these educational experiences be effectively organised?

(4) How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained? (30).

Tyler sees the problem of the curriculum as one of systematically making decisions about objectives, content, organisation and evaluation. If a school programme is to be planned and continued effort made to improve it, he argues, then it is necessary to have a clear idea of the objectives that are being sought. These objectives then become the criteria against which materials are selected, content is outlined, instructional procedures are developed and tests and examinations prepared (31).

The movements towards pre-specified objectives in curriculum was prompted on the one hand by admiration for the job-analysis approach to industrial processes which concerned itself with specific inputs to determine outputs and on the other hand by concern about the vague unscientific nature of the view of most teachers. It was observed that teachers gave woolly answers when they were asked about their work. Their lack of charity. I.R. Davies asserted, was attributed to the fact that they had not begun the planning of their work with a clear statement of

what it was intended to bring about. A further source of support for such an approach has always been economic and that a clear statement of objectives is the quickest way to a proper evaluation of whether the money invested in education is being properly used and indeed, such evaluation has also been advocated on educational grounds as a tool for the further and continued development of the curriculum (32). Thus there emerged the view that curriculum must be seen as consisting of at least four interrelated elements - objectives, content, procedures and evaluation.

Encouraged by Tyler's model, Benjamin Bloom and his co-workers offered a 'theoretical framework' which is designed to classify the intended outcomes of the educational process. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (1956) and the publication(s) by D. Krathwohl, Bloom and B. Masia (1964) provide a taxonomy of objectives in terms of student behaviour which is divided into three major classes or domains, i.e. cognitive, attitudinal (affective) and psychomotor (Figures 8A, 8B, 8C).

In order for objectives to serve their function, H. Taba offers some principles to guide their formulation. She contends that these principles will be useful to avoid confusion in stating objectives and in developing sharper distinctions among them, without imposing inflexibility or prescription by specifying the particular content of the objectives:

- a statement of objectives should describe the kind of behaviour expected and the content or the context to which that behaviour applies;
- complex objectives need to be stated analytically and specifically enough so that there is no doubt as to the kind of behaviour expected or what the behaviour implies;

- they should also be so formulated that there are clear distinctions among learning experiences to attain different behaviours;
- they are developmental, representing roads to travel rather than terminal points;
- they should be realistic and should include what can be translated into curriculum and classroom experience;
- the scope of objectives should be broad enough to encompass all types of outcomes for which the school is responsible (33).

The objectives model of curriculum planning has been criticised mainly because it ignores those issues of values that are central to any decision-making in education. It attempts to view education as an instrumental process that can be defined by reference to short-term goals. Davies argues that stating in advance the intended learning outcomes denies the individual the right to respond to what he is offered in his own way and thus to develop the power to think for himself. Therefore it is more likely to lead to indoctrination than to education (34).

G. Blenkin adds that two important sequences followed from this approach:

(1) The teacher is not offered any particular experience and is encouraged to be passive and to look elsewhere for expert guidance both in the structuring of what should be learned and the pacing of learning;

(2) As the focus is diverted from particular contributions of teachers in curriculum planning, this will encourage the belief that solutions to curriculum problems can be provided for them by outside experts (35).

One of the weaknesses of the taxonomic approach, Davies states, is the failure of the schema to demonstrate the importance of relationships. A set of isolated objectives is rarely useful; but somekkind of representation of the essential inter-relationships that usually exist is not only worthwhile but essential. Achievement and certainly excellence, he asserts, involve understanding the patterns implicit in the structure of knowledge. He agrees with Hirst that the taxonomic approach ignores the philosophical aspects of the curriculum (36).

Hirst argues very strongly in favour of the necessity of having objectives in curriculum planning, but he sees them largely in terms of the acquisition of fundamental forms of public modes of experience, understanding and knowledge (37).

3.2.4.2 The Process Model

This framework for curriculum design was developed explicitly by L. Stenhouse in the 1970s. He argues that a process model is more appropriate than an 'objective model' in areas of curriculum which centre on 'knowledge and understanding'. Basically, he contends that it is possible to design curricula rationally by specifying the principles of procedure rather than by pre-specifying anticipated outcomes in terms of objectives. He adds that 'content' can be selected to exemplify the most important procedures, the key concepts and the criteria inherent in a field of knowledge. He confirms that the justification for choosing such 'content' rests not on the students' behaviour, to which it gives rise, but on the degree to which it reflects the form of knowledge which itself needs no extrinsic justification (38).

Commenting on the process model, P.H. Taylor thinks that Stenhouse's model does not seek to be all-embracing, but does allow for a limited use of the objectives model. It does not presuppose any form of linear treatment of its components: it is also sensitive to differences in subject matter and assumes the autonomy of the individual teacher (39). Hirst also criticises this model by arguing that it is still concerned with ends, though admittedly it is not behavioural in character. This criticism is built upon Stenhouse's statement: "The end product produced by students is not specified beforehand in terms of behaviour, but can be evaluated in terms of attaining competence of a kind that is transferable to other types of learning and conditions." (40) Hirst also confirms that the emphasis put on this model on the principles of procedure tends to obscure the necessity of curriculum planning (41).

Taylor's basic objection to this model concerns the difficulties associated with assessing students' work and the problems of teacher's competence since the model assumes that teachers will be refining and deepening their own understanding and judgement of concepts, principles and criteria inherent in their subjects.

However, all these models have been adopted by curriculum planners as well as teachers in designing the content of comprehensive schools curricula.

In the U.S.A., the objectives model has influenced curriculum planners while not all English educators appreciate the pre-specification of the objectives in planning their school curriculum. Generally speaking, English educators have been much more interested in defining aims than in stating precise objectives. Therefore, they do not totally accept

the objectives model. Hirst and Peters argue that a clear distinction must be made between a general and specialised understanding of the 'seven domains (forms) of knowledge' stated earlier. A general education implies that all the seven domains need to be included in the curriculum. They emphasise that clear objectives for each of the seven domains of knowledge must be identified by applying criteria of excellence and judgement. They believe a traditional subject-based timetable is the most efficient way of meeting the requirements set out by the objectives more efficiently than any series of topics or projects can ever be (42).

In the U.S.A., the curriculum planners' as well as educationists' conviction in the validity of Behaviourist Model is attributed to the continuing dialogue which occurs between psychologists and educationists. R. Wood, states that the effect of the American psychologists' penetration into education can be seen in the greater urge among educationists to analyse and quantify. While in England, the dialogue between psychologists and educationists has been relatively intermittent and where in any case the psychologists have been more clinically minded, there has been a reluctance to analyse aims to a point at which precise behaviours emerge (43).

In Sweden, it seems that the curriculum planners have been influenced more by the objectives model. For instance, the Official Reports on Curriculum stress at the achievement of specific outcomes and objectives are specified in the presentation of each individual subject (44).

To conclude, the theoretical bases examined in this section will be kept as guidelines to gauge how the comprehensive school curriculum is organised and operationalised in each individual model under study.

3.3 The Comprehensive School Curriculum in Sweden

Since the Swedish Education System is centralised, most aspects of school curricula are usually developed by the Swedish National Board of Education. The Board usually seeks help from different specialists and conducts research which investigates certain areas of the curriculum at all levels of education.

The Swedish concept of curriculum means a nationwide document that is made legal by the government after a long period of consultation and negotiation with different interests groups. The document consists of a goal statement, a list of contents and timetables for all subjects and courses to be taught. It also contains more or less, detailed comments, advice and directions on methods, evaluation and the relation between school and society (45).

However, with the introduction of the comprehehsive schools in Sweden, the questions related to curricula have been of great concern to the Swedish Educational Authorities. Since 1950, a series of curricula reforms and plans have been introduced both at the compulsory and post-compulsory levels in response to the national policy of education for all.

In this section, an attempt will be made to study these curricula reforms to see to what extent they have coincided with the general aims of comprehensive education and how the encyclopaedists' view of knowledge affects the curriculum content and organisation. What follows deals with the curricula content offered at grades seven to nine - the senior level of the compulsory comprehensive school and the integrated post-compulsory school.

3.3.1 Curricula Content:

3.3.1.1 The Compulsory Comprehensive School Curriculum - Grades 7 - 9

The Grundskolan curriculum has gone through many changes between the years 1950-80, Figure No. 9 outlines these changes in detail.

In general, the curriculum of the compulsory school is grouped into various subjects. According to the 1969 plan for the revision of the national curriculum of the compulsory school, most pupils take the same subjects and stay in mixed-ability classes throughout the school. Exceptions to this rule are the students' free options in grades 7-9 and in English and mathematics where they can choose between an easy and difficult course.

The (Lgr 69) document concentrates on certain general aspects to be included within the content of individual subjects or groups of subjects and teachers are advised to pay special attention to them in teaching. Particular attention, for instance, should be paid to: economic matters, family matters, international understanding and questions related to consumer needs. These should be incorporated in the compulsory comprehensive school curriculum including the 7-9 stage.

The (Lgr. 69) document states that the economic conditions of Sweden should be incorporated in the subjects of local knowledge, civics, domestic sciences, mathematics, history, geography and Swedish language. Family matters can be handled in social and natural studies and the study of the Swedish language and religious knowledge. International understanding is supposed to be broadened and deepened during the school years and through different subjects. Consumption is provided

within the framework of domestic sciences, Swedish, mathematics, drawing, handicraft, local knowledge, civics, chemistry, physics, economics, arts and technology (46).

The document suggests that the Finnish language should be included in teaching for those who have Finnish as their mother tongue. It should be offered in the following order:

- two hours per week during each grade so far as possible and joint teaching should be arranged between the pupils of different classes and grades;
- at the senior level, Finnish is a supplementary optional subject, which will replace another optional or compulsory subject as decided by the headmaster after consultation with pupils (47).

At the senior level, (grades 7-9) of the comprehensive school, subjects are divided into: common core (compulsory) and optional subjects. Table No. 1 shows the subjects offered in grades 7-9.

(1) The Common Core

The core subjects are required by all students at these grades to ensure that all pupils receive a general education. Subjects included in the 'core' are Swedish, mathematics, English, music, drawing, handicrafts, domestic science, physical education, child care and orientational subjects. The orientation or general subjects are divided into two groups: the social sciences (geography, history, religious knowledge and civics) and the natural sciences (biology, physics, chemistry and technology). Marklund and Boucher observe that the main changes in the core, according to 1978 proposals and The Curriculum Guide for the Compulsory Level (Lgr. 80), have been fivefold:

(a) English is now taken by all pupils grades 3 to 9;

(b) the time for this initially is at the expense of Swedish in grades 4-8, and comes from the social studies areas in grades 7-9;

(c) there was an attempt to conceive the social studies and the natural sciences as an integrated 'block' in both the 1967 proposals and Lgr 69, but in both the 1978 proposals and in Lgr 80 there has been a reversal to two separate blocks; (48)

(d) new content areas - childcare and technical studies introduced originally as electives according to Lgr 69, but the Lgr 80 Plan sees them as part of the 'core';

(e) according to Lgr 80, study and work guidance, together with visits, and a one-week period of work experience, is an integral part of the experiences of all pupils (49)

(2) <u>The Optional Subjects</u>

The Curriculum Changes in (Lgr 69) introduced a pattern of free choice in Grades 7-9.

Marklund and Boucher referred to two dimensions of the issue of free choice: the question of which model or electives should be offered and whether to offer advanced as well as basic courses in certain subjects. They stated the following four models of electives which were discussed within the Swedish educational context:

(1) Model (a) offers a choice of one of four areas of the curriculum, a second language, technical studies, creative arts and economics;

(2) Model (b) offers a choice of one of the curriculum areas, technical, creative or home-economics, and also requires either extra Swedish or a second language;

(3) Model (c) offers a choice only between extra Swedish or a second language;

(4) Model (d) offers, for example, a choice of a second language in Grade Seven and a second language or one of the other curriculum areas in Grade Eight or Nine.

The Lgr 69 Curriculum Plan Revision opted for Scheme (a), the 1978 Plan was for Scheme (c), but (Lgr 80) effectively returned to (Lgr 69) which preferred Scheme (a) (50). Therefore, according to (Lgr 69), optional subjects are French or German, economics, art and technology. Teaching hours in optional subjects comprise four hours per week in Grade Seven and nine and three hours per week in Grade Eight. A pupil is required before each grade to select an optional subject and attend lessons in it. In Grade 9, French and German can only be chosen by students who have previously been taught in the subjects (51). The (Lgr 69) states that free choice is realised in the form of successive options. Since pupils during the senior level find themselves in a process of radical development, it is important that the choice be repeated every year, so that they can change their mind. The (Lgr 69) emphasises that it is also important that the situation of choice be broached by the school, so that any reconsideration of options will not depend exclusively on the initiative of the pupils or their parents which can often be bound up with the educational tradition and ambitions of the home (52).

Marklund and Boucher point out that one of the problems of choice and differentiation in the 7-9 grades is the consequence it tends to have for studies after the age of 16. For instance, a choice of certain academic options in the compulsory comprehensive school used to lead to a three-year academic courses in the secondary level. But this problem was solved with the introduc-

tion of The Curriculum Guide for the Compulsory Level (Lgr 80) which states that entry to the 16-19 school is open for all without selection. Students are now entitled to choose any kind of post-compulsory course regardless of what option was made in the compulsory school (53).

In the compulsory comprehensive school, there has been a decline in the extent to which the curriculum is vocationally oriented.

Vocational experience is now more concerned with an orientation to the world of work generally rather than to specific jobs, because the majority, having finished compulsory schooling, continue at the post-compulsory sector which is geared to the idea of recurrent education (54).

But in fact, some students aged 14-16 are not interested in pursuing their education beyond the compulsory stage. Therefore they are given increased opportunities to go out and work under the auspices of the school. The purpose of freely chosen work is to give pupils such an opportunity within the framework of the school, in addition to teaching in compulsory subjects and options. Such work should be so devised as to engage pupils in the activities of the school, and extend their experiences beyond the boundaries of their own class and their own grade. It is for the Local Education Authority after consultation with pupils and staff to decide how much work should be arranged (55).

In general, there are minimum differences in content of the senior level (grades 7-9) of the compulsory comprehensive school, but curriculum differentiation is much more clearly defined in the post-compulsory school as is evident in the following analysis of its curriculum.

3.3.1.2 The Integrated Post-Compulsory School Curriculum

The upper integrated secondary school introduced in 1974, accommodated a large number of educational routes or lines of varying duration. On the whole its curriculum is so structured that while the content is still expressed largely in terms of subjects, the framework is expressed largely in terms of occupational fields. Its curriculum is designed to prepare students for higher studies, for employment immediately on leaving school and above all is geared to the idea of recurrent education.

The Curriculum Plan for the Integrated Secondary School (Lgy 70) suggests that different programmes are intended to develop independence and critical thought, understanding of principles, the ability to participate in cooperative activities, command of basic communication skills in the mother tongue, a foreign language, mathematics and statistical ability, personal interest in future employment and a general education which would form a common frame of reference in social and cultural life.

At present, the integrated post-compulsory school curriculum comprises 23 lines of study and about 450 special courses with various directions and educational aims. In 1975/76, the vocational oriented lines include some 800 courses, 300 of which correspond to two-year lines of upper-secondary school (56).

As may be seen in Table No.2, this school also offers a common core for all students. This core includes Swedish, mathematics, English, science, religious knowledge, the creative arts and physical education. These subjects are included throughout the three years' lines.

Regardless of efforts to diversify the programmes of

studies at the upper secondary schools, the 1976 Urban Dahitof Upper Secondary School Enquiry Committee identified the following main problems:

(1) On balance, the lines of study chosen continued to favour the theoretical rather than the practical/ vocational lines.

(2) Some of the vocational lines were not very well related to future employment needs.

(3) While the vocational lines tended to be related to an occupational family, they did not differentiate between kinds of work or levels of work in those areas.

(4) While employers were generally satisfied by the work competence of the pupils, there were serious criticisms of the lack of preparation for citizenship, for being part of a work force, for the ability to work together to resolve interpersonal conflict and to behave in a responsible way. In terms of subject skills, levels of achievement and understanding were lower than desired in Swedish, mathematics, English, natural sciences, civics, aesthetic studies and orientation to work (57).

Therefore, the 1976 Committee Report's main proposals were as follows:

(1) courses ought to be offered annually in nine blocks at least two of the blocks should be used for practical work experience;

(2) programmes should be grouped into three broad sectors - economics, social and technical with a programme common for most of the first year and with a subsequent differentiated line structure and mode of work which

would be much less rigid than that at present;

(3) all students would be required to take both aesthetic and practical courses, either as part of their sector subjects or as part of a required support subject;

(4) there would be at least one of the 16-day blocks in every year devoted to practical experience at a place of work and under the guidance of a tutor (58).

Figure No. 10, shows the study routes in the Proposed Reforms of Gymnasiaskolan SOU, 1981.

In principle, the students enjoy a free choice of lines in the upper secondary school but because the availability of places in the different lines is limited, the students cannot always enroll in the line that is his or her first choice. Marklund states that whenever the number of applicants exceeds the supply of student places, admission preference will be accorded on the basis of marks earned in the basic comprehensive school and other credits, e.g. experience of the job world (59).

With the introduction of the integrated post-compulsory school, vocational education was given a new content and organisation. The main outlines of the new structure are as follows:

(a) all lines replacing vocational school are now of two years' duration;

(b) students following the vocational lines are given a broader basic education and specialisations are gradually introduced;

(c) more scope is given to the so-called general subjects which now include Swedish, physical education and working life orientation which are considered as compulsory subjects. While options include English,

mathematics, civics and drawing;

(d) there are certain provisions entitling students in many two-year lines to substitute a subject in some other line for a vocational subject on condition that this subject fits into the general pattern of studies of the student concerned, this form of substitution may comprise up to 12 periods per week;

(e) labour market orientation subject , included in the vocational lines, is designed to provide students with general background to their subsequent careers, e.g. through information on the labour market and working life and organisations such as unions related to it (60).

The integrated secondary school vocational education is based on what is called the 'block principle' whereby similar occupations are grouped into larger occupational areas. The basic block, i.e. the initial course of studies contains items common to the entire area. Studies are then gradually specialised according to the character of various occupations (61).

3.3.2 Careers Education

General preparation for working life is not only required in the vocational lines, but it is essential in the academic as well. It should be given for all students, in both theoretical and practical ways. For example, preparation is given as follows:

- labour market orientation as a special subject within the two-year vocational lines in the upper secondary school;
- persons with experience of working life outside school should participate in working life orientation programmes;

- study visits to work places and the employment services should be planned for students (62).

For students in theoretical study lines, one week of work experience, started in the late 1960s, is now a common element.

Regardless of the Swedish authorities' efforts to relate school to working conditions, youth unemployment is the biggest problem for the 16-18 year age group. It is not a lack of education which creates unemployment, it is a lack of jobs. Therefore, it is argued that youngsters should be offered more schooling. Sweden has, however, taken the significant step whereby it is the responsibility of the school authorities to provide opportunities for those under 18 who are not in school. Since the mid-1970s there has been the so-called "Youth Guarantee" which promises either a job or practical work experience, or a place at school for all aged 16-18. This decision has put a very heavy burden on schools that they cannot deal with effectively. So in 1980 it was decided that only a few exceptional groups of students under 18 should be provided with "youth opportunity jobs" or "work opportunity programmes" organised by the Swedish Labour Market Board and the schools authorities. In both, these groups are paid by government grants and employment as long as their jobs or programmes duration do not exceed six months (63). Boucher argues, these schemes have not solved the unemployment problems among youth under 18. The problems tend to be hidden, but they still exist in Sweden (64).

Interrelating with the curriculum content are methods of teaching and arrangements. So the following part deals with

these aspects in the Swedish comprehensive and post-comprehensive schools.

3.3.3 Methods of Teaching and Grouping Practices

According to the 1962 Education Act and the Syllabus Guidelines approved by the Swedish Parliament successively in 1962, 1969 and 1980, comprehensive school pupils take the same subjects and stay in heterogenously composed classes until the age of sixteen. Tracking or streaming is not practised and it becomes common to organise special remedial classes for students with difficulties at school.

Class grouping and the split-up of classes into subgroups are common. The option of dividing the class in two or more subgroups during a certain number of periods a week goes under the name of 'reinforcement'. When starting to teach English as the first foreign language, the teacher may divide the classes into two halves and teach one at a time, the two within four periods a week. Individualisation in learning is present in all the more formal and informal teaching taken within the class in order to provide individual differences, especially in subjects where drilling in skills is important. Lgr 80 rejects ability grouping and stresses that pupils are to be grouped so that as great a social mix as possible is achieved in the classes and working units. Small groups may be created as long as they do not remain together for more than a term and must not be identical in composition in more than one subject. Subject teachers, in the upper department of the

compulsory school, should also be allowed to see their pupils in different activities, in more situations and more subjects. The Lgr 80 stresses individualised work as far as is practically possible (65).

Boucher has argued that regardless of the official efforts to enforce individualisation of teaching-learning work in the compulsory comprehensive school, there is still teacher-talk in classrooms. He has commented that individualisation within the framework of the class remains a goal to be striven for rather than an expression of existing daily experience (66).

At the post-compulsory education, organisational differentiation into separated study lines (streams) usually starts. The differentiation of the study lines and diversification of students should as far as possible follow the free choice of students and parents. But it is stressed that differentiation of students into separate study lines should be associated with measures to integrate these separate study lines into a functioning unit. Translating this concept into action, Marklund explains that in some schools, integration is done through special arrangements such as clubs, social and sports activities. But in other schools, this is not seen as a school concern and therefore neglected (67).

On the whole, students in different lines of study are unlikely to have many opportunities to mix during the school day. On the other hand, the whole teaching staff still remain separated as between academic and vocational lines. The academic lines are taught by teachers qualified in the traditional academic programmes of university followed by a year of professional training. While the practical courses are taught mainly by teachers who hold technical qualifications and have work experience. However, about

half of this group of teachers have acquired professional training which is officially required for all (68).

3.3.4 Extra-Curricula Activities

The concept of extra-curriculum activities in the Swedish comprehensive school is interpreted in terms of co-ordination between school and community and extending society's roles by promoting the total development of children. The (Lgr 80) Plan takes extra-curricula activities into consideration in the comprehensive compulsory school curriculum. It suggests that five periods per week **should** be allocated to free activities. The guidelines in Lgr 80 state that these activities should meet the needs of social and cultural stimulus, encourage self-directed activity, stimulate participation in decision-making, widen contact with adults outside school and encourage poorly motivated pupils, and develop a positive attitude towards school (69).

The school should not only provide education, but also other activities before and after lessons, during breaks and other free periods. Students should also be offered the opportunity of taking part in various activities within the school or in nearby facilities such as leisure homes and centres.

Although periods are allocated to free activities in compulsory and post-compulsory schools, these activities are not credited on the same bases as the other curriculum subjects.

3.3.5 Evaluation of Pupils' Achievements

Many changes have been introduced to develop the assessment system in Swedish comprehensive schools. During the last decade, a different kind of marking scale has been introduced. External examinations have been abolished and been

replaced by a system of continuous assessment in which pupils' performance was expressed on a numerical 5 point scale with 5 as the highest grade and 3 as the mean. The marks of all pupils reading a given subject in a certain age group were to be distributed over the five degrees in accordance with Gaussian Curve which represents the normal frequency distribution.

The majority (40 per cent) were to have the mark 3, with just over a fifth of the total lying at 2; the same proportion lying at 4 and only a few pupils with 1 or 5. The marks awarded were the basis for entrance to gymnasium level schools and the lines of studies at university and their equivalent (70).

But the public as well as teachers began to express doubts about the five points-scale grading. They justified their doubts by arguing that human beings were being placed in some sort of rank order and it was not at all easy to move from one rank to another. So controversial had the grading system become that questions about its validity were even raised in Parliament. Therefore in 1969 the Board of Education was instructed by the Parliament to enquire into the marking system. A working party, together with a "reference group" drawn from teacher organisations, pupils and employers were set up. In 1971, their first report was published and it included recommendations for both compulsory and post-compulsory school. The main recommendations are as follows:

- grading in Grundskolan and Gymnasieskolan should be related to the objectives, specified in greater detail in the official syllabuses;
- grading for individual pupils should be based on comparisons with that pupil's previous performance;
- grades are not to be given for on-going evaluation of

factors other than knowledge and skill in school subjects;

- the local school boards may determine additional items at which formal grades may be given;
- in Gymnasieskolan, no grades to be given to those who have not achieved a given level of knowledge and skills (71).

The sliding scale for grade percentage distribution is altered and specified as below:

Sliding Scale for Grade Percentage Distribution

Stage	1	2	3	4	5
Grundskolan Year 6,7					
Gymnasieskolan Year 1	50	30	20		
Grundskolan Year 8					
Gymnasieskolan Year 2	40	30	20	10	
Grundskolan Year 9					
Gymnasieskolan Year 3,4	30	30	20	10	10

Source: L. Boucher, Compare, Vol.3, No. 1, p. 23.

With the introduction of (Lgr 80), the formal grading requirement is removed totally from the basic school as an instrument of selection. Although tests enter into the school work, no final marks are given in compulsory school. The final marks are only awarded in certain grades, chiefly in the senior level - grade 7-9. But standardised tests are administered in certain subjects and grades. The main objectives of these standardised tests*, as Marklund claims, is to make it easier for teachers to

* These standardised tests' grades are distributed according to Ganssian Curve used before 1980.

judge the level of performance in their classes compared with the level in Sweden as a whole. He asserts that they are not used to gauge individual performance but only to indicate the group level and the group distribution in different performance (72).

Commenting on the abolition of the formal grading in the basic school as a selective instrument for post-compulsory school, Boucher states that elimination of selection by school removes the official need for marks, but it does not alter the need for judgement of some kind to give information on guidance. So the regular tests, Marklund referred to earlier - become more and more a feature of school life (73).

Upon completion of compulsory comprehensive school, all students are qualified to pursue further studies in the upper-integrated secondary school.

Generally speaking, all comprehensive compulsory school leavers with leaving certificate from Grade 9 are eligible to enter the integrated secondary school in addition to those who are over the age of 24, had four years of job experience, and are usually admitted to the two-year social, economic and technical lines of this school. But special qualifications are required for admission to certain lines of study for the compulsory school graduates. The main rules are as follows:

(a) candidates for the three-year scientific line and the four-year technology line must have taken the special (i.e. more difficult) mathematics and English courses at the senior level of the comprehensive school;

(b) candidates for the three-year arts, social sciences and economics lines must have also taken the special English courses at the senior level of the comprehensive school;

(c) candidates for the two- year technical line must have taken the special mathematics course at the senior level (74).

Like the comprehensive basic school, the integrated secondary school does not confer a leaving examination. Tests are administered as an integral part of the school work but no provision is made for end-of-term tests. Students are usually promoted each year to the next higher grade. Voluntary non-promotion may be permitted for students who want to repeat a class.

But in fact, tests in certain important subjects such as mathematics and languages are devised and issued by the Swedish National Board of Education. Special officials of the Board and inspectors for different subjects check the standards of these tests and supervise the allocation of marks. Testing in specific subjects on national level aim at helping teachers to assess the ability of their students and thus ensure that the education provided in upper integrated schools achieves an acceptable quality of standards (75).

In the integrated secondary school, marks are awarded at the end of every term and for all subjects with the exception of working life orientation, history of art and music and subjects included in voluntary instruction. Marks are generally awarded on a five-point scale which is practised in the comprehensive basic school. A grade point average of 2.3 on completing a full secondary education ensures the right of entry into higher education institutions. It is assumed that all lines grant general qualifications for higher education but this is subjected to the following three conditions:

(a) the student must have completed his studies. For instance, two years of a three-year line of studies do not qualify the student for admission to higher education;

(b) the students must have done two years' English in upper secondary school;

(c) and he must have also done two years' Swedish (76).

However, as the total intake numbers for universities and colleges is decided annually for each sector and each line according to the Higher Education Act of 1977, this policy indirectly resulted into a kind of competition for higher education. The admission boards of universities usually have their own selection criteria, they select those who have accumulated high marks and who have acquired successfully competency requirements specified for each course at the upper integrated school.

Although entry requirements to higher education are changed, yet entrants to the traditional academic courses, Marklund contends, tend still to come mainly from three-year lines and from the higher socio-economic backgrounds (77).

3.3.6 Guidance and Counselling

In the compulsory as well as the integrated upper secondary school students' welfare is of great concern. Therefore psychologists and school welfare officers have special roles to play.

As spelled out in Sweden, the main functions of the psychologist are to help promote the development of pupils, to prevent the emergence of an alienation of school from the world of work and to investigate and propose corrective measures for pupils who encounter difficulties. The school psychologist's

duties include also designing reading tests and giving assistance in study techniques. At the higher level, he arranges group tests and aids in the choice of subject and line and participates in the further programming of study techniques. He carries out investigations with the doctor and welfare officers and has an important role in assessing whether special instruction should be provided (78).

The School Welfare Officer's duties are mainly preventive. He participates in arranging leisure and club activities and in establishing and maintaining contact between the school and the parents. He makes contact with the Child Welfare Board, the Recreation Committee and the police (79).

Though the Swedish educational authorities have succeded in providing schools with enough qualified welfare officers, the number of school psychologists is still small in view of the variety of tasks performed by them.

As a municipality-employee a school psychologist often has between 2,000-4,000 students in his area, therefore it is difficult for him to help all pupils having psychological problems which might affect their learning progress and achievement.

3.2.7 Teachers: Their Education and Status

The consequences of the school reforms at the compulsory and post-compulsory schools have affected teacher education and training. Many changes have been introduced to make teacher education more effective and relevant to the school situation.

The 1965 Teacher Training Committee Study diagnosed problems related to subject-teacher education. The study highlighted one major weakness in the teacher education system, vis,

the 'congruence problem' which meant that subject-teacher education was not related to what teachers had to teach after training. So it called for a 'demand for congruence' and necessitated a restructuring of courses for teacher education. The Committee proposed subject-combination instead of single subject-teacher education. For example, mathematics is combined with civics, English with physics, chemistry with biology etc. (80). The two subjects in each of these basic combinations can be augmented by a third in the case of those wishing to teach in grades 7-9. These combinations should be studied for at least three years. Seven further basic combinations, including technical or economic subjects as well as an academic subject, were also proposed and these proposals were adopted by the Government and were applied to university studies (81). Teachers in aesthetics and practical subjects for different levels are trained at various special colleges. The first paragraph of the 1968 Teacher Training Act provides that teacher education is to be conducted on a "scientific basis". This indicates that training based on apprenticeship is no longer acceptable. The methods of the master's experience being authoritatively and uncritically transmitted to and accepted by the apprentice was to be abolished (82). The Survey of Teacher Training in Sweden (1971) refers to the task of the Schools of Education with regard to the university study and how to train prospective teachers in scientific principles to provide them with such knowledge and ability to take an active part as teachers in realising the goal of the school for which they are trained. Basic training should include special features in respect of language, culture and religion specially beneficial to immigrant and ethnic groups (83).

In the mid seventies the 1974 Commission on Teacher

Education was given the task specifically of exploring the possibility of making prior work experience a particular criterion for all future new teachers. The Commission supported the idea with regard to prior work experience. It proposed that teacher education should attempt to base teaching on a concrete, pragmatic and inductive method in which experience, planned according to a systematic strategy, which would contribute to the development of conceptual formation and social orientation (84).

To make teaching practice a necessary criterion for all prospective teachers as well as those undergoing in-service training, the National Board of Education suggested placing experimental and demonstration schools to promote the concretisation and coordination of pedagogics, methodology and subject study.

These schools' objectives are to help the new teachers to acquire a critical experimental attitude to means and methods and to encourage them to look for new and better solutions in a school which is no longer static but constantly changing (85).

In-service training is now available for all teachers at all levels of education. It has become necessary to enrich initial training and to adapt teachers to changes in school curricula.

In-service courses, in Sweden, are referred to as either 'further education' or 'continued education'. The former is always individually determined, because it implies studies which, once complete, will give a specific formal competence, and thus qualify the attainee for a specific salary. For example, elementary teachers must take university courses in order to teach specific subjects at the 13-16 stage. But the largest amount of in-service work is by short part-time courses of continued education. The most immediate form of in-service

training is through five 'study days' which form part of the teachers' year of duty and which are fitted into the school year in such a way that the pupils have a long weekend holiday. Programmes are initially designed to meet the emerging issues in schools. Teachers are usually involved on topics such as individualised teaching in certain subjects and proposed curriculum projects (86).

In general, Swedish teachers are categorised according to the level they teach at and the qualifications they hold.

In the compulsory school, the junior and middle level pupils are taught by class teachers. While the senior level pupils are taught by special subject teachers. Separate teaching positions are set aside to handle special instruction, for example, teaching pupils their own 'native' language such as Finnish. There are three main categories of teachers at the upper secondary level. They are:

- Junior Master Adjunkter who has a university degree and one year training at the teacher training colleges which have been integrated within the new system of higher education.
- Senior Master Lektover. An appointment to this position requires a degree at the doctorate level. Those who have a master's degree in economics and engineering can also become senior masters in their subject field. Training at a teacher training college is required for a senior master.
- Vocational Teacher Yerkeslarare. An appointment requires training and practical work experience in the vocation concerned as well as teacher training (87).

To sum up, the compulsory comprehensive and the inte-

grated upper secondary school curricula have gone through many changes after rigorous educational research which followed all the stages of development.

The curriculum reforms aspire to:

(a) achieve an effective integration between vocational and academic courses throughout all lines of studies;

(b) regulate students' distribution among different lines of study according to their abilities and national manpower needs and to avoid the problem of surplus of graduates in one area of study rather than the other;

(c) apply new methods of teaching which enhance students' participation and initiatives to develop their abilities as individuals and groups;

(d) provide some kind of working experience for all students whatever their future aspirations;

(e) apply more progressive procedures of evaluation which stress on continuous assessment and encourage parents' participation;

(f) link teacher education and training programmes with schools requirements and curricula changes.

Regardless of these general notions, certain issues have not been resolved. There is a lot of discussion whether the comprehensive compulsory and integrated secondary schools have been able to achieve equality and integration between sexes and social classes in terms of options, lines of studies and later admission to higher education.

B.O. Lyung's and S. Jansson's study (1970) concentrated on socio-economic and sex factors and their influence on pupils' choice. Their study covered approximately 3,650 pupils of both sexes in the ninth grade of the compulsory comprehensive schools

in the county of Vastmanland in Sweden. However, the study showed that there was a correlation between the pupils' choice and their social and economic background. Pupils from lower social class groups preferred practical studies, while those from the higher social groups wanted academic studies. The study also revealed that whereas 76 per cent of the students from the higher social groups applied for admission to the academic lines in the upper secondary school, only 22 per cent came from the former groups. Their study showed that the inclination to apply for the academic lines was equally strong for both sexes from the lower social class groups. Lyung and Jansson concluded that these conditions were attributed to teachers' mental states. Some of whom wrongly believed that pupils from high social class groups should be guided towards more academic advanced studies while others were created just for manual work (88).

Similar observations have been also noticed in the upper integrated secondary school in the 1980s. Boucher states that there are significant variations among social groups concerning enrolment in different lines. Students from the professional and managerial home backgrounds overwhelmingly dominate the three and four-year lines and those from unskilled home backgrounds dominate the overtly vocational courses. Furthermore, traditional sex differences, he asserts, remain despite efforts both within schools and in society at large to remove such stereotyping. The girls, on the whole prefer arts and economic studies and they are the majority in the nursing, consumer and clothing lines, while the boys often choose technology and dominate motor mechanics, electrical and telecommunication and practical engineering lines (89).

In the integrated secondary school, students' free choice may not be wholly achieved. Boucher claims that the

notion of rational planning with manpower requirements in subsequent employment pre-supposes that there would never be a wholly free choice. He thinks that the task of matching the desires of applicants with the number of places which the country as a whole and individual towns and regions in particular consider necessary and can make available is unlikely ever to be perfect in a free society (90).

3.4 The Comprehensive School Curriculum in England

As a starting point, it may be reiterated that since the English education system, like the American but unlike the Swedish, is decentralised, the curriculum of the comprehensive schools is not prescribed at the national level. Local Education Authorities have freedom of choice in devising curricula for schools in their areas and schools are free in matters of selection and organisation of subjects, prescription of textbooks and other teaching materials as well as in the methods and style of teaching. The only compulsory statutory requirement of the 1944 Education Act is the teaching of religion which may again be taught as the teachers deem fit. Another aspect of the English system worth mentioning here is that while the society at large through its elected representatives (M.P.s) and local councillors, political parties and teachers' unions are involved in the debates about curricula, their actual formulation is left to academic experts. It may be recalled that it was the Labour Party which in the 1940s introduced it a cornerstone of their party manifesto to comprehensive secondary education. Yet the same party had no ideological control over the actual formulation of the comprehensive school curriculum which was left to the educational experts.

Here an attempt will be made to study the curriculum

reforms at the secondary school level ranging from the ages 11-18 in order to see to what extent the various reforms have conformed to the norms of a liberal education for all and whether a drift from the principles of essentialism has actually taken place.

For the purpose of analysis, the English comprehensive school will be discussed in two stages, the 11-14 age group and the 15-16 age group. In addition, the sixth form curriculum will be referred to.

As there are a variety of comprehensive school types in England and Wales, it is worth making reference to certain case studies, plans and surveys carried out at the national or local levels in order to comprehend how the curriculum is organised for different age groups in the comprehensive school.

3.4.1 The Curricula Content

3.4.1.1 Curriculum for Pupils (11-14 Years)

Although the majority of comprehensive schools in England and Wales attempt to maintain a substantially common curriculum for the first three years of secondary education, nevertheless, variation in curriculum patterns do occur, most commonly in the sciences and foreign languages.

A survey, published by Inner London Education Authority (ILEA) in 1967, defined the three-year general course, now in operation in many of its schools, as including all the normal subjects at this stage of the secondary course: English, mathematics, science, history, geography, art, music, drama, handicrafts (for boys), housecrafts (for girls), religious instruction and physical education (91).

H.M. Schools Inspectors investigated the pattern of

curricula in secondary schools - grammar, modern, full range comprehensive, restricted range comprehensive and transitional comprehensive - in 1975-1978. They actually published their report in 1980. The purpose of their survey was to find out if experiences, capacities and attitudes which pupils have acquired by the age of sixteen match with the requirements directly for adult working life or higher education. Some of the information concerning their inspections is included in the references (92). However, their report shows that in most comprehensive schools, the first three years consists of a broad range of common subjects with some additional subjects, particularly foreign languages, for the more able children. At year three differentiation occurs and the number of subjects studied by all children was dramatically reduced to English, mathematics, physical education and games, with possibly another subject. The remainder of the time apart from this 'core' was spent on optional subjects, usually five or six chosen from a list of around twenty. Similarly, a select group of pupils might be separately studying physics, chemistry and biology. Rural science and/or environmental studies were offered to the bottom streams. The less able were taught to profit from extended contact with the creative aesthetic areas of the curriculum (93).

The H.M.I.s' Report maintains that the limited curricula differentiation in the first three years in schools investigated, meant that there are relative limitations on the choice of optional subjects in the fourth year, except in science and foreign languages. The Report views the experience of the first three years, for many pupils as partial in terms of content, and superficial also in terms of the acquisition of fundamental skills and attitudes (94). The Report argues although

the schools surveyed admitted the adoption of a common curriculum, there was some differentiation according to the sex and ability of the pupils. There were also differences of content and approach according to discerned differences of ability (95).

The differences in content of the first three years of secondary education are much more defined in subsequent years as is evident in the following analysis of the fourth and fifth year secondary curriculum.

3.4.1.2 Curriculum for Pupils (15-16 Years)

In broad terms, the fourth and the fifth year curricula programmes offered by comprehensive schools consist of 'core' and optional subjects.

(1) Core Curriculum

There are two main types of core curriculum in English comprehensive schools. In the first type of organisation, the core is wholly common, in that the same subjects are followed by all pupils in the school. The second is found in 'banded' schools which provide a common 'core' for all pupils within each ability band, but with some variations between the bands. C. Benn and B. Simon refer to London comprehensive schools where six courses with different biases are arranged (literary, science, engineering, commercial, art and general), each containing relevant required core subjects around which pupils add their own choice from optional subjects. They point out that the core subjects which are compulsory may either be basic ones such as English and mathematics, or they may be subjects which form the essential ingredients of a given course (96).

The majority of the comprehensive schools' curricula investigated by the H.M.I.s 1975-1978 included religious educa-

tion and career education. In more than 90 per cent of the schools surveyed, physical education was part of the core, while in banded schools English and mathematics were included in the core (97). Most comprehensive schools allocated between fourteen to eighteen periods per week for 'core' subjects distributed as follows: English and mathematics 4 or 5 periods, physical education 3 or 4 , careers education and religious education between 1-3 between them (98).

There is a general acceptance that science should be part of the core until the end of compulsory education. This broad position was formally recongised by the Labour Government in its Green Paper of 1977, but a difference of opinion has remained on the breadth of science required for such a 'core' (99). However, this proposal has not yet been implemented.

(2) Options

The same H.M.I.s Report (1980) refers to four principal approaches which are used in drawing up the options lists for the large comprehensive schools included in their survey.

The first is based on consumer research and involved informing all pupils in third year secondary of the total list of subjects available in the fourth year, inviting them to select from this list and then attempting to allocate subjects to the various 'blocks' in order to meet the maximum extent possible the expressed choices of each pupil.

The second approach is similar to the first. The only difference being that subjects are decided by schools in advance in the light of previous experience of the popularity of individual subjects and of the combinations of subjects frequently requested. Table No. 3 illustrates options offered in the fifth year in a large comprehensive school according to

the second approach followed in options organisation.

The third variation places more restrictions on choice. Apart from the core subjects the subjects available are grouped in such a way that in any one option 'block' they are confined to one particular area of the curriculum. For example, one 'block' might consist exclusively of sciences, another of social studies and the humanities and language. The fourth approach to the organisation of option grouping is specially designed to cater for the different bands of ability and therefore do not offer an open option choice across the whole ability range (100).

According to the first approach, students have more freedom to choose their options, while the second approach limits this freedom because options are offered according to their popularity within certain schools.

The H.M.I.s Report, 1980, explains that the structure of options, according to the third approach, is normally designed to achieve a balanced curriculum by ensuring that all or most of the curriculum were included in each pupil's programme. This, however, reflects the school's view of what is desirable for every pupil on general education grounds without prejudice to his or her career prospects or intentions (101).

The fourth kind of organisation can be noticed, for example, at the John Cleveland College, Leicestershire - Table No. 4. In this school, banding and setting within the bands have been introduced, and initially there were two bands. Those in 'Course 1' would aim at 'O' level with CSE as an alternative; those in the second would, in general, follow CSE courses with 'O' level available if the teacher felt it appropriate.

For purely vocational reasons, particular attention

is given in 'Course 2' to core subjects - English, mathematics and science - the time allocation for these subjects being increased by reducing the total number of subjects taken. Later two more bands, 'Course 3' and 'Course 4' were added to meet individual abilities. 'Course 4' was purposely planned for students of low ability for whom public examinations were largely inappropriate (102).

Lawton criticises options systems which operate in English comprehensive schools because some of them allow pupils to drop subjects which schould be regarded as essential for all. He believes that the freedom which is supposed to come with an options system is often more theoretical than real. Pupils get the options which are available rather than the options they really want (103).

To be familiar with the English comprehensive school curriculum which is based on subject divisions, it seems necessary also to study subject content to find out if it has been modified to meet diversified abilities, whether with the common core or optional courses. So mathematics, sciences, humanities, social science studies and vocational courses have been chosen to be studied in detail.

(1) Mathematics courses display considerable variety, not merely because of the range of abilities for which they must cater, but also because of the intensive curricula developments which started in the sixties.

There has been an increasing interest in the nature of the mathematics courses provided for non-examination groups in the fourth and fifth years. It is in non-examination and in some C.S.E. courses that the clearest attempts have been made to base mathematics teaching on a selection of topics from the world outside. On the other hand, there has been a growing interest in the development of self-instructional material in

mathematics which appears to have been successful with self motivated and gifted pupils.

Regardless of different efforts to develop mathematics courses to satisfy different abilities, the H.M.I.'s Report (1980) criticised the content of mathematics courses by pointing out that mathematics taught is generally too little related to the world outside and to other subjects in the school. This applies even when these subjects needed either to apply mathematical techniques directly, as in science, or when they gave a broader illustration of ideas explicit in syllabuses (104).

S. Shankey believes that there is a kind of discrimination between sexes in terms of mathematics courses and the results of public examinations in mathematics give statistical evidence. She asserts that girls are under-represented in the higher levels of mathematics. Girls are increasingly more likely than boys to be entered for CSE rather than 'O' level. She, however, argues that educators must not be misled into the belief that boys have more ability in the subject. She asserts that girls' performance in mathematics is closely linked to broader social attitudes which are particularly influential during adolescence. It seems important therefore to undermine as much as possible the masculine image which mathematics seems to have acquired. She suggests that one of the best ways of neutralising this image is to provide positive female role-models both within the subject itself and in the teaching environment (105).

(2) Different Science courses are taught to fourth and fifth year pupils in the 11-18 full range comprehensive school. Table No. 5 shows a list of sciences courses usually taught.

In some comprehensive schools it is considered essential that those pupils planning to follow a science 'A' level

course should have the opportunity to study all three sciences - biology, chemistry, physics at 'O' level. In others, alternatives which retain the possibility of studying the separate sciences at 'A' level whilst allowing a more balanced curriculum, have been preferred, the simplest pattern being to study biology and joint physics and chemistry at 'O' level. A recent innovation has been the double 'O' level offered by the Joint Matriculation Board and School Council Integrated Science Project (SCISP).

Many criticisms of science education concentrates on teachers' affectiveness, availability of science equipment, materials and laboratories, content of certain courses and their suitability for non-examination pupils, and teaching methods. The H.M.I.s Report (1980) points out that in the comprehensive schools investigated, most of the science courses concentrating on science concept had failed to provide either the stimulus or the opportunity for the pupils to observe applications and to become personally involved in applying these concepts. Pupils were rarely asked to use their science to improve a product made by empirical methods. Lessons emphasising the practical application of scientific principles were not confined to physical sciences. The Report adds,in the schools surveyed, girls were much more likely to select biological sciences and boys physical sciences. It is anticipated by H.M. Schools Inspectors that a greater number of girls would take physical sciences when care is taken to teach them the skills of science and to increase self-confidence by basing the work on a well-structured investigative practical exercise (106).

(3) Social Studies and Humanities may be considered an amalgam of different subjects which used to be taught in secondary schools separately. Still most of the English compre-

hensive schools offer these traditional subjects such as history and geography, to meet public examination requirements. J. Luke's survey of social studies in Humberside comprehensive schools (1979) shows that there is an enormous variation in what counts as social studies. Topics taught range from health and sex education, through aspects of psychology and sociology, to economics, welfare problems and civil problems (e.g. drugs, vandalism, unemployment, divorce), because these were seen as relevant to pupils who were themselves regarded as potential social problems (107).

The organisation of humanities at Bosworth College in Leicestershire, is one of the first attempts to integrate humanities subjects. Teachers of English, religious education, history, geography and other related subjects met over a period of two years to plan a course which provided a 'trunk' from which the subjects composing would grow as branches. Every pupil would take humanities, so neither history nor religious education could be dropped (108).

(4) The raising of the school-leaving age from 15 to 16 in 1972-73 gave greater impetus to the development of vocational courses and work experience in comprehensive schools which the Newsom Report (1964), Half Our Future, recommended.

Benn and Simon referred to the commonest types of vocational courses which in their view strongly marked a vocational sex bias. According to Appendix No. 3 a list arranged by them, needlework and domestic sciences were the two courses most restricted to girls, while woodwork and technical drawing were for boys. They found that courses in engineering, building and motor mechanics were not often provided for boys in the schools they investigated.

Some comprehensive schools, surveyed by H.M.I.s 1980, encourage their students in years four and five to join vocational courses offered in colleges of further education to widen their curriculum. However, in most cases, these courses are available only to the pupils of average ability and below (109).

In addition to vocational courses, work experience is provided in English comprehensive schools, but not for all students. The H.M.I.s Report (1980) shows that the duration of work experience in schools' survey was mostly five days or less. In 20 per cent of the schools investigated, students were placed in work for from six to fifteen days in their final years. Only five schools - two comprehensive and three secondary modern, provided work experience for all their pupils (110).

The D.E.S. lower attaining pupil pilot project, funded through the Urban Programme (1983), exemplifies the trend in curriculum development away from traditional styles of teaching and towards practical and vocational approaches developed in liaison with employers.

The Youth Training Scheme, implemented recently, provides a guarantee of a one-year traineeship for all unemployed 16 year olds and those leaving full-time education at 17 who became unemployed in their first year after leaving school. It is voluntary, so that an employer can if he wishes employ 16 and 17 year olds under contracts of employment outside the scheme and young people can enter such jobs or refuse traineeships under the scheme without penalty. This scheme is criticised by G. Hainworth. He states that it starts at the school gates; it is about training not unemployment. It is a short term scheme which can best be seen as a holding operation until the entire 16-19 position is reviewed (111). He believes that preparation for

life and work should not be seen as a dichotomy, but part of an integrated approach to the education, training and social needs of all youngsters aged 14-19. The objectives of this scheme are viewed as preparation for the performance of a fairly narrow range of tasks, often allied to defined occupations (112).

3.4.1.3 The Sixth Form Curriculum

In general, the comprehensive school is considered as an open society and a natural completion of continuous education. So within its premises, the sixth form curriculum is available to a wider range of students compared to any grammar school. One fact of the comprehensive school approach is the inclusion of vocationally oriented courses in the new sixth form caused by the raising of the school leaving age. Courses offered include those to 'A' level which qualify students for universities, polytechnics or institutes of higher education. The school also offers a variety of options but recommends particular combinations appropriate to specific vocations.

Four 'O' level or CSE Grade 1 passes are required for sixth form academic courses. The usual pattern of study for members of the sixth form comprises three subjects chosen from the arts or science side which occupy from two-thirds to three-quarters of the available teaching time.

As one of the comprehensive school objectives is to prepare students for the transition from school to work or higher education, it is worth looking into the careers education programmes offered to find out if this school has succeeded in linking its work with the world of work and opportunities in further and higher education. So the followihg part deals with this aspect.

3.4.2 Careers Education

Careers education programmes offered in English comprehensive schools, normally include information about the world of work and higher education. Some programmes last for the whole school year - Appendix 4. While in some comprehensive schools, for example, in Leicestershire, careers education is offered as a course. The content of such a course usually includes practice in decision-making, the collection and analysis of information about careers, colleges of further education and progress in the sixth form, practice for application and interview, details of where to get further information after leaving school, and what to do if unemployed. It also covers learning and revision skills, first aid, safety, hygiene, health and the use of leisure (113).

Teachers responsible for careers education* usually coordinate and participate in the work of a team of teachers. Specific duties are allocated to them such as organising the resources and maintaining links with higher and further education, industry, commerce and the professions, contributing in giving individual vocational guidance interviews, working with pupils, taking part in parents' evenings and so forth.

In the process of making the move from school into the work force or further education, a variety of organisations make their services available to schools to assist in the process of transition. The most prominent in this field being the Careers Services, the Unified Vocational Preparation Scheme, Project Trident and Young Enterprise.

---

* They are known by various titles: careers teachers, careers coordinators, head of careers, etc.

(1) The Careers Services

It actsas a bridge between full-time education and the world of employment, and aims to:

- help students reach informed, realistic decisions about their careers;
- to help them secure employment and training in line with those decisions and to offer help and guidance in all related problems;
- to establish close links with industry and the agencies of the Manpower Services Commission (114).

In relation to the performance of these functions, local authorities are charged with the responsibility that careers officers carry out their duties in a proper way. Careers services are offered in schools and colleges and careers officers are responsible for promoting and developing careers education and guidance in these institutions.

(2) Unified Vocational Preparation (UVP)

The 'unified' refers to joint planning and provision of vocational preparation by the education and training services together in partnership with representatives of industry to produce a joint approach in which traditional but artifical divisions between training and education are overridden; and the acquisition of skills and knowledge is seen as a single process of learning (115).

The UVP aims are:

- to equip the young with certain basic jobs skills and knowledge;
- to enhance their understanding of their working environment;

- to help them to develop the personal skills needed at work and in life generally, and to assess their potential and help them think realistically about jobs and future prospects (116).

However, the UVP programme is designed especially for those who join further education, but an expansion of this type of programme was also discussed in the 1979 White Paper, which referred to those leaving full-time education between 16 and 18 years of age.

(3) Project Trident

The Project is operated by the Trident Trust, formed in 1970. Industry and commerce have funded the project and provided local authorities with managers and coordinators seconded from business firms. The Project Trident programmes aim to complement and reinforce school experience by enabling students to:

- discover the working world through work experience as a part of careers education;
- discover themselves through residential courses in leisure and self-development activities;
- discover their community through voluntary services as a part of community education (117).

(4) Young Enterprise

An independent non-profit making company which aims to provide young people with the opportunity of learning about the organisation, management and operation of business by forming and running their own companies in miniature (118).

Prospective and recent school leavers in the 15-19 age range are eligible to participate in Young Enterprise Projects. The programmes are usually designed to help participants

learn about the problems and techniques of operating a business as a result of direct experiences ranging from managerial to shop floor and sales.

In general the cooperation and coordination between these different organisations and schools to carry out these programmes enables each to understand better the objectives and requirements of the others. However, this kind of coordination between schools and these organisations shows that there is a progressive trend, in England, which stresses linking schools with labour market demands. On the official level, this progressive trend is emphasised in the White Paper Proposals (1979) which focuses on providing "a universal scheme of education and training opportunities for all the 16-19 year age groups who enter employment on reaching school leaving age as well as skills required for a progressive technological society" (119).

Monk's general impression concerning careers education in the English Comprehensive Schools is as follows:

> "The quality of advice given reflects the enthusiasm and personal qualities of the careers staff. These in turn can be fostered by recognition, in terms of status, salary and career prospects, the time allocated on the timetable, and physical facilities available. Careers advice needs to be linked to other advice, particularly as a choice of subjects as early as the third year." (120).

Ray Hartley's Careers Education in a Depression, argues that if careers education is to remain relevant to the needs of young people in the future, then it needs to look more towards the disciplines of economics, sociology and politics and less to its former concern with psychology. He suggests a more relevant form of careers education by making a critique of the ideological under-pinnings of recent developments in the general area of the relationship between schools and the world of work and how to

equip young people with the intellectual means by which they can understand and cope with the problems of unemployment. He says emphasis must be placed on the political and economic aspects of careers programmes because the operating ones centre on aspects unrelated to the world of work and most of the time is devoted to some kind of vocational guidance to certain jobs which, in the near future, may not be available as a result of rapid technological development (121).

Related with curriculum content are methods of teaching and arrangements of groups, so the following part deals with these aspects.

3.4.3 Methods of Teaching and Grouping Practices

In the English comprehensive school, grouping of students takes one of these forms: streaming, setting, banding and mixed ability.

Although the streaming method has been criticised because it works against the comprehensive schools objectives, some schools still provide 'homogeneous classes' of the same level of ability in specific subjects of their curriculum especially in the fourth and fifth years when the influence of public examinations clearly begins more directly to dictate the choice of the curriculum. Davies argues that this method segregates pupils in their school. He states that if a child sees himself weak, he will seek to act accordingly and resist any attempt to convince him that he is anything different. The social effect of streaming, he asserts, results in formation of low self-concept among those who fail to meet their teachers' demands (122).

In general, setting has the same objectives and is based on the same principles as streaming, but it is a more refined

process that streaming because students are grouped into homogeneous classes based upon their ability in a specific subject. Setting is often organised, in comprehensive schools, for students who are supposed to be preparing for different public examinations. Schools usually set pupils in mathematics, a foreign language, science and sometimes in subjects such as English, history and geography.

To avoid the weaknesses of streaming - social and psychological - the broad ability bands system is used by some schools. This system was first pioneered by comprehensive schools in the early 1950s which rejected the practice of fine streaming. The broad ability bands system is regarded as a transitional stage towards non-streaming. At present, some comprehensive schools practise this method of grouping where students in each band are arranged in classes, each of which reflects the spread of ability in the band as a whole. The students are only unstreamed within be band.

According to non-streaming and mixed ability grouping patterns, the class theoretically contains an equal proportion of high, medium and low intellectual level students. Many comprehensive schools have employed mixed ability grouping in the first three years and for certain subjects such as religious education, arts, crafts, physical education and games.

In fact, these kinds of grouping, operating in the English comprehensive schools, reflect the notion that all children should be taught in the same school, but in accordance to their abilities. As a matter of fact these schools are under the pressure of external examinations, so they are obliged to employ arrangements of teaching groups which contradict its ethos.

3.4.4 Extra-Curricula Activities

Another aspect of the English comprehensive school curriculum is the extra-curricula activities which are offered to satisfy individual students' interests. However, the extra-curricula activities though they are available, are not considered as an integrated feature of the formal curriculum.

The average comprehensive school offers varied programmes of voluntary activities which include sports, hobbies, cultural and scientific activities. There are also activities involving social services which contribute to the welfare of local community life. They are designed to cater for the needs of pupils of all abilities. It has been noticed that the very success of the attempt to provide pupils with their choice of activity can occasionally lead to problems because of the involvement of so many teachers, not all of whom can be expected to share the pupils' enthusiasm or supply the expertise which the pupils need (123).

3.4.5 Evaluation of Pupils' Achievements

In England, comprehensive schools are bound to meet the actual entrance requirements of public examinations which are highly valued by the public.

J. Pearce refers to the set of grades used by several boards for a majority of candidates in England. They are given in Appendix 5A, while Appendix 5B gives some details about the CSE grades which are issued by the CSE boards on certificate.

Although many efforts have recently been made to introduce a host of new examinations to meet different needs, yet the General Certificate of Education (GCE) examinations 'O' and 'A' levels entrance requirements have left little or no time for

comprehensive schools to concentrate on general education (124).

Therefore, most schools tend to follow six main administrative procedures in the preparation of students for these examinations under whose pressure they work. These are identified: choice of course of subjects, including the type of examination for which the pupils will study; recommendation for entry; review of each pupil's overall commitment; final decision on subjects for which a pupil will be entered; routine examinations administration and resit arrangements. These administrative procedures are followed by schools to ensure that their candidates will pass all examinations they sit and this contributes to the schools' reputation in terms of the standard of their successful output (125). These procedures show clearly the influence of the examination on the curriculum, its content, its teaching methods and its evaluation in the English comprehensive school. The nature of examination syllabuses have a profound influence on what is taught in the fourth and fifth years of secondary schools, and there is little doubt that the nature of the associated schemes of assessment have put too great an emphasis on the ability to recall learned facts and opinions and to write them out in continuous prose, still regarded as 'the academic approach' (126).

In general, the concept of selection still persists in contemporary English school curricula and it is manifested in procedures and methods followed in students' election for different kinds of examinations.

3.4.6 Guidance and Counselling

The English school system,in general, provides pupils with an amount of broad educational and personal guidance of a

more or less informal kind initiated originally from the public school system by the grammar school and then passed on the secondary modern and the comprehensive school.

In English schools, the form teachers, tutors, and house-masters, where the House System operates, deal with more general aspects of guidance and counselling. Their duties include supervision of the progress and behaviour of the pupils in their forms or houses. They are also responsible for supervision and preparation of students' reports and record cards. They make contact with parents on matters of academic progress and general welfare of their students (127).

In large comprehensive schools, counsellors are usually employed. The school counsellors do not supplant the form teachers or housemasters,they actually supplement their efforts at the points at which they can be most effective (128).

Commenting on the conditions of counselling services in the English comprehensive school, Halsall states that professional counselling is likely to be restricted to the most urgent or the most intractable of personal problems and to some kind of group and individual vocational counselling. The counsellor, she observes, is less likely to do much work in the field of educational guidance, except at crucial points, such as the time when options choices are made, and the major part of this task continues to be carried out in an informal kind of way by the form teachers (129).

The H.M.I.s Survey, 1980), indicates that guidance and counselling has not developed as was expected in the English schools compared to the progress achieved in the American High School and to some extent in the Swedish comprehensive schools. Their report shows that the practice of counselling, whether under-

taken by the counsellor or by another teacher, may include, or consist solely of advice. However, its prime purpose is to help a pupil to learn how to deal himself, with the problems or tasks that have led him to seek help, or have shown that he needs help. In only 15 schools out of 384 schools surveyed by the H.M.I.s ranging in size from 538 to 2,473 pupils, did the counsellors' non-teaching time reach 75 per cent or more. Therefore lack of time, they believe, militates seriously against effective counselling provision in many schools. In addition, their survey reveals that there was some evidence of inadequate definition and insufficient understanding of the roles of counsellors and pastoral staff and sometimes lines of communications between counsellors and other teachers in the schools were less than satisfactory (130). The Report concludes that a lot needs to be done to develop guidance and counselling in the English comprehensive schools in order to reach the level the U.S.A. has reached in their high schools and the Swedish comprehensive schools.

Investigations of the English comprehensive school curriculum, its content and organisation will be incomplete if teachers' conditions are excluded. So the following parts deal with teacher education and status.

3.4.7 Teachers: Their Education and Status

Benn and Simons believe that teachers required in English comprehensive schools must be able to contribute specialist knowledge to as high a level as they are capable, but also be able and willing to work as part of a team in a group project or interdisciplinary study (131). Their report illustrates the new demands on comprehensive school teachers and suggests

some principles to be considered in teacher education. Their report states the teacher training programmes should:

(1) prepare teachers to adopt versatile approaches with children of a wide range of ability;

(2) be familiar with techniques of mixed ability teaching;

(3) take into account the social aspects of the comprehensive school, the role of the house, form tutor, guidance and counselling;

(4) concentrate on studying and understanding recent research findings, related to the nature of intellectual ability and the conditions fostering its growth (132).

The 1972 White Paper suggested fundamental changes in the organisation of teacher education. Some of its major objectives are the expansion of in-service training, a planned reinforcement of the process of induction in the first years of teaching, progressive achievement of an all-graduate teaching profession by means of a new pattern of courses 'without loss of emphasis' on the development of professional skills, the improved training of further education teachers, the integration of the colleges of education into the higher education system and changed arrangements for the control and coordination of teacher training and supply both nationally and locally (133).

Institutions, in charge of teachers' education, have adopted different means and methods to qualify prospective teachers (134). There is a tendency to offer integrated rather than long-standing specialist courses in teacher training. It has emerged as a result of the development of new inter-disciplinary approaches in the school curriculum and the focus on the needs of the child as a whole human being rather than on the

special needs of a classroom subject.

In-service training is considered an essential aspect to parallel teachers' experience with actual conditions in schools. Therefore the D.E.S., Institutes of Education and the L.E.A.s organise a large number of courses for serving teachers. Teachers centres also provide additional facilities. All in-service training courses, seminars and workshops aim at highlighting the new developments in educational theory and practice through the country and making serving teachers familiar with them.

In most comprehensive schools teachers' qualifications are recorded as follows: trained graduates, untrained graduates, bachelor of education, certificated teachers with secondary training, certificated teachers with junior or secondary training and other qualifications. The full range of comprehensive schools have a higher proportion of trained graduates and a smaller proportion of certificated teachers than restricted range comprehensives (135).

In English comprehensive schools, there is a tendency to involve teachers in the school's general work - but what has been noticed in some comprehensive schools investigate by H.M.Is. 1980, was that while the individual teacher obviously knew which students were taking the subject he or she was teaching, complete syllabus taken by an individual student was generally kept centrally by heads, deputies or directors of studies (136). This observation shows that teachers' involvement in schools' work and management is limited.

Commenting on teaching as a profession, Holmes states that there is a lot of debate in England as well as in Sweden and the U.S.A. Holmes argues that teachers aspire to become members

of a profession, but the public service they are expected to perform is now disputed. They cannot agree among themselves what esoteric knowledge all teachers should possess. On the other hand, they cannot control the recruitment within their profession because it is usually regulated by government in the light of changing demands. In addition, he contends, teachers' education and training is planned by experts and specialists at institutes of higher education (137).

To sum up, the English comprehensive school curriculum for 11-18 age group has experienced many changes since its introduction. There have been concerted efforts of re-examination, renewal, and revision of the curriculum content to satisfy the diversified abilities and needs of students. These efforts have been initiated by local education authorities, professional organisations, sponsoring bodies such as Schools Council and the Nuffield Foundation and teachers unions.

However, some general observations can be drawn from the previous analysis of the comprehensive school curriculum and its facets.

(1) The English comprehensive school curriculum is based on the essentialist theory of knowledge which emphasises the importance of disciplines concerned with the comprehensive development of the mind, the subject-based curriculum is the most dominant organisation.

(2) It offers core subjects for all students regardless of their abilities to ensure some kind of general education.

(3) It applies an option system to allow students freedom to choose subjects of their own interests, but the concept of ability is maintained throughout the

comprehensive school curriculum;

(4) It provides courses for those whose schooling terminated at sixteen.

(5) It applies different methods of grouping arrangements to satisfy different abilities; even some subjects, such as mathematics, sciences and social sciences are modified in a way to cater for different abilities.

(6) It applies different kinds of administrative and academic decentralisation to overcome the problems of large comprehensive schools such as the house system and the form system.

Despite the foregoing positive features, the comprehensive school curriculum reforms have not met the ideal principles of comprehensivisation. The curriculum still retains most of the traditional secondary school's curriculum - from the grammar and secondary modern system. For instance, the academic subjects leading to the 'O' and 'A' levels have higher prestige compared with vocational courses and they also dominate the curriculum especially in the fourth and fifth years.

Since the examination system puts a heavy burden on the comprehensive school, most of the staff's efforts are directed towards examination preparation rather than towards general education and development of the aptitudes, interests and skills of individual pupils.

Each individual comprehensive school - like the Swedish and the American, serves a certain community or a neighbourhood area, therefore, it is obliged to tailor courses to its clients' needs. Consequently, there exists differences on options and standards among various localities.

The diversity of opinion among staff who are not obliged to follow specified syllabuses has hindered the progress of comprehensive school curriculum on a national level.

Remarking on the curriculum development in English schools, and it seems applicable also to the comprehensive schools, Holmes refers to an essential factor that hinders curriculum reforms. He states that in terms of curriculum reforms, the most significant feature of the mental states possessed by teachers is their internalised belief in what constitutes knowledge and how it can be acquired. Teachers trained in universities, he asserts, are likely to have been socialised into accepting an epistemology which makes it difficult for them to change their approach to the content of education and how it should be taught and learned (138).

3.5 Comprehensive School Curriculum in the U.S.A.

In the U.S.A., unlike Europe, as Holmes pointed out, questions of curricula have been the subject of public debate for a long time and the aims, organisation and selection of the content reflect pragmatic criteria which imply that the content of education should be selected on the bases of social and personal problems (139). The content is determined by asking what knowledge young people will need - and, therefore, should be provided with, to meet the problems of living - occupational, civic, family, leisure, health, moral - when they leave school (140).

To cope with the diverse needs, abilities and interests, of individuals and to satisfy societal demands, the American comprehensive schools usually provide one or more of the following types of curriculum: a college preparatory curriculum, a constant-with-variables curriculum, a multiple curriculum or a general curriculum.

(1) The college preparatory curriculum concentrates on subjects needed for higher study. Generally speaking, the college preparatory curricula are similar throughout the states and go along with the recommendations of the 1899 Report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements. The requirements usually include: four years of English, two or three years of social studies, two of mathematics, one or two of sciences and two of foreign languages (141).

(2) According to the constant-with-variables plan, all students are required to take certain subjects. These subjects are presumably basic to the general education of all youth in the district. They are supposed to ensure that high school graduates have acquired a basic understanding in these subject areas. In the seventh and eighth grades most of the courses offered are constant, but in the upper grades courses are much more likely to be specialised (142).

(3) In the multiple curriculum plan, different courses are introduced for students with different goals. The (tracks*) which might be found in a multiple curriculum organisation include: a general, vocational, technical, practical arts, business, college preparatory, special education and fine arts (143).

(4) Courses in the general curriculum plan are not designed to prepare students for college or for any particular vocation. As a rule, it consists of a minimum number of required courses plus a relatively large choice of electives. The electives may be either free electives or limited electives

---

* Track has been defined in The International Dictionary of Education as 'educational programmes or paths'. Tracking in USA schools means that students in a comprehensive type of school are pursuing particular interests or tracks, usually by accumulating credits, a system which has an effect similar to streaming.

or a combination of the two. Broadly speaking, a general programme might be as follows (this is not typical, but just illustrative): language arts (3-4 units), social studies (2-3 units), mathematics (1 unit), science (1 unit) and electives (9-13 units) (144).

As a matter of fact, a great majority of American comprehensive high schools offer college preparatory courses, vocational, general or commercial courses. However the following part will concentrate on the curricula offered at the junior and senior levels of the comprehensive high school and how the core and the elective system contribute, on the one hand, to ensure general education for all, and on the other hand, meet the individual needs of pupils.

3.5.1 Curricula Content

3.5.1.1 Curriculum offered at the Junior and Senior levels

Generally speaking, the American High School offers a common core and electives to satisfy various needs.

(1) Core Curriculum

Conant's Second Report 1967 states five criteria which have to be met in comprehensive high schools in order to ensure the provision of a common core learning for all students regardless of their future aspirations. The Report recommends that the school might:

- provide instruction in calculus;
- provide instruction in modern foreign languages for four years;
- arrange the schedule so that a pupil may learn in any one year English, mathematics, science a foreign language, social studies, physical education, art or

music;

- provide home economics for girls and industrial arts for boys;
- provide one or more advanced placement courses (145).

In 1983, The Board of Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of American Secondary Education Report proposed a core of common learning for comprehensive high school similar to Conant's recommendations. But the report suggested, in addition, seminars on work, independent projects and technology. The Report pointed out that suggested core programmes aim to extend knowledge and broaden the perspective of every student (146). Figure No. 11, gives a clear picture of the proposed core programme's content.

(2) Electives System

At the junior level, grades 7-9 - all students are supposed to study the same subjects, with the exception of electives Table No. 6. The electives are frequently minimal. Omly ninth grade students usually have some elective choices, while seventh and eighth grade students, instead, take exploratory courses in industrial arts, crafts and foreign languages.

In the senior level of the comprehensive high schools - 10-12 grades, the curriculum organisation is different in as much as at that level more electives courses are offered. Table No. 7 shows courses offered at these grades and graduation requirements in Amherst Central Comprehensive High School in New York. At this level, however, the different types of curriculum are offered to meet different needs.

In general, the content of learning programmes in the comprehensive high schools - junior and senior levels - vary in terms of their validity, significance, utility and learnability

and consistency with comprehensive education objectives. To elaborate this feature, it will be necessary to look into some subjects and areas of studies and the way they are organised in the school. The investigation will cover: mathematics, sciences, social studies, vocational and practical courses, business and communication languages to find out if their content manifest the concepts of general education, equal opportunity for individual students and satisfy manpower needs at this level of education.

(1) Mathematics is a compulsory subject for all students in the American comprehensive high school. Its objective is to expand students' capacity to think quantitatively and to make intelligent decisions regarding situations involving measurable quantities (147).

In general the typical aspects of mathematics usually taught in comprehensive high schools are: plane geometry, algebra, advanced algebra, general mathematics, advanced general mathematics; some of these are taught only to gifted students. The Carnegie Report (1983) emphasises that all high school students should acquire a two-year mathematics sequence for graduate (148). A number of innovative mathematics programmes have been devised. For instance, computer-based programmes have been introduced and computers are used both to assist students to comprehend mathematical principles and for other subjects. But the introduction of computers has been criticised: it is said the magical adding machines hinder the cognitive ability of students and minimises their initiative in mathematics (149). However, there is a tendency to integrate mathematics with other subjects to make it more relevant to students' actual life.

(2) Science is considered part of a general education programme because it helps to satisfy the requirements for basic education; it is commonly stated that including science in general education is to develop one's ability to think scientifically. A two-year science programme and a course in technology should achieve this objective (150). In general science courses are designed at different levels, to satisfy individual needs, and many integrated science courses have recently been developed. As advocated by Dewey, modern thinking in science teaching seems to favour the use of the discovery-oriented courses that emphasise students' experimentation as a means of learning scientific methods and acquiring attitudes and skills necessary for critical thinking (151). G.M. Inlow claims that relating the natural sciences to other disciplines such as mathematics and social sciences would advance the concept of science as a universal subject and maintain science as a value-oriented (not value-free) phenomenon committed to societal improvement (152). Although much effort has been made to develop integrated science courses, the traditional classification of courses persists. Table No. 8 illustrates some of these courses offered in ninth to twelfth grades.

(3) Social Studies courses occupy a unique position in the comprehensive school curriculum. They act as vehicles in the transmission of the cultural heritage knowledge of students.

The Conant Report (1959) on The American High School recommended that social studies be required in junior high school - grades 7-8. For high school grades 9-12, it recommended two years of history (one of which should be American Government) (153). In 1983, the Board of Trustees' Report, referred to earlier, recommended that certain courses, i.e. United States History,

Western Civilisation, Non-Western Civilisation and Civics, be required for graduation from all the high schools (154).

American junior and senior high schools usually provide social studies courses mentioned in Table No. 9 according to their merits. Clark at al have observed that subjects are seldom amalgamated into integrated social studies courses as they are supposed to be. More often the integrated trend in social studies is expressed by the increasing use of problem-solving techniques and the incorporation of subject matter from other disciplines, discrete courses in history and the various social sciences (155). However, integration, in its real sense, means linking material from different subjects rather than differentiating them or treating one and neglecting others.

(4) Vocational and practical studies are considered essential to general education. Therefore, they are offered right across the American small and large comprehensive schools. However, vocational courses are defined differently from practical arts programmes. The vocational courses prepare students for occupations that require high-school training (Appendix No. 6A); while the practical arts programmes are conceptualised, within the American context, as those that include skills, knowledge and attitudes, but do not necessarily lead to specific occupation. These pre-vocational practical subjects are usually designed to fulfill general education requirements (Appendix No. 6B). They are commonly offered at all levels, and some of them are much more advanced courses that require a high degree of maturity and more thus restricted to the eleventh and twelfth grades (156).

But, vocational and practical courses are typically offered as electives rather than compulsory courses where the facilities and equipment are evailable. However, vocational and

practical programmes, offered an American comprehensive high schools, have been criticised. For instance, H.S. Broady criticises in particular the type of vocational programmes that ensure immediate employment for the drop-out students. He asserts that training for immediate employment, or for a job which makes few intellectual demands, is certainly one way for a school to dispose of its problems and transfer them to other social institutions a few years later. He has observed that despite the importance of vocational and practical programmes, few students are enrolled because they still value academic rather than practical programmes (157).

(5) Business Education is one of the most diversified programmes in the American comprehensive schools. The business courses provide vocational education for students intending to engage in the distributive trades and services. (Appendix 7A) gives a sample of business courses generally offered, while (Appendix 7B) illustrates curriculum patterns of general business education offered in some states.

(6) Foreign languages are offered to satisfy the needs of different ethnic and linguistic groups in the U.S.A. Their primary goal, in the American high school, is to teach students to communicate effectively. The preferable foreign languages taught are: Latin, French, Spanish and German, but there are also other languages which are offered, contingent upon enrolment and parents' insistence. These include: Arabic, Chinese (Mandarin), Czech, Greek, Hawiian, Hebrew, Japanese, Norwegian, Polish, Portuguese, Swedish and Urdu. Foreign language teaching emphasises fluency in speaking and writing as well as in reading and translation.

Despite the drift from discrete separate subjects to correlation and integration of subject matter, academic subjects

maintain their place in the American comprehensive schools and they are considered the heart of the curriculum. The subjects are seldom amalgamated into integrated courses. Clark et al state that despite the emphasis on humaneness in the curriculum, the stress on learning the content of the disciplines is not dead. This can be seen in the national assessment programme which is basically a device by which to determine how well pupils have learned the content the assessors believe they should have learned. They add that the emphasis on learning subject matters is also implicit in the rise of the accountability and performance contracting movements that, in effect, state that teachers must teach certain content or not be paid (158).

As one of the American comprehensive high school objectives is to prepare students for the transition from school to work or higher education, it is necessary to look into careers education programmes, so the following part deals with this aspect.

Careers Education

Careers education and vocational guidance are given great emphasis in the American comprehensive high school and many programmes have been developed in recent years to guide students. The purpose of the careers and vocational guidance programmmes as explained by Clark et al, are

(a) to help students to be familiar with the latest information about careers open to them in the fields of their aspirations,

(b) to help them to become aware of their vocational interests and abilities, and

(c) to formulate plans and goals for their future (159).

Since the National Defense Education Act of 1958, a

variety of careers and vocational guidance programmes have developed, but their content did not develop sufficiently to satisfy the urgent needs of the whole range of students. Therefore various commissions were set up to investigate the matter. For example, the National Commission on Secondary Education 1972-73, surveyed the comprehensive schools' careers programmes and its report concentrates on the aims and content of these programmes. The Report proposed that careers education should be divided into three phases in the comprehensive high schools. First, the school should offer a general programme in careers awareness for all the students. It ought to give them theoretical background about various careers, respect for work, ethnic and an appreciation of the dignity of work. Secondly, in grade eight through ten, the programmes should include the acquisition of specific skills related to different occupations. The students should be encouraged to investigate several occupations in each of a number of 'clusters' or a group of occupations. However, some fifteen such clusters, covering approximately 800 occupations have already been developed by the U.S. Department of Labour and schools should benefit from them in designing their programmes. Thirdly, careers education in grades eleven and twelve should include extensive opportunities for all students to concentrate on the acquisition of specific skills related to the occupations that they have chosen (160).

However, these proposals have not fully been put into practice, and therefore, the American high schools vary a great deal in types of careers programmes and apply different techniques of guidance in relation to vocational counselling. For example, group guidance plays an important role in the general guidance programmes. The intention of group guidance is to permit the

pupils to survey the main area of employment and to assess, realistically, his own capacities and interests in relation to these areas. The group guidance also has the advantages of offering a format with which the pupil is accustomed and of giving the individual pupil group support in facing and understanding his problems (161).

In addition to the initiative by the schools and universities to develop careers education programmes, and co-ordinate them with business, local employers in the community, steps have been taken to introduce new legislation specifically related to youth and have been adopted in the state education laws in order to standardise careers programmes. For example, the Youth Employment and Demonstration Project Act of 1977 included the following projects:

- Youth Adult Conservations Corps (YACC)
- Youth Community Conservations and Improvement (YCCIP)
- Youth Employment and Training (YETP).

Each of these projects is directed to a specific group of youth. The last (YETP) is directed primarily to school youth between the ages of 14-21. The objectives of this programme are to give more attention to improving linkage between school and work. Career education as a whole is not limited to schools but is the responsibility of the whole community (162).

Eli Genzberg states that by 1979, some 174,000 students in secondary schools were receiving career employment experience, transition services, classroom or on the job training or work experience (163).

However, careers education still remains unsatisfactory and the existing careers education programmes in the American comprehensive high schools have been criticised by many

educators. Spring claims that the prevailing careers education neither changes the nature of the American labour market, nor the existing occupational structure. Such careers education, he thinks, only eases the transition from school to available occupations. He considers that all careers education can promise is the hope that less time will be spent on finding a job related to an individual's interests (164).

Commenting on the kind of careers education and vocational guidance and counselling offered for students from minority groups, Genzberg, for instance,points out that a particular negative experience has confronted many students from minority groups because they are offered a kind of guidance to prepare them for the manual trades or services and not to pursue academic subjects that would lead them to college and professional careers (165). Genzberg's figures are based on statistical distribution, which reveals that most black secondary graduates are employed in manual and service occupations and only a handful of them have penetrated the professions and white collar jobs (166). Genzberg notices that many counsellors have been diverted from their advisory function and have directed their efforts to other problems. For instance, in high schools where a high percentage of students go on to college, most of the counsellors' time is directed to academic counselling; while in the large city schools, they are mostly preoccupied with disciplinary problems. In ghetto schools many counsellors are also handicapped by their limited knowledge of the realities of the labour market, therefore they are ineffective in helping their students to learn about the problems and to apply to desirable training programmes for jobs (167).

The manner in which the school organises learning and groups students, has considerable effect upon students' under-

standing, skills, attitudes, appreciation and ideals. The methods of grouping reflects the school's general ideology. So how does the American comprehensive high school deal with such matters? And what kinds of grouping procedures, compared to its counterparts in Sweden and England, does it utilise? These questions will be explained in the following part.

3.5.2 Methods of Teaching and Grouping Practices

The basis for grouping and the criteria for selection vary considerably and may include intelligence achievement, interests, motivation and/or vocational plan. A variety of grouping procedures has been attempted in the comprehensive school.

In the junior comprehensive schools (Grades 7-9) the following groupings are practised:

(1) groupings by subject;

(2) non-grades classes - where students may move through the curriculum at their own speed;

(3) intra-classroom groups in which a teacher has two or more groups selected according to performance;

(4) integrated grouping in which, for example, several seventh grade teachers might shuffle students around for a given subject and assign them to different teachers for different levels of work (168).

In the senior comprehensive high schools (Grades 9-12) the most common form of grouping is 'tracking' for homogeneous groups. The homogeneous ability grouping is based on the basis of intelligence tests, achievement tests, reading level, grades and teachers' evaluation.

However, there is a great deal of pressure on comprehensive schools to adopt heterogenous grouping to promote social

unity. It has been argued that the comprehensive school is a mini-template of the American democratic system in which various groups must have a degree of self consciousness and yet be federated into a larger whole through the recognition of common interests and ideals (169). J.A. Johnson et al, state that,

> "one of the major problems associated with the difficulty of establishing truly homogenous groups can be found in the lack of precision of the measurement instruments used to establish groups and the lack of flexible class and teaching assignments." (170).

The curricula are divided into tracks to help gain curriculum flexibility. However, students in low tracks are exposed to far less challenging curricula material and less effective instructional practices. According to J. Goodlad's study, the knowledge provided to students in low tracks was typically basic literacy or computation materials on topics oriented to everyday life and work. Activities and skills listed by teachers usually required only low level cognitive processes (171).

Extra-Curricula Activities

Extra-curricula activities have attained a place of great importance in American education. R.N. Bush thinks that a more liberal inclusion of the extra-curricula activities is the result of broadened objectives and enlarged enrolment in secondary schools as well as the upsurge among students and youth of a trend in recreational interests and initiatives (172).

In general, the comprehensive high schools offer a variety of extra-curricula activities such as pupils' participation in school government, large technical activities, school clubs and social activities. All their activities provide opportunities for adjustment and growth in accordance with student needs and interests and contributes as well to the proper

functioning of the secondary school.

In the American comprehensive high school, unlike Sweden and England, the tendency is to curricularise and bring extra-curricula activities into the school. The reasons behind the curricularisation of extra-curricula activities are seen that the division between formal curriculum and these activities has resulted in viewing them as sports rather than as a contritribution to general education. Teachere themselves are also reluctant to supervise these activities because they consume time and add extra loads on them (173).

Bush suggests that to overcome these problems, serious consideration needs to be directed to the adjustment of the load of the teachers so they can provide enough time to extra-curricula activities and direct the energies of both more academically talented and average students to participate in these activities effectively (174).

3.5.3 Evaluation of Pupils' Achievements

In general the assessment system in America is conceptualised as a means of checking upon the effectiveness of the curriculum. In American comprehensive schools, assessment is seen as checking students' achievement in three domains - cognitive, affective and psychomotor. Each year, there is a complete testing programme for all students. The standardised achievement tests are also employed to measure two areas of learning, namely, the students' ability in mathematics and verbal skills. These tests are required by many colleges as well as employers in addition to Scholastic Aptitute Tests (175) which are achievement tests in such subjects as languages, sciences, mathematics or English composition.

In the senior comprehensive high schools, the Carnegie Unit System is used. Students are awarded units of credits; one unit is given for the successful completion of a course meeting four or five times a week for 40 to 60 minutes, for 36-40 weeks each year (176). And in order to receive a standard school diploma or the State Regents Diploma, a total of 18 units is required. Table No. 7, illustrates the graduation requirements of Amherst High School.

The Carnegie Unit System has been criticised by educators. It is stated that the major difficulty associated with it is that it does not take into account that

(a) students do not learn at the same rate;

(b) they do not maintain a constant learning rate during the learning process;

(c) and schools continue to schedule students into established time modules constant with the definition of Carnegie Unit which concentrates only on the formal academic programmes (177).

In view of the above criticism, the Board of Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching Report, 1983, have realised that there is an urgent need for a more effective assessment and guidance programme that will give colleges and universities a more realistic portrait of what students have learned during their high school years.

It also addresses itself to another urgent need to help non-college students figure out where they should go and what they should do after leaving school. One of the Report's recommendations is a development of a Student Achievement and Advisement Test (SAAT), to serve the needs of all students as they make the transition from school to work and for further education (178).

3.5.3.1 Guidance and Counselling

A host of factors have been responsible for the increasing importance given to the guidance services in the American comprehensive high schools. The most significant single factor remains the massification of secondary education and the growth of schools' population which has resulted in the diversity of the make-up of the student body in terms of needs, abilities and social background (179). The schools, accordingly, offer various programmes of guidance services. These guidance programmes include personal, social, educational and vocational aspects.

The content of guidance programmes encompass five guidance services and Clark et al state them as follows: the individual inventory service, the information service, the counselling service, the placement service and the follow-up or evaluation service. They point out that although each service has a distinctive role, in practice, they overlap and duplicate so that there is no clear distinction between them. Briefly, the main features of each type of service are outlined below:

(a) The Individual Inventory Service means that essential information about the individual pupil is collected, assessed, stored and made available for use. This information is gathered from different sources, e.g. previous school records, school testing programmes, case studies, interviews with parents and pupils, questionnaires, autobiographies and routine reports from teachers and other school personnel. This information about the individual pupil, however, ought to be readily available to teachers and guidance specialists. Therefore, the cumulative record is the heart of the individual inventory service.

(b) The Counselling Service aims to help pupils to help themselves towards the fullest realisation of their own potentialities. Direct and indirect techniques of individual and group counselling are utilised to achieve this aim.

(c) The Placement Service is designed to help pupils make and implement vocational, educational and socio-personal decisions. Increasingly, attention is being placed on helping pupils select the proper curricula, courses, and co-curricula activities within schools as well as helping them find the proper choice in their post-secondary schools' careers.

(d) The Follow-up or Evaluation Service functions to help pupils, after they have left school, to accumulate data which are utilised in evaluating the effectiveness of the curriculum and other schools' activities and work (180).

Ideally, according to Conant's Report (1959), the American high schools should employ qualified counsellors and the counsellor-pupil ratio should be one counsellor for every 250-300 pupils (181). This means that if a school has 1,000 pupils, it should have a professional guidance staff or one head counsellor or director of guidance services and at least three full-time counsellor assistants. And if the school is coeducational, both male and female counsellors should be available. But this ideal position has not been reached in most American comprehensive high schools. In fact, many counsellors are actually teacher counsellors who act as teachers and part-time counsellors. According to some educationists such as Clark et al, this arrangement is more conceived to enhance the chances of successful

guidance team operation. The teacher-counsellor's position help him to become better acquainted with pupils and keep him in touch with the realities of the classroom. Clark et al view that teachers rather than the professional counsellors are more suited to play a more useful role in the counselling function which clearly validates the present English and Swedish approach concerning teachers' role in counselling and guidance matters (182).

A final point which must be mentioned is the concept that the guidance counsellors' responsibilities, in the American high schools, do not include functions such as disciplinary action, slow learners, delinquency and the handicapped. These matters are dealt with, as in England and Wales, by specialists or by other members of the administrative staff of the school.

The study of the American comprehensive high school curriculum, its content and organisation will be incomplete if teachers' education and status is excluded. Therefore, the proceeding part deals with teachers' conditions.

3.5.4 Teachers: Their Education and Status

In the U.S.A, the secondary school teachers are educated both through liberal arts programmes and professional studies. Teachers' education programmes are generally charaterised by these three components: general education, specialisation and professional education. The most notable recent development in the preparation of teachers, in the U.S.A. is the approach known as competency-based teacher education (CBTE). This approach is advocated in order to overcome the weaknesses of the experience-based programmes which assume that when students complete certain courses and student teaching

experience they are ready to begin teaching. While the CBTE requires students to demonstrate behaviours related to promoting learning in their pupils (183).

The CBTE is advocated as an alternative to overcome the weaknesses in Experience-Based Teacher Education. These weaknesses are:

(1) limited conceptualisation of the total programme with no systematic or overarching view of the teacher's role;

(2) vague programme goals;

(3) lack of research substantiating what is taught and advocated;

(4) the use of tradition rather than logic or research as the basis of programme change;

(5) little evaluation and follow-up of graduates;

(6) no accountability of the programme to its students, their pupils or the public;

(7) inadequate faculty models in the university and in cooperating schools (184).

However, it has been observed that a newly recruited teacher finds it difficult to deal with the actual teaching situations. This is attributed to the inefficiencies in the pre-training methods used in teacher training colleges. To overcome this problem, new proposals concerning programme content for teacher training were suggested to raise the standard of the preparation.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching had made the following proposals concerning teacher training:

(1) During the first two years of college, all prospective teachers should complete a core of common learning,

one that parallels in broad lines - the high school core curriculum.

(2) All teacher candidates should be carefully selected. Formal admission to teacher education should occur at the beginning of the junior year when students begin a three-year teacher preparation and only students who have accumulative college grade point average of 3.0 (B) or better and who have strong supportive recommendations from two professors who taught them in required courses should be admitted.

(3) Once the teacher candidate is admitted, he/she should devote the junior and senior years primarily to the completion of a major in an academic discipline and classroom observation.

(4) Every prospective teacher should have a fifth year of instructional and apprenticeship experience. This year would include a core course to meet the special needs of teachers. These four courses are (Schooling in America, Learning Theory and Research, The Teaching of Writing and The Use of Technology).

(5) The fifth year should include classroom observations and teaching experience (185).

The requirements for graduation as a certificated secondary school teacher vary from one state to another. Since the 1940s, a great number of states have required that a candidate for teaching must have a college degree and be 'properly prepared' for the profession. Some states have specified prescription in the content of professional courses for those desiring to teach at any level of the public school. All states require a period of pre-service training under actual classroom

conditions.

In most cases, teachers in the U.S.A. have little say in the selection of curriculum content nor about textbooks to be used. It is observed that they do not usually decide how many and which students will be in their classes or how long the schoolday or the class period will be. Most of them are obliged to prepare their students for external examinations (186).

It can be deduced that the teaching profession is not categorised as one of the main professions, not is it considered parallel with them. It is valued less in terms of economic and social status. Regardless of the efforts made to raise the standard of the teaching profession, the fact remains that society does not value them greatly.

Even in terms of payment, their salaries are low compared to other professions. The nation-wide average secondary school teacher's salary in 1982-83 was $19,142; the average starting salary for teachers with a Bachelors Degree was $12,769. This salary is not high compared to staffing salaries of other professionals with Bachelors Degrees; for example, an engineer's salary was $22,368 and computer scientists received $20,364 during that year. As a result of the low financial reward it is observed that for many teachers "moon-lighting" has become essential. A recent statistical report revealed that 11.1 per cent of teachers admit to holding jobs after school hours (187).

The American Teachers' Organisations (National Education Association, founded in 1857 and American Federation of Teachers (1916), are trying to raise the standard of the professional status. They often engage themselves in activities designed to ensure teachers' rights, such as improving

their working conditions and negotiating with the governing body of a school district for a review and revision of the salary scales and other financial rewards for their members.

To sum up, an analysis of the contextual features of the American comprehensive high school reveals that though the school has made a tremendous effort to organise the curriculum to match the declared goals of this school as well as of the American people which stress an equality of status, yet these goals continue as aspirations. This is attributed to the continuous normative values which point up the traditional concept of curriculum and affect the process of comprehensive education within the comprehensive school (188).

Clark et al, explain that the different values held by various social classes present crucial dilemmas to the the planner of comprehensive school curricula. Teachers usually have a middle class orientation he argued, therefore they find it difficult to understand the values of lower-class students. Middle-class parents often demand and secure the curriculum they most value since they are the more effective members in parental organisations, while lower-class parents on the other hand, find it difficult to make themselves heard. Lower-class students find that the curricula do not provide for their needs. Therefore, the problem of relating a curriculum to various social groups needs has not been solved. And even vocational courses are still valued less regardless of this school's effort to offer diversified vocational programmes lead to the development of marketable skills. Most problems of school curriculum organisation stem from the conflicting needs to provide learning common to all students and at the same time to adequately allow for their individual needs (189).

The narrow academic purpose of the old Latin Grammar School still survives within the American comprehensive high school. Classics, arts, and more academic subjects have higher prestige compared to vocational courses. Boyer's Report (1983) states that high schools (including the comprehensive ones) place more emphasis on basic academic subjects. An analysis of statistics of basic academic subjects also shows that the percentage is increasing rather than decreasing. For instance, in 1972 47 per cent of the schools' curricula were allocated for academic subjects, while in 1980 the percentage was 67 (190).

As many American comprehensive high schools divide their curricula into tracks to help gain curriculum flexibility, however, students in low tracks are exposed to far less challenging curricula material and less effective instructional practices compared to those in high tracks as indicated earlier.

Each individual comprehensive high school serves certain community or a neighbourhood area. Consequently there exists differences in options, standards and enrolment among various localities.

The Cernegie Unit System and colleges' entry requirements put a heavy burden on the comprehensive high school and the staff usually concentrate mainly on the formal academic programmes.

3.6 General Reflections

The foregoing discussion in chapters two and three highlights certain aspects related to the three selected ideal-typical models of the comprehensive school system in Sweden, England and the U.S.A.

The three models are characterised by certain specific

features with regard to their ideology, institutional patterns and curriculum content and organisation.

Although the Swedish and the English comprehensive school models are based on the socialist ideology and while, on the other hand, the American model is based on the pragmatic ideology, the three countries agree on the following board principles of the comprehensivisation of secondary education which require:

(1) to integrate different social groups and bridge the gaps among different social classes through education for the purpose of national unification, integration and cohesion;

(2) to bring students of all ability ranges into a single school within a specific community and a specific area;

(3) to ensure equality of educational opportunity among different social groups and between the genders.

(4) to cater for societal prosperity (especially in Sweden and the U.S.A.).

Despite the general agreement on their norms and principles, the institutional organisation of the comprehensive schools varies in these three model countries and reflects their specific historical, social and political and administrative context. For instance, in England and the U.S.A. the decentralisation of the education system allows for the establishment of different patterns of secondary school organisation. While in Sweden, as a result of the centralisation of the education system, uniformity of the comprehensive school organisation is clear throughout the country.

In general, there is a difference between the adopted policies of comprehensive secondary education and the actual

curriculum organisation within these three selected models. Each individual comprehensive school curriculum model has been designed according to the traditional curriculum theories persisting in each country. As indicated in Chapter Three, the Americans largely conform to the pragmatic theory of curriculum to cater for their changing, pluralistic society. While the English maintain their educational traditions of the essentialist theory of curriculum which upholds the importance of the academic disciplines and their role to develop the intellect in the education of ruling elites. On the other hand, the Swedish value the encyclopaedist theory of the curriculum though they also rely on some aspects of the polytechnical concept of curriculum to ensure greater societal prosperity.

The organisation of curriculum in all the three model countries is based on the following general notions:

(1) they allow for a variety of curriculum plans to satisfy different needs, abilities and to meet the societal demands, especially in Sweden and the U.S.A.;

(2) they are ambitious to ensure wide freedom of optional choices and specialisations;

(3) they aspire to ensure the basic integration through a common core of subjects, among various ranges of abilities and among different social groups;

(4) they are anxious to bridge the differences between academic and vocational education and help to eliminate prejudices between pure academic education vis-a-vis the technical/vocational specialisations;

(5) they are eager to help the young to have a realistic approach to the World of Work and make them aware of the occupational opportunities available in their

societies by introducing careers education, work experience and by applying a variety of guidance and counselling methods and programmes;

(6) they try to adopt various grouping arrangements and teaching methods to meet individual needs and abilities;

(7) they strive to promote new approaches in evaluation and assessments of students' progress and achievements;

(8) they endeavour to enlarge the scope of teacher education and training by demanding more proficiency and professional competence among those desiring to teach.

Nevertheless, the general principles of comprehensivisation have not fully been built into the curriculum content and organisation.

For example, the principle of equality of educational opportunities for all social classes have not been achieved because the comprehensive school curriculum within each individual locality is designed to meet the needs of its local clients (especially in England and the U.S.A. and to some extent in Sweden). In fact each individual neighbourhood determines what kind of options are to be offered.

The principle of equality between the genders is also far from ensured. Girls are still under-represented in sciences and technology courses. On the other hand they are over-represented in domestic sciences, nursing, office work and art subjects. This is attributed to the fact of the society's attitudes and parents as well as teachers' mental states towards genders which largely influence the career choices of the young.

The decision of curriculum content is either centrally decided in the case of Sweden or by professions in the univer-

sities and teachers in schools in the case of England and the U.S.A. Therefore, students',parents', interest groups' participation is minimal. So the principle of participation as it is envisaged within the three models have not been fulfilled.

The notion of meeting manpower needs and achieving societal prosperity through the comprehensive curriculum has not seriously been considered within the English and the American comprehensive secondary schools. Academic subjects still maintain higher status while vocational courses and training programmes are limited to students whose academic achievements will not allow them to compete for the public examination and pursue higher education. On the other hand, the Swedish educational authority has attempted to introduce different lines of studies, integrate vocational and academic subjects and devise more radical regulations easing access of all types of school leavers to higher education in order to meet the manpower demands. Even then the students', parents', and teachers' attitudes have changed little. Academic lines are still valued more in comparison to vocational and technical lines. Intensive competition for and within the theoretical lines is still persisting whether in the integrated comprehensive secondary school or in the universities and institutions of higher education.

So, in spite of the basic commitment in all these countries to the aims and principles of comprehensivisation of secondary education and some major structural changes and curricula reorganisation within the comprehensive schools, the classical dichotomy between the liberal and vocational education has not been removed. The English system is particularly becoming more and more conscious of the need to evolve a more

integrated system of comprehensive secondary education in which too much and too early specialisation and academic vigour is removed to allow a larger section of the secondary school cohorts to qualify for higher education. The year 1986 is being regarded as the Industry Year and various institutions and educational organisations have begun to realise the drawbacks of the traditional attitudes and divisions in education. There is a mounting urgency to gear the entire secondary education system to the creation of efficient and skilled manpower of all types and levels.

The study of the three prototype models of comprehensive school systems in Sweden, England and the U.S.A. has clearly manifested that "for any policy proposed as a solution to a given problem especially in education" as Holmes stresses,"an analysis of the societal context is essential because it is a powerful determinant for the success or failure of certain implemented policies" (191). As elaborated in Chapter Two, certain societal conditions in these countries have initiated the introduction and the development of the comprehensive secondary schools. For instance, a general consensus on certain ideological principles such as - the principles of equality of opportunity, participation, freedom and equality between genders - has been a powerful factor for the demand for comprehensivisation of secondary education. In addition the national policies for democratisation of the polity at all levels, the greater urge to achieve economic prosperity in order to improve the economic position of the larger number of the nationals have also played a part. Some physical conditions, for example, the changing patterns of populations, shifting from rural to urban conurbations, the greater pace of industrialisation, availability of transportation facilities

and communication revolution have all contributed to the growth of the comprehensive school.

It is in the light of all the above developments that an analysis of the societal contexts of the three Arab Gulf States - Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia - is attempted in the next chapter so as to see whether their societal conditions are congenial to the adoption of a particular model or a selection of salient features of the three models of comprehensive school studied.

Chapter Three

References and Notes

(1) Holmes, B., "The Politics of Education - Comparative Analysis", in Welch, A.R., (ed.), The Politics of Educational Change, Centre for Social and Cultural Studies in Education, University of New England,(1983), p.8.

(2) Lawton, D., Class, Culture and the Curriculum, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1975, p. 6.

(3) Ibid., p. 7.

(4) Stenhouse, L., An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development, Heinemann, London, (1975), pp. 4-5.

(5) Inlow, Gail, M., The Emergent in Curriculum, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., U.S.A. (1973), p. 43.

(6) Ibid., p. 41.

(7) Ibid., p. 44.

(8) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., London, (1981), p. 135.

(9) Ibid., p. 138.

(10) Martin, Jane R., Readings in the Philosophy of Education. A Study of Curriculum, Allyn and Bacon, Inc., Boston, U.S.A., (1970), p. 9.

(11) Ibid., p. 9.

(12) Ibid., p. 19.

(13) Ibid., p. 30.

(14) Hirst, Paul H., Knowledge and the Curriculum: A Collection of Philosophical Papers, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, (1974), p. 30.

(15) Ibid., p. 31.

(16) Lawton, D., Social Change, Educational Theory and Curriculum Planning, University of London Press, Ltd., U.K. (1973), p. 25.

(17) Hirst, Paul, H., Knowledge and the Curriculum. A Collection of Philosophical Papers, op.cit., p. 47.

(18) Ibid., p. 47.

(19) Mallinson, V., An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education (4th edition), Heinemann Education Books, Ltd., London (1975), pp. 66-67.

(20) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, op.cit., p. 143.

(21) Ibid., p. 144

(22) Mallinson, V., An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education, op.cit., p. 68.

(23) Ibid., p. 69.

(24) Holmes, B., op.cit., p. 167.

(25) Ibid., pp. 171, 106.

(26) Holmes, B., op.cit., p. 172.

(27) Zepper, J.T., A Study of M.K. Krupskaya's Educational Philosophy, Ph.D. Thesis (unpublished), Missouri University, U.S.A., (1977), p. 187.

(28) Shapovalenko, S.G., Polytechnical Education in the U.S.S.R., Unesco Publication, Amsterdam (1963), p.13.

(29) Holmes, B., op.cit., p. 172.

(30) Tyler, R.W., Basic Principles of Curriculum Instruction, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, (1949), p. 1.

(31) Davies, I.K., Objectives in Curriculum Design, McGraw Hill Book Company Ltd., U.K. (1976), p. 34.

(32) Kelly, A.V., Curriculum Context, Harper and Row, Publishers, London, (1980), p. 15.

(33) Taba, H., Curriculum Development. Theory and Practice, Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., New York (1962), pp. 199-205.

(34) Davies, I.K., op.cit., p. 19.

(35) Kelly, A.V., op.cit., pp. 60-62.

(36) Davies, I.K., op.cit., p. 168.

(37) Lawton, D., Social Change, Educational Theory and Curriculum Planning, op.cit., p. 24.

(38) Taylor, Philip, H. and Richards, C., An Introduction to Curriculum Studies, N.F.E.R. - Nelson Publishing Company Limited, N.F.E.R., U.K., (1979), p. 72.

(39) Ibid., p. 74.

(40) Ibid., p. 74.

(41) Ibid., p. 77.

(42) Davies, I.K., op.cit., p. 35.

(43) Ibid., p. 11.

(44) Stenholm, B., Education in Sweden, The Swedish Institute of Education, Stockholm, (1970), p. 78.

(45) The National Swedish Board of Education, The 1980 Compulsory School Curriculum, Stockholm, Sweden, (1980), p. 1.

(46) The National Swedish Board of Education, (NSBE), Curriculum for the Comprehensive School Lgr. 69, General Section, Stockholm, Sweden, pp. 29-30.

(47) Ibid., pp. 32-34.

(48) Marklund, S. and Boucher, L., "The Curriculum for 13-16 year olds in Sweden: A Review of Changes 1950-1980", Compare, Vol. 10, No. 2, 1980, Carfax Publishing Co., Journals, Oxford Ltd., U.K. (1980), p. 167.

(49) N.S.B.E., The 1980 Compulsory School Curriculum, op.cit., p. 19.

(50) Marklund, S. and Boucher, L., Compare, Vol. 10, No.2, (1980), op.cit., p. 170.

(51) N.S.B.E., Curriculum for the Comprehensive School Lgr 69 - General Section, op.cit., pp. 119-120.

(52) Ibid., p. 31.

(53) Marklund, S. and Boucher, L., Compare, Vol. 10, No.2, (1980), op.cit., p.162.

(54) Ibid., p. 168.

(55) Ibid., p. 162.

(56) N.S.B.E., A Report on the Vocational Emphasis of Upper Secondary School (Translated by R. Tanner), Information Section, NSBE, Sweden, (1976), p. 2.

(57) Boucher, L., "Reform of the Swedish Post-Compulsory Schools 1960-1983", Compare, Vol. 13, No. 2. Carfax Publishing Company, Journals, Oxford, Ltd., U.K. (1983), pp. 137-138.

(58) Ibid., pp. 139-140.

(59) Marklund, S., "Educational Administration and Educational Development Studies" Comparative and International Education, No. 1., Institute of International Education, University of Stockholm, Sweden, Nov. 1979, p. 25.

(60) Marklund, S. "Differentiation and Integration in the Swedish Upper Secondary School", International Review of Education, Vol. 24, Unesco, Institute for Education, Hamburg, (1978), p. 202.

(61) Ibid., p. 203.

(62) O.E.C.D., Educational Policy and Planning Goals for Educational Policy in Sweden, OECD Publication, Paris, (1980), p. 44.

(63) Boucher, L., Tradition and Change in Swedish Education, Pergamon Press Ltd., Oxford, U.K. (1982), p. 123.

(64) Ibid., p. 125.

(65) NSBE, The 1980 Compulsory School Curriculum, op.cit., pp. 37-41.

(66) Boucher, L., Tradition and Change in Swedish Education, op.cit., p. 97.

(67) Marklund, S., International Review of Education, Vol.24, (1978), op.cit., p. 205.

(68) Boucher, L., Tradition and Change in Swedish Education, op.cit., p. 116.

(69) Ibid., p. 93.

(70) NSBE, Curriculum for the Comprehensive School Lgr. 69: General Section, op.cit., p. 99.

(71) Boucher, L., "Assessment of Scholastic Achievement in Swedish Schools", Compare, Vol. 3, No.1, February, U.K., (1972), p. 21.

(72) Marklund, S.,"Educational Administration and Educational Development Studies", in Comparative and International Education, op.cit., p. 23.

(73) Boucher, L., Tradition and Change in Swedish Education op.cit., p. 50.

(74) NSBE, The Integrated Upper Secondary School in Sweden, Information Section, NSBE, Stockholm, Sweden (1979), pp. 3-4.

(75) Marklund, S. Educational Administration and Educational Development Studies, op.cit., p. 25.

(76) NSBE, The Integrated Upper Secondary School in Sweden, op.cit., p. 4.

(77) Boucher, L., Compare, Vol. 13, No.2, (1983), op.cit., p. 166.

(78) NSBE, Curriculum for the Comprehensive School Lgr 69 - op.cit., p. 98.

(79) Ibid., p. 98.

(80) O.E.C.D., New Patterns of Teacher Education and Tasks - Country Experiences - Sweden, OECD, Publication, Paris, (1979), pp. 19-20.

(81) Ibid., p. 26.

(82) Ibid., p. 36.

(83) Linne, A., "Content, Curriculum and Work Experience: Aspects of Educational Integration in Higher Education Programmes", Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 27, No. 2, Universitets For Laget, Oslo, Norway, (1983), p. 119.

(84) Ibid., p. 120.

(85) O.E.C.D., op.cit., pp. 38-39.

(86) Boucher, L., Tradition and Change in Swedish Education, op.cit., pp. 177-180.

(87) Ibid., p. 110.

(88) Lyung, B.O. and Jansson, S., "Recruitment to the Gymnasium in Sweden", Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, Universitets For Laget, Oslo, Norway, (1970), pp. 1-3.

(89) Boucher, L., Tradition and Change in Swedish Education, op.cit., p. 110.

(90) Ibid., p. 113.

(91) Benn, C. and Simon, B., Halfway There - A Report on the British Comprehensive School Reform, McGraw Hill Publishing Company, Ltd., U.K. (1970), p. 144.

(92) The H.M.I. report was based on a 10 per cent survey of 384 schools, about two-thirds of which were comprehensive schools of various stages of development. The 236 comprehensive schools were co-educational ones. Distribution of Sample by Type of School:

Modern:	97
Grammar:	51
Full range comprehensive:	163
Restricted range comp.:	45
Transitional comprehensive:	28
Total	384

The H.M.I.s' survey concentrated on the curriculum offered at the final two years of compulsory schools and references were brought about curriculum offered for (11-14 years). The inspections were particularly directed towards these four aspects of education: the development of language skills, the development of mathematical understanding and competence, the development of scientific skills and the personal and social development of the pupils and their general preparation for adult living.

D.E.S., Aspects of Secondary Education in England. A Survey by H.M. Inspectors of Schools, H.M.S.O. Publication, London, U.K. (1980),pp. 4-5.

(93) Ibid., p. 6.

(94) Ibid., p. 20.

(95) Ibid., p. 19.

(96) Benn, C. and Simon, B., Halfway There - A Report on the British Comprehensive School Reform, op.cit., p. 175.

(97) D.E.S., Aspects of Secondary Education in England - A Survey by H.M. Inspectors of Schools, op.cit., p. 17.

(98) Ibid., p. 10.

(99) Tall, G.E., "Patterns of Science Education as illustrated by Examination Entries ffom 1962-1977 and the Core Curriculum", The School Science Review, Vol. 61, No. 214, September 1979, The Association for Science Education, John Murray, Albemarle Street, London, (1979), p. 254.

(100) D.E.S., 1980, op.cit., pp. 27-28.

(101) Ibid., p. 28.

(102) Fairbairn, A.M. (ed.) The Leicestershire Plan, Heinemann Educational Books, London, U.K. (1980) pp. 112-113.

(103) Richards, C. (ed.), Power and the Curriculum - Issues in Curriculum Studies, Nafferton Books, Walkergate Press Ltd., Beverley, (1978), p. 53.

(104) D.E.S., 1980, op.cit., p. 123.

(105) Whyld, J. (ed.), Sexism in Secondary Curriculum, Harper and Row Publishers, London, U.K., (1983) p. 131.

(106) D.E.S., 1980, op.cit., pp. 168-172.

(107) Lukes, J. "School Sociology and Social Studies in Humberside", The Social Science Teacher, Vol. 19, No.2, December 1979, Sidmouth Printing Works, Ltd., Sidmouth, Devon, U.K., (1979), p. 53.

(108) Fairbairn, A.M. (ed.) The Leicestershire Plan, op.cit., pp. 73-74.

(109) D.E.S., 1980, op.cit., p. 236.

(110) Ibid., p. 237.

(111) Hainsworth, G. "16-19 - The Need for a Comprehensive Approach", Secondary Education Journal, Vol. 13, No. 1, March, 1983, College Hill Press, London, 1983, p. 5.

(112) Ibid., p. 6.

(113) Fairbairn, A.M. (ed.) The Leicestershire Plan, op.cit., p. 73.

(114) Department of Employment - DE. The Careers Service Employment and Training Act 1973 - Guidance to Local Education Authorities in England and Wales, H.M.S.O., London (1980), p. 7.

(115) Henschke, D.T., Careers Education - An Account of Policies and Practices in a Selected Number of European Countries and Australian States with Special Reference to South Australia, (unpublished Associateship Report), University of London Institute of Education, 1978-79, p. 60.

(116) Wrany, M.J. et al., Employer Involvement in Schemes of Unified Vocational Preparation - N.F.E.R. Nelson Publishing Company Ltd., U.K., (1980), p. 1.

(117) Henschke, D.T., Careers Education, op.cit., p. 62.

(118) Ibid., p. 63.

(119) National Association of Teachers in Further Education, Education and Training for the 16-19 - A Discussion Paper, 1979, NATFHE Publication, London (1979), p. 10.

(120) Monks, T. (ed.), Comprehensive Education in Action, National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, Thorne and Stace Ltd., U.K. (1970), pp.85-86.

(121) Hartley, R., "Careers Education in a Depression", Forum, Vol. 25, No. 2, Spring, 1983, p. 44.

(122) Davies, R.P., Mixed Ability Grouping - Possibilities, Experiences in the Secondary School, Maurice Temple Smith Ltd., U.K., (1977), pp. 33-34.

(123) Scottish Education Department, Raising the School Leaving Age - Organisation and Development of Courses, A Progress Report, H.M.S.O., Publication U.K. (1970), p. 20.

(124) Bruce, G., Secondary School Examinations: Facts and Commentary, Pergamon Press Limited, London, (1969), p. 68.

(125) Ibid., p. 68.

(126) Pearce, J., School Examinations, Collier Macmillan Publisher, London, (1972), p. 17.

(127) Halsall, E., The Comprehensive School - Guidelines for the Reorganisation of Secondary Education, Pergamon Press, Oxford, (1973), p. 55.

(128) Ibid., p. 56.

(129) Ibid., p. 64.

(130) D.E.S. (1980), op.cit., p. 221.

(131) Benn, C. and Simon, B., op.cit., p. 210.

(132) Ibid., pp. 211-213.

(133) O.E.C.D., The New Pattern of Teacher Education and Tasks - Country Experience - Belgium, France, United Kingdom, O.E.C.D. Publication, Paris, (1974), p. 204.

(134) *These teaching techniques include -

- Micro teaching techniques, originated in Stanford University, U.S.A. (1963) to help improve students' performance and develop teaching competence;
- Study of classroom interaction and the ecology of the classroom is an attempt to enable students to be more aware and sensitive to the potential of the class situation;
- In teaching practice, many schemes have been developed. For instance, serving teachers are involved in supervising student teachers in their schools. The teacher tutor scheme offers day to day service to the student and so relating his work with his tuition in the school.

D.E.S., (1974), op.cit., p. 207.

(135) D.E.S., (1980), op.cit., pp. 45-46.

(136) Ibid., p. 42.

(137) Holmes, B., "Paradigm Shifts in Comparative Education", Comparative Education Review, Vol. 28, No.4, November 1984, University of Chicago Press for the Comparative and International Society, U.S.A., p. 597.

(138) Slade, I. (ed.), Managing Curricula - A Comparative Perspective, op.cit., pp. 51-52.

(139) Ibid., p. 53.

(140) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, op.cit., p. 106.

(141) Clark, L.H., Klein, R.D. and Burks, J.B., The American Secondary School Curriculum, 2nd ed. op.cit., p. 558.

(142) Ibid., p. 557.

(143) Ibid., p. 558.

(144) Ibid., p. 559.

(145) Conant, J.B., The American High School - A Second Report to Interested Citizens, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, (1967), p. 22.

(146) Boyer, E.L., High School - A Report on Secondary Education in America. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Harper and Row Publishers, New York, (1983), p. 85.

(147) Kline, M.,""NACOME" Implications for Curriculum Design," The Mathematics Teacher, Vol. 69, No.6, October, 1976 Edpress for the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Inc., U.S.A., p. 451.

(148) Boyer, E.L., op.cit., pp. 302-303.

(149) Clark, L.H. et al., op.cit., p. 341.

(150) Boyer, E.L., op.cit., p. 340.

(151) Ibid., p. 341.

(152) Inlow, G.M., op.cit., p. 226.

(153) Conant, J.B., The American High School Today. A First Report to Interested Citizens, McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc., London, (1959), p. 22.

(154) Boyer, E.L. op.cit., p. 116.

(155) Clark, L.H., et al., op.cit., p. 265.

(156) Ibid., p. 400.

(157) Smith, O. and Burnett, J.R.(ed.), Democracy and Excellence in American Secondary Education, Rand McNally and Company, (Chicago, (1964), pp. 12-14.

(158) Clark, L.H. et al., op.cit., p. 276.

(159) Ibid., pp. 549-551.

(160) Brown, B.F., The Reform of Secondary Education - A Report to the Public and the Profession, McGraw Hill Book Co., Ltd., New York, (1973), pp. 57-58.

(161) Clark, L.H. et al., op.cit., p. 460.

(162) Ginzberg, E., The School/Work Nexus - Transition of the Youth from School to Work, Diamond Jubilee Publication, Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, U.S.A., (1980), p. 67.

(163) Ibid., p. 68.

(164) Spring, J., An Introduction to Social and Political Aspects, Longman, Inc., New York, (1983), p. 20.

(165) Ginzberg, E., op.cit., p. 54.

(166) Ibid., p. 51.

(167) Ibid., p. 60.

(168) Howard, A.W. and Stoumbis, G., The Junior High and Middle School : Issues and Practices, Intext Educacational Publishers, Scranton, (1970), p. 50.

(169) Krug, E.A., The Shaping of the American High School, Vol. 2, 1920-1941, The University of Wisoonsin Press, Madison Milwaukee and London, (1972), p. 53.

(170) Johnson, A.J., Collins, H.W., Dupuis, V.L., Johanson, J.H., Introduction to the Foundation of American Education, 4th ed., Library of Congress, Cataloguing Publication Data, Allyn and Bacon, Inc., U.S.A., (1979), p. 404.

(171) Boyer, E.L., op.cit., p. 125.

(172) Bush, R.N. "The Proper Place of the Extra-Curriculum in High Schools" in Hass, G., Wiles, K. (eds.), Reading in Curriculum, 2nd ed., Allyn and Bacon Inc., (1970), p. 587.

(173) Ibid., p. 588.

(174) Ibid., pp. 588-589.

(175) Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SAT) are predictive tests provided by the American College Entrance Examination Board and are used to evaluate the prospective students. It is estimated that about a million high school students intending to go to colleges sit for these tests every year. Many view them as invalid instruments to measure students' abilities and achievement, as they are affected by social, physical and economic conditions of the individual.
Boyer, E.L., High School - A Report on Secondary Education Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, op.cit., pp. 113-134.

(176) Ibid., p. 58.

(177) Ibid., p. 59.

(178) Ibid., p. 137.

(179) Clarke, L.H. et al., op.cit., p. 453.

(180) Ibid., pp. 456-458.

(181) Conant, J.B., (1959), op.cit., p. 44.

(182) Clark, L.H. et al., op.cit., p. 459.

(183) Haberman, M., Stinnett, M.T., Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching, McCutchan Publishing Corporation, U.S.A., (1973), p. 93.

(184) Cooper, M.J. and Weber, W.A. "A Competency Based System Approach to Teacher Education", in Competency Based Teacher Education, Vol. 2, McCutchan Publishing Corporation, Berkeley, California, U.S.A., (1973), pp. 7-12.

(185) Boyer, E.L., op.cit., pp. 168-169.

(186) Inlow, G.M., op.cit., p. 245.

(187) Boyer, E.L., op.cit., pp. 165-166.

(188) Hemming, J., Teach Them to Live, Longmans, Green and Co., London, (1948), p. 32.

(189) Clark, L.H., et al. op.cit., p. 106.

(190) Boyer, E.L., op.cit., pp. 78-79.

(191) Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, op.cit., p. 80.

Chapter Four

A COMPARISON OF SOCIETAL CONDITIONS IN BAHRAIN, KUWAIT AND SAUDI ARABIA

4.1 Introduction

Having drawn up ideal-typical models by examining the Swedish, English and American patterns of comprehehsive education which include organisation and curriculum policies, the researcher's task is to suggest which model or combination of aspects of these three models might be introduced successfully into the Gulf Arab States, Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia. To do so, it is necessary to study the specific initial conditions prevailing in these states.

According to Holmes, planners, faced with alternative policies such as those, mentioned in Chapters Two and Three, should attempt to predict which policy is not likely to work in practice, and marginally which policy is likely to succeed in practice. In order to discriminate between policies and predicted outcomes, Holmes says that the specific conditions, under which the policy is to be implemented should be made explicit (1). Therefore the intention of this chapter is to identify conditions in these Gulf Arab States which might prevent or facilitate the successful introduction of policies drawn from the three ideal-typical models.

In examining specific conditions, distinctions should be made between prevailing beliefs of a normative kind and traditional beliefs or "mental states" of people and the existing political, social, educational and economic institutions as well as environmental conditions.

As has been seen in the case of the three selected ideal-typical models of the comprehensive school system in

Sweden, England and the U.S.A., the most significant contextual conditions that have contributed to the adoption of comprehensive school policies are the following:

(1) There is general agreement on the ideal principles of comprehensive education. These ideals whether they are derived from the democratic liberal, socialist and pragmatic ideologies, emphasise equality of opportunity, freedom, participation and societal prosperity.

(2) These countries have experienced a considerable period of political stability which has enabled them to implement the policy of comprehensivation. In the U.S.A., a comprehensive school policy has broadly speaking been accepted by the people since the 1880s. In Sweden, since 1940, the Socialist Democratic Party has held power, though not continuously but for a sufficiently long period to be able to implement the comprehensive education plan. Whereas in England, a comprehensive school policy was initiated by the Labour Party in the 1940s, but it had no power to implement it, this was left to the L.E.As, many of which whether ruled by the conservatives or labour were not in favour of it. For a wider endorsement of their comprehensive policy, the Labour Party had to wait until the 1960s when they again came to power. Their efforts, while they were in power, did not result in a nation-wide acceptance of their comprehensive school policy as was highlighted in Chapter Two.

(3) Material prosperity has made it possible for the governments in these countries to invest a sizeable portion of their national wealth in education and has made it

available for everyone. Moreover, economic and technological progress has also made the massification of secondary education possible. Material prosperity has also allowed the governments and those who finance schools and reform the curricula to provide them with the kind of equipment which is needed if new curricula are to be introduced successfully, i.e. computers, visual aids, workshops and libraries.

(4) Population distribution, the growth and rather more planned pace of urbanisation with a corresponding increase in transportation facilities have also helped in the establishment of large comprehensive schools. The existence in the three countries of areas where the density of population is high has allowed the authorities to set up large schools to which children in a certain neighbourhood can go by walking. And, in those areas where population density is very low, in each of the countries, there are transportation facilities, i.e. roads, buses, trains, cars - which make it possible for children to travel to their schools easily.

But certain conditions militate against the successful introduction of the comprehensive schools.

(a) the traditional aspiration of parents and the young themselves to seek admission into the universities and institutions of higher education to acquire high academic and professional status;

(b) the traditional beliefs of the upper and middle-class parents have made them seek the traditional type of academic education for their children. These beliefs

however, have in turn been adopted by lower-class parents;

(c) historically general apathy towards technical and manual work among large sections of the people and thus the continued dichotomy between a liberal and a technical/vocational education system still persists;

(d) economic and political rewards in all the three countries go disproportionately to those with university (academic) rather than technical/vocational education.

Although there are some common features stated earlier, which have made possible the adoption of comprehensive school policies in Sweden, England and the U.S.A. in terms of the structure and curriculum organisation of comprehensive schooling, the policies in the three countries are not identical. This is attributed to differences in the specific initial conditions of these countries, i.e. normative and institutional patterns, physical environment and the mental states of different social classes and interests groups. Because of these differences, in each model unique features in terms of structure and curriculum content can be detected.

Therefore, in the following analysis an attempt will be made to identify the conditions which might facilitate and those which might inhibit the successful implementation of comprehensive secondary schools in the three Gulf Arab States under study. Broadly speaking the classification of conditions will include the prevailing national ideology, political conditions contributing to political stability, general economic prosperity and the demographic changes following urbanisation and modernisation of the economy as well as the social class structure.

4.2 Ideology

The ideology prevailing in the Gulf Arab States, Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, is based upon a combination of norms derived primarily from Islam and the traditional Arab culture of the region.

For the purpose of this study the concepts of equality, participation and freedom as seen in the ideal Islamic concept of man, society and knowledge will be highlighted. Studying these concepts within the Islamic ideal framework will help to find out if comparable principles underlying the comprehensive secondary education reforms in Sweden, England and the U.S.A. exist. These principles within the Islamic concepts of man, society, knowledge, education and the curriculum will be explained in the next part of this chapter.

4.2.1 The Concept of Man

In Islam, man is considered to have been created by God and is not the result of an evolutionary process. He has been created with a dual nature, the materialistic and the spiritual. As enjoined in the Qurān, there are three symbolic stages of man's creation. The original element of amporphous clay (Salsal Kalfakhar) was given a definite shape with flesh and bones and lastly into this materialistic object God breathed His Spirit and so man's creation was complete (2).

As the purest of God's essence is His Spirit which He breathed into man, therefore, each being is His Spirit. So man has a dual nature whereas other creatures have only one dimension. In comparison with other creatures, man's distinctive qualities are reason and will-power. He is the only creature who can act against his instinctive demands and nature (3).

Equality of man and women in Islam refers to the fact that all are from the same source and created at the same time by the same God. In the Words of the Holy Qurān,

> "We have created Eve from Adam's nature, O Mankind! We created you from a single (pair) of a male and female." (4)

Equality of all races means also that all human beings have a dualistic nature and they originated from the same source.

The purpose of God's creating man is explained in the Qurān is to carry out a certain function as God has willed that man should perform. That is to say, to make him responsible for the conquest of nature and to subdue it for his own good. This is an assigned role, a trust, therefore he has obligations towards himself and others. In The Holy Qurān this relationship has been described by referring to man as Allah's vicegerent, as the crown and chief of His creation (5).

> "Behold thy Lord said to Angels:
> 'I will create a vicegerent on earth' (6).

Hence, man cannot be the ultimate authority in the universe, because he is only one instrument in it, playing the role designed for him by the Almighty. Man's work must be done for the purpose of pleasing God who is the creator, the manager and organiser of the universe.

However, man's free will and innate ability to discriminate and choose between right and wrong has been fully upheld in Islam. A. Shariati states that because a human being is a mixed phenomenon, made of mud and the Spirit of God, he has the freedom to choose either the pole - to be indifferent or to ascend and reach the highest position, the Spirit of God and God Himself! He argues that having will power makes man free but responsible (7).

The ideal man in Islam, is symbolised by the Prophet Muhammad himself who possessed two contrasting aspects, aspects which would be contradictory in other men, but have been joined, in him, in a single person. For he was a man constantly engaged in a political struggle against his enemies and the disruptive forces in society, concerned with building a new society, a new civilisation, as well as leading mankind towards a divine goal; that is to say, he was in the midst of all worldly involvements, a man of prayer, piety and unremitting deviation to God (8).

The Islamic concept of equality among human beings means that basically all men and women have been created equal regardless of their race, kinship, colour or social origin. Their inequality appears in their innate abilities and achievements. Islam also emphasises the differentiated role between man and woman; their roles are considered complementary and not competing. This aspect will be highlighted in a later section.

4.2.2 The Concept of Society

The ideal Islamic society is defined as 'Muslim Ummah' which is the supranational community of all Muslims. Its universalistic nature is evident from the following description given by H.A.R. Gibb,

> "The Ummah consists of the totality of individuals bound to one another by ties, not of Kinship or race, but of religion; in that its members profess their belief in the one God, Allah, and in the mission of his Prophet, Muhammad. Before God and in relation to Him, all are equal without distinction of rank, class or race. In its external aspect, the Ummah is sharply differentiated from all other social organisations. Its duty is to bear witness to Allah in the relations of its members to one another and with all mankind. They form a single indivisible organisation,

> charged to uphold the true faith, to instruct men in the ways of God, to persuade them to the good and to dissuade them from evil by word or deed." (9)

The universe of the Ummah is communal in form, its citizens are persons who unite in a democratic collectivity based on a set of sophisticated concepts of the '<u>Shariah</u>'- (Islamic system of Law) which is designed to produce the integration and cohesion of all members who participate in the unifying task.

The muslim state is different from a nation-state. Its entire system is organised with the purpose of realising a divine purpose in human life and enforcing a divinely sanctioned law for human society. It directs its vision towards universal man and its goal towards man's life in this world and the hereafter. By contrast in a nation state, it is the interest of the nation that superseded all other human interests and sovereignty is ascribed to the nation rather than to God. In the ideal muslim state, laws are evolved only with reference to an ideal unchanging pattern given by God, whereas in the nation state, they are made according to the needs of society and as the needs change, laws are reformulated or altered or discarded (10).

Within the Islamic state, there is great emphasis on the subjects' participation in decision-making and Islamic rulers are not authorised to rule without consulting the ruled on matters affecting them. The rulers' power, however, is subject to the collective consensus of the Ummah. The Prophet and the first four Rightly-Guided Caliphs "<u>Al-Rashedun</u>" are known to have consulted on matters of state and society. Consultation of the majority is recommended in Islam. The Holy Qurān states,

> "And consult them in affairs (of moment)
> Then when thou hast taken a decision,
> Put thy trust in God." (11)

"And conduct their affairs by mutual consultations" (12).

Islam rejects dictatorship and the rule by individual man or a group of men. The Islamic concept of vice-gerency Khilāfah or leadership of the community does not confer any holy pontifical power on the leader. There exists neither a priesthood nor a dynastic right, nor indeed any hierarchy except superiority in piety and knowledge.

A true Muslim ruler is enjoined to consider himself as one of the Muslim Community. He ought to mix with them as often as he can and participate in their social and religious affairs. This can be seen from a copy of a letter sent by the Second Caliph, Omar Ibn al-Khatab to Abu Musa al-Ashari, his governor in Basra. The Caliph advised the governor as follows:

> "So to the execution of the laws even if it be for only one hour in the day and if two matters present themselves to you, the one godly and the other one worldly, then choose as your position the way of God. For the present world will perish and the other world remains. Visit the sick among Muslims, attend their funerals, open your gate to them and give heed in person to their affairs, for you are but a man amongst them except this, God has allotted you the heaviest burden." (14)

On the question of the choice of leader of the community, there exists a division among the Muslims on conceptual and practical levels. The overwhelming majority of the Muslims who are Sunnis believe in the elected Caliph, since the first Caliphs, called the rightly-guided Caliphs, were elected by the community. The Shi'ites, the other major sect, believe in hereditary leadership evolved from the Prophet's lineage and from his daughter Fatimah and Ali, her husband. The Immam for the Shi'ites, observe L.A. Arion and R.P. Mitchell,

> ""is a divinely inspired and charismatic figure who holds authority in matters of theology and doctrine. Beliefs in the Immam's interpretive authority contrasted

A.R. Brunhurti was observed that no man may rule over others unless he is superior in the knowledge of faith and piety (13).

> with the Sunni idea of Caliphal leadership, with its implied emphasis on consensus. The Shi'ites consider election as inappropriate to the Imamate" (15).

On the question of political and social equality, human beings have been created unequal in terms of their innate abilities and degree of faith and piety.

H. Enayat sees the difference between the Islamic and western concepts of equality reflected partly in the political terminologies of the two cultures. He explains that the Qurān recognises Man, homo, '<u>insān</u>' irrespective of his social and political standing, but has no word for 'citizen' with all the accretions of unequal rights and social statuses. The concept of the social or political and hierarchical orders of man, in Islam, is not limited to legal rights, but it goes beyond the boundary of citizenship, nationality or race; he is a man and his rights are God-given and not socially or politically determined (16).

Equal rights for women are ensured in many Qurānic verses. For instance the following verses say:

(a) "And it is for the women to act as they (the husbands) act by them on all fairness" (17).

(b) "And their Lord answereth them.
I will not suffer the work of him among you that worketh, whether of male or female to be lost." (18)

The Prophet's encouragement to his wife, Aishah Bint Abu Bakr, to take an active part in the political, legal and scholastic activities of a muslim community is considered as a manifestation of Islam's recognition of women's right to participate in all social and political affairs. However, in certain formulations the Qurān and the Hadith represent women as unequal to men and this inequality is institutionalised in the Orthodox Legal codes and practices. These give women only half as much as men in

inherited property rights (19), and define women as juridical minors, in a subordinate position to men and requiring male guardians. Elsewhere women are characterised as less responsible and more susceptible to distraction. This often forms the rationale behind the exclusion of women from positions of social responsibility whether in the economic, social or political spheres. F. Mernissi argues that the juridical inequality and the ideology of women's inferiority together with the practice of seclusion ensure that women are generally excluded from positions of economic life except where such participation is mediated through and subordinate to men, as for example, when women work on familial land (20).

Thus in practice, Islamic society emphasises the weaknessses of women, rather than the ideal equality of man and woman.

However, as the Gulf Arab States' societies have undergone a process of gradual secularisation, and as their political, social, educational and economic institutions have acquired some degree of independence from the religious authorities, involving varying degrees of reform, it is to be hoped that some changes in family laws and the religious codes covering women will come about. In addition, these states' commitment to modernisation and the integration of all their nationals both male and female into the process of their society's development may facilitate the reformation of religious legal codes and practices allowing an improvement in the position of women and ensuring them equal rights to men.

To sum up, Islamic society is based not on any geographical, racial, linguistic or cultural identity, but on the foundation of Islamic faith and a common ideology. Islamic polity is democratic in essence as decision-making in it is to be done by consultation and consensus. It enjoins participation

of all, in the affairs of the state and its laws are guided by the universalistic principles of divine revelation. Its rewards are shared in perfect equality on the basis of achievement and not ascription. But the most controversial aspect of Islamic society is related to the concept of equality between genders. Despite their equality in terms of their creation, education and religious duties and obligations, women's social, political and juridical rights are not equal to men's, therefore, they are usually excluded from positions of responsibily at many levels in society.

4.2.3 The Concept of Knowledge

In Islam, as man has a dual nature with regard to his creation, so is knowledge dual in nature, God-given and acquired. S.N. Al-Attas explains that the first kind of knowledge is absolutely essential for man's guidance and salvation, therefore knowledge about it is necessary and obligatory 'Fardū'ayn'on all muslims. While the acquisition of the second kind of knowledge is obligatory to some Muslims 'Fardū Kifayah' or which needs only to be performed by groups of muslims (21).

Accordingly, during the early days of Islam, knowledge was generally classified into these two categories:

(1) basic fundamental knowledge derived directly from the Qurān and the Sunnah;

(2) knowledge acquired by man primarily with the help of his intellect and experiments (22).

As knowledge is divided in terms of its origin and importance, it is also classified according to its kind. It is divided into theoretical Eilim nazarī and practical 'alim 'a malī; and Islam places great emphasis on the practical application of knowledge. A saying of the Prophet - stressing action - goes

like this:

> "Your knowledge is not complete until you have acted upon it. He who acquires knowledge and acts upon it has two acts of piety to his credit. If he knows and does not act upon it he has obeyed God once and disobeyed once, and he who neither knows nor acts has transgressed twice." (23)

The importance of the practical or technical knowledge is related to the great value Islam has given to work. Islam enjoins that man in his work, whatever his position or occupation, must seek to please God. Work is one's accountability and responsibility to God. In the words of the Qurān, "You work, God, His Apostles and the Believers will observe your work" (24). Man's mind and his muscles represent power which ought to be used to work properly to please God.

What distinguished the Islamic concept of the nature of knowledge from the socialistic and pragmatic conceptions is the emphasis attached to its permanence. For instance, Abu-Hāmed Mohammed Al-Gazali (1058-111 B.C.) explained that Knowledge and Reality are permanent and the changeable aspects are only their understanding and restatement. He confirmed that the essence of all knowledge is in the Qurān and Sunnah. He refused (tajdīd) renaissance. From his point of view, renaissance was against the essence of Islam and would open the door for various interpretations of the Islamic ideals which might lead to confusion in human thinking (25). He developed his own typology of knowledge (Figure No. 12) which made manifest his conception of the nature of knowledge. His typology of knowledge, however, emphasises the importance of the religious sciences in education because, in his own words, "they are the short-cut to bliss" (S'adelah). For him, the intellectual sciences remain only as a supplement to the former. But both, religious and intellectual

sciences, are integrated and not independent branches having different conceptual origins. In fact, they are integrated through the central symbol of the Islamic Revelation, that is the Holy Book.

In the fifteenth century, Abdul-Rahman Ibn Khaldun reordered Al-Gazali's classification of knowledge. In his book, Introduction to History, he divided knowledge into:

(a) Philosophical or intellectual knowledge (al'alūm al aqaliyha) which can be learned by man through his innate reason and intelligence;

(b) transmitted knowledge (al-'alūm al naqliyha) which can be learned only by transmission, going back ultimately to the founder of the sciences and in the case of religious sciences to the origin of the Revelation (26).

In fact, Ibn Khaldun's classification of knowledge is also based on the concept of the unification of knowledge and the ultimate source of it - God. Figure No. 13 gives a clear picture of this classification and branches of knowledge which should be available for muslims.

Although many contemporary muslim scholars have accepted both Al-Gazali's and Ibn Khaldun's typology of knowledge and the importance attached to the religious sciences, they do not reject renaissance as Al-Gazali. In fact, they have given it specific definitions and objectives. For example, Seyyed H. Nasr, 1982, conceptualises renaissance as an investigation within the realm of the main sources of Islamic ideals, the Qurān and Sunnah, and do not exclude it. He believes that creative interpretation is needed to meet the requirements of changing muslim societies and the expansion of knowledge. Nasr's interpretation is based on his conviction that knowledge cannot by itself be harmful or

dangerous. It is the extraneous values and assumptions which man imparts into it which cause it to produce a spiritually harmful fallout (27).

Another aspect worth bearing in mind is that Islam does not consider knowledge as a privilege for a certain class or sex. In fact learning and seeking knowledge - theoretical and practical - is obligatory for male and female equally. The Prophet has said,

> "to seek knowledge is the duty of every Muslim (man) and Muslimah (woman)" (28).

The type of education offered for men and women ought to be determined by the Muslim society according to the needs of the time and the respective roles to be performed.

As explained earlier, social stratification within the ideal Muslim society is based on learning rather than kinship or race. Therefore a knowledgeable people who use their minds are ranked as a higher order than the ignorant regardless of their gender. There are many verses in the Holy Qurān which indicate the position they hold. For instance,

(a) "... Are they equal! Those who know and those who know not! Only men possessed of minds remembers..(29)

(b) ... God will raise up in rank those of you who believe and have been granted (mystic) knowledge..." (30).

Islam also emphasises that a person who makes efforts to seek, acquire and use knowledge for the benefit of his society has the right to be rewarded a higher social status than a worshipper whose contribution to his society is limited. The prophet mentions in one Hadith that,

> "The knowledgeable person ('aālim) excels the worshipper ('aābid) just as the full moon excels other stars" (31).

Fighting illiteracy and ignorance is essential within

the Islamic faith and the first Surah (Al-'Alaq) in the Holy Quran affirms this aspect. "Read" is the first word sent down from God to his Prophet Muhammed. The Surah stresses:

> "Read: In the name of thy Lord who createth, createth man from clot, Read and Thy Lord is the most bounteous. Who teacheth by the pen, teacheth man that which he knows not.." (32)

The final aspect related to the Islamic concept of knowledge is how Islam views sciences. In general, Islam values all sciences as long as they are within the framework of the Islamic concept of knowledge. All sciences are nesessary for muslim society in so far as they lead humanity to an advantageous stage in its development.

The essence of an empirical scientific attitude, according to Islam, consists of moving away from dogmatic beliefs and practices in worldly matters and raising healthy doubts about all propositions.

Islam, however, does not impose any restrictions or limitation on theoretical, empirical or applied sciences, except for one limitation which pertains to the ultimate ends and their actual effects on humanity. For instance, Abdul-Rahman S. Abdulla, explains that any theory of science which is in conflict with faith is condemned and rejected and has no place in God's injunction (33).

Scientific facts which are acquired through observations and experimentation, in other words, the scientific methods, do not contradict the Islamic beliefs. This comes from the fact that the scientific method depends upon 'aqal' or reason whose role is recognised in the Holy Quran and is not in conflict with it. The Quran emphasises that man should use his intellect to understand the world and its nature.

Islam emphasises that there is a distinction between established facts and hypotheses or theories. The former have been approved by empirical investigation, while the latter lack sufficient data and more investigation is demanded to prove their validity. The concept, however, is not in contradiction with scientific belief held by some western schools of thought such as the pragmatic philosophy which rejects the assumption of static scientific facts and advocates more investigation in science.

Finally, what has been said in the preceeding part about the Islamic concept of knowledge can be summarised as follows:

(1) Knowledge in Islam is one in essence but is gained in two ways: revelation and human efforts;

(2) the revealed knowledge and acquired knowledge together constitute the totality of knowledge in its final form;

(3) all branches of knowledge are considered equally important as an integrated unit and not as completely independent items having completely different conceptual units;

(4) both theoretical and practical types of knowledge have the same value and status and their role is recognised in regard to the progress of the Islamic Society;

(5) learning and acquiring knowledge is obligatory for all muslims regardless of their gender, age, origin or status;

(6) social stratification in the ideal Islamic society is based on learning and knowledge and not on kinship or race;

(7) work and active implementation of learning for the benefit of mankind is highly emphasised in Islam. The prophet of Islam himself worked with his own hands and to the best of his abilities. He was a trader, a soldier, an administrator and a leader, but above all the Prophet of God.

4.2.4 The Islamic Concept of the Content of Education

In keeping with the unitarian concept of the Islamic religion, Islamic education has always been considered impartable. It aims at the balanced growth of the total personality of man through the training of man's spirit, intellect, the rational self, feelings and bodily senses. Education should, therefore, cater for the growth of man in all its aspects, it should guarantee both his spiritual and physical development. It should lead the individual as well as the community towards goodness and the attainment of perfection (34).

Piety and faith must be clearly recognised in the content as an aim to be systematically pursued. The test of a subject's validity and effectiveness is whether it fosters deeper awareness of the Divine Presence in the University and whether it brings the learner nearer to an understanding of God and of the relation in which man stands to his Maker (35).

The content of education can be divided for students into two categories:

(a) experience based on permanent values embodied in religion and scripture. These are defined in the Qurān and Sunnah;

(b) experience in the forms of skills or technical knowledge whose nature is bound to constant change.

Transference of these experiences means that three kinds of subjects should find their way into the content of the curriculum. These are:

(a) subjects connected with the study of the Qurān and Hadith;

(b) subjects related to the study of man and his society, and

(c) subjects concerned with the study of nature (35).

Ibn Khaldun's classification of knowledge (Figure No. 13) exemplifies this kind of subject grouping.

As explained earlier, Islam recognises differences in achievements and directs educators' attention to cultivate the ideal of excellence while retaining the moral values of equality envisaged within the realm of Ummah and the conceptualisation of Islamic society.

The recognition of talent in Islam, however, does not mean that segregated educational institutions ought to be established for different groups of various abilities. On the contrary, from the dawn of Islam until the introduction of western educational systems in Islamic countries in the nineteenth century, all children were taught in the same school (madrassah or Mosque). They remained in heterogenously composed classes, but individualised learning and teaching was provided to cater for different abilities.

The early Muslim educationists fully realised the great importance of rapport between teachers and the taught. They were well aware of the moulding and enlivening effect of such rapport with the students and the enduring influence it leaves behind throughout students lives. Their method of instruction was a combined form of tutoring, advising and group discussion.

There was no fixed rule as to the number and period of lectures and holidays. All these depended on the inclination or discretion of teachers.

In Islam, teachers should be trained and must be efficient and capable of presenting their information by the right method. They must be endowed with the necessary wisdom to inspire confidence and trust and to provide intellectual and moral satisfaction. They must be of exemplary characters so that they can be the living embodiment of the Islamic education which they undertake to teach.

Although Islam lays stress on the education of both sexes, orthodix muslim scholars have not yet agreed whether or not women should be offered the same type of education as men. Their rejection of providing identical types of curriculum for both genders is based on the assumption that Islam envisages man-woman roles as complementary and not competing. They claim that as each has certain privileges and duties in accordance with his or her sphere of influence, it is impossible to offer them the same curriculum (37).

The issue of the curriculum, in addition to the principles of equality between genders and co-education are still debated among muslim scholars as well as educationists in muslim countries and this controversy has not yet been resolved.

However, the modernisation and socio-economic changes, taking place in the Gulf Arab States, urge the consideration of equal curriculum for both genders to utilise all human resources to achieve societal prosperity and sovereignty.

4.3 Political System and Its Institutions

As has already been mentioned, a long period of political

stability, among other features related to societal conditions, has favoured the success of comprehensive schools in the ideal-typical models selected, i.e. Sweden, England and the U.S.A. Therefore it is worth examining the political system and institutions in the Gulf Arab States to see if there is a sufficient degree of political stability to enhance the chances of success of comprehensive education in these states. What follows will focus on actual political practices.

4.3.1 Actual Political Practices

To begin with, it must be observed that the prevailing political systems in these Gulf Arab States are far from based on the ideal Islamic polity as envisaged in the Shariah, that is to say, on a pattern of Islamic norms. Rather than following the "higher valuations", they are founded on more practical considerations. As Holmes argues,

> "individuals espouse 'higher valuations' while at the same time behaving in accordance with their economic, social and political self-interests - (for him-) their "lower valuations" (38).

He elaborates,

> "higher Valuations" change while "lower valuations" persist, giving rise to inconsistencies between what individuals say they believe and the way in which they behave" (39).

The foregoing observation, stressed by Holmes, coincides with actual political practices in the Gulf Arab States despite the fact that ideal Islamic norms are not debatable whereas in secular societies "higher valuations" may themselves be debated before and after legislation is passed. Though it is claimed in official documents that the political ideology of these states is derived from the Qurān and the Sunnah, the fact is, that neither the principles nor the actual practices on which

politics and government functions are, strictly speaking, in accordance with the concepts of the Islamic state. In theory, for example, the constitution of Saudi Arabia is said to be the Qurān, in practice, however, a combination of religious, tribal and modern principles determine the basis and structures of decision-making systems at the highest levels. Therefore, the day to day political practices, in fact, display either the criterion of expediency or some kind of concealed secularism though the latter as an ideology is rejected mainly because of its challenge to religious and tribal values or traditional practices. This mixture of expediency and traditionalism is adopted perhaps to promote programmes of modernisation. But it does guarantee a measure of stability and binds various sections of the society in these states together into a common nationhood. Concerning the actual operationalisation of political systems, all these states have some common characteristics: in all three, vestiges of tribalism still persist. In contradistinction, for example, to the ideal Islamic norms of the choice of the highest political authority which according to Islam, should be on the basis of popular choice, the system operating in these states is based on hereditary lineage with a kind of legitimacy appended to it by way of the '<u>baya</u>' system whereby the tribal chiefs and religious sheikhs give their approval by putting their hands on to the hand of the new ruler - a tribal custom. Basically, the inner councils of the ruling families, in all the three states, decide who the heir apparent would be either from the brothers or sons of the ruling Emir or King; and thus, the dynastic rule prevails. Even within the more constitutionalised system of Bahrain and Kuwait, the absolute authority of the Emir remains inviolate as could be

seen in the following articles of their constitution:

Article 33(A) of the Bahrain Constitution states,

> "The Emir is the Head of the State;
> his person shall be immune and inviolable,
> and he shall be responsible for the affairs
> of his Ministry"

Again, Article 35(a) emphasises,

> "Emir shall have the right to initiate,
> and he alone shall ratify and promulage
> the laws" (40).

In Kuwait, Article 15 of the Constitution states,

> "The ruler and the National Assembly are
> in charge of the Executive power"

Article 52 states,

> "The Executive power is in the hands of the
> ruler, Council of Ministers and ministers
> according to the constitution"

Article 53 stresses,

> "The judicial power is held by the
> judicial courts on behalf of the ruler" (41).

In Saudi Arabia, where the Holy Qurān is professed to be the constitution of the Kingdom, all power is vested in the King who combines religious and political power as Sheikh of Sheikhs and Commander-in Chief. The Saudi King does not consider his rule unislamic as he legitimises his position by making reference to the injunctions of the Qurān which vide verse 59 of Chapter IV enjoins Muslims as below:

> "O ye Who believe, Obey God and Obey the Apostle.
> And Those charged with authority among you" (41).

For the interpretation of this Qurānic injunction, the Saudi regime draws upon the authenticity of a prominent orthodox reformer of medieval times. Imam Taqi uddin Ahmed Ibn Taymiyyah (1263-1327 A.D.) on whose <u>ijtihad</u> (exegetic school of thought) the Wahabi religious and political doctrine and the basis of Saudi ideology is based (43).

To avoid anarchy, the medieval muslim thinkers tended to support the actual holder of authority in the Islamic World even if it were a powerful prince provided he upheld Islamic order and welfare and created peaceful conditions for the security and welfare of his subjects and promoted justice. To that end Ibn Taymiyyah explains that if religion and politics are separated, it would result in disorder. But once in power, he considers it obligatory for the ruler to rule by means of consultations Shūrā as required by the Holy Qurān and Sunnah. Disobedience of the muslim ruler, according to him, is only permissible in the event of the ruler's decisions being manifestly contrary to the Qurān and Sunnah and the consensus of the muslim community. For him, disobedience resulting in general disorder (fitnah) is an unforgivable sin (44).

Today while there is general consensus among Muslim scholars everywhere that the holder of highest authority in muslim lands should be a good muslim who practices Islam and safeguards the religious moral and material well being of his people, opinion differs on the method of his choice. The traditionists still call for the restoration of the elected 'Khalifah' caliphate while the modernists are more inclined to create republican systems of government where the elected representatives of the people participate in decision-making. And both groups consider their position more appropriately Islamic, the traditionists insist on the forms as well as the functions while the modernists give more significance to the functions.

Although there is no Qurānic Surrah or verse which denies full political equality of women and men, the social taboo against active political participation by women are still

strong in these states. The right to vote or stand for election is not granted to women, even in Kuwait which has had public elections since the 1960s. The women's conditions, in terms of politics, is similar to that in most Arab countries. They are involved in political issues and do wield varying amounts of power at the lower levels of social organisation; however, by and large, they do not take an active role in national political activities, nor do the results of their involvement at the local level extend beyond their own community group (45). D.J. Gerner argues since political strength is one of the few ways a group can effect socio-economic change, this lack of participation is highly detrimental to the cause of women's emancipation (46). Nawal al-S'aadāwī envisages the emancipation of Arab women by way of total awareness of their conditions and an understanding of the means to change them. She believes that Arab women's emancipation can only result from the struggle of women themselves. This, she asserts, necessitates the constitution of politically conscious, disciplined as well as organised women's movements and a clear definition of their objectives and methods of struggle as well as the rights for which women must fight (47). This conception of emancipation needs to be conceived by women in the Gulf region in order to upgrade their status and cope with the rapid transformation in their societies.

The modernisation of the political system in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia has been enhanced by the contemporary changes in the socio-economic conditions that have emerged since W.W.I. However, the introduction of various modern political institutions does not necessarily imply a greater participation of the people in politics or in the process of decision-making. The structural changes that have been introduced are largely

inconsistent with the ideological concepts underlying these institutions whether secular or Islamic. As a result these institutions are neither truly Islamic nor secular in essence but form a compromise. To highlight this aspect, the major political institutions will now be examined in order to study how the principles of equality, participation and egalitarianism are realised in the polity of the Gulf Arab States.

4.3.2 Institutional Bases of the Political System

The state-based system of bureaucracy, which works for the implementation of governmental policies concerning modernisation, national mobilisation of public opinion, efficient flow of authority and articulation of community interests and public moral and legal order as well as the general rapport between rulers and ruling has evolved since WWI. It was consolidated in the 1970s when modernisation really began to take off.

Historically, the Arab Gulf bureaucratic systems have, one way or another, been influenced by the British model. This influence was more direct in the case of Bahrain and Kuwait where it is still quite conspicuous than in Saudi Arabia because the direct colonial contact was more prevailing in the former states than in the latter.

The Saudi Arabian bureaucracy, Al-Farsy states, evolved independent of any colonial influence. It grew largely from local resources and in response to local needs. Early Saudi bureaucracy, he adds, strove toward the development of Saudi institutions of law and order. Only later a wide network of specialised institutions beyond the realm of law and order came into being (48). In fact, Egyptian influence had its effect on

the institutions developed in the Western region and spread later all over the Kingdom. To go one step further one could add that Egyptian bureaucracy was originally moulded on the British model.

All the three states have established a system of ministerial cabinet (Council of Ministers). The Council of Ministers is mostly traditional in character. All the Ministers on this Council are, for example, appointed by the rulers. Therefore they do not necessarily represent the public interest. The ministers are appointed to certain ministries according to their specialisations or specific merits such as religious or tribal status. The general observation is that the ministries that call for specialised skills (health, development, industry, finance, electricity) have been generally allocated to technocrats distinguished in their specialised field. In view of the Shi'a- Sunni sectarian following of the Bahraini people, it has been observed that in appointing or employing Bahrainis for ministries a fairness in the distribution between the two communities - Shi'ites and Sunnites - is followed. But for certain ministries, e.g. Interior, Defence, Exterior, the members of the ruling family supercede commoners.

In Saudi Arabia, and to some extent in Kuwait, a kind of balance is maintained by appointing ministers from various sections of the society, such as from the royal family, the main tribes, religious leaders and technocrats. But, as in Bahrain, crucial ministries are directly controlled by the ruling families.

The operation of these councils gives a clear picture of how authority and power, in general, are practiced in these states. Usually, the Saudi King, as well as the rulers of Bahrain

and Kuwait delegate their functions to their deputies (prime ministers) who preside over these councils, regulate debates, conduct voting, announce the council's decisions and chair their meeting. As a general rule, the prime minister is usually the crown prince, brother, son or one of the closest relations of the ruler.

The state's statutes, treaties, concessions and contracts for government loans are always subject to royal approval. While day-to-day administrative affairs are dealt with by the members of the councils who are responsible to the king or the ruler.

In Bahrain and Kuwait, all ministries and governmental agencies are under the umbrella of the Council of Ministries; while in Saudi Arabia, where the Ministry of Defence and Aviation, Ministry of Planning and four major governmental agencies (Civil Service Bureau, General Audit Bureau, Investigation and Central Board and The Organisation for Public Services and Discipline) act independently of the Council of Ministers.

Both in Bahrain and Kuwait, the Civil and Shariah Courts co-exist side by side. Appendix No. 8 explains the judiciary structure in Bahrain.

The concept of the co-existence of the courts has its roots in the 1920s when the British intervened to change the formal organisation of authority and restructured the Court system; before then justice was administered by tribal Councils and religious courts. In 1919, the Joint Council, presided over by the ruler and the British political agent, was the first 'formal' court instituted to deal with cases brought to it by foreign subjects against Bahraini nationals. As a result of the incorporation of different courts into a single system,

the religious courts became subsidiary to the central court. The amalgamation, however, contributed a lot to the decrease in the religious jurist's power. Now they are appointed by the government and not nominated by the community (49).

The Judicial Regulations in Saudi Arabia were promulgated under the Royal Decree M/64 dated 23 July 1975. Article 1 of this decree states:

> "The judges are independent and in their administration of justice are subject to no authority other than provisions of Islamic law and regulations in force" (50).

The judicial regulations provide that Shariah courts shall consist of the following descending order of authority: the Supreme Judicial Council, the Appellate Courts, the general courts, and the summary courts. The Judicial Regulations also specify the duties for each Council (51).

To conclude, the establishment of different government agencies and offices in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia has given rise to an elaborate bureaucratic machinery, as well as differentiation and rationalisation of administration. It has increased efficiency and involved more citizens within the administration though the Emirs and Kings remain the source of supreme authority, i.e. executive, legislative and judiciary - function independently, but the overall executive authority is held by the rulers. Such a system of centralisation has ensured stability, though tension and public dissatisfaction has been manifested in certain cases such as, for example, the occupation of the Holy Mosque in Makkah in 1980. As a result, some degree of constitutionalism has been introduced especially in Bahrain and Kuwait by the creation of national assemblies representing public interests. A brief reference to these assemblies will not be out of place in order to discern how they, inter alia,

influence policy-making, policy adoption and functions related to education.

4.3.3 Nature of The National and Consultative Assemblies (al-majalis al-watniyah wa-majalis al-'Shūra)

The principle of public representation through election was adopted after independence, both in Kuwait (1963) and Bahrain (1971) and constitutional assemblies were established.

The majlis al-Umma (National Assembly) (52) of Kuwait (January 29 1963) is a uni-cameral legislative body with a total of sixty-six members of whom fifty are elected for a term of four years by native-born literate male adults (Article 80-83). Though the ministers are appointed by the ruler and women are not permitted to vote or be elected, the constitution does allow the people to participate in the political system through their representatives in the national assembly. The first National Assembly was mainly composed of merchants, a majority of whom came from the prominent familes of Kuwait. It is significant, however, that about one third of the deputies of the National Assembly,1963, were liberals who favoured the political policies of Jamāl Abdul-Nasr of Egypt, at a time which called for Arab unity, non-alignment and liberation of the region from foreign economic and political domination (53).

The election of January 1975, brought younger and better educated men into the National Assembly. The ruling family, however, manifested its unease at representative government in 1976 and closed the National Assembly for four years. But as a result of the public demand to participate in the executive authority, recognised in public debates in the press and in petitions signed by the enlightened people of Kuwait, an election

was held in 1981. The result of that election showed that the government's effort to discourage the election of any politicians with ideas unacceptable to the ruling family proved effective. By studying the religious trends of the elected members, M.G. Al-Rumaihi has pointed out that as a result of the government's action in changing the number of electoral districts from ten to twenty-five, the prominent religious movements, such as Al-Ikhwan, Al-Salafi and the Shi'ites, were able to win a number of seats in that election while the liberals were not able to dominate the election (54).

However, the religious groups lost the last election in February 1985, which was attributed mainly to the following reasons:

- their proposals to change many articles of the constitution;
- the heavy cost of introduction of certain rules and regulations, e.g. the abolition of co-education in institutions of higher education and in Kuwait University;
- the new policy of refusing to grant Kuwait nationality to non-Kuwaitis which was against the constitution (55).

In general, the new election results show that more highly educated members were able to gain more seats.

In Bahrain, a constitutional assembly composed of twenty-two elected and eight appointed (the Ministers) was formed in December 1971. Unfortunately, it was dissolved in 1975. The dissolution of the assembly was justified by the authority as is shown in an interview with the Prime Minister who remarked that the democracy introduced in Bahrain is an alien concept which does not represent Bahrain's culture and

traditions. He claimed that it is more appropriate for the West rather than Bahrain (56).

In reality, public participation had posed a threat to the absolute nature of the ruling family's power in Bahrain as well as in the other Gulf States. In fact, it was found that the people's representatives in the assembly had started raising constitutional questions related to the ultimate legitimacy of the accumulation of overall power within one family.

Although the Bahrain constitutional experiment lasted for three years, it is unique in the Gulf region because the people Block, which represented all candidates from different unofficial parties (57), was united by two common denominators i.e. the local issues they stood for and the social origin of the candidates (58). The experiment did help to identify groups in terms of their political interests and privileges. It has been observed that after the dissolution of the assembly, the following four political groups appeared - more strikingly than ever though they had existed before -

(1) the tribal-based groupings headed by the ruling family;

(2) the Shi'ate religionists;

(3) the underground political parties based on the Arab nationalist movement, and secular political ideologies particularly Marxist socialism;

(4) the merchant enterpreneurial groups united informally by interests, with no lasting political commitments (59).

Khuri explains that in terms of their class and origin, the first two formulations (groups) bound by religion and the exclusiveness of social groups, cut across 'class' distinctions, while the last two groups, bound by class, cut across ethnic

and religious distinctions. The political parties, in general, recruit from the less privileged, while the merchant groups recruit from the more privileged (60).

In Saudi Arabia, in theory, the majlis al-Shura of Makkah notaries who supported King Abdul-Aziz in 1924 had never been dissolved. Its members met ceremonially from time to time, and among his promised reforms of 1962, late King Faisal had included the transformation of the Council into a national consultative body. The promise was revived in 1980 after the failure of the 1979 seizure of the Holy Mosque and the riots in the Eastern Province (61). All these incidents gave rise to a kind of alarm that made the government think of introducing some kind of public participation in the governmental processes through a consultative assembly Majlis al-Shura.

R. Lacey explains that the assumption is that this consultative council would be a nominated body based on a new concept of power-sharing with some decentralisation and the introduction of independent regional administration and the introduction of some kind of elections for new local government members. He comments that, these are just aspirations rather than actual intentions (52).

However, in a recent interview published in The Sunday Times, King Fahd outlined his plan to modify the existing style of the absolute Saudi Monarchy and within a period of three to four months, to introduce a consultative assembly (majlis al-Shura), whose structure and functions have been described as below:

- its members would be appointed and at the same time the country would be given a written constitution;
- within two or three years, there is an intention to hold an indirect election for half the assembly's members

members through a system of provincial majlis;

- its role would be to express opinion and supervise the execution of government policy;
- it would be designed to ensure the participation of the people in government (63).

Whether the proposed assembly will give the people the opportunity to participate in decision-making and ensure democratic participation, or the royal family will maintain its traditional status in power remains to be seen.

Hitherto, even the assemblies that have been initiated in Bahrain and Kuwait have consolidated power in the hands of the ruling families. Therefore it is difficult to regard them as genuine democratic assemblies as understood in the popular term, or as the true consultative bodies (Shura) enjoined in Islam.

The formal political parties, in general, are banned in these states. Workers in Bahrain and Saudi Arabia are forbidden to organise themselves into independent trade unions, while in Kuwait the unions are officially recognised. Although officially banned in Bahrain, Federation of Labour has noted the existence of unofficial unions with a membership of 1956 of 6000 in the oil industry (64). And similar types of unions exist in Saudi Arabia. However, they are still underground although members of the International Labour Organisation. The representatives attend all the functions organised by Arab as well as International Labour Unions. The Kuwait Labour Union, recognised by the government practises its activities openly.

Evidence has also established the existence of the following political groups in these states:

- in Bahrain, the two major political groups are the People's Front and the National Liberation Front;

- in Kuwait, the Kuwaiti Democrats;
- in Saudi Arabia, they are the Labour Party, the Democratic Party and Saudi Arabian Communist Party;
- in addition, there are diversified Islamic groups representing different religious ideologies (65).

It transpires from the foregoing study of the political system in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia that these states are out for the modernisation of their political as well as socio-economic conditions.

In regard to their politics, though, in theory, Islam is stated to constitute the major part of their legislations, these states have accepted secularism in an indirect way. This is manifested in the structural patterns of their institutions. In a sense, they have attempted to reform their political system by introducing various modern institutional structures based originally on the British system and the British influence within their institutions still persists. These changes, however, are antithetical to the traditional Islamic views of the Islamic state as indicated earlier.

These states' attempts to introduce some kind of public participation does not mean that they allow public participation in the formulation and adoption of policies. The general practice is opposite to that in open societies where policies adopted are open to debate. The formulation and adoption of policies is limited to the ruling authorities and their final approval is the responsibility of the rulers.

Despite the defects of the political conditions, the ruling families in the three states have since 1930 experienced a relatively long period of political stability which might be attributed to the following factors:

(1) the discovery of oil and the increase of the national income which has encouraged these states to invest their national wealth to modernise the state system as well as to allocate a large portion of their income for social welfare services.

(2) Britain and the U.S.A. since World War One, have tried to consolidate cooperative effort to secure these states and the Arabian Peninsula in general from any international conflict. To safeguard their economic interests in the area, they have offered all means to protect the authoritarian regimes in these states. They have played an indirect role to convince the rulers to introduce some changes in their traditional political system to avoid conflict with their citizens. However, as stated earlier, these changes have always coincided with the authorities' interests even after the 1960s.

4.4 Economic Conditions

The analysis of economic conditions will deal with natural resources, economic policies and their institutions, human resources and manpower demands. The purpose for the survey of these conditions in the states under study is to find out if they have any effect on their educational system and in particular on the re-organisation of the general secondary schools on comprehensive bases.

4.4.1 Natural Resources

Before the discovery of oil, there was no improvement in education on a national level because Bahrain, Kuwait and

Saudi Arabia did not have enough national income to put a portion of it into education. This was, however, due to their lack of natural resources and their inhospitable georgraphical and climatical conditions.

Therefore, most of the efforts made to offer education to the youth was initiated by individuals or by the British and American missionaries especially in Bahrain and Kuwait. While in Saudi Arabia secular education was initiated by immigrants who settled in the Holy cities of Makkah and Madinah in the Western Region. In general, religious education was the most widespread throughout the Arabian Peninsula.

Since the 1930s, all three states have relied mainly on the production of oil. In addition to the oil, each state has also its specific natural resources, whether these resources are utilised properly or not is another matter. For instance, in Bahrain, about 20 per cent of the total area - 66,926 sq.Km. - is cultivable, but actually only one twelfth of it is under cultivation (66). However, the agricultural area is gradually decreasing because of the tremendous construction projects which in turn are a result of the modernisation of an economy based on the oil industry and the growing process of urbanisation. The most striking feature of change with the oil discovery in Bahrain, F. Khuri asserts, is the transformation of share-croppers in palm cultivation and pearl-production into salaried labour constituting 70 per cent of the total work force (67).

Similarly, the Kuwait economy depends almost entirely upon oil (Table No. 10). Although recent investigations have indicated the presence of some quality sands which might be exploited for glass-making in addition to a considerable amount of lime stones in the neutral zone (68).

But, the variety of geological features of Saudi Arabia distinguishes it from the other two states, i.e. Bahrain and Kuwait, and affords it more varied economic resources which have not yet been exploited.

Agriculture has remained restricted to certain well-defined areas - al-Hasa, al-Kharj, al-Qatif, al-Qasim and al-aflaj. Recent studies such as that of E. Mallakh have pointed out that contrary to popular opinion and despite the fact that the Kingdom has little vegetation, there exists a substantial area of Saudi land which can be brought under cultivation given an adequate supply of water. Mallakh further asserts that in Saudi Arabis geophysical constraints are not as binding as those with which some of the other oil-producing countries in the area such as Kuwait must contend. He argues that even though Saudi Arabia has limited agricultural potential, it could still be expanded significantly beyond its present limits (69).

Saudi Arabia too has a single commodity economy as Bahrain and Kuwait. According to 1975 statistics, crude oil and natural gas production generated 56.4 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). In 1980, the Saudi GDP was around £158,000 million and almost 90 per cent of this came from oil (70).

Only after so many years of oil extraction did attention shift to a plan of extensive geological studies which sought to discover other mineral wealth. A geological survey of 65 per cent of the precambrian Arabian shield in the western part of the Kingdom revealed substantial deposits of copper, zinc, silver, iron phosphate, uranium and potash which would require time and effort to exploit (71). However, the Kingdom has achieved some success in the commercialisation of non-metallic minerals such as cement, gypsum, lime, marble and salt.

To conclude, though all three states depend on a single commodity economy, they have massive oil revenues which are, to some extent, generated to achieve modernisation. The improvement in their economy after the 1930s, has also contributed to substantial progress in state education. They have poured a lot of money into developing their state educational systems and to ensure appropriate educational oppotunities for their youth.

4.4.2 Economic Policies and Institutions

In general, the socio-economic bases of these three states, i.e. Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia - is underpinned by the philosophy of a free-market economy. The role of the government in the economic process of the country has essentially been to undertake policies which would diversify the economy and improve the different economic sectors without sacrificing the freedom of the individuals and the private sector's ability to respond to the government's incentives within a free-market system.

Since 1970, these states have adopted a policy of diversification of their economy as long as they cannot depend on one source of income, crude oil, to stablise their economy.

Arguing the case for the policy of diversification of the economy, S.M. Al-Sabah asserts that the dependency on crude oil as an essential source of income implies a considerable amount of risk both in the short and long run. In the short run, she explains, the economy is subject to fluctuations in crude oil prices, the seasonal nature of demand for oil, its sensitivity to local and international political events and stabilities in foreign exchange rates especially the U.S. dollar. In the long run, she thinks that the situation is more serious. She believes

that the end of the oil era will be a reality sooner or later, particularly in view of the investment in oil substitutes which have accelerated since the early 1970s (72).

In fact, oil revenues which have been accumulated after 1970, have accelerated the development of the commercial sector and have caused deterioration in the agricultural and handicrafts sectors. The industrial sector has not been given adequate attention. So the adopted policy of economic diversification has been envisaged by the policy-makers in these states as a means to solve the problem of the imbalance in the growth of different economic sectors.

To find out if these states have been able to achieve the desired objectives, it is worthwhile to investigate attempts made towards economic diversification in each individual state.

In Bahrain, the first attempt to diversify the economy was made in the early 1970s when an aluminium factory (ALBA) was set up, which at present employs 4 per cent of the national labour force. Attempts have also been made to develop trade, banking, finance, industry, hotels and the communication/ information sectors. This kind of economic diversification however has led to increasing construction work and employment of large expatriate manpower.

The expansion of the capacity of the economic sectors has been followed by the creation and expansion of modern economic institutions which are in charge of controlling these sectors. For instance, finance and other sectors of economy are supervised by the Ministry of Finance and National Economy, 1976. This Ministry also oversees Bahrain's currency and financial policies through the Bahrain Monetary Agency which monitors local, regional and international monetary developments and draws up policies

accordingly (73).

In Kuwait, the policy of economic diversification is similar to Bahrain. It has been envisaged as the only real option facing the Kuwait economy which is to develop its own domestic resources alongside its foreign investments within the framework of a carefully structured economic plan. The Kuwaiti Development Plan 1975 emphasises that development must be encouraged in all economic sectors. But industrialisation, in Kuwait, is visualised to focus on two principles:

(a) encouraging the establishment of cooperative industrial projects and organisations in the Gulf area;

(b) considering the protection of regional industry from foreign competition as a temporary measure (78).

Lastly, in Saudi Arabia, the commitment to a diversified economy is evident in the Saudi plans for industrial development, of which the following three aspects are identified by Birks and Sinclair:

(1) the expansion and development of existing manufacturing and industrial enterprises, such as cement production, the Jeddah Steel Mill and ancilliary investments in desalination units;

(2) the introduction of light industry to meet the needs of the Saudi market which are privately owned and sited near major urban centres;

(3) the development of hydrocarbons industries processing gases associated with oil in the industrial areas (Yenb'a and Jubail) (75).

The movement towards industrialisation in Saudi Arabia has necessitated the creation of modern economic institutions. For example, the Industrial Studies and Development Centre is the

national institution which conducts studies concerning manufacturing establishments. Since 1980, the Ministry of Industry and Electricity has assumed responsibility for practically the entire petrochemical export industry and process plant operation. In order to control and coordinate industrial development, the Ministry has established the Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC) (76).

Commenting on the nature of the Saudi Development Plans in general and the diversification impetus in particular, Abdel-Hadi Tazi has observed that these plans do not amount to a true diversification of the economy, since they are only to be sustained as long as there are oil reserves (77).

To conclude, the policies of economic diversification adopted by Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, have not achieved a balanced growth of different economic sectors because most of the attempts are directed at promoting modern banking and commerce as well as some industries, while little attention has been paid to developing agriculture and reviving the handicrafts sectors.

These states' modern economic systems of which the oil industry is the most important element mainly operates from metropolitan centres. Furthermore, since these oil rich states depend very much on the industrialised countries for prices of their primary goods and their development plans in general, their efforts at diversification have not truly materialised and their technical dependency on the industrialised countries has increased (78).

If economic diversification and technical independence are to be achieved successfully, they must be accompanied by a balanced policy with regard to labour and manpower development and their relationship to education.

To understand these states' policy concerning the development of indigenous manpower, it is necessary to study the conditions of human resources and the capacity of the manpower to meet the needs of a varied economy.

4.4.3 Demographic Features and Distribution of Population

In general, the discovery of oil and the increase of the national income has affected the population's conditions. The improvement in economy, health and education has contributed to a substantial increase in population growth and distribution throughout these states.

On the whole, the population of these states increased tremendously after the 1940s. According to a 1981 census of Bahrain, the total population was then 350,798 as against 170,203 in 1940 (79). Whereas the population of Kuwait, according to the 1980 census, was 1,318,000 out of which only 523,000 were in fact Kuwaitis, in 1944, the estimated population was only 110,000 (80). In Saudi Arabia, the preliminary results of the 1974 census put the population ot 7,012,642. It was estimated to have risen to 8,224,000 by 1980 as a result of migration of workers. About 27 per cent of the Saudi population is composed of Bedouins (81).

Information on fertility in the states is scarce, consequently, most of the fertility estimates are based on indirect methods of demographic analyses. In comparison to developed countries - which have total fertility rate in the order of 2.0 to 2.5 - levels in Bahrain are certainly higher (45 per 1,000 and 6.7 per annum). However, relative to the fertility level of the other countries in the ECWA region, the Bahraini rates are on the low side (82).

In Kuwait, the total fertility rates were 6.2 in 1982 and the annual growth rate of population was 6.3 per cent. While in Saudi Arabia, the total fertility levels were 7.1 per cent in 1982 and the population annual growth rate 4.8 between 1972-1982 (83). Table No. 11 gives basic indicators of population in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia.

In general, these three states share unique characteristics in terms of population age range: youthful population constitutes almost half of the total indigenous population. According to the 1981 census in Bahrain, young people under 15 years of age amounted to 45 per cent of the total. In Kuwait, an examination of the population age structure revealed that the share of the under-15s was 50.1 per cent in 1970, while the corresponding share by the same group in non-Kuwaiti population was about 37 per cent. Whereas in Saudi Arabia, the youthful population constituted 49 per cent of the total according to the SEDES* estimates, 1981, This fluctuates between the rural and nomadic areas and the urban areas. For example, according to SEDES*, in a rural community such as Najran, 53 per cent were below the age of 15; while in the eastern urban areas this figure was estimated at 47 per cent. A. Amana thinks that this fluctuation may be attributed to the development of infrastructure, such as sanitation and medical services, to the use of contraceptives in the developed areas and to the migration of some of the rural male population to work in the urban, especially in central, eastern and western areas (84).

---

* SEDES is a French Social Research Company that conducted a research project on the social and economic conditions of Saudi Arabia.

The population growth has also led to the expansion of urban population. After the oil discovery, in all of these states, the traditional economy is quickly being eclipsed by a modern one which has contributed to mass urban growth. For example, in Saudi Arabia, it is estimated that 75 per cent of the population live in settled areas, while only 25 per cent still maintain a nomadic or semi-nomadic lifestyle. The high percentage in the settled population can be attributed to the migration of some of the rural male population to work in the urban areas and to the government's policy of settling the nomads in agricultural communities, or in the main towns as has been done in Kuwait.

Efforts, however, are being directed towards encouraging the nationalsin these states to take an active part in the modern sectors of the economy, but the growth in their population does not mean that they have sufficient human resources to meet the demands of their economic transformation. Therefore, much of this economic transformation has been largely facilitated by imported labour and expertise who have also affected the distribution of the population especially in the urban areas and the industrial centres. New towns have been established to accommodate the foreign labour particularly the western people. For example, Awali town was set up to accommodate foreigners working in the oil industry in Bahrain, Aramco in Saudi Arabia and Al-Ahmadi in Kuwait.

The growth in their populations, especially the youthful population, has resulted in the growth of the schools' population. For example, although extensive primary education was only made available in Kuwait in 1952, when a few hundred students attended schools, today there are over 125,000 primary pupils in Kuwait,

and more than 20 per cent of the Kuwaiti population is in full-time education institutions.

4.4.4 Human Resources and Manpower

Although the Gulf Arab States have experienced a rapid increase in their population, there are not enough indigenous human resources to fill all the jobs created as a result of the rapid expansion of economic institutions. Therefore, these states depend on expatriate manpower (skilled and unskilled) to run their economic institutions and to implement their economic and construction projects.

Broadly speaking, most of the studies and surveys related to the labour force conditions and the future requirements in these states confirm these observations. They also reveal that the shortage of skilled and semi-skilled labour is due to the fact that development plans in these states, before 1970, were primarily centred on investment and production and not based on the manpower supply through the educational system.

This lack of fit between manpower and education forced these states, after 1970, to adopt new policies related to education and training. These policies aim, on the one hand, at reducing the need for highly qualified foreign experts as well as skilled and semi-skilled non-nationals, and on the other hand, at qualifying nationals for these jobs. They also stress the creation of a balanced relationship between education and socio-economic development at national and regional levels. However, for the purpose of this study, manpower conditions and recent policies of creating a balanced relationship between education and socio-economic development will be investigated in terms only of the secondary education. To elaborate, conditions prevailing

in each individual state will be examined because there are similarities and variations in the region.

4.4.3.1 Manpower Conditions in Bahrain

In Bahrain, the most systematic study of the labour force status and the future manpower requirements was made in 1874 by James Socknat of The Ford Foundation. Socknat made an attempt to examine the formal educational attainment of the Bahraini' component of the manpower force. Using various occupational groups reported in the 1941 Census, he modified the categories of occupations as follows:

(1) Professional and technical occupation, presumably requiring a science/mathematics capability based on a university degree;

(2) Professional occupational, presumably requiring a fine- or liberal-arts-based on university degree;

(3) Sub-professional and technician occupations, presumably requiring one to three years' post-secondary education;

(4) Skilled office occupation, presumably requiring secondary completion;

(5) Skilled office occupations, presumably requiring pre-vocational and/or training related to classroom instruction;

(6) Unskilled occupations, presumably requiring no special education or training (84).

His study shows that the lowest incidence of Bahraini employment (18 per cent) was found in the first category. The same was true of the skilled, semi-skilled and the unskilled ones. These latter three categores of occupations carried 82.7 per cent of all non-Bahraini employment (85). He pointed out that between

1965-1973, the total labour force of Bahrainis had increased to 62.9 per cent and that was partly a consequence of a dramatic 10.9 per cent year growth rate of female Bahrainis in the labour force (86). However, one of the main recommendations in his report was that education should be geared to meet the increasing manpower needs (87).

Socknat's recommendation concerning using education to increase national manpower was not put into practice and the different ministries did not coordinate their activities in this direction. Therefore, the problem of expatriates' influx has not been solved because the state lacks qualified people in the majority of occupations. Table No. 12 illustrates occupations in critically short supply. This problem was highlighted in the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs Survey, 1979, which investigated the conditions of manpower in more than 3,000 establishments employing more than 69,000 workers - national and non-national. The survey shows that 73 per cent of labour force in the private sector was made up of foreigners. While the public sector included about 27,000 workers made up of 78 per cent Bahrainis and 22 per cent foreigners (88). Table No. 13 shows comparative statistics of Bahrainis viz, non-Bahrainis in a random selection of occupations.

The survey reveals that both the commercial and industrial sectors indicated that on average 50 per cent or more of the training budget is spent on remedial or basic education needed before the Bahraini employees can be provided with specialised education and training specific to these sectors. The survey concludes that this shows that there is no linkage between educational and training systems which Bahrain's socio-economic development needs. It states that economic and technical

changes are occuring faster than can be assimilated by the educational institutions. These problems might be avoided if there is a kind of coordination between educational programmes and the development needs (89).

Thought the development and management of Bahrain's human resources has been recognised by the Government since 1970, national manpower policy was only adopted by 1978 when Bahrain's National Manpower Plan was approved by the Council of Ministers. The plan has adopted the replacement strategy to decrease the number of expatriates at various levels of occupations. It has been estimated that a time framework for making significant improvement varies from a minimum of four to eight years due to the combination of educational training and experience requirements needed for the range of occupations mentioned earlier in Table No. 23 (90).

Three major objectives were defined in terms of management system for implementing the manpower plan. These are:

(1) The establishment of development programmes with industrial and commercial establishments for providing Bahrainis with specialised training and experience;

(2) The development of an information system that can provide the Ministry of Education with continuing data on occupational and educational requirements, needed in both the public and private sectors to meet Bahrain's economic and social goals;

(3) Making major changes in the educational system to match the major changes that have occurred in the labour force (91).

These stated objectives stress the Ministry of Education's responsibility for prepairing a whole new generation of manpower with entirely different skills and education from those of previous ones.

4.4.3.2 Manpower Conditions in Kuwait

In Kuwait, like Bahrain, the rapid economic expansion, the transformation from traditional to modern economy, the crash programmes of construction projects and rapid growth of trade have contributed to the excessive demand for foreign labour force. As a result of foreign labour influx, Kuwaitis are in the minority in most occupational categories. Their highest proportion is concentrated in government offices, private sector and commercial services. And the lowest percentage of Kuwaities appears to be in the field of construction. Tables Nos. 14A-14B illustrate the Kuwaitis' representatiion in different occupational groups.

S.Y. Al-Essa observes that the majority of young Kuwaiti University graduates choose to be employed by the government, not because of their qualifications, or according to the job market's needs, but rather because of their own personal preferences and the greater chances of promotion than in other sectors of the economy. The smaller the particular ministry institutions, the better are the chances of being promoted more quickly, and the chances are further enhanced by the government's policy of Kuwaitisation in the government sector (92).

The under representation of Kuwaitis in the construction and industry sectors is attributed to their attitudes to manual labour. Al-Essa asserts, that even in the oil industry, the backbone of Kuwait's economy, nationals' representation is minimal. He states that in 1971 there were 7,140 employees in

the oil industry of whom only 1,180, 25 per cent, were of Kuwaiti nationality. In the manufacturing industries, too, they did not exceed 26 per cent of the total labour force (93). However, in 1980, the conditions did not change much. According to the government statistics, non-Kuwaitis made up two-thirds of the total work force.

Since 1970, the work participation rate of Kuwaiti women has experienced an overall increase. But the Kuwaiti women who sought employment for self-fulfillment remain an exception. Commenting on Kuwaiti women's participation in work, Afaf I. Meleis et al state, it is mostly less affluent women who choose to work especially in education, nursing or the clerical employment. It is, however, envisaged by Meleis et al that as more higher status jobs become open to women, they will attract more from the upper strata of the society (94).

The development and management of Kuwait's human resources has been considered in The Kuwaiti Long Development Plan, 1975-2000. This plan emphasises the coordination between educational programmes and the development needs. The plan estimates that the strength of the national labour force will increase from 91,844 in 1976 to 300,000 by the year 2000. Therefore all the planning for different levels of education should be constructed on this basis (95).

At present, the Kuwaiti Government is working to rectify the existing manpower shortcomings by taking the following steps:

(a) reviewing the educational programmes, coordinating the different educational levels and orienting individuals towards the different branches of technical education needed by the country;

(b) directing the fringes of the educational process towards professional training while considering general education on the basis of the individual's general culture;

(c) stressing on training and developing skills and capacities needed for the future (96).

With the introduction of the Kuwaiti Development Plan, the Central Vocational Training Directorate within the Ministry of Planning was assigned the responsibility of controlling and coordinating all development programmes carried out by different ministries and organisations throughout the state.

The Ministry of Education is also advised to introduce fundamental changes in its educational institutions. As this study is concerned, in the main, with secondary education, it will focus upon the changes related to the general secondary schools in Chapter Six.

To conclude, the Kuwaiti Government's policy which is spelled out in the development plan emphasised the replacement of non-Kuwaitis with qualified Kuwaitis in the long term, but it did not deny the fact that foreign manpower would continue to be needed to sustain further growth at least until the year 2000.

4.4.3.3 Manpower Conditions in Saudi Arabia

In general, the same features that have contributed to the excessive demand for foreign labour in Bahrain and Kuwait, do exist in Saudi Arabia.

Since the 1960s, the Saudi government has adopted a policy to stabilise manpower conditions. This policy stresses, on the one hand, short-term contracts for non-Saudis working in the Kingdom, and on the other hand, it emphasises the acceptance

of Saudis into the job market regardless of their level of education and qualification. This policy, however, has not contributed effectively in controlling the foreign labour. On the contrary, the rapid growth in the Kingdom's modern economy and its institutions, and crash programmes of construction and industrial projects have put more pressure on the country to depend almost entirely on foreign labour.

The government's policy has also a side effect on the indigenous manpower's education and qualifications. The policy encourages young men either not to attend school at all or to drop out before attaining sufficient skills to enable them to be effective. For example, a young man with no formal education can obtain employment in the government as a non-cadre, or he can enter into cadre ranks at grade 9 with only an elementary certificate. As a result there is a large group of Saudi citizens who do not possess the requisite skills to perform significant functions properly in the modern day. A.I. Shukri reported that there were many thousands (estimated 50,000) of men working for the government alone who fell into this category in 1973 (97).

Since the 1960s, many government surveys have been carried out to investigate the status and the future of manpower requirements. For example, the Saudi Ministry of Finance and National Economy carried out a survey on the conditions of manpower in the country's five largest cities - Riyadh, Jeddah, Makkah, Dhahran and Medinah. This survey revealed that 35 per cent of the total population of these cities and 10 per cent of the owners of businesses were non-Saudis (98).

Data published by the Ministry of the Interior for Research in 1970 showed that there were 158,560 foreign workers

with 224,684 dependents. The data, compiled by Serayeldin I. et al., 1983, on immigrants' children enrolled in the Arabian Peninsula's educational institutions as a whole, revealed more than 226,000, half of these children were in Saudi Arabia only, the proportion of non-national children rose to 11 per cent (99). As most of the dependents of school age are enrolled within the state educational institutions, they put a great burden on the educational system as well as on the other welfare services offered in the Kingdom.

As in Kuwait and to some extent in Bahrain, the Saudi labour force (excluding nomads and women) is concentrated in specific sectors of the economy. According to the Ministry of Labour's estimates, 1980, about 35 per cent of the indigenous labour force was engaged in the low growth, low productivity and low wage sectors of agricultural and personal and community services. Some 57 per cent of the country's labour force was engaged in government, construction and trade. This leaves only eight per cent of the Kingdom's labour force which was engaged in productive output sectors (100). The work participation of the nomads is generally concentrated in subsistence economy, transport and lower category of occupations.

The Saudi women's participation in the labour force is limited to certain occupations such as the teaching profession. Whereas a reasonable increase of female participation arises, it is still lower than Bahrain and Kuwait.

The foregoing analysis of manpower conditions in Saudi Arabia shows that the Kingdom has a critical shortage of all categories - high, middle and lower manpower (Tables Nos. 15A and 15B).

The Saudi government, however, has accepted that the

level of expatriate manpower (standing at two million out of the total population of nine million according to the 1984 estimates) is likely to remain for some time. But nevertheless, the ultimate goal of the government is to develop Saudi national brain power and manpower to take over (101).

The Third Development Plan (1980-1985), is concerned much with quality of education and developing overall self-sufficiency of labour force. The development of human assets are manifested in this plan as follows:

- ensuring that manpower training programmes are in keeping with actual economic needs;
- developing and modifying the general education programmes and curricula in accordance with Islamic Sharia and the changing needs of society and development requirements;
- providing sufficient educational opportunities for all school-age children;
- evaluating the programmes of curricula of higher education (102).

To sum up then, the Gulf Arab States - Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, share the following identical features in regard to their human resources and manpower conditions:

(1) The growth of their indigenous population, as a result of the improvement in their economy and social welfare services after 1930s, does not mean that they are self-sufficient in terms of their manpower requirements. On the contrary, the rapid changes in their infra-structure and their commitment to a diversified economic policy adopted in 1970s, has resulted in a dependency on foreign labour at all levels of occupations. These

states' dependence on immigrant labour is also attributed to the low level of educational attainment and training of the indigenous population despite the government's efforts to develop education at all levels.

(2) Before 1970, national development plans were primarily centred on investment, production and modernisation of these states' administrative systems and hardly paid attention to linking education with the labour market requirements. After 1970, their development policies have taken a different dimension. They agree on a general aim which emphasises their intention to develop their national manpower in order to take over jobs held by non-nationals.

(3) It has therefore become necessary, due to the large scale changes in their economic sectors, to offer more diversified education. And the reorganisation of the general secondary school is envisaged by the policy-makers in these states as a means to meet the diversified demands of the labour market.

4.5 Social Structure and Social Institutions

As the three Arab Gulf States, Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, have adopted some characteristics of the liberal democratic society, especially in terms of its mode of production, infrastructure and modernisation, they have also experienced the emergence of new social groups in addition to some traditional ones who have been able to maintain their power and position in the post-oil era.

So it seems necessary to identify these various groups - new and old - to gauge their impact on the educational systems and

the plan to introduce comprehensive education in these states.

Holmes emphasises that it is important to investigate the conditions of different social groups in any society because they may affect educational policies and their implementation. He states,

> "in comparative perspective, the relative power of different groups to ensure that their educational aims are adopted varies considerably from country to country, but the range of persons involved is usually considerable.... Norms, values and attitudes held by each group may affect certain adopted educational policies, they may either facilitate policies' implementation or hinder their progress" (103).

On the related matter of social groups and their influence on education, the researcher will attempt in this part, first, to investigate the social structure prior to the 1930s to identify the traditional groups who have been able to retain their power and status in the post-oil era. Secondly, an attempt will be made to investigate the existing social structure to highlight those groups who may have some influence on education due to their economic, political or religious power within each individual state's context. Here focus will be on the analysis of social groups before the discovery of oil.

4.5.1 Social Structure Before the Oil Era

Al-Essa has, at length dealt with the analysis of social groups in Kuwait before the oil era. He identified them according to their economic, power and status. His classification is however, applicable to Bahrain as well as to the Eastern and Western Regions of Saudi Arabia* because their political and economic conditions were somehow identical. His classification excluded the Bedouins because their conditions were different.

*The material life of the Bedouins was adapted to the desert. It comprised two main features: camel raising tribes, as by occupation, or in some tribes as further development, the raising of horses and sheep.

For Al-Essa, before the oil era, the society was divided into different groups which he categorised into the following two classes:

(1) the upper class, consisting of the ruling family and the merchants;

(2) the working class - pearl-divers, carpenters, boat-builders, fishermen and farmers (104).

M.G. Al-Rumaihi explained the nature of the relationship between these two classes within the pearl-industry which was essentially seasonal employment. He elaborated that the distribution of the gains from pearl gathering was calculated on the bases of long-established practice. This practice, in fact, gave the main part of the gains to the merchants who financed the pearling trips and the owners of the ships. Although the divers performed very difficult work and constituted the only element in the process which was actually producing wealth, their share in the product was minimal. He argued that while the Gulf did not experience feudalism in the European sense, the relationship between the divers and the merchants and shipowners was akin to a feudal relationship. The diver was trapped within a system of clearly defined duties and marginal rights, which gave him little opportunity of bettering his position and which effectively transferred the economic surplus into the hands of his master (105).

The British tried to enforce certain rules and regulations to protect divers' rights. However it is difficult to anticipate the outcomes of those reforms because the pearl industry had declined with the discovery of oil.

In the Gulf Arab societies, social structure is not only built on economic factors, but also on tribal lineage and kinship

criteria.

Generally, the tribal culture is endogamous exclusive and non-assimilative. Not only does it repulse the outsider, it also prevents the departure of the insider (106). For example, among the tribally organised groups, marriage within a section of the tribe did not result in integration with the merchants though econimically speaking the latter had had higher status.

The merchants, before the oil era, had gained power in the business and trade sector, but they did not gain high prestige because of their possessions since they originated from different social groups which were ranked in hierarchical order by the people in these states. They also played an important role in the political system because of their economic position. But, recently, their role has declined. This is attributed to the fact that their traditional role as subsidiaries to the ruling class is no longer needed, the oil revenues have made the governments more independent.

The traditional social structure required a restricted type of academic and vocational education. For instance, sons of merchants used to go abroad, mostly to Egypt, Iraq and India for further studies. While the sons of ordinary people used to receive their education either in mosques or religious schools, Madrassah. Their education was mostly based on religious studies and classical Arabic language. Women's education was also limited to the study of religion, Arabic and some domestic skills and was mostly provided at home or within the community. Technical/ vocational education for boys was based on the apprenticeship system run by specialised guilds and classes of craftsmen.

The questions associated with the concept of comprehensive education such as equality, participation, diversification

of educational provisions etc., were not relevant to the traditional structure of society in these states.

4.5.2 Social Structure After the Oil Era

In the post-oil era, the social structures in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia have not been identical. They can be identified according to a variety of criteria such as political power, religious influence, economic position, social status education and performance. These criteria will be utilised in their societies' analysis because they are in transition. Transition means, on the one hand, they still hold some of the characteristics inherited from the fuedal system existing prior to the 1930s. On the other hand, they have adopted some characteristics of the capitalist society, especially in terms of its mode of production, infrastructure and mondernisation.

4.5.2.1 In Bahrain, F. Khuri classified people in terms of religion, tribal origin and race, then he made a comparison between different groups in relation to education, income, occupation and employment of women. He divided Bahrain society into the following seven categories:

- the ruling family,
- Sunnites of tribal origin,
- urban Sunnites,
- urban Shi'ites,
- urban Shi'ites of Persian origin,
- rural Shi'ites and
- rural Shi'ites living in suburban settlements (107).

His classification is based upon social maps and a

comprehensive survey carried out in 1974-75.*

These seven categories are cross-compared in relation to education, income, occupation and education and employment of women.

Khuri's survey of Bahrain's society revealed the following:

- about 70 per cent of the income owners are salaried personnel;
- the social origin of salaried personnel varies in occupation, education and income;
- the Sunnites of tribal origin, including the house of Al-Khalifah, have a complete monopoly on defence and security;
- the urban segment, Shi'ah Arab or Persian are concentrated in civil employment professional careers, secretarial work, or skilled labour, while the Shi'ites who live in villages or in suburban settlements predominate in unskilled salaried jobs;
- achievement of people on the occupational scale corresponds almost exactly with the achievement in formal education;
- all those who had professional training belong to the urban groups, with a higher percentage of the urban Sunni and the Arab Shi'ah and a much lower percentage of Persian Shi'ah (108).

---

* Khuri's survey was meant to measure the socio-economic variations and the discrepancies between social and ethnic groups that resulted from the development of oil. The number of households interviewed according to each locality varied between 49 and 169, the total being 1,249 households.

Concerning education and employment of women, the survey shows that urban Sunnites or Shi'ites hold more liberal views on these aspects than other social categories mentioned earlier. The employed females who earn a steady income belong to these two categories and this group is higher than other female categories before 1970... However, their percentage is going up and this is due to the expansion of education and improvement in transportation and urbanisation. Education and employment of women in Bahrain has specific features; the higher the level of education of women the higher the rate of employment (109).

Khuri's classification of social stratification in Bahrain stresses religious, social, tribal and occupational criteria, but his survey does not analyse the salaried personnel in terms of their educational background. He has also ignored the role of education and how it has contributed to establish a kind of collective tone and enhanced the rise of a middle class which owes its position primarily to its high educational background regardless of its social group origin.

4.5.2.2 In Kuwait, the indigenous population is divided into the following categories:

- the ruling family,
- urban Sunnites of tribal origin,
- urban Sunnites and Shi'ites of Arab and Persian origin,
- Bedouins who have been integrated into Kuwaiti society with the nationalisation policy (adopted in 1966)*(110).

These categories are also classified according to their role in policy-making, economic positions, social status and education and qualification.

Like Bahrain, Kuwait has also witnessed the rise of

the middle class which originates from the above categories (excluding the ruling family). Al-Essa states that the Kuwaiti middle-class is growing in importance due to its high educational background and qualification. In fact, members of this class have acquired their position through education and as a result of climbing the bureaucratic ladder (111). In general, the middle class, in Kuwait as well as in the other two states under study, constitutes the major pressure group though its role in the political policy formulation is just minimal.

A weakness in Al-Essa's analysis is that it deals only with the indigenous middle-class though Kuwait's society includes different alien groups which constitute almost 53 per cent of the total population. So it is worthwhile to refer here to N.H. Aruri's study concerning social structure in Kuwait. In his study, Aruri states that the middle class does exist within the alien group and it was this alien middle class which has accelerated the total development of Kuwait. He explains that the elite resident alien serves as an instrument for mobilising the society for rapid political modernisation. It belonged to the salaried middle class which traditionally spearheaded the movement of modernisation in the Middle East. He regards the alien middle class as a cultural mediator whose role in social change is 'indispensable and inescapable' (112).

The number of merchants, entrepreneurs and big businessmen had increased in Kuwait as well as in Bahrain, as a result of a considerable amount of funds being transferred by the government to the business sector in the form of cash grants, loans, and subscriptions with the objectives of stimulating activities in the business sector (113). This group has gained some of the power in the business and trade sector which they had before the 1930s,

but this has not changed the attitudes of the nationals on the social valuations with regard to their origin. They are still ranked in hierarchical order according to their origin and race rather than to their wealth. There is little evidence available to show that they have some power to influence educational policies.

4.5.2.3 In Saudi Arabia, social stratification has specific characteristics in addition to the ones it shares with the other two states, Bahrain and Kuwait.

The three main pressure groups which have been identified in Saudi Arabia whose influence has always been notices in the Saudi society are: the merchants, the tribal leaders and the 'Ulema. Though they had defined political roles when the society was still based on entirely traditional norms before the 1930s, their rôles have changed as the Kingdom has moved to a centralised system of government and other modern institutions and groups such as the bureaucrats have emerged.

The merchants' political role has changed and this change is attributed to the decline in their economic role as subsidiary to the authority. In addition, members of the royal family have begun to compete with them in commerce and trade (114).

The role of the tribal leadership in the state structure has also changed. Recently the relationship with tribal elements has been partially formalised in the National Guard. The recognition, given by King Abdul-Aziz, to their leadership and administrative authority within their own area is declining as a result of urbanisation and immigration of the younger generation to the main towns and cities to join public sector services and other spheres of the economy (115).

The 'Ulema provided the Kingdom with a state philosophy

based on Wahabism, originating in the Hanbali school of thought, which played a crucial role in the legitimisation of authority. Their philosophy was used by King 'Abdul Aziz to rally political support (116). However, the 'Ulema are still quite influential and play a commanding role in the following fields of Saudi society:

- the judicial system of Saudi Arabia;
- the implementation of the rules of the Islamic Shari'ah;
- are a religious guidance group with affiliated offices all over the Kingdom;
- religious jurisprudence;
- preaching in guidance throughout the nation;
- supervision of girls' education;
- religious supervision of all mosques in the Kingdom;
- preaching for Islam abroad;
- continuous scientific and Islamic resaarch;
- the handling of legal cases in courts (117).

These functions were given them at the time of the agreement in early days between King Abdul-'Aziz and the Wahabbi leadership.

Originally the three groups of merchants, tribal leadership and 'Ulema were at the basis of the Saudi Kingdom. Though the merchants and tribal leaders have recently lost their power in decision-making, the Ulema still maintain their position as can be deducted from the declarations concerning the general ideology of the Kingdom.

However, despite the monolithic impression given of Saudi Wahabism (represented in the Ulema), there are many local differences in religious observance in Saudi Arabia. The Wahabism of Asir would scarcely pass muster in Najjad. There are pockets of schism among, for example, the Bani Yam of the Wadi

Najran. There is a large community of Shi'ites on the Eastern Coast. In the beginning of the establishment of the Kingdom the government dealt with them with a high hand and alienated them from socio-religious spheres of influence, but in recent years, attitudes have changed. More opportunities have been given to the Shi'ites in industrial projects and more opportunities for their promotion progress have been created now compared to the period before 1970 when they were excluded from recruitment in the civil service (118). However, their presence in the armed forces is negligable.

In addition to the three foregoing social groups, new diversified groups can be identified. These groups can be classified into three categories:

(a) the first category includes all sectors which participate in productive and services sectors of the economy. These include Saudi workers in the oil industry, farmers, fishermen, herdsmen, and also foreign workers who work on construction projects, roads and buildings;

(b) the second category includes: feudalists who are originally tribal sheikhs and property owners who have begun to emerge primarily from the ruling family and local merchants. They control rents and coordinate their interests with those of the government;

(c) the third category includes the professional elites who have gained their status according to their educational qualifications (119).

The Saudi elites may be considered as middle class which is similar to the Kuwaiti and Bahraini elites, in terms of their performance and the way they have climbed up in society. However, Saudi elites have specific characteristics within the context of

Saudi society. W. Rugh states that they are comprised of two groups in terms of their education - secular and non-secular. He thinks that they place higher value on the prestige of the job than on its monetary reward.

The Saudi middle class, he explains, is also internally differentiated into:

- the upper stratum, which includes better educated Saudis such as professors, doctors, engineers, some businessmen and the equivalent of "politicians";
- the lower stratum includes government clerical personnel, grade school teachers, skilled industrial wage earners, of whom have not had exposure to a modern environment that foreign educated Saudis enjoyed (120).

The social role amongst the two strata has not changed. Traditional features such as kinship and religion are still very important. Rugh thinks that the impact of the new middle class on Saudi life is not precisely measurable, partly because some of the changes in the direction of modernisation that are associated with such a class might have been made for many reasons - including the regime's interest in improving its image abroad as well as the regime's initiative for modernisation (121). However, this class is playing an important role as a disguised pressure group who demand changes at all levels including education.

To summarise what has been mentioned so far, Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia share some common identical characteristics in relation to their existing social stratification.

For instance, in the context of the larger Arab tribal division, each of these states constitutes the domain of a single major tribe or segment of a tribe. The Al-Khalifah controls

Bahrain, Al-Sabah, Kuwait and Al-S'aud, Saudi Arabia. They share the same geneological origin, i.e. Al-Khalifah and Al-Sabah are Utub of Anaizah tribe origin which has some relation with Al-S'aud (122).

There is a tangible barrier between the ruling families and the mercantile community, arising from social conventions. According to the tribal norms, status alone does not create the legitimacy which comes with tribal lineage.

The changes introduced into the economic structure have not stabilised and developed a working class as it is conceived in the West. The oil economy has, in fact, been an external imposition, employing only a small proportion of the indigenous population and thus leaving little direct effect on relationships and attitudes. The native working class in these states is also declining due to the government's policies of importing manpower to achieve their economic plans.

One of the most important characteristics shared by these states in terms of social structure is the emergence of indigenous elitist groups with their educational and social background. Members of these indigenous groups descend from different religious sects, i.e. the Shi'ites and the Sunnites, different tribes, well-known merchants, divers, fishermen, shopkeepers and farmers. However, these groups are contributing a lot to the modernisation process especially those who are exposed to secular education.

The religious groups especially the 'Ulema of Saudi Arabia who are committed to the Islamic ideology oppose modernisation on the bases of Western models. But the governments in these states manage to enforce their policy of modernisation in spite of opposition from the religious groups. For example, there was

a much quoted incident in Saudi Arabia when the late King Faisal called in troops to ensure the opening of a girls' school in Buraida in 1960 when the 'Ulema were against its opening (123).

Despite differences existing among the various social groups, all agree on the principles of education as a basic human right as well as on education for work and societal prosperity. These principles are rooted and reinforced by their Islamic beliefs and ideals. Therefore, all usually support the various changes in educational content. These changes, they believe, are necessary and do not go against their religious and traditional norms. They agree on the principle of equality of educational opportunities though they may not agree on co-education.

Although these diversified social groups have accepted these universal principles of education, they value academic more than vocational/technical education. Parents from royal families, merchants, elite groups, still prefer academic education for their children on the conviction that it prepares them for certain prestigous occupations available in their societies. They might accept the introduction of comprehensive secondary schools providing that their children benefit from the academic specialisations. The other groups, though they do not have the power to express their opinion concerning comprehensive education, want their children to have academic education. The expression of all these groups prevails in the general (academic) secondary school where the majority of the students are enrolled regardless of their social group origin. In contrast the technical/vocational schools only attract a minority.

4.5.3 Social Institutions

Out of the network of socio-cultural institutions of

Arab society in general, two types of institutions have particular relevance to the educational provisions in the Gulf Arab States, especially the issues in the comprehensive system of education, viz., the family and the social and cultural organisations.

4.5.3.1 The Family Institutions

Considerable changes have gradually emerged in the family structure in these societies as a result of the introduction of modernisation.

For the sake of clarification and highlighting these changes, a comparison between the modern family pattern evolved in the West and the traditional family structure in the Gulf Arab States will be examined.

The modern family in the West, G.N. Saqeb explains, tends to be a nuclear, conjugal unit stressing freedom in the choice of partner. He adds that there is reluctance to accept parental control in all affairs; a separate household is created upon marriage, independently of, and away from the family; there is economic independence of the family, and consequently, an earlier separation of the young from the parents (124).

While, in the Gulf Arab States, the family system structure is based on the extended family system prevailing in all tribal, urban and rural communities. Each family is characterised by two traits:

- it is patrilinear, in that each individual belongs to his father's rather than his mother's line;
- it is patrilocality, in that young couples generally live in the husband's home and belong to his extended family rather than in the home of his wife's family (125).

The endogamic trends in marriage are generally manifest in families of the Beduin, in both urban and rural populations. Among the major considerations of marriage within the father's family, and particularly between cousins, are included:

(a) strengthening social background and lineage;

(b) avoiding the split of inheritance and keeping it within the larger family;

(c) securing loyalty to the extended family.

The patriarchal rule is particularly strong in villages and towns, but it is under stress in cities where the institutions of the extended family is undergoing modernisation. The changing economic systems and new income prospects have contributed to a change in attitudes of the present generation towards the extended family. Growing expansion of education among both sexes has begun to create new aspirations in life and an urge for independence (126).

However, regardless of these minor changes, the family system in these states still remains intact. R.H. Magnus observes that the family law has been the least modified of all legal codes by modern legislation - in the Middle East in general and in the Gulf region in particular. He claims that this isolation of the family from political interference and control is probably the most important characteristic of the Middle East family and has given it immense strength and persistence from generation to generation (127). As far as the position of women is concerned, the impact of religious orthodoxy on the law, in particular on the Family Laws and Laws of personal status, is a factor of the utmost significance, and here too, state policies in these states are extremely diverse especially in Bahrain and Kuwait. These two states have secularised that part of their legal system pertaining to commerce, finance, criminal and penal law, they have

left the Family Law and the code on personal status relatively untouched.

In general, within the context of the Gulf States, a great debate is going on between the Liberals and Conservatives, especially in Saudi Arabia, about the position of females. Both are searching for a balanced position for women in society. In fact, women seem to be increasingly concerned about matters related to their rights, in order to participate in their states' development and to improve their situation as a result of education. This may raise the vital question as to whether women, as an important social and economic force, may ever achieve equal rights when the traditional establishment is still strong. Tradition still has the means and power to keep women within the limits it sees as suitable for them (128).

However, the economic changes will accelerate the changes within the family institution especially since women's participation in the labour market is gaining support by many groups. The states' policies concerning involvement of the indigenous - male/female, population in their societies' development will not be achieved unless equal opportunities in education are offered for both. This can be fulfilled by introducing an identical curriculum for both sexes in the comprehensive secondary schools.

4.5.3.2 Cultural and Social Organisations

In the absence of political parties, certain social and cultural organisations are performing the essential functions of cultural, social and even political awareness. For instance, the cultural/social clubs and women's associations, have played an important role in eliminating illiteracy, campaigning for modern

education, carrying out different cultural and social activities whether for their members or their communities.

The phenomena of the cultural and social clubs E.A. Nakhleh states, is not unique to Bahrain, it is in fact common to the whole Gulf Arab States' modernising tribal system. He asserts that although they are not organised political formulations of any type, they do perform a political function and hence they are directly related to political socialisation (129). For example, in Bahrain, clubs have played an essential and sometimes crucial role in establishing the Arab nature of Bahrain and inculcated certain political ideologies among their members especially after World War II. C. Belgrave wrote that the increase in the number of clubs and the intensification of their political role were directly related to the emerging political consciousness since the 1940s. He asserted that as they were the places where the educated met, the clubs, though strictly non-political became in reality centres for things political (130).

Khuri's general observations about Bahraini clubs which are also applicable to Kuwaiti's and Saudi's are:

(a) they are non-tribal phenomena spread among two sections who live in villages and towns;

(b) the ideological commitment of the clubs remains essentially 'modernistic';

(c) the modernistic reformative tendencies of clubs and their political orientations have brought them into conflict with loci of power, the religionists and government;

(d) the membership of many of these clubs is constituted by educated people who have acquired knowledge and experience and have been in contact with different

ideologies and movements abroad and aspired to introduce changes into their own society (131).

However, these clubs' activities are under surveillance and inspections in these three states. Some attempts are being made to divert their activities and more money has been poured into them by the governments for athletic activities rather than for social, cultural and educational activities. But this policy has not succeeded and these clubs still maintain their role.

The women's associations in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia have played a different role from that of the men's clubs. Some information concerning these associations is included in the references (132). The general observation concerning these associations is about their high degree of commitment to education for women and their efforts to fight illiteracy among women in rural and urban areas. The first objective declared by all such associations is to seek the right of education for women and that has been achieved with great success and their efforts to open up and expand educational opportunities for women merit credit. In the case of Saudi Arabia, the women's associations (al-Nahdah Philanthropic Society for Women) were among the first to introduce modern education for girls, before the Saudi Goverment assumed responsibility for introducing a system of public schools for girls throughout the Kingdom in the 1960s.

At present, the women's associations throughout these three states, cooperate with the ministries concerned with education, health and social services in carrying out additional adult education programmes in nutrition, family planning, English, typing and various crafts. They run nurseries and kindergartens for 2-5 year olds.

Since 1970, women's associations, especially in Bahrain and Kuwait, have directed their efforts towards family law codification to give greater security to women and stability to the family. They are campaigning for labour laws which regulate women's employment in different economic establishments. It is the educated members within these associations who are most vocal in the campaign for equality in family laws and employment regulations. This is attributed to their exposure to new ideas concerning women's emancipation and understanding of the women's role and their status in socio-economic progress.

The franchise movement for women has emerged in Bahrain and Kuwait and has been adopted by women's associations. For example, in Kuwait, the Chairman of the Social and Cultural Women's Society, Nuriyah Al-Saddānī's campaign in 1974, led to the first debate in The Kuwait National Assembly between two M.P.s on the franchise issue (133). However, Kuwaiti women have still not got the right to vote but the issue is always raised whenever there is a public election in Kuwait.

To sum up, despite the governmental pressure put on cultural and women's associations in these states, they are considered by people as well as by the authorities as centres where educated and more liberal groups male and/or female act in a collective way and express their opinion concerning the states' announced policies. Commenting on women's associations' role in Saudi Arabia, C. Parssinen points out that they represent a departure from the exclusive family-centre orientation of women's relationships. She forecasts that through participation in groups of this kind the self-image of women undergoes a certain transformation. Believing in collective effort will help a lot to strengthen women's power and open the way for them to fight for their rights (134).

Though clubs and women's associations do not have any role in policy formulation, they can enhance and contribute a lot in certain policy implementations. For instance, and as indicated earlier, the policy of fighting illiteracy is being achieved to some extent, through the coordinated efforts of cultural clubs and women's organisations and Ministries of Education in the states under study. So the principles and policies of comprehensive education will not be rejected by them as they usually campaign for education for both sexes and aspire to modernise their societies as a whole.

4.6 Conclusion

The analysis of the societal conditions in the Gulf Arab States, has pinpointed that they share some common features that might facilitate the progress of the comprehensive secondary school and might contribute to its acceptance. These features can be summarised as follows:

(1) It appears that though there is no conflict on ideological grounds between secular and Islamic aims of education over most of the principles of comprehensive education, disagreement on equality between genders, co-education and equal curricula for all still exist. Thus, the questions of equalisation of educational opportunities for men and women and the type and nature of curricula for both sexes are a matter of serious debate among muslim scholars and educationists throughout the muslim World and the Gulf Arab States are no exception. To solve these controversial issues of co-education, and equal educational opportunities for both genders, the acceptable solution would be the

provision of equal but separate education for women. Single sex comprehensive schools could satisfy the conditions of these states and co-education will not be considered a cornerstone of comprehensivisation in these states particularly in Saudi Arabia.

(2) The Islamic political ideology which the Gulf Arab States profess to have accepted, in theory, does not in fact conform strictly to the ideals of the Islamic state. Nor are the actual practices in politics and government strictly in accordance with Islamic ideals. Traditionalism still reigns in most aspects of the Gulf Arab societies. In addition, they have covertly accepted many features of secular western ideology to modernise their political system and its institutions, e.g. secular constitutions, semi-elected assemblies and Council of Ministers. However, these changes are tailored to suit the convenience of the ruling families and ensure their traditional authority. These states have also experienced a considerable long period of political stability since their authority. Even under the British colonisation in the case of Bahrain and Kuwait, the ruling families had always controlled the internal affairs of their states under supervision of the British agents, and their external affairs were handled by the former. Though these ruling families are not socialist minded, there is no reason to suppose, in terms of their ideology, that they will be unwilling to support the introduction of some if not all aspects of ideal-typical models of comprehensive school identified in Chapters Two and Three.

(3) These states have been able to spend huge amounts of money that they have obtained from oil revenues by enormously increasing welfare provisions for their population. They have introduced free education, free health services and an enormous infrastructure improvement. So, in terms of their economic conditions in respect of material prosperity, there is no reason to suppose that they will not spend extra money to set up comprehensive schools.

Under the conditions of their economic diversification to stabilise their economic welfare and faced with the possible problem of decreases in oil revenues, they would accept the diversification of the general secondary school curriculum to satisfy the needs of economic diversification.

(4) Though they possess a common cultural heritage with regard to their social origin, religious affiliation and social configurations, the conditions of their population are often very dissimilar. They all have small indigenous populations with correspondingly large non-indigenous immigrant workers who form a majority in the case of Kuwait.

In terms of demographic features and distribution of their indigenous population, they share a unique feature with regard to population age range. Their youthful population constitutes almost half of the total. This growth in their youthful populations has led to the growth of enrolment at all levels of education.

These states have also experienced a growing and rather more planned pace of urbanisation with a corresponding increase

in transportation facilities. In these states, new towns were set up to improve the housing conditions of their indigenous population. Many Beduins have been encouraged to settle either in the newly built towns or the nearby suburban areas. The oil companies, especially in the case of Bahrain and Kuwait have set up their own towns within their industrial areas. In addition, the oil revenues have made it possible for the governments to build modern roads and motorways.

So under these conditions, the establishment of comprehensive schools would be possible especially in Bahrain and Kuwait where the total area is limited and most people are concentrated in the main towns and travelling is easy due to the avilability of modern transportation facilities.

In Saudi Arabia, in the main towns where the density of population is high, it is easier to establish neighbourhood comprehensive schools, but in areas where the density is low, the establishment of large comprehensive schools is possible which would serve nearby areas because public and private transportation is available.

Although there are some positive conditions that may make possible the success of comprehensive school policies in the Gulf Arab States, certain conditions may hinder their progress. These constraints can be summarised as follows:

(a) Certain social groups, i.e. the ruling families, merchants and elites, may accept the introduction of comprehensive schools and may agree to send their children to these schools, but they may not appreciate technical/vocational education and they may prefer academic education for their children. Hence, as far as their parents are concerned, changing the curricula

towards integration between academic and vocational studies for all students may be difficult and hinder the acceptance of the notion of comprehensive education;

(b) The rest of the social groups, mentioned previously, though they do not have political power or have the means to express overtly their views concerning educational policies, do also prefer academic education for their children because they believe that this kind of education will make it possible for their children to pursue university education which leads to better economic and professional rewards;

(c) The general apathy towards technical and manual work among most social groups has been inherited from the traditional societal attitudes which classify people dealing with labour work at the lower stratum of the society. However, these norms contradict the Islamic ideals which extol work and knowledge at the same level. The traditional attitudes have further been consolidated by the introduction of secular education since the latter also rates academic proficiency as intellectual training of higher value in the achievement of administrative and managerial positions.

(d) Though it may be easier to build large separate comprehensive schools for both sexes in these states, large girls' comprehensive schools which serve more than one locality or area especially in the case of Saudi Arabia will not be acceptable because parents will not favour a system which makes their daughters travel long distances every day.

The foregoing analysis has dealt with the ideological, political, economic and social specific initial conditions in the Gulf Arab States. Closely linked to these S.I.C. is the education system and its institutions which constitute one of the most important conditions to be borne in mind when predictions of the success of comprehensive secondary schools are made. Therefore, it will be necessary to study some features of the prevailing educational systems and the traditional beliefs of teachers. This will be the main concern of the next chapter.

Chapter Four

References and Notes

(1) Holmes, B., "Paradigm Shifts in Comparative Education" in Comparative Education Review, Vol.28, No. 3, August, 1984, p. 604.

(2) Shariati, Ali, Islamic View of Man (translated by A.A. Rasti), Free Islamic Literature, Houston, U.S.A., 1980, p.4.

(3) Ibid., pp. 5-6.

(4) Ali, A.Y., The Holy Quran - Translation and Commentary, 2nd ed. The Muslim Students Association of the United States and Canada, U.S.A., 1977, p. 1403.

(5) Husain, S.S. and Ashraf, S.A., Crisis in Muslim Education, Hodder and Stoughton for King Abdul Aziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, 1979, p. 36.

(6) Ali,A.Y., The Holy Quran - Translation and Commentary, op.cit., p. 24.

(7) Shariati, A., Islamic View of Man, op.cit., pp. 6-7.

(8) Shariati, A., On The Society of Islam,(Translated from Persian by Hamid Algar),Mizan Press, Berkely, U.S.A., 1979, p. 80.

(9) Gibb, H.A.R., "Constitutional Organisation" in Khadduri, M.M. and Liebesny, H.J., Origin and Development of Islamic Law, Vol.I, Middle East Institute, Washington, D.C., 1955, p.3.

(10) Hussain, S.S., and Ashraf, S.A., op.cit., pp. 82-83.

(11) Ali, A.Y., Ibid., p. 164.

(12) Ibid., p. 1316.

(13) Briabanti, R. "Saudi Arabia in the Context of Political Development Theory" in Beling, W.A., (ed.), King Faisal and the Modernisation of Saudi Arabia, Croom Helm Ltd., London, U.K., 1980, p. 39.

(14) R. Levy quoted this paragraph from Ibn Qutayba 'Aun al-Akhbar, ed. Brockelmann (Berlin and Strasbourg, 1900-1908) p. 28.
Levy, R. The Social Structure of Islam - Being The Second Edition of the Sociology of Islam, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1979, p. 276.

(15) Aroian, L.A. and Mitchell, R.P., The Modern Middle East and North Africa, Macmillan Publishing Company, New York, U.S.A., 1984, p. 32.

(16) Enayat, Hamid, Modern Islamic Political Thought, The Macmillan Press Ltd., London, 1982, p. 127.

(17) Ali, A.Y., op.cit., p. 90.

(18) Ibid., pp. 174-175.

(19) Surah IV, Verses 9-2 Says "For the male the like of the portion of two females".

(20) Mernissi, F., Beyond the Veil. Male Female Dynamics in a Modern Muslim Society, Schenkman Publishing Company, Massachusetts, Cambridge, 1975, p. 16.

(21) Shariati, A., Islamic View of Man, op.cit., pp. 6-7

(22) Husain, S.S. and Ashraf, S.A., Crisis in Muslim Education, op.cit., p. 74.

(23) Saqeb, G.N., op.cit., p. 116.

(24) Ali, A.Y., op.cit., p. 1004.

(25) Saqeb, G.N., Modernisation of Muslim Education, Reach Press, London, 1977, p. 44.

(26) Husain, S.S. and Ashraf, S.A. op.cit., p. 74.

(27) Nasr, S.H. (ed.), Philosophy, Literature and Fine Arts, Hodder and Stoughton, for King Abdul Aziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, 1982, pp. 125-127.

(28) Mawlana Muhammad, A., A Manual of Hadith, 9th ed. Curzon Press Limited, London, 1983, p. 39.

(29) Ali, A.Y., op.cit., p. 1239.

(30) Ibid., p. 1515.

(31) Al-Obaid, A.S., Human Resources Development in Saudi Arabia: Case of Technical Manpower Programmes and Needs, Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Oklahoma State University, U.S.A., 1979, p. 82.

(32) Ali. A.Y., op.cit., pp. 1761-1762.

(33) Husain, S.S., Ashraf, S.A., op.cit., p. 92.

(34) Husain, S.S. and Ashraf, S.A., op.cit., p. 44.

(35) Ibid., p. 38.

(36) The three categories of knowledge which should find their way into the content of the curriculum are seen as:

1. Subjects which are connected with the study of the Quran and Hadith as well as the Arabic Language;

1.1 The Holy Quran: its recitation and interpretation (Tafsir and ta'wīl);

1.2 The Sunnah: the Life of the Prophet, the history and message of the Prophets before him, the Hadith and its authoritative Transmission;

1.3 The Shari'ah: jurisprudence and law; the principles and practice of Islam (A'slam, a'iman, a'hsan);

1.4 Theology - God, His Essence, Attributes and Names and Acts (al-tawhid);

1.5 Islamic metaphysics (al-tasawif) psychology, cosmology, and antology: legitimate elements of Islamic philosophy, including valid cosmological doctrines pertaining to the hierarchy of being;

1.6 Linguistic sciences: Arabic, its grammar, lexicography and literature.

2. Subjects which include the study of man as an individual or as a member of his society: sociology, history and psychology in general.

3. Subjects which are concerned with the study of nature - (al 'alum al-Kawinyah) natural sciences, applied sciences and technological sciences.

Abdullah, Abdul-Rahman Salih, Educational Theory - A Quranic Outlook, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah Al-Makkamah, Saudi Arabia, 1982, pp. 61-62.

(37) Husain, S.S. and Ashraf, S.A., op.cit., p. 23.

(38) Holmes, B. "Paradigm Shifts in Comparative Education", op.cit., p. 589.

(39) loc.cit.

(40) Bahrain, Constitution of State of Bahrain (translation) Gulf Public Relations, Bahrain, 1973, pp. 15-16.

(41) Kuwait Al-Majlis Al Tasisi, Distur Dawlat al-Kuwaiyat wa qanun al A'ntikhab,
Being:
Kuwait Constitution and Election Legislations, Kuwait Government Press, Kuwait, 1962, p. 20.

(42) Ali, A.Y., op.cit., p. 196.

(43) Ibn Taymiyyah's view is traced back to the early era of Islam. The practice of the Khalafā' al-Rāshidūn (PiousCaliphs) seems to have been that on all questions of major importance, they used to consult the effective leaders of Muslim opinion who were endowed with practical wisdom. This was the form Shūrā took and usually this was enforced. Sometimes when, e.g. the Caliph Abu Bakr Al-Sedīq (632-634 A.D.) or Umar Ibn Al-Khatāb (634-644 A.D.) felt strongly that the opinion tendered by the

majority of Shūra would result in a capital mistake of policy, they enforced their own opinion supported even by a small minority. But they always went on trying to convince the majority of the soundness of their stand. They also introduced the method of appointing the Caliph. Abu Bakr initiated the appointment of Umar to be the Caliph after him. And Umar,himself, appointed a conclave to elect his successor. But both emphasised the concept of general consensus, Ijm'aā in choosing the Caliph.

Levey, R., The Social Structure of Islam, op.cit., pp. 288-289.

(44) Engineer, A.A., The Islamic State, Vikas Publishing House, PVI Ltd., Delhi, 1980, p. 78.

(45) Hussain, Freda (ed.) Muslim Women, Croom Helm Ltd., 1984, p. 90.

(46) Ibid., p. 87.

(47) El-Saadāwi, N. "Women and Islam" in Spare Rib, A Women's Liberation Magazine, January 1980, Issue 90, Comag Distribution, London, 1980, p. 5.

(48) AL-Farsy F. "King Faisal and the First Five Year Development Plan" in Beling, W.A., (ed.) op.cit. p. 77.

(49) Khuri, F.I. Tribe and State in Bahrain - Transformation of Social and Political Authority in an Arab State, Publication of the Centre for Middle Eastern Studies, No. 14, The University of Chicago Press, U.S.A., 1980, p. 110.

(50) Broady, G.M., "The Practice of Law in Saudi Arabia" in Beling, W.A. (ed.) op.cit., p. 114.

(51) Ibid., p. 115.

(52) The Second Election of the National Assembly was in 1967. The National Assembly was dissolved in August 1976. The fifth election was in February 1981. The latest was in February 1985.
"Khamsah Mars". Fifth of March - Monthly Journal, P.F.B. Publication, 1985, pp. 35-37.

(53) Aruri, N.H. "Politics in Kuwait" in Landau, J.M. (ed.) Man, State and Society in the Contemporary Middle East, Pall Mall Press, London, U.K., 1972, p. 78.

(54) Al-Ramaihi, M.G., "Al-Tajrabah al-Siyāsiyah fi al-Kuwaiyt: 1962-1981", being: "The Political Participation Experiment in Kuwait, 1962-1981" Al Mustaqbal Al-Arabi - No. 64, June, 1984, Centre for Arab Unity Studies, Beirut, 1984, pp. 103-104.

(55) Ibid., p. 106.

(56) Mossa, H. Masīrat al-Qam'a fi al-Bahrayin, being: Oppression and its Development in Bahrain, 1984, p. 32.

(57) In the 1970s, most of the organised parties have links with political bodies outside the country, including communists, socialists, Arab Nationalists, recruited in several pan-Arab movements, particularly the United Front for the Liberation of the Gulf and Oman.

(58) Kuri, F.I., op.cit., p. 219.

(59) Ibid., p. 243.

(60) Ibid., p. 244.

(61) Lacey, R., The Kingdom, Hutchinson and Co., Publishers, Ltd., London, 1981, p. 490.

(62) Ibid., p. 491.

(63) Milligan, S. "King Fahd Promises Votes for Saudis" The Sunday Times, 2 December 1984, No. 8365, U.K. pp.1-2.

(64) Beling, W.A., Middle East Affair, Journal 89, 1956, Middle East Institute Publication, New York, pp. 161-163.

(65) Halliday, F. "Economic Decline in Oman - PFL's New Political Strategy", Middle East Research and Information Project No. 67, May, 1978, London, p. 19.

(66) Peters, C. and Tuson, P., Studies in Development - The Middle East, Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd., U.K. 1982. p.7.

(67) Khuri, F.I. op.cit. p. 10.

(68) The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, The Economic Development of Kuwait, John Hopkins Press, Baltimore, U.S.A., 1965, p. 61.

(69) El-Mall'akh, R., Saudi Arabia - Rush to Development Profile of an Energy Economy and Investment, Croom Helm Limited, London, U.K. 1982, p. 36.

(70) Peters, C. and Tuson, P. op.cit., p. 10.

(71) El-Mallakh, R. op.cit., p. 19.

(72) Al-Sabah, S.M., Kuwait: Anatomy of a Crisis Economy, Eastlords Publishing Ltd., London, 1984, p. 6.

(73) The Ministry of Information in cooperation with Pontico International, London, Bahrain, The Government Press, Bahrain, (n.d.) p. 7.

(74) Al-Sabah, S.M., Kuwait: Anatomy of Crisis Economy, op.cit., pp. 3-4.

(75) Sinclair, C.A. and Binks, J.S. "Manpower in Saudi Arabia 1980-1985" in El-Mallakh, R. and El-Mallakh D.H., Saudi Arabia - Energy Developmental Planning and Industrialisation, Lexington Books D.C., Heath and Company, Massachusetts, U.S.A., 1982, p. 97.

(76) El-Mallakh, R., Saudi Arabia - Rush to Development - Profile of an Energy Economy and Investment, op.cit., p. 120.

(77) Tazi, A.H., Education in the Arab States in the Light of the Abu Dhabi Conference, 1977, The Workshop of Unesco, Paris, 1980, p. 12.

(78) Unesco, Regional Office for Education in the Arab World - Population Education Development in the Arab Countries, Impremire Catholique Publication for Unesco, Beirut, 1977, p. 63.

(79) State of Bahrain, Bahrain Census of Population and Housing 1981, Arabian Printing and Publishing House, Bahrain, 1982, p. 1.

(80) Al-Essa, S.Y. op.cit., p. 10.

(81) El-Mallakh, R., Saudi Arabia - Rush to Development - Profile of an Energy Economy and Investment, op.cit.,p.20.

(82) Ministry of Health, Annual Report for the Year 1980 - On The State of Public Health, Bahrain, 1981, p. 20.

(83) United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), The State of the World's Children, 1985 - Oxford University Press, for Unicef, U.K. 1985, pp. 120-121.

(84A) A. Mana, A. Economic Development and its Impact on the Status of Women in Saudi Arabia, (unpublished Ph.D. thesis) University of Colorado, U.S.A., 1981, p. 103.

(84B)

(84B) Socknat, J., Projections of Manpower Demand and Supply, 1977 - 1980, A Policy and Programme Suggestion for Bahrain, Bahrain, (n.d.) pp. 64-65.

(85) Ibid., p. 50.

(86) Ibid., p. 2.

(87) Ibid., p. 53.

(88) State of Bahrain, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Directorate of Statistics on Employment in the Public Sector, Manpower Survey, Bahrain, Nov. 1979, pp. 1-2.

(89) Ibid., pp. 6-7.

(90) State of Bahrain, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, A Paper on Manpower Planning for Bahrain, (n.d.) p. 6.

(91) State of Bahrain, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Memorandum to the Cabinet from the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs Concerning Manpower Planning and Development Policy, Bahrain, 1979, pp. 5-6.

(92) Al-Essa, S.Y. The Manpower Problem in Kuwait, Kegan Paul International, London, 1981, pp. 20-24.

(93) Ibid., p. 24.

(94) Meleis, A.I., El-Sanabary, N. and Beeson, D., "Women: Modernisation and Education in Kuwait", in Comparative Education Review, Vol.23, No.1, February 1979, The Comparative and International Education Society, U.S.A., 1979, pp. 120-122.

(95) Al-Essa, S.Y., op.cit., p. 24.

(96) Kalander, F., "The Impact of Science and Technology on the Socio-economic and Human Resources Development" in Behbehani, K., Girgis, M. and Marzouk, S.M. (eds.), Proceedings of the Symposium on Science and Technology for Development in Kuwait, Longman Publication for Kuwait Institute for Scientific Research, London, 1981, p. 25.

(97) Shukri, A.I., Education - Manpower Needs and Socio-Economic Development in Saudi Arabia, (Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis), The University of London Institute of Education, U.K., 1973, p. 210.

(98) Braibanti, R., Al-Farsy, F. "Saudi Arabia: A Development Perspective", Journal of South Asian and Middle Eastern Studies, Vol.1, No.1, Fall, 1977, p. 15.

(99) Serageldin, I., Socknat, A.J., Birks, S., Sinclair, C.A., Manpower and International Labour Migration in the Middle East and North Africa, World Bank Publication, Oxford University Press, U.K., 1983, p. 210.

(100) Cole, D.P., "Pastoral Nomads in a Rapidly Changing Economy - The Case of Saudi Arabia" in T. Niblock, op.cit. p. 107.

(101) Mohammed, H., The Path to Progress, Saudi Arabia, p. 11.

(102) Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Planning, The Third Development Plan 1980-1985, Saudi Arabia, pp.287-288.

(103) Holmes, B., "Paradigm Shifts in Comparative Education" in Comparative Education Review, Vol.28, No.5, August, 1984, Comparative and International Education Society, U.S.A., p. 595.

(104) Al-Essa, S.Y., op.cit., p. 50.

(105) Al-Rumaihi, M.G., "The Mode of Production in the Arab Gulf before the Discovery of Oil", in T. Niblock, (ed,) op.cit., pp. 53-54.

(106) Khuri, F.I., op.cit., p. 147.

(107) Ibid., p. 141.

(108) Ibid., pp. 142-146.

(109) Ibid., p. 180.

(110) *Naturalization Policy - Article 5 of the National Law of 1966 gives the government the power to grant Kuwaiti nationality to everyone who has served the country and "deserves nationality". The Kuwait Government has used and continues to use this clause in the law to grant nationality to thousands of Bedouin Arabs who have come to Kuwait from Saudi Arabia and other parts of the Arabian Peninsula. However, there is no analysis concerning this group and how they ought to fit within the classification used by Al-Essa, The non-Kuwaiti workers are categories according to country of origin rather than according to classification applied to the indigenous groups.

Al-Essa, S.Y., op.cit., p. 53.

(111) Aruri, N.H., op.cit., p. 75.

(112) Al-Sabah, S.M., Development Planning in an Oil Economy - The Role of the Women: The Case of Kuwait, Eastlords Publishing Limited, London, 1983, p. 83.

(113) Al-Farsy, F., Saudi Arabia: A Case Study in Development, op.cit., p. 76.

(114) Buchan, J., "Secular and Religious Opposition in Saudi Arabia", in T. Niblock (ed.), op.cit., p. 102.

(115) Ibid., p. 110.

(116) Al-Farsy, F., Saudi Arabia: A Case Study in Development, op.cit., p. 69.

(117) Ibid., p. 67.

(118) Buchan, J., op.cit., pp. 117-118.

(119) The Gulf Committee, Oman: A Class Analysis (trans.) Original 9 June Studies, Russell Press, London, 1974, p. 17.

(120) Rugh, W., "Emergence of a New Middle Class in Saudi Arabia", The Middle East Journal, Vol.27, No.1, Winter, 1973, The Middle East Institute Publication, Washington, D.C., U.S.A., 1973, p. 17.

(121) Ibid., p. 20.

(122) All tribes in the Arabian Peninsula are descended from one of two ancestors: Qahtan or A'dnān who respectively represented divisions between southern and northern Arabs of the Peninsula.

(123) Kay, S. "Social Change in Modern Saudi Arabia" in T. Niblock, op.cit., p. 177.

(124) Saqeb, G. op.cit., p. 33.

(125) Bear, G. and Szoke, H., Population and Society in the Arab East, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, U.K., 1964, pp. 63-64.

(126) Ibid., p. 47.

(127) Cottrell, A. (general ed.), Bosworth, C.E., Burrel, R.M., Mclachlan, K. and Savory, R.M. (eds.), The Persian Gulf States - A General Survey, The John Hopkins University Press, Baltimore and London, 1980, p. 373.

(128) Bahry, L. "The New Saudi Woman: Modernising in an Islamic Framework", The Middle East Journal, Vol.36, No.4, Autumn, 1982, The Middle East Institute Publication, Washington D.C. U.S.A., 1982, p. 515.

(129) Nakleh, E.A., Bahrain: Political Development in a Modernising Society, D.C. Heath Lexington, Mass., U.S.A., 1976, pp. 41-42.

(130) Belgrave, C. Personal Column, 2nd ed., Librarie du Liban, Beirut, 1972, p. 144.

(131) Khuri, F. op.cit., pp. 189-192.

(132) (a) In Bahrain, the main women's associations are:

(1) Jam'ayat Nahdat Fatat al Bahrain, (1955), The Bahrain Young Ladies Society;

(2) Jam'ayat Ri'aayat al-Tifullah wa-al 'Umūmah, Children and Mothers' Welfare Society (1960);

(3) Jam'ayat Awal al Nisaa'iyah-Awal, Women's Society (1969);

(4) Jam'ayat Al-Rifa'a Al-Khaiyriyah al-Thaqafiyah Rifa'a, Charitable and Cultural Society (1971);

(5) Jam'ayat Fatat al-Reef, Young Rural Ladies Society (1974).

The last has not received official approval of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs though it is carrying out many social and educational activities in villages and rural areas.

(b) In Kuwait, the main women's societies are:

(1) Social and Cultural Women's Society (1963);

(2) Association of Arab Women's Renaissance (1963).

(c) In Saudi Arabia, the main women's societies are:

(1) Al-Nahda Philanthropic Society for Women (1962);

(2) Al-Jam'aiyah al-Nisā'aiyah al-Khayriah (1963);

(3) The Gulf Women's Association in Al-Khobar (1970-1971).

(133) Women's Report, Vol.2, Issue 2, January-February 1974. Women's Report Collective Publication, U.K. 1974, p.12.

(134) Passinen, C., "The Changing Role of Women", in Beling, W.B. (ed.), op.cit., p. 165.

Chapter Five

THE ESTABLISHED SECONDARY EDUCATION SYSTEM: BAHRAIN, KUWAIT AND SAUDI ARABIA

5.1 Introduction

Having identified, in Chapter Four, some of the conditions which might facilitate and those which might inhibit the success of comprehensive secondary schools in three Gulf Arab States, the main concern of this chapter is to examine the main features of their established education systems as continuation of the specific initial conditions.

According to Holmesian methodology, studying an established education system within a specific context is one of the most important conditions for predictions to be made in terms of the success or failure of adopted educational policies.

Hence, this chapter analyses the Gulf Arab States' education systems and types of secondary school that were set up prior to 1975 especially the general secondary schools which policies of reorganisation were designed to alter them after 1975. The purpose of surveying these aspects is to identify the conditions that might facilitate the reorganisation of secondary education in accordance with the general problem to introduce comprehensive schools.

Therefore, in an analysis of the established educational conditions under which comprehensive secondary school will have to be introduced in the Gulf Arab States, the writer will deal in this chapter with:

(1) the general characteristics of the systems of education that are common to the three Gulf Arab States, i.e. Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia; and

(2) the specific characteristics of each state secondary education system.

5.2 General Characteristics of the Established Education Systems

To begin with, it must be stated that the recently established education systems in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia are not based purely on a religious type of education. Though these states are keen to uphold their cultural norms and religious values within their education systems, it is becoming more evident that secular characteristics are more dominant within the national profiles. It is clear that the established education systems have been copied from European prototypes via the Egyptian model which itself, was specifically based on the British and French systems.

However, these states share common sequential characteristics in terms of their modern education systems.

(1) Aims of Education

In formulating general statements of their education aims, these states accept "The International Declaration of Human Rights", 1948, 'The Arab Cultural Unity Pact', 1954, 'The United Nations Second Declaration of the Rights of the Child of 1959' and, to some extent the prevailing ideology of their own society. As members of the United Nations Organisation, some of their stated aims coincide with (IDHRs) which set out a man's rights as a common standard to be achieved for all peoples and nations. According to Article No. 26,

(a) everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free and compulsory at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit;

(b) education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedom. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace;

(c) parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children (1).

They have also accepted the United Nations Second Declaration of 1959 - The Declaration of the Rights of the Child - which includes ten principles. The seventh principle, however, stresses on free education and recreation and equal opportunity to all children to develop their individual abilities (2).

The foregoing aims are considered and included in official documents of these states. For example, Kuwait's and Bahrain's educational policy is based on these fundamental principles stated in their constitutions as follows:

(a) education should be made available for all children of school age;

(b) education is free for everyone (3).

The same principles are also accepted in Saudi Arabia and stated in the Kingdom's educational policy document of 1978.

As members of the Arab League, these states also accept the Arab Cultural Unity Pact (1957) which includes a definition of educational aims both general and specific for the various levels of pre-university education. Article No.1 of the Pact, states,

> "The ultimate goal of education is to prepare a generation of enlightened Arabs who believe in God and in the Arab nation, who have faith in themselves and in their people, who take their inspiration in individual and

> social behaviour from lofty moral ideals, who adhere to the principles of right and good, who have the will to strive for the common cause and the capacity for constructive action, who armed with knowledge and moral stamina, will assert the place of the Arab people in the World and ensure the right of every Arab for a free, secure and dignified living" (4).

These states, however, emphasise religious aims more than other Arab countries. And within each of the three states, religious aims are more prominent in Saudi Arabia than in Bahrain and Kuwait. This is attributed to the power that the religious leaders hold in regard to education and an emphasis on such aims.

However, their educational aims are numerous and include political, social, economic and cultural aims at a very general level. But these remain aspirations rather than as reflections of existing conditions.

M.A. El-Ghannam who has scrutinised the formulation of stated aims in the Arab World in general and in the Gulf Arab States under study, makes the following critical observations:

(a) aims are frequently copied by the Arab educationists from western countries and used as 'window dressing' in their education systems without understanding the educational philosophy that they are derived from and examining the real need for them;

(b) when aims are adopted, they are not always accompanied by necessary changes in the educational structure, content and methods. As a result, contradictions and disparities continue to exist between old structures, content and methods and the newly adopted aims (5).

The Gulf Arab States have also enacted laws and regulations to universalise compulsory primary education especially during the 1960s. For instance, Kuwait was the first to enact

laws concerning compulsion which has now been extended to include the final years of secondary education within the compulsory age limits. Bahrain and Saudi Arabia, however, have not yet enacted laws regarding compulsory education. But since 1980, there has been general agreement among policy makers in these two states that laws should be introduced to ensure the making of education compulsory so as to abolish illiteracy among their youth as a whole. But as the expansion of education in these states is so recent, it is difficult to put such laws in action because even today the percentage of literacy rate of the adult population do not go beyond 55 per cent. Again, there are still many children of school age (especially girls) who do not receive any kind of formal education particularly in Saudi Arabia.

(2) The Administration of Education

The Gulf Arab States have adopted centralised systems of educational administration. In Bahrain and Kuwait the administration is centralised in the Ministries of Education (Chart Nos. 1-2). While in Saudi Arabia, there are three governmental bodies at the ministerial level that administer education throughout the Kingdom, viz, the Ministry of Education, the General Presidency of Girls' Education and the Ministry of Higher Education. For the purpose of administration, the Kingdom is divided into 23 educational districts. Several districts have been joined together into four regions which are administered by a regional Director of Education, but the general directors have very limited power to initiate development within their regions. They are mainly responsible for the implementation of central policy and programmes in their respective region and for the supervision and control of the

schools under their jurisdiction.

However, there are merits and demerits associated with centralised control and administration. Mallinson states,

> "the advantages that are usually claimed for the centralised system are that opportunities are equalised and that the rural and more remote areas have as good educational facilities as the more advanced and progressive urban areas; that the quality of education provided is uniform because all schools are provided with teachers possessing the same qualifications, and that the system is efficient because the same standards are set for all students." (6)

But, he argues that such advantages are not observable in the actual practice. He writes,

> "Within the centralised system, all teachers are not of equal calibre even if they have all followed identical courses and passed the same examinations. Nor in actual practice, do we find the more able and more ambitious teachers willing to bury themselves in remote country areas, (writer's comments as in the case of Saudi Arabia). Nor. finally, do examination successes show that the same standards of achievement have been achieved in different schools of the same system. The serious criticism of the tightly centralised system, however, is that local initiative and enterprise is stifled and there is no real incentive for the sub-groups seriously to challenge accepted because of practiced doctrines" (7).

However, under the physical conditions of Bahrain and Kuwait in terms of the limitation of land surface and the density of population in the urban areas, one central agency can administer the whole system. But in a vast country such as Saudi Arabia, a partnership between central and local educational authorities is necessary. Rigid centralised control prevents the local educational authorities from catering for the requirements and needs of various regions and districts.

(3) Finance

Education and training are mainly financed by the state. There is usually a separate budget for the Ministry of Education and for the various institutions of higher education. The per-

centage of the national budget for education is decided annually by the Council of Ministers and Ministries of Education are responsible for allocating the budget for each level of education according to the plans to be implemented within each level through the whole year. Schools have to secure almost everything from the centralised administration, i.e. from buildings to teachers' salaries. However, the financial allocations for education usually show a definite bias in the appropriations for the education of males. For instance, the First Saudi Five-Year Plan, 1970-1975 - showed that the specific allocations for women's schools constituted only 18 per cent of that appropriated for male students, i.e. SR 5, 681.2 millions for males and 1,013 million for females (8).

(4) Structure and Organisation

The structure of the educational systems resembles each other closely. In Bahrain and Saudi Arabia, the basic six years' elementary schooling is followed by secondary education which has been divided into two cycles: cycle I, is the intermediate stage and cycle II, the secondary stage. Each cycle lasts three years* after which successful students progress to the university. Charts Nos. 3-4, illustrate the educational ladder in Bahrain and Saudi Arabia, while in Kuwait, the existing structure is based on a compulsory twelve year (4-4-4) ladder suggested by the UNESCO experts in 1954-1955. These twelve years of basic education are graded through three stages of four years each, i.e. elementary, intermediate and secondary.

---

* In Bahrain before 1975, the duration of study at the second level of education was five years after the elementary level. And in Saudi Arabia, the case was the same before 1959.

This basic structure, however, excludes the two kindergarten years. Chart No. 5, shows the structure of the Kuwaiti educational system.

(5) Curriculum Control

In the three states under study, the curriculum for the first and second levels of education is laid down centrally at the national level and is not the responsibility of individual teachers, schools, regional or district educational authorities. Within each Ministry of Education, in these states, there is a Directorate of Curriculum Development and Innovation. These Directorates were established after 1970, as a result of a desire to develop their own textbooks instead of importing Egyptian instructional materials. Syllabuses are laid down centrally through these Directorates. Their implementation is subject to inspection by the Ministry Inspectors and subject specialists who themselves, in most cases, compile the syllabuses, inspect the teaching and set examinations in collaboration with senior subject specialists in individual schools especially at the secondary level.

(6) Teachers' Conditions

All teachers in the three states are usually appointed by the Ministry of Education, in view of the fact that teachers in state schools are government employees, so their appointment should be controlled by general regulations for the appointment of civil servants. The Ministry usually selects the candidates for appointment, taking into account their academic qualifications, certificates and degrees and educational experience without interviewing those candidates before selection whether national or non-national.

The extent to which the education systems in these states are imported can be illustrated by reference to the degree of reliance upon non-national teachers (Table No. 16). The lowest dependence upon non-national teachers is in Bahrain where the teaching profession has been relatively attractive to Bahrainis since the introduction of state education in 1932.

Reliance upon non-national teachers rises with the educational level in all three states. For example, in Kuwait in 1976, some 52 per cent of primary teachers were nationals. In contrast, only 22 per cent of intermediate level teachers and only 10 per cent of secondary school teachers were nationals. This pattern is closely repeated in all the states under consideration. J.S. Birks and J.A. Rimmer state that realistic projections of the supply of teachers at all levels, taking into account other employment opportunities available to nationals with teacher training qualifications, suggest that in Kuwait as well as in Saudi Arabia the localisation of the teaching staff cannot be achieved until the next century (9).

Since 1965, the 'localisation' of the teaching profession in these states has received a high priority in planning. However, the establishment of teacher training colleges and their curricula also depend on an imported Egyptian teacher training model with little modification. In the main, national teachers are largely taught and trained by non-national teachers. Though after 1975, efforts have been made to introduce changes in teacher education, these changes are minimal compared to the changes introduced in schools. As this study is concerned with the general secondary schools, teacher education and teacher qualifications for such schools will be discussed in detail in the following chapter.

Attempts to improve the quality of teaching in all schools, in accordance with the financial resources available, have centred upon intensifying labour inputs, reducing class size, supplying schools with equipment and teaching aids and monitoring teachers in an intensive way rather than on improving the qualify of preparation of national and non-national teachers.

Teaching is one of the professions in which the employment of women is socially acceptable. Thus national female elementary teachers outnumber their male counterparts by four to one in Kuwait. In Bahrain and Kuwait, significant ground was broken in terms of a new role for women teachers when they were given charge of boys' education at the elementary level. This kind of strategy has been adopted by policy-makers in these two states as a result of reluctance of men to take up teaching. However, the above trend has now been accepted by society at large.

Under the present system of centralised administration, the initiative allowed to teachers is, of course, limited. They have to conform to official decrees and regulations which provide them with unified syllabuses as well as textbooks. Even methods of teaching and the organisation of extra-curricula activities are also prescribed in circulars and booklets distributed to teachers throughout the states as stated earlier.

Having identified the general features of the education systems in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, the following section deals particularly with the system of secondary education in each state, its aims, evolution, types and contraints that hinder responses to the socio-economic changes discussed in Chapter Four.

5.3 Secondary Education: Country Profiles

5.3.1 Secondary Education in Bahrain

In Bahrain, secondary education is divided into two cycles: intermediate education - the first cycle of secondary education - lasts three years. The curriculum, at this cycle, is divided into inter-related subjects and activity periods. Table No. 16 shows the curriculum plan for the intermediate education.

The second cycle of secondary education, at present, lasts three years and is sub-divided into general, vocational, commercial and religious which is offered in different specialist schools.

Since its introduction in 1940, the aim of secondary education is to achieve the following objectives:

(1) producing skilled labour for industry and commerce;

(2) preparing students for higher education;

(3) providing general education (10).

To find out whether these objectives have been fulfilled or not, it is worth examining first the evolution of each individual type of school and its curriculum between 1940-1980.

5.3.1.1 The General Secondary School

In 1940, the first general secondary school for boys was opened and called 'al Colleyah. While the first secondary school for girls was established in 1952.

At 'al Colleyah, the duration of study lasted three years and then extended to four. Students who finished the elementary level were admitted to that school. The school was strictly utilitarian. Its curriculum was designed and adapted to fit boys for responsible posts in government offices, with

the oil companies and in banks and business. It was also suitable for those boys who wished to proceed to higher education in colleges and universities abroad (11)

C.R.L. Adrian Vallance's report on Education in Bahrain, 1944, referred to the curriculum in al Colleyah. The report stated that the curriculum of the final stage of elementary education carried on in the secondary school, with certain additions. A study of the Qurān and the training of character continued. Much attention was devoted to the study of English language. To arithmetic were added elementary algebra and geometry and very elementary science, chiefly physics. World history and World geography were studied in greater detail. There was also instruction in civics, bookkeeping. Biology was added and physical education continued (12). The Report added,

> "the inspector should, from time to time, alter and adapt the curriculum by the introduction of any subject or subjects which he finds have been made necessary by the demand of employers, or by the nature of the various forms of employment which seem to be opening themselves out to pupils from the school, and other subjects, which he finds impractical or unnecessary, he should omit" (13).

The above shows that during the 1940s, consideration was given to relate school content to the demands of society. However, this trend was neglected after 1950.

From 1950-1980, the general secondary school became identical with the Egyptian academic secondary school. This observation was first confirmed in the Annual Educational Report of 1952. The report stated the general secondary school was copied from the Egyptian model. The Egyptian Curriculum, administrators and of course teachers had been imported. In general, the curriculum concentrated on theoretical aspects. Though some alterations were introduced in geography and history subjects to suit Bahraini students. However, a secondary graduate

knew more about Egypt than his own society (14).

After 1965, the school curriculum entered a different phase in terms of its organisation rather than its content which remained purely theoretical. It was divided into art and scientific sections. This kind of organisation remained till 1980.

On the whole, the general plan and syllabuses assumed that all students would go on to higher education. Arts students were unable to take sciences subjects and sciences students had to stop taking social sciences when they were promoted to the second year. In most cases, students were obliged to take and pass subjects that they did not need for their future specialisation. Table No. 17, shows the subjects taught and number of periods allocated for each in the arts and scientific sections. The curriculum content in both sections, continued to concentrate on theoretical aspects and practical studies were largely neglected though this school, till 1980, used to admit approximately 90 per cent of students who finished intermediate schooling. The remaining 10 per cent joined the technical, commercial and religious secondary schools (15).

5.3.1.2 The Technical Secondary School

The first step to offer modern technical education started in 1936 when some vocational classes were opened in the general secondary schools in Manama and Muharraq which offered some vocational classes in carpentry, black-smithing and welding. They were arranged to meet the urgent needs of the Oil Company and construction services which had flourished after the discovery of oil.

In 1940, Vallance proposed a new plan for a simple

vocational school. The main intention of his plan was to qualify pupils with the basic skills demanded for the jobs available and not to develop sophisticated skills required for more advanced technical jobs with the oil companies. Therefore the programme, he suggested, should provide sound training in the principle and practice of a number of definite trades and should give little attention to subjects which were of purely academic interest. English, elementary mathematics and technical drawing should be taught in the vocational school, but the subjects should have a direct bearing on industrial work (16).

Appendix No. 9 shows the programme of training proposed in 1940.

In his plan, Vallance pointed to the reason for drawing a distinction between the requirements of the oil industry from those of the government services and the market trades. He stated that the oil companies employed a large staff of technical experts from America and Europe who were able to supervise closely the local employees and give a good deal of attention to the matter of training them in various kinds of specialised work. In the case of the skilled trades the companies were able to provide their own form of higher apprentice training at Bapco Training Industrial Centre. For most branches of their work, the oil companies needed boys with some general education, a knowledge of English and only sufficient workshop experience to form a foundation for the specialised training they would receive in the companies' employ. Therefore, it was argued, the pre-employment training of such boys should make them resourceful and adaptable rather than highly skilled in one particular branch of industry (17).

Vallance suggested that when selecting entrants for this school, interest had to be taken in boys coming from families

with a craft tradition. He assumed that Arab workmen of the artisan class "are hardworking, patient and frugal and these qualities may reasonably be expected in their children". He claimed, "an Arab craftsman himself looks forward to training one or more of his sons from early childhood in the practice of his trade, that being an essential feature in the economy of working class family life (18). Vallance's assumption is not true, because most of the parents then, and even today, insist on their children pursuing general secondary school to improve their living standards so that they might be promoted to higher status jobs in society. For instance, since the establishment of this school up to 1955, the number of students per year did not exceed 50, while the number of students (boys) in general secondary schools was 865 in the same year (19).

However, from 1940-1965, Vallance's plan was implemented and this school's curriculum remained purely vocational and aimed at qualifying pupils with the basic skills demanded by the labour market.

Between 1966-1977, the school's organisation was changed and new entry requirements were enforced. These requirements included an elementary school certificate, entry age 12-14 years, plus passing a medical examination. The duration of study was extended to five years: two intermediate and three secondary. In the intermediate cycle, pupils followed almost the same syllabus offered at the general intermediate school with two to three vocational courses, i.e. for carpenters, blacksmiths and fitters.

At the secondary cycle, the study in the first year was general. At the end of the first year an assessment of every student's ability was made, upon which students were

streamed into the following sections (streams):

(1) Blacksmithing and welding;

(2) Foundary;

(3) Pattern-making;

(4) Carpentry (furniture-making);

(5) Radio and Television services;

(6) Electricity, Installation and Motor-winding;

(7) Fitting;

(8) Machine-shop;

(9) Automobile Engineering Practice (20).

Since 1980, entry requirements have been modified. Entry into technical secondary schools is conditional upon successful completion of the general intermediate stage because the intermediate technical cycle was omitted. Preference is usually given to students who are good at mathematics, sciences and English.

In regard to the curriculum, new streams have been added to the foregoing and first introduced in 1966. The new streams are: refrigeration, bodywork repairs and paintsprayers, health work and auto-mechanics. In addition to these specialisations, there are general academic as well as technical theoretical subjects for all students. Table No. 18 shows the curriculum plan for technical secondary education. In general the present curriculum is mainly based on the Egyptian technical school's model with some modification taken from the U.K. City and Guild Certificate.

However, in spite of the government's effort to improve the quality of secondary technical education, the percentages of enrolments failed to meet expectations. This is attributed to many factors. For example, it usually relates to a certain

group of students. Those students whose economic conditions forced them to join, or those whose academic achievement was low and found it easier to be accepted at this kind of school. Another factor is that the most acceptable kind of secondary education of the population is the general secondary school, which qualifies its graduates either to pursue higher education or to get good jobs at government offices and departments.

5.3.1.3 The Commercial Secondary School

Commercial studies in Bahrain started in 1952 with only one class, opened at the Manama Secondary School for boys where the number of students did not exceed thirty.

Between 1952-1969, commercial secondary education grew slowly because there was little desire from students or their parents to join in such an education. The main reason for students' reluctance was that commerical education terminated at the end of the third year of this cycle. There were no incentives for graduates (a scholarship for instance) to pursue higher education. In addition, the commercial secondary certificate itself was not valued as highly as the general secondary certificate whose holders were eligible for government scholarships.

Since 1970, commercial secondary education achieved popularity as a result of economic development and the increased demand for clerical and secretarial qualifications needed for commercial banks, companies and trading offices. Table No. 19 illustrates the present curriculum plan for this stream.

In general, the curriculum includes general academic, theoretical and practical subjects which qualify students for jobs after graduation. It has been argued recently that this

school curriculum concentrates on simple skills rather than the sophisticated skills needed in commercial and banking sectors which have started to apply the most advanced technology.

However, though the commercial secondary education has recently attracted many students, the general secondary education still dominates.

5.3.1.4 The Religious Secondary School

The religious secondary school accepts only students who have completed the religious intermediate stage.

The religious education curriculum is adapted from Al-Azhar's programme with some modification for students in Bahrain. Graduates of this school pursue their studies at Al-Azhar or the higher institutions of religious studies in Saudi Arabia and Morocco. Table No. 20 gives a general idea of the curriculum for religious education.

In fact this kind of education attracts few students. Only those who intend to work at religious institutions follow this kind of education and the total enrolment in this school - intermediate and secondary cycles - does not extend 200 students.

The foregoing survey of secondary education reveals that it is diversified and offered in different types of schools. Before 1980, diversification did not mean that there was a balance in terms of enrolment among these types of schools. Even government policy concerning admissions to any type of school was not specified; it was left to students and their parents to choose. As a result the majority of students finishing the intermediate cycle, joined the general (academic) secondary schools. Despite it popularity, minimal attempts were made to change its curriculum which was comprised mostly of theoretical

subjects and did not meet individual student and society needs.

In terms of its enrolment, it was estimated that the general secondary school attracted approximately 90 per cent of the total intermediate graduates in 1970. The remaining 10 per cent joined the other types of schooling (21). After 1975, as a result of the minor expansion in the commercial secondary school enrolment, the percentage in general secondary schools decreased, but this did not mean that they lost their popularity. According to Table No. 21A the number of Bahraini students (male and female) in the commercial and technical schools' enrolment for the scholastic year 1975-76 was only 19.25 per cent. While the rest were in the general secondary schools. Even the 1977-78 educational statistics revealed that 7,759 out of 9,590 (80 per cent) students were in this school and the statistics for 1977-1982 (Table No. 21B) confirm the same situation. Therefore, the imbalance between general and technical/vocational secondary education enrolments and particularly the academic nature of the former's curriculum accelerated the shortage of qualified manpower at middle level because the graduates from the academic schools ended with qualifications (mostly in arts subjects) which were not related at all to the skills required in the job market.

5.3.2 Secondary Education in Kuwait

In Kuwait, secondary education as in Bahrain, was diversified into different types of school since its establishment in 1930 until 1973 when secondary technical/vocational schools were moved into the third level of education. Its aims stress general education as well as on qualifying students for the labour market or higher education. For the sake of this study, the

technical/vocational institutions will be investigated before and after 1973 to highlight their contribution to labour market demands in Kuwait. What follows first deals with the general secondary schools.

5.3.2.1 The General Secondary School

In the 1930s, Al-Mubarekeyah School was the first school to offer general secondary education in Kuwait. The first curriculum was purely academic and it included the Qurān, religious studies, Arabic language, English language, geography, simple arithmetic and geometry with some elementary science. This kind of curriculum was given to students who had finished elementary education which was provided in the same school (22).

The textbooks were those used in Iraqi schools, except for the English textbooks which were from the Oxford University Press.

From 1930-1940, the general characteristics of education in this school were stated as follows:

> "it was generally theoretical. The curriculum had not evolved as a result of needs created by local conditions, but had been imported wholesale from Iraq. One valid reason for adoption of the Iraqi curriculum by Kuwait was that boys were allowed and encouraged to seek their higher education in Basrah or Baghdad" (23).

Since 1950, the Iraqi model has been replaced by the Egyptian model of the academic secondary school. However, both models have the same characteristics in terms of the nature of their curricula which emphasise theoretical and college preparatory subjects.

The course of study at the Kuwaiti general secondary school lasts four years. The curriculum, in the first two years of the secondary school is common, whereas in the last two years, students follow either an arts or a sciences course as illustrated

in Table No. 22.

Before 1965, documented studies and surveys about this type of school are rare, therefore the researcher is limited to some studies which were carried out after 1970.

Among the first attempts to study the attitudes of students towards general secondary schools was that by Y.A. Noat in 1969*. The purpose of the study was to find out the motives behind the preference for this rather than other types of schooling among Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti female students in all the state intermediate schools. However, the study revealed that a large majority of Kuwaiti respondents, i.e. 83 per cent, wanted to join the general secondary school because it would prepare them for university education. About 62 per cent of those who wished to join the university wanted to study such subjects as liberal arts, social services, domestic sciences and education. Few of them were interested in the sciences and engineering (24).

This study did not give enough information about the choices of the remaining 17 per cent of students. It did not show whether there were differences between Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti female students in terms of subject choices at the university level.

In 1977, the Curriculum Research Centre of the Kuwaiti Ministry of Education carried out a systematic study on the development of curriculum and textbooks in all the state's general secondary schools. The purpose of this study was to measure the validity of the curriculum in terms of student and society needs. The study concluded that:

---

* This study's result was quoted by Nath, K. who did not give the exact number of students that the survey had covered.

> "the general secondary school's curriculum is overloaded with theoretical subjects and little attention has been paid to students' needs. Time allocated per period and indeed the school day is very short, therefore students do not have enough time to benefit from scholastic activities. Vocational and technical training has been completely neglected. On the whole, the school directs most of its efforts to prepare students for higher education rather than to prepare them for life" (25).

The Arab Bureau of Education Comparative Survey of Secondary Education in the Arab Gulf States, 1981, states,

> "The Kuwaiti general secondary school curriculum is rigid. It does not offer any freedom of choice especially at the third and fourth year where specialisation takes place. For instance, in the art section, students have little or no provision for the study of mathematics and sciences. In the scientific section, students are deprived of studying social sciences and a second foreign language" (26).

Another survey was conducted by Al-Bustan in 1980-81. His study set out to measure secondary school students' perception of higher education available in the two-year colleges and Kuwait University. The result of Al-Bustan's questionnaire, distributed among 300 high school seniors in six secondary schools (both sexes), showed that 45 per cent of the students expected to go to to Kuwait University. The next highest percentage of students, 29 per cent, expected to study abroad, while the lowest percentage, less than nine per cent, expected to attend two-year colleges of higher education. But none showed any intention of seeking jobs after secondary schooling. Al-Bustan commented that many of the students in the first group would not be admitted to the university because of the high academic standards required there. Therefore the majority of students were forced to choose between either going to the two-year college or seeking a job (25). He argued that this school should pay more attention to the needs of the majority. Their needs however would not be met unless essential changes

were introduced into the curriculum which, at present, serves only those anxious to attend higher education.

As in Bahrain, the Kuwaiti general secondary school attracts the majority of intermediate school graduates and clearly dominates the enrolments at the post-intermediate level. Table No. 23 shows progressive comparative figures of enrolments at all levels and at the different types of secondary schools for the ten-year period between 1972/73-1981/82. An analysis of these figures shows that in the year 1981-82, the total enrolment at the secondary general school was 56,546 students, while vocational/technical and religious institutions enrolled only 5,750 students. It appears that most students preferred to join the general secondary school because they thought they would have more opportunities to pursue higher education without realising their own standard of academic achievement and without being familiar with university requirements for admission in Kuwait and abroad.

The government's general policy contributed to the problem. Policy has so far been to admit to the general secondary school the majority of pupils who finish the intermediate school although its curriculum remains purely academic. On the other hand, Kuwaiti employment policy which stresses the appointment of Kuwaitis in the public service without regard to quality or qualification has led to a bias towards university education which is thought by the majority of Kuwaiti students in the general secondary schools, to provide the best chance in the long run of public sector employment. If they get a university degree, they would achieve higher status and higher wages than two-year college graduates. And under the Kuwaiti Civil Service salary scale, a graduate from

a university receives a higher salary than a graduate from an industrial ...

college. According to 1984 government statistics, the basic salary per month for grade four employees under which university graduates are classified, is about 435 KD (about £900), while the basic salary for a grade six employee under which industrial college graduates are categorised is about 300 KD (about £600). However, the opportunities of promotion for university graduates in public sector employment is much easier than for those graduated from technical institutions. In general, the same perception towards general secondary education as a way to university education is also held by parents. In fact, Kuwait does not need only university graduates, but is short of different kinds of technically and vocationally qualified personnel to promote economic and social development.

So what is the contribution of technical/vocational institutions in respect of manpower development? Have these institutions faced the same problems as those in Bahrain in terms of their enrolments and output? What follows describes technical/vocational education at secondary and post-secondary level since its establishment since 1939.

5.3.2.2 Technical/Vocational Education and Its Institutions

As in Bahrain, the demand for graduates in technical education increased immediately after the discovery of oil during the 1930s.

In 1939, L.D. Scott, Director of Kuwait Oil Company, proposed a plan to introduce technical education in Kuwait. His plan included the following suggestions:

(1) The establishment of technical classes in Kuwait by (KOC). He envisaged the formation of these classes to train skilled labour and the lower grades of artisans.

The duration of the training courses, he proposed, was three months and afterwards the trainees were to be put on to productive work under close supervision so that in time they would become skilled at their trade; or

(2) Sending Kuwaiti students to Bahrain technical school under the sponsorship of KOC (27).

The KOC Board of Directors did not agree to the establishment of technical classes to train Kuwaiti students because the setting up of such classes needed considerable financial support and the company did not want to budget sufficient money until it had started production on a commercial basis. Therefore the Board approved the proposals to grant scholarships of Rs 800 per annum for two Kuwaiti boys to attend Bahrain Technical School (28). This situation continued until 1945 when KOC opened the first vocational training centre in Kuwait to improve the quality of the indigenous labour force employed in KOC through extensive training programmes.

In 1954-55, the government opened the first formal school for technical education, a four-year secondary school for boys, known as al-Colleyah al-Sina'ayah - the industrial college, and the first commercial secondary school was opened in 1960 to prepare boys for the lower levels of the business and commercial professions.

Till 1972, the technical and commercial secondary schools followed the pattern and curricula that operated in Bahrain. Appendix No. 10 gives detailed information about vocational/technical secondary schools in Kuwait before 1973.

After 1973, these secondary schools except the Institute of Religious Education, were moved up into the third level of education. At present, technical/vocational educa-

tion is provided at the junior institutes of which there are the following six types:

(1) The Teachers Educational Institute 1972/73 (one for males, another for females);

(2) The Health Institute for Females 1974-75;

(3) The Business Institutes, 1975/76 one for males, another for females;

(4) The Kuwait Institute of Applied Technology 1976/77 (for males only).

Students are admitted to these two-year institutions on the basis of the following qualifications:

- Students should hold the General Certificate of Secondary Education or its equivalent;
- Students should be medically fit and should devote their time completely to study;
- Some of these colleges require passing scores on certain examinations; and
- 90 per cent of new enrolments must be Kuwaiti citizens (29).

The duration of study in these institutions is four terms, with the exception of the Kuwait Institute of Applied Technology which has five terms. The figures published by the Ministry of Planning given in Table No. 24 show that the enrolment remains low despite the efforts made to develop vocational/technical education. Few students avail themselves of it compared to those who favour the general secondary school.

Several causes contribute to this lack of interest. For instance, it has transpired that graduates of the vocational/technical institutions find it difficult to pursue higher education. For example, in 1977-78, Kuwait University

refused to accept graduates of the Business Institute though they obtained high grades in their specialisation. The Institute argued that they should go into the job market where there was a need for them. Therefore, the students became aware that they would never be given the same chance as general secondary graduates to benefit from higher education.

It has also been observed that graduates of these institutions did not usually take jobs for which they were qualified. In 1974, the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour conducted an empirical study to follow up the graduates of vocational/technical institutions for the three years, 1974-76. The study showed that 49.2 per cent of the graduates originally trained neither accepted nor preferred jobs they were trained for. Furthermore, the study showed that 86 per cent of those trained in a particular field of specialisation entered jobs, required retraining before they would be employed in their specialisation (30).

The opportunities for vocational/technical education for girls, are limited to four types of skill viz. nursing, telecommunications, health and education and this is also the case in Bahrain. The girls' lack of interests in technical/vocational education is exacerbated by traditional social attitudes towards women's participation in public work and to the kind of work considered suitable for women. A.I. Meleis et al argue that women's perception of work and their roles in society has changed. They explain that until 1970, careers were not considered to be an option for Kuwaiti women; the primary motivation for a woman to obtain education was to enhance her status as a prospective wife and to become a better mother. But since the 1970s, there has been a new kind of awareness among Kuwaiti women, regardless of their class origin, that they should

contribute effectively to their country's development. Now more and more women are keen to pursue their education in order to obtain qualifications for the skilled jobs available to them (31). However, it is still true to say that in terms of the fields of academic specialisation, women, by and large, qualify in those fields of study that are acceptable under the prevailing social norms, i.e. medicine, nursing, social sciences, office and secretarial work and above all education. They claim that traditional attitudes influence the kind of studies women usually choose at university level. They state that the percentage of female students studying engineering abroad for example, is only 6.1 per cent of the total and the percentage in the engineering department at Kuwait University is only 8.9 per cent. Conversely, the percentage of Kuwaiti females studying arts and education at the university is 79.2 per cent of the total female enrolment (32).

To summarise what has been stated so far about secondary education in Kuwait, it may be asserted that Kuwait has achieved some quantative progress. Regardless of this progress,the system like that in Bahrain, suffers from qualitative problems. The output from secondary education and particularly from the general secondary school, has failed to meet the national plan of envisaged manpower development.

5.3.3 Secondary Education in Saudi Arabia

In Saudi Arabia, Cycle II of secondary education is diversified and offered at the following different kinds of schools:

(1) The general secondary school;

(2) the vocational/technical secondary school;

(3) The commercial secondary school;

(4) The agricultural secondary school;

(5) The teacher training secondary school;

(6) The religious secondary school.

The twelve objectives stated for the second level of education, which are applied to different types of secondary schools, emphasise:

- the strength of the Islamic doctrine which gives the student a correct understanding of the universe, man, life on earth and Heaven and supplies the student with basic concepts and Islamic education which enables him to be pround of Islam and capable of preaching and defending it;
- the developing of the student's talents and various capacities which unfold at this stage and directing them in the ways that suit him;
- the developing of the student's scientific thinking and entrenching in him the spirit of research, systematic analysis, the use of reference sources and the practice of sound academic method;
- opening opportunities to competent students and enabling them to continue their studies at all levels in higher institutes and universities of all specialisations;
- graduating a number of technically and morally qualified individuals to fill the country's need in the field of elementary teaching, religious duties and technical activities (farming, trade and industry) (33).

There are also some additional objectives concerning women's education which are written in a general statement. They acknowledge a woman's right to obtain the kind of education

which suits her nature and prepares her for her task in life, provided this is done in a decent and dignified manner and in the light of Islamic law. These objectives are generally emphasised at all levels of education.

The revision of the stated objectives related to both men and women's secondary education shows that religious objectives are more emphasised in Saudi Arabia than in Bahrain and Kuwait. On the other hand objectives related to societal prosperity, are also considered and the state educational system has recently paid more attention to improve the quality of education and equip citizens as future participants in the labour force by providing types of training, at the secondary level, which are responsive to the changing needs of the economy. Furthermore, objectives in regard to education as a basic human right are stressed as these objectives do not contradict the Islamic ideals of education which consider the search for knowledge as duty to be fulfilled by every individual - male or female.

Although, there are some additional objectives related to women's education, secondary education for women is bound by the same policy and educational structural patterns. The few exceptional characteristics are in fact related to the access to some specialisations and opportunities offered in terms of technical/vocational education. However these characteristics will be discussed later. What follows deals with each individual type of secondary school, stated earlier.

5.3.3.1 <u>The General Secondary School</u>

In 1935, the first general secondary school for boys was established in Makkah by the private sector, called

'Preparatory School of the Mission', and general secondary education for girls started in 1958 when Al-Zahra'a School in Makkah, extended its education for girls beyond the elementary level (34).

Before 1959, the duration of secondary education was five years after the elementary level. Abdul-Majeed Al-Baghdadi examined the content and duration of study in these schools during that period. He stated the course of study lasted four years for the general sections and five years for the special sections. These sections (arts and scientific) prepared their students for higher education for which they travelled to Egypt. So the curriculum of those schools was a prototype of the Egyptian general secondary school, and most of the teachers were Egyptian who were familiar only with their own country's systems (35).

In fact, these schools were opened in the Western Province, while in Najjad and Eastern Province, secondary schools were non-existent.

For some three decades, between 1926-1953, the achievement of the Directorate of Education (established in 1344-1345 AH, 1925-1926 A.D.), remained very limited and the development of secondary education suffered the same conditions.'Shukri argued that during that period, there was neither large scale demand for public education nor the financial means to provide it. The oil revenue was limited and most of the government budget used to be spent on military projects and on stablising and unifying the Kingdom. In addition, there was frequent opposition from some conservative forces against a new system of public education (36).

After 1960, as a result of the establishment of the Ministry of Education (1962) and the pouring of sufficient funds into education, the general and other specialised secondary

schools for both sexes spread throughout the Kingdom. They have increased in the number and enrolment (Table No. 25).

Despite this quantitative progress, the general secondary school remains the same in terms of its structure and curriculum content. It follows the same pattern operating in Bahrain until 1980 and Kuwait. Table No. 26 summarises its curriculum plan.

In general, the theoretical subjects dominate the curriculum in the arts and scientific section - with little attention being paid to students' needs. The curriculum does not offer any freedom of choice at the second and third year where specialisation begins. As in Bahrain and Kuwait, students in the arts section are deprived of studying sciences and mathematics and those in the scientific section are not allowed to take social sciences. The Gulf Arab States Educational Centre's Survey (1981) points out that Arabic literature studies in the three years of the general secondary school dominates the curriculum. In the first year 26.5 per cent of the total teaching hours is allocated to these studies. In the arts section, the second and third year, they take up to 37.9 per cent of the total teaching hours. But in the scientific section, the percentage does not extend beyond 8.8 per cent. The decreasing of teaching hours for these subjects does not mean students are offered practical subjects. On the contrary, more time is given to theoretical sciences subjects rather than to experimentation and practical work. In general, subjects are essentially repetitive and their content is irrelevant to society's demands (37).

It has been noticed that the arts section is more favoured than the scientific section by both sexes. Although a marked shift in terms of students' numbers from arts to science subjects has been under way since 1974-75, this shift is still below government

estimates.

The proportion of science students in the second grade has improved, in the case of boys from 41 per cent in 1969-70 to 55 per cent in 1975, and that of girls studying science from 39 per cent to 45 per cent during the same period. The combined enrolment of grades two and three in boys' schools rose by about 10.5 thousands of which about six thousand were in the science group which has raised the proportion of science students (grade 2 and 3) from 45.5 per cent to 52.3 per cent between 1974 and 1975. The enrolement of girls in the science group increased by nearly 1,900 during the five-year period 1970-75, resulting in an improvement of the science students proportion (grade 2 and 3) from 35.3 per cent in 1969 to 45.5 per cent in 1974-75 (38).

In Saudi Arabia, this school is preferred by the majority of the intermediate graduates rather than the other types of schools at the secondary level in the Kingdom.

In their study, A. Al-Mani and S.A. Al-Sabit, (1981), registered the imbalance between the general and vocational/ technical secondary education. They noted that the general secondary school enrolment represented almost 90 per cent of the total enrolment; only 2.6 per cent of students enrolled at the second level of education were pursuing technical and vocational education, with 7 per cent in the teacher training secondary schools. They commented that with this serious imbalance the country would never be able to overcome the acute shortage of the middle level supervisory personnel in commerce and industry (39).

It was commented that within 4-5 years the general secondary school graduates would be around 60,000 boys and 40,000 girls, and the existing universities in the Kingdom would not be able to admit these numbers and the majority would be forced to

join the labour market. But their qualifications would not meet the labour market requirements because of being purely theoretical (40).

In regard to the state policy towards general secondary education, the Saudi government has followed similar policies adopted in Bahrain and Kuwait. Admission to this school is not regulated and all intermediate graduates are allowed to join it. Similarly, the Saudi employment policy offers priority employment opportunities to university graduates who later join better conditions and higher wages in the public sector rather than are normally available in the private sector. This kind of policy has accelerated students' reluctance towards the other types of education at the second level and directed their attention to seek a place in the general secondary school which is envisaged by them as the way for university and for better social and economic conditions in the long run.

Either by design or default those who are academically less able or those who actually drop out and who are economically deprived tend to be the ones who enter technical or vocational education. Despite the government's attempts to develop this kind of education, it remains undersubscribed. So the purpose of the following part is to determine the status quo of techical/ vocational institutions and their curricula in Saudi Arabia and their contributions to the Kingdom's human resources development.

5.3.3.2 The Technical Secendary School

Technical education, in its modern form, did not develop in Saudi Arabia until 1940. The initiative was taken by the Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO) in 1944 to train its employees for specific jobs at its premises at that time. The

company accepted responsibility only for training its own employees in the skills and requirements of the company, and general education was left to the government.

Although ARAMCO has been in Saudi Arabia for nearly five decades, it has remained mainly self-contained and has contributed little towards the training of the natives in the technical field, with little influence on the other industries developed in the Kingdom. However, most of its training has been concentrated in the oil-rich Eastern Province. ARAMCO's contributions in this respect is explained in detail in Appendix No. 11.

State technical education was introduced formally in 1948 when the first technical school was established in Jeddah. But this school attracted few pupils who finished the elementary level. It was stated that in 1948-49, only 30 pupils enrolled and this was attributed mainly to the wrong attitude towards manual and technical work, especially in the Central Province. In addition, the rate of illiteracy was very high at that time and few youngsters even finished elementary school (41).

Between 1948-1960, vocational/secondary education had not developed as was anticipated. The Directorate of Industrial Education Survey of 1963 indicated the following defects in technical schools:

- no qualified technical education available;
- no prescribed books and scientific reference work;
- inadequate materials and equipment and inappropriate school buildings for technical education (42).

The government has since taken steps to develop technical education to prepare students for tasks corresponding to the requirements of the national development. It pays

generous stipends for students enrolled in technical schools. By 1984, eight technical secondary schools were run by the General Organisation for Technical and Vocational Training, established in 1974. In addition, this organisation runs the following special technical institutions:

- The Royal Institute, Riyadh,
- The Technical Institute, Dammām,
- The Model Technical Institute, Jeddah.

These establishments offer courses for intermediate graduates leading to secondary vocational certificate. Table No. 27, summarises the curriculum plan at The Dammām Technical Institute.

There are, in addition to these schools and institutes, training programmes for intermediate graduates which are organised by ministries other than the Ministry of Education. For example, the Ministry of Public Health runs courses of technical assistance in basic health techniques for male trainees; The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs oversees courses in tailoring and nursing for female trainees; The Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC) charged with the responsibility of setting up basic industries in the Kingdom, cooperates with the General Organisation for Technical and Vocational Training in subsidising intermediate school graduates all over the Kingdom who intend to join courses at technical institutions at the second level of education.

5.3.3.3 The Commercial Secondary School:

The first commercial secondary school in the Kingdom was opened in Riyadh in 1970. The secondary commercial schools have not expanded at the same speed as general and technical

schools, mainly because many of their courses can be offered in vocational institutions and private training centres. But the number of students enrolled in commercial courses has increased. This increase in enrolment at commercial secondary level can be attributed to the development of trade business and banking sectors, especially after 1970.

The curriculum content in commercial education concentrates on Arabic language and courses which qualify students for certain jobs in this sector - Table No. 28, the Curriculum Plan for Commercial Secondary Schools.

5.3.3.4 The Agricultural Secondary School

Agricultural education was introduced at the intermediate level in 1955 by the Ministry of Agriculture. In 1960, the responsibility of Agricultural education was shifted to the Ministry of Education. Till 1977, agricultural education was only offered at the intermediate level. By 1977-78, the first secondary agricultural institution was opened and its enrolment was 300 students only. However, the curriculum of the agricultural secondary school seems to be more general as is shown in Table No. 29. The animal production and agronomy have the greatest amount of curriculum content.

5.3.3.5 The Religious Secondary School

Religious education is offered at different levels, from the intermediate school till the college level. There are many specialised - almost 40 - institutions throughout the Kingdom. At the second level, religious education is on a parallel with the general secondary education as regard duration, but it is different in its content. Graduates from these secondary

schools can be enrolled in the non-religious higher education institutions and in higher study courses in the Islamic law and religious studies either in the Kingdom or abroad.

5.3.3.6 Teacher-Training Secondary School

Since 1970 the Ministry of Education has made efforts to improve the quality of this type of school. The Ministry has put into force that entry to teacher training programmes requires a completion of the intermediate stage. In the case of men, the change-over was completed in 1968-69 and in the case of women trainees was completed in 1974-75.

Since 1975, teacher-training programmes are offered at the secondary stage. In addition to these schools, there are the following teacher training institutes at the second level: Institute of Physical Education, Fine Arts Institutes and two Teacher Training Centres at post-secondary level, but not forming part of university education. There are also science and mathematics centres and evening teacher training programmes (43). All these institutions train secondary school students to teach at the elementary level.

The Ministry of Education has not yet put into force that entry to the teaching profession requires the completion of a teacher training programme at a higher level because it has not completed the elementary teachers' replacement by Saudis, especially in rural and nomadic areas and in girls' schools.

Despite the Ministry of Education's efforts, as well as those of the government to expand, diversify and develop technical and vocational education at the second level, the capacity of the system has not yet been fully utilised.

The major problem lies in both the adults and the

youth having wrong attitudes towards technical/vocational education. They have inherited a tendency to look down on manual work as is the case in Bahrain and Kuwait. The unchanged attitudes taken in the light of the changes occuring in the country's economy show up clearly in the low enrolment to this kind of education. The total does not exceed 10 per cent of the full enrolment at the second level of education. Technical/vocational institutions' enrolment has also decreased markedly during the last two decades. Table No. 30 shows the number of new students enrolled in technical institutions between 1975-79. This Table shows that only 867 students were enrolled in 1975/76, while the number projected was 1,640; 486 were enrolled in 1978-79, while the number estimated was 2,920. According to this table the percentages of enrolment of the four years were successively, 53, 24, 18 and 17.

In 1979, A.S. Al-Obaid carried out an empirical study on Technical/Vocational Seconda Education and its Relationship to Technical Manpower Development in the Kingdom. The study attempted to identify the problems confronting the progress of technical/vocational education. His study investigated the students and graduates' attitudes towards technical/vocational education in technical, commercial and agricultural schools. His questionnairescovered 42 graduates, 147 students from the industrial schools and 97 from the commercial ones. The results of the questionnaires indicate that there is a lack of vocational guidance in these institutions. Most of the technical (industrial) and agricultural students had unsatisfactory information about their future jobs; commercial students had the highest rank among the other groups in regard to their acquaintance with their future employment. Students showed their lack of

interest in their institutions. For instance, over half of the agricultural students (52 per cent), indicated that they chose that school because they were not interested in university education (44).

Students' responses to the quality of technical vocational programmes showed that though they agreed that their schools were supplied with new technical facilities and qualified staff, the content of the curriculum is insufficient. The survey revealed that there was no relationship between the graduates' present jobs and their specialisations. Only 2 per cent of the total graduates were working in their specialisations, 21 per cent in related areas and 76 per cent working in areas that bear no relation to their specialisations. In regard to students' responses to their future work, 61 per cent of commercial students preferred to work for the private sector, while 67 per cent of technical students and 92 per cent of the agricultural students preferred to work for the governmental civil services (45).

From the employers point of view, the study showed that the specialisations in the field of technical/vocational education were not parallel to those of development requirements in the Kingdom. Al-Obaid concluded that none of the technical/vocational programmes' output in the secondary schools reached the planning goals of the Second Five-Year Plan (1975-1980) referring to the supply of the needed manpower. He stated that the number of secondary school graduates in commercial studies exceeded its estimates in this plan, while industrial and agricultural education did not attain their estimates (46).

The Third Development Plan (1980-1985) also highlights the imbalance in enrolment in different types of secondary

school. The plan asserts that there is still a continuing bias towards general as opposed to technical/vocational education in addition to the problem of declining enrolment as more students proceed to general education (47).

5.3.3.7 Women's Education

As explained earlier in this section, women's education in Saudi Arabia is identical in its administrative organisation to that of men's. The administration and provisions with regard to the curriculum and textbooks prescribed by the central authority are virtually the same for boys' and girls' general secondary schools. But at the secondary schools, however, girls no longer do physical education, and are obliged to study home economics and child-care.

They are not offered parallel technical/vocational education as boys. It is a widely held opinion among the Saudis that vocational training should be made available for women in the fields of teaching, nursing, social work and domestic science. Even in the four spheres of the teaching profession, in the medical services, and in domestic soience and social work, the Saudi woman is permitted to play a role as long as it does not entail contact with persons outside her family. This attitude towards women's opportunities in vocational education and employment was interpreted by A. Dearden, 1976, and he gauged that it was met either with indifference or hostility by men because presumably offering women more opportunities would result in their emancipation (48).

Sometimes negative actions are taken to prevent women from working in the public sector. For example, work in offices by women has been frowned upon and in 1973 companies

were asked officially to dismiss their women staff and employ men instead. As a result several Saudi women lost their jobs with foreign firms, but with remarkable persistence they have since quietly found similar other jobs (49). Now a growing number of educated women are joining the labour market. This does not mean that such male attitudes towards educated women's effective participation in the national development have changed. There are still women of very higher educational attainment who are obliged to remain restricted to a limited sphere of employment.

Since 1975 there has, however, been a recognition among official circles to bring about changes in the attitudes towards women's participation in work. This can be deduced from the observation that most official documents, The Second (1975-80), Third (1980-85) and Fourth (1985-90) Development Plans lay stress on women's participation in the labour force (50). As in the case of male workers, it appears that the major consideration remains to acquire self-sufficiency and to obviate the need to recruit female workers from abroad. It has been recorded that soon there will be many thousands of educated Saudi women and that it would be better from the economic point of view to consider utilising this portion of the labour force through ideal methods and in accordance with the traditions, customs and labour laws, instead of resorting to recruitment from abroad (51).

If the Kingdom's policy of utilising an almost solely native labour force works effectively, this would herald a breakthrough for Saudi women.

5.4 Conclusion

The Gulf Arab States have developed systems of modern education and made education available for all children (male and female).

The stated general aims of education in these states emphasise both education as a human right and for societal prosperity. But, before 1975, the former was given more consideration and was translated into tremendous quantitative growth. This progress can be observed in the expansion of secondary education. However, over the years, though secondary education expanded considerably, yet it has not been able to cope with growing labour market demands as a result of changes introduced in the economic sector elaborated in Chapter Four. The changes in the economy and in society as a whole were not matched by similar changes in the secondary education systems and the diversified institutions especially the general secondary school with which this study is concerned.

Prior to 1975, government policies in the states under study left access to the general secondary school open to all intermediate graduates (almost 90 per cent of the total). But these policies had not been accompanied by necessary changes in the curriculum of this school. It has remained rigid and heavily biased towards academic studies and catered only for students who wished to pursue higher education. As a result, general secondary school graduates had qualifications which were not related to the skills required in the job market.

These policies also led to the eclipse of the technical/vocational secondary schools which remained under-subscribed in spite of government efforts to bolster this kind of secondary education.

To conclude, before 1975, diversified secondary education schools existed and the academic type of school was the favourite among the majority of students and parents who considered it as a means of going on to the university and the best chance of public sector employment in the long run. These states, however, did not incorporate any of the principles or practices of comprehensive schools described in Chapters Two and Three.

After 1975 and under the changes introduced in their economics which created a demand for personnel trained for middle and high level occupations, these states realised that economic changes should be matched by changes in the education offered at the second and third levels. Some of these policies have been mainly directed to the general (academic) secondary school which caters for the majority of students in second level education. Governments have adopted policies to re-organise curriculum and have attempted to diversify them to include academic and technical/vocational specialisations so as to match the skills learned in school with those needed in the labour market. The adopted policies will be examined in each individual state in the following chapter.

Chapter Five

References and Notes

(1) Amnesty International, British Section, The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Amnesty International, British Section Publication, U.K., 1983, p. 31.

(2) Ibid., p. 34.

(3)(a) State of Bahrain, Constitution of the State of Bahrain, (trans.) Gulf Public Relations Translation Services, Bahrain, 1974, p. 4.

(b) Kuwait, Al-Majlis Al-Ta'sīsī, Distur Dawlat al-Kuwaiyat wa-qanun al-A'ntikhab, (Kuwait Constitution and Election Legislations, Kuwait), 1962, p. 5.

(4) Unesco, Educational Goals - I.B.E.: Studies and Surveys in Comparative Education, Unesco, Paris, 1980, p. 59.

(5) Ibid., p. 63.

(6) Mallinson, V., An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education, 4th ed., Heinemann, London, 1975, p. 98.

(7) Ibid., p. 98.

(8) Al-Mana, A., Economic Development and its impact on the Status of Women in Saudi Arabia, (unpublished thesis), University of Colorado, U.S.A., 1981, p. 171.

(9) Birks, J.B., Rimmer, J.A., Developing Education Systems in the Oil States of Arabia: Conflicts of Purpose and Focus, Centre for Middle Eastern and Islamic Studies, University of Durham, U.K., 1984, pp. 13-26.

(10) Ministry of Education, Education Development in Bahrain from 1980-1981 to 1982-1983. A Report Presented to the International Conference on Education held in Geneva from 16-25 October 1984, Ministry of Education Publication, Bahrain, 1984, pp. 1-2.

(11) Indian Office Library, Correspondence Between British Agency in Bahrain and Sir Trenchard Fowle - Political Resident in the Arabian (Persian) Gulf, Bushire, Archive P.I.DO Noc/443 IB/5 22nd July 1939, U.K. p. 1.

(12) Vallance, A.C.R.L., Report on Education in Bahrain, Arch. Vol. 78 - 19/248 - 22.7.1939 - 3.6. 1940, Indian Office Library, U.K., p. 33.

(13) Ibid., p. 35.

(14) Bahrain Department of Education, Annual Report on Conditions of Education in the Emirate of Bahrain, 1952, Daar El-'Alam El-Arabi, Cairo, Egypt, 1952, p. 22.

(15) State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Report on Secondary Education 1971-72, Bahrain, 1972, p. 13.

(16) Vallance, A.C.R.L. Report on Education in Bahrain, P.V. 83 - 1.12.1941 - 31.8. 1945, Arch. R15/373-19/248 - 111 Vol.C. 88, Indian Office Library, U.K., p.8.

(17) Ibid., p. 11.

(18) Ibid., p. 19.

(19) Al-Umran, A.A., "Report on Education 1965-1966", The Government Annual Report, Bahrain, 1966, p. 5.

(20) Bahrain, Education Department, Report on Technical Education in Bahrain, Bahrain, 1966, p. 6.

(21) State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Report on Secondary Education - 1971/72, Bahrain, 1972, p. 13.

(22) Dundas, G.A.F., A Report on G.A.F. Dundas' Tour to Kuwait, 28th September - 14th October 1939, Outline of Educational Activities in Kuwait, Archive No. 15/1/545 Vol. D154, Education at Kuwait, from 4.5.1936 - 31.12.1940, The Indian Office Library, U.K., p. 2.

(23) Vallance, A.C.R.L., Report on Government Education in Kuwait, October 1940 - A Report to Major A.C. Galloway, The Agency Kuwait (184-199), Archive No. 15/1/545 - Vol. D154. The Indian Office Library, U.K., p. 7.

(24) Nath, K., "Education and Employment among Kuwaiti Women", in Beck, L., Women in the Muslim World, Harvard University Press, London, 1979, p. 116.

(25) Lajinat Dirāsat Nizām al-Muqararāt Bi-il marhala al-Thanāwiyh.
Al-La'a'hah al-a'sāsiyha Li-Thanawiyat Sabāh Sālam al-Sabāh 1978-1979, The Document of Sabah Salem Al-Sabah Secondary School: 1978-79), The Ministry of Education Publication, Kuwait, 1978, p. 9.

(26) Al-Markaz Al-'Arabi Lil-Buhūth al-Tarbawiya-t Li-Diwal Al-Khalij: Al- a'tjahāt al Hadiyth-t fi al Taa'lim al-thanawi bi Diwal al Khalij al-'Arabi Dirasah Mashiha Wathaiqiha. (The Recent Trends in Secondary Education in the Gulf Arab States - A Census and Documented Study) Vol. I, Arab Bureau of Education for The Gulf Arab States Publication, Kuwait, 1981, pp. 8-9.

(27) Dundas, G.A.F., op.cit., p. 132.

(28) Ibid., pp. 133-134.

(29) Bustan, A.A., Recent Trends in the Kuwaiti Educational System, A Report submitted to the Third Cultural Week of Universities at the National University of Malaysia, January 28 - February 4, 1982, p. 12.

(30) El-Essa, S.Y., The Manpower Problem in Kuwait, Kegan Paul International, London, 1981, p. 77.

(31) Meleis, A.I., El-Sanabary N., and Beeson, D., "Women - Modernization and Education in Kuwait" in Comparative Education Review, Vol. 23, No. 1., February 1979, The Comparative and International Education Society, U.S.A., 1979, pp. 120-122.

(32) El-Essa, S.Y., op.cit., p. 66.

(33) Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, The Educational Policy in the Saudi Arabian Kingdom, the Ministry of Education Publication, Saudi Arabia, 1974, pp. 19-20.

(34) Muhessan Ali Abdul-Rahman al-Sawi (born in Sumatra) can be recognised as the pioneer of female education. He opened the first girls' school in 1362 A.H. (1943 A.D.) in Makkah. The school was under the supervision of Daal al-'Alum el-Dinyiah (The Institute of Religious Studies) in Makkah. King Faisal opened the first girls' school in Jeddah in 1375 A.H. (1955 A.D.). All schools opened before 1960 offered elementary education and were financed by public funds.

The Al-Zahraa' school, 1378 A.H. (1958 A.D.), in Makkah was the first school which extended its education for girls beyond elementary level. In 1380-1381 A.H. (1960-61 A.D.) classes were opened for secondary education (Cycle I) and later three-year Cycle II classes were begun. Therefore Al-Zahna school was the first secondary school for girls which offered secular education. Unfortunately the school was closed because of administrative and financial problems. Before the Presidency of Girls' Education establishment (1969) it is estimated that the number of girls' private schools had risen to 15, five in Makkah, three in Riyadh, six in Jeddah and one in Damma, but only two of them offered secondary level education.

Al-Baghdadi, A.A., al-a'ntālaqah al-Ta'alimiyah fi al-mamelakah al-Sudiyah al-'arabiyh - a'usulaha, Juthūrah wa a'wlywitiha - (Education in Saudi Arabia - Origins, Roots and Priorities, Daar al-Shrook for Printing, Saudi Arabia, 1982, p. 20.

(35) Ibid., p. 204.

(36) Shukri, A.I., The Development of Formal Education in Saudi Arabia with Particular Reference to Social Economic Change, (Unpublished M.A. Dissertation), University of London, Institute of Education, U.K., 1965, p. 47.

(37) The Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States, The New Trends in Secondary Education in the Gulf Arab States - A Census and Documented Study, op.cit., p. 90.

(38) Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia - A Statistical Review 1385-1397 A.H. (1965-1977 A.D.), National offset Printing Press, Saudi Arabia, 1978, pp. 75-76.

(39) Al-Mani, M.A., and Al-Sabit, A.R., Studies and Documents in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Unesco Press, Paris, 1981, p. 22.

(40) Al-Jamaz, S., "T'adeel Shāmel li-Barānj al-Ta'alīm li le Marhalah al-thanawiyah fi al-mamemlakah" ("The General Reorganisation of General Secondary Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia"), The Daily Al-Riyadh, No. 5337, Tuesday, 25th January, 1983, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, p. 5.

(41) Harby, M.K., "Technical Education in the Arab States" Educational Studies and Documents, No. 53, Unesco Publication, Paris, 1960, p. 32.

(42) Shukri, A.I., The Development of Formal Education in Saudi Arabia with Particular Reference to Social and Economic Change, op.cit., p. 106.

(43) Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia, op.cit., pp. 87-90.

(44) Al-Obaid, A.S., Human Resources Development in Saudi Arabia: A Case of Technical Manpower Programmes and Needs, (Unpublished Ed.D. Dissertation), Oklahoma State University, U.S.A., 1979, pp. 78 and 90.

(45) Ibid., p. 92.

(46) Ibid., p. 110.

(47) Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Planning, The Third Development Plan 1980-1985, Ministry of Planning Publication, Saudi Arabia, 1980, p. 291.

(48) Dearden, A., Arab Women - Minority Rights Grouo - Report No. 27, U.K., 1976, p. 10.

(49) Ibid., p. 11.

(50) The first chapter of The Second Development Plan 1975-1980 stresses this aspect. The Plan states:

"Female participation by Saudis has been assumed as increasing from one per cent as of 1969-1970 to 5 per cent by 1989-1990. Female participation by non-Saudis has been assumed as continuing at the present estimated rate of seven per cent. These projections show a labour force of 2.88 million by 1989-1999, about 76 per cent of which would be Saudia. Of course, this proportion could be increased dramatically were women to enter the labour force to any significant degree. If a 20 per cent participation rate by Saudi women were to be achieved by 1989-1999, with a concurrent reduction in the non-Saudi labour force enrolment, Saudis would account for 81 per cent of

the total labour force.

Bureau of International Commerce, Saudi Arabia Five-Plan, 1975-1980, Central Planning Organisation, Saudi Arabia, 1975, p. 7.

(51) Dearden, A., op.cit., p. 11.

Chapter Six

REORGANISATION OF GENERAL SECONDARY EDUCATION IN BAHRAIN, KUWAIT AND SAUDI ARABIA

6.1 Introduction

The study of the established systems of secondary education in the Gulf Arab States has clearly shown that the general secondary schools which had emerged with the introduction of modern education in Bahrain and Kuwait in the 1930s and in Saudi Arabia in the 1950s were inadequate, particularly in producing an indigenous work force. The economic and technological needs of these states demanded an educational system which was more geared to the training of technical skills among their youth at the secondary level schooling. The greater number of the youth, however, entered the general academic instead of the technical schools. The technical schools that were in operation remained limited in their enrolment despite the government's efforts to develop their structure, curricula and staffing.

To solve these problems, the governments of all the three states adopted a policy to reorganise their secondary education. This policy is mainly directed towards the general secondary school which caters for almost 90 per cent of the intermediate school's graduates. The broad aim of the reorganisation of this school is to bring about a more integrated secondary education so as to help remove the artificial apathy that had developed among youth against manual work and hence against technical/vocational types of education.

In fact, the policies in Bahrain and Saudi Arabia do not call for the abolition of the specialised technical/vocational schools, while in Kuwait, however, these types of institutions have been upgraded to the higher education since 1972.

The reorganisation of the general secondary school in these states is directed to the curriculum rather than towards its structure and organisation. Its aim was to diversify its curriculum to include vocational/technical as well as academic specialisations because it was desired by the policy-makers that not all general secondary graduates should be enrolled in universities and some should be tracked into higher institutions of vocational/technical education. The need was also recognised to introduce some specialisations for students who terminated their education at the second level of schooling.

It seems that the reorganisation of the general secondary school curriculum has not been on identical lines everywhere. Each individual state has attempted to reorganise its school by introducing some features of the comprehensive school model operating in a specific western country. For example, in Bahrain, certain aspects of the Swedish integrated comprehensive secondary school have been implemented, while in Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, the bias has been towards introducing features of the American Comprehensive High School.

This chapter will, therefore, concern itself with an investigation of the policies concerning diversification of the general secondary school curriculum and the different modes of their implementation in each state in order to see, on the one hand, if the policies implemented have been based on detailed knowledge of the specific initial conditions of these states which are considered by Holmes as fundamental for policy adoption and implementation, and on the other hand, to highlight whether or not the'practical actions'into the general secondary school curriculum have led to the achievement of desired objectives.

This investigation will attempt to draw a profile of

each state's comprehensive secondary school in terms of the government's policies, curriculum structure and content, methods of teaching and grouping practices, guidance and counselling, evaluation of students' achievements and teachers - their education and qualifications. What follows deals with these aspects in Bahrain.

6.2 The General Secondary School in Bahrain

6.2.1 Government Policy towards General Secondary Education

The need to change the government's policy of admission to the general secondary school was recognised by the policy-makers in 1977 when some criteria of selection for different types of secondary school were adopted to meet manpower requirements in different occupations. On the other hand, the new policy stressed on the diversification of the general secondary school curriculum to include different specialisations (theoretical and pre-vocational streams).

The new policy of admission to different types of secondary school and to various specialisations within one school and the curricula reforms was viewed as the best way to:

(1) provide the students with the best type of education to suit their personal abilities;

(2) provide education necessary for different occupations;

(3) broaden the range of subjects in order to help students to choose the kind of education most suitable to their abilities;

(4) meet the increasing need for trained technical and professional manpower (1).

The Ministry of Education's five year plan (1979/80 - 1983/84) approved by the cabinet, explains this policy in detail.

It envisages a reduction of the percentage of students in the general secondary school from 63.7 to 35.0 for boys and from 80.0 to 45.0 for girls, and a corresponding increase in the number of commercial and industrial students. The plan for secondary education is part of the government's attempt to redress the imbalance between secondary education, on the one hand, and the needs of the country and the wishes of the students on the other hand, while taking into account the existing educational facilities.

In the general secondary school, the plan states that in the allocation to various streams, the interests of the student should be given priority although their intellectual ability should also be considered, particularly where the sciences and arts streams are concerned (2). Figure No. 14 shows the various streams included in the Plan.

The Plan explains in detail the implementation procedure (Appendix No. 12). While Appendix No. 13 shows the estimated number of students in different streams and when certain streams ought to be introduced.

During the first two years of the reorganisation, 1979-1981, the main activities were:

- survey studies and analysis of the actual conditions existing within the secondary education system;
- building up new curricula for science, commerce, health services, hotel, tailoring and art streams;
- giving career guidance to all students in the third year of intermediate school;
- carrying through the first and second seminars on development of secondary education and other training activities;

- preparing organisation plans and schedules for general and commercial schools;
- implementation of the new curricula in the first grade of secondary schools (3).

During the first two years of the project's implementation 1979-1981, the Unesco expert* highlighted the following problems in his report:

- some specialisations were not set up as they were scheduled in the original plan (Hotel and Catering and Textile and Clothing were postponed because students were reluctant to join);
- career guidance still left a great deal to be desired;
- only small changes had been brought about in technical/vocational courses newly introduced, and
- extra-curricula activities had not yet been properly organised in some schools (4).

Therefore, in 1982, the Ministry of Education through the Commission of Secondary Education Development tried to find the appropriate means to solve these problems. For example, concerning career guidance, a Central Career Guidance Unit was established to supervise and devise programmes of careers education in all secondary schools. However, the role of this unit in respect of career guidance is explained in Appendix No. 14.

---

* In 1978, an agreement on a Funds in Trust basis was signed by the Government of Bahrain and Unesco to recruit a specialist in secondary education development to advise and assist the 1977 Commission of Secondary Education Development in the execution of its duties.

6.2.2 Content of the Curriculum

On the whole, content of the curriculum of the general secondary school is still expressed largely in terms of subjects. It comprises different streams (specialisations) instead of the previous theoretical ones - i.e. arts and sciences sections. It is anticipated by the policy-makers that new design of specialisations aim at preparing students for higher studies and for employment immediately on leaving school.

According to the Ministry of Education Five Year Plan (1979-1984), students are required to study core subjects regardless of their choice of specialisations throughout the three years. These core subjects include religious education, Arabic language, English language and physical education.

The curriculum is diversified into the following streams: arts, sciences, nursing and health services, hotel and catering, home economics, agriculture and livestock breeding (started in 1982), printing and hairdressing (started in 1983).

The arts stream is divided into the following four branches: languages, economics and office practice, home economics and fine arts. The sciences stream has two branches: physics and mathematics and chemistry and biology. Tables Nos. 31 and 32 show the curriculum plan for the arts and sciences streams through the three years of secondary education.

In 1980-81, nursing and health sciences was introduced in cooperation with the Ministry of Health. Students joining this section are offered the theoretical subjects at the general secondary school (Table No. 33), but the training aspects of the curriculum are carried out and supervised by the teaching staff at Bahrain College of Medical Sciences. After their graduation, students are eligible to join this college or the labour market.

The curriculum plan for other streams - hotel and catering, textile and clothing, agriculture and livestock breeding, printing - are designed in a similar way in cooperation with the ministries concerned as in nursing and health sciences. Table No. 34 illustrates subjects offered in these streams.

One of the most important features of the general secondary school curriculum at the present is the inclusion of free-choice subjects (electives). The main objective of introducing these subjects is to give students the opportunity to acquire knowledge and skills of certain subjects that may not be included in their specialisation requirements (5). For example, Table No. 41 shows the free choice subjects in Arts and Sciences streams. However, certain constraints are imposed on schools such as that certain requirements should be met, for example, groups for certain choices should contain not less than eight students. This is justified as a kind of precaution against staff wastage. Schools are free to drop out or limit the free-choice subjects if neither teachers nor teaching facilities are available. Normally a student should not change his free-choice subject between the first and second grade. But in some cases it will be inevitable and in other cases it is advisable for the student's best interests (6). This created some problems, especially during the first year of implementation (1979-80). For instance, second grade students who were allowed to change their free choice could not be taught with first grade students owing to scheduling difficulties. The techniques of teaching students on different levels at the same time obviously needs teachers who have the competence to deal with such teaching conditions. Integration of first and second years can be accomplished in typing, fine arts, home economics, science,

music and office practice where individualised learning may be adopted. While for French, social studies and pure mathematics, integration was considered impossible to achieve, because students should pass certain tests and acquire previous knowledge and skills to further pursue these subjects (7).

Electronic, electricity and car repair subjects are to be taught in technical schools' workshops either in the morning or in the afternoon. This has resulted in overloading technical schools' capacities, and wastage of students' school day due to transportation and moving from one set of premises to others. In addition, few teachers are qualified to teach these subjects. As a result the Ministry is forced to set up special afternoon groups composed of students from different schools.

Certain regulations have been introduced in the arts streams concerning free-choice subjects. For instance, first year students who take French or home economics as free-choice subjects are not allowed to take them in the second year. Instead they are recommended to take sciences; but there are no restrictions concerning fine arts subjects throughout the three years' course.

In spite of numerous efforts by the Ministry of Education to reform the curriculum content to match with the aims and objectives of curriculum diversification of this school, only a little has been achieved. The curriculum content, however, has not gone through fundamental changes to go in line with the new policy of secondary education. H.A. Sylati states that most of curriculum projects initiated so far were mainly promoted by subject specialists in the ministry who were mostly concerned with updating the content rather than with identifying the students who are having difficulties with the present curriculum or the most

urgent needs of society (8).

Since its establishment in 1980, the Directorate of Curriculum Improvement and Instructional Media has carried out some surveys in the general secondary school curriculum to measure if the new policy of curriculum diversification has been implemented and whether effective changes have been accomplished.

In 1981, the Directorate conducted a questionnaire survey of first year curriculum in both boys' and girls' general secondary schools and directed at the teachers, national and non-national, who were responsible for implementing the new syllabuses for the new subjects and specialisations introduced in these schools. The purpose of the survey was to find out if changes had actually taken place in the school curriculum and also to chart teachers' attitudes towards the curricula reforms and those training courses organised to familiarise them with the intended reforms. The report on this survey reveals that there were considerable discrepancies between what actually took place in the school and the basic intentions of the new reforms. For instance, academic subjects maintain their status over the prevocational ones with the teachers themselves giving them more time and attention. Even periods allocated for extra-curricula activities were used by most teachers as extra periods to teach academic subjects (9).

Teachers' responses to questions concerning the new syllabuses were not informative. About 80 per cent of them stated that the objectives mentioned in syllabuses were 'clear and understandable' (10). The vagueness of this appraisal clearly indicates that most teachers are not sufficiently qualified to evaluate certain objectives in a systematic manner. This is attributed to two reasons. First, although the majority

of them were university graduates, their training as teachers was limited. Second, despite the Ministry's effort to organise short courses to train and instruct teachers in the implementation of the new syllabuses in schools, about 50 per cent of them were not keen to attend these courses. They justified their absence by alleging that the courses were repetitive and their timing unsuitable for them. They proposed that such courses should be organised in advance before new syllabuses were introduced in schools and should concentrate on their teaching problems.

However, a review of the questionnaire's content shows that it was designed in a very broad way and it did not focus on the content of subjects newly introduced. For instance, most of the first section's questions were about the printing of the textbooks, size of the type, graphs and the clarity of pictures and the textbooks' general appearance rather than on investigating teachers' opinion concerning the content, selected and decided centrally has matched with the students' and society's needs and coincided with the adopted objectives of diversification.

In 1982, the Unit of Curriculum Research within the Directorate of Curriculum Improvement and Instructional Media designed a survey questionnaire for students who experienced the new reorganisation of the curriculum in the first and second-year general secondary (boys and girls in sciences, arts, commercial and health sciences streams). The questionnaire involved 550 students and 418 responded, about 80.78 per cent of the total. Table No. 35 shows the number of students in each year and stream. The objective of this questionnaire survey was to investigate the students' views concerning the

changes which were introduced in the curriculum.

The survey reveals that repetition characterised syllabuses such as Arabic language, history and social sciences. Students felt that certain subjects were not allocated enough periods to adequately cover the courses - i.e. mathematics, physics, biology, physical education, accounting and typing for instance (11).

Concerning subjects offered with individual streams (specialisation), 50 per cent of the students in the commerce stream claimed that the subjects they were taught did not satisfy their interests and future job requirements because their content was irrelevant to the changes taking place in commerce and banking within the state. About 84.8 per cent of them saw general sciences in particular as a subject not relevant to their specialisation. About 70 per cent of students in the nursing and health sciences stream pointed out that the theoretical subjects they were taught in their school were not related to the practical ones they took at the Bahrain College of Medical Sciences. Students in the arts stream also expressed their dissatisfaction and viewed subjects such as mathematics and sciences as irrelevant to their specialisation (12).

In fact, the students' negative attitude towards certain subjects, especially those in the art streams, has been inherited from the old system which excluded them from studying such subjects which only used to be offered to those who enrolled in the scientific section.

As this survey seeked the students' views concerning the curriculum organisations, they suggested the following:

(a) introducing the course system and dividing the school's year into two terms to avoid repetition of materials

during the whole year;

(b) providing schools with new equipment needed for the sciences stream;

(c) organising extra-curricula activities and field visits to different establishments to make students familiar with society's organisations and places of occupation (13).

In general, the Unit of Curriculum Research's surveys were based on questionnaires to collect information regarding diversified curricula in the general secondary school. Their findings were usually stated in a descriptive and statistical way and included little analytical data concerning the diversified curricula and the national socio-economic objectives adopted.

It is obviously necessary at this stage of implementation that the Unit in charge of Curriculum research adopts more than one technique of investigation to evaluate the modified syllabuses.

Most of the efforts made to modify and develop curriculum content were the responsibility of the subject's specialists in the Ministry and teachers were not directly involved in the process of curriculum development. Instead of having prefabricated syllabuses thrust upon them, teachers should be familiarised with the content of the subjects they are supposed to teach. Their involvement in the process of curriculum development may enhance positive results in curriculum implementation.

As stated earlier, the Ministry of Education has enforced curricula changes in the general secondary schools on a national level. But the expenditure on certain pilot studies on curriculum is very high, therefore, at present, there is a tendency among the policy-makers in the Ministry to avoid risk in implementing certain projects on a national level before they prove their validity on a small scale experiment, then they are dis-

seminated in all general secondary schools.

In addition to the cost of certain curriculum projects, most general secondary schools in Bahrain are not purpose-built to accomodate the curriculum changes. To implement thoroughly a diversified curriculum does not only mean the supply of new textbooks and syllabuses, it must be accompanied by a series of software components and specialised equipment that may well prove to be a corner stone in the implementation of the reform.

As a partial solution, at this stage, the Ministry approved the Unesco expert's proposals (1982) to use Shaikh Abdul Aziz Secondary School for Boys for experimenting pilot studies on curriculum. This school was chosen because it is to some extent a purpose-built school. It is also in a central area of the capital and students have easy access to facilities around, such as the main port, new industrial complexes, business and banks.

During the academic year 1983-84, in addition to subjects and various specialisations offered in all general secondary schools, new subjects were introduced on an experimental basis in this school. For example, a basic course in computer science as a free-choice was experimented with. It was offered on a very small scale,being restricted to two groups of students who achieved good marks in mathematics and English in their first year of study. Another area of experimentation was in fine arts courses in which film production and video usages were introduced. A third area was in environmental studies. However, the computer sciences and film productions and video usages have not yet been disseminated because most schools do not have the facilities and equipment for their implementation, while the subject of environmental studies, on the other hand, is introduced throughout all schools.

5.2.3 Methods of Teaching and Grouping Practices

The diversification of the general secondary school curriculum has not been accompanied with fundamental changes in grouping practices and methods of teaching.

On the whole, the traditional method of allocating students into arts and sciences sections has been replaced by allocating them to different separated streams. They are usually in heterogenously composed classes within their specialisations until their graduation.

Integration among students from different steams is minimal. However, schools are directed to enhance integration among students in separated streams through extra-curricula activities. They are directed to scheduled periods of these activities at the same time for all streams throughout the school to give students more opportunities to practice their hobbies, develop their individual needs and to have more contact with students in various specialisations. Unfortunately, such arrangements have not worked out as anticipated because most teachers either use these periods for giving extra tuition (as previously mentioned), in the academic subjects or organise special remedial classes for students with difficulties in foreign languages. So the extra-curricula activities are almost neglected.

Regardless of the official efforts to enforce changes in teaching/learning methods, talk and chalk method is the dominant method which is used by the majority of teachers. Individual initiative in the process of learning is almost neglected. For instance, during their work in laboratories, students are not given the opportunity to experiment and investigate on their own. Teachers themselves demonstrate the experiments and students

observe. Few teachers, in fact, encourage their students to work in groups even if the equipment and materials are sufficient.

What is needed for the time being is sufficient initial and in-service training courses in modern methods of teaching such as learning by doing and individual learning which aim at the development of the whole personality of the learners which is one of the objectives that the general secondary school aspires to achieve.

Although the Ministry is pouring a lot of new equipment and manufacturing teaching aids into school, teachers are not trained to utilise them. Most of the secondary schools depend on one of the administrative staff to operate equipment when they need it. It is essential to organise in-service courses on the usage of aid-equipment available at schools rather than let it be stored and so deteriorate.

6.2.4 Guidance and Counselling

Generally speaking, all general secondary schools are provided with social welfare officers whose main functions are to cater for students' welfare and do some work in the field of educational guidance.

However, the concept of career education, as that element in the school programme more especially concerned with living and working in the adult world, was not put into practice when the new policy of reorganisation was implemented though this policy stresses the linking of the school's curriculum to the world of work outside the school.

After three years of the policy implementation, 1979-1981, it was realised by the Bahraini Ministry of Education that schools paid no attention to career education. Therefore,

in 1982, the Central Career Guidance Unit was established and was put in charge of planning and supervising career education and vocational guidance programmes. The Unit's first initiative was to hold a general seminar for teachers and social welfare officers to inform them about career education and vocational guidance and how it should be organised in schools. However, the general revision of the seminar content which lasted 25 days (Appendix No. 15) reveals that most of the seminar activities had concentrated on study visits for educational, social and commercial establishments. The theoretical aspects of the seminar were concerned more with the general conditions of the Bahraini education system rather than with concepts and skills related to Guidance and Counselling which the participants were supposed to be exposed to.

Since 1982, arrangements for career education and vocational guidance are made through the Central Career Guidance Unit which organises activities to provide students with knowledge of the labour market. It coordinates its activities with the Administrative staff and the social welfare officers. The activities, however, include arranging lectures by representatives of companies, banks and ministries and organising occasional visits to places of work to make students familiar with working conditions. However, the output of these activities is minimal and not sustained because the response of such companies and banks is optional and not regulated.

The Bahraini general secondary school needs to develop school-based programmes including conventional guidance and counselling, career education and work experience to provide more information to students about the labour market. It also needs counsellors who have sufficient training and are well aware of

the labour market conditions to function effectively.

6.2.5 Evaluation of Students' Achievements

Prior to 1978, the most predominent method of evaluating students' achievement was by written tests and examinations which were mainly developed in relation to intellectual-cognitive subjects. This is due to the fact that these subjects occupy the heart of the secondary school curriculum. Students' ability however, was usually measured on the ability to recall what they had studied in the written examinations.

All third-year students in the general secondary school were eligible to sit for general examinations regardless of their particular capacities. Having succeeded in these general examinations, students were awarded the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). If a student failed one subject and got the highest marks in the rest, he had to re-sit all the examinations again and waste another year of his life.

Re-sit examinations were only held for the promotion classes on the following conditions:

(a) those who passed most subjects and only failed in one or two had to be re-examined in the failed subjects within which they had to obtain at least the passing grade;

(b) those who failed to get 50 per cent of the whole total of the maximum marks, but got passing grades in all subjects, had the right to choose a subject or two in the re-sit examinations to cover the whole total to 50 per cent (14).

Following improvements in the general secondary school curriculum, the Ministry of Education had found it necessary to

modify its system of evaluation and examination. So, in 1983, according to the Ministerial Decision No. 25/168-1/83, new regulations for examination and assessment were introduced. These regulations, however, were accompanied with the reorganisation of the academic year which was divided into two semesters. The regulations emphasise that:

(a) the continuous assessment of students' performance should be considered throughout the whole semester;

(b) regular and mid-semester tests as well as final semester examinations should be offered;

(c) students' results in each semester should be calculated according to the following system: 30 per cent of the semester's total mark is for the daily work including the regular tests; 20 per cent for mid-semester tests and 50 per cent of the total mark is for the final semester examinations (15).

The regulations also include conditions for the re-sit examinations and students' promotion to higher classes. For instance, a student is promoted to a higher class on condition that he passes all subjects or, having failed in one, has passed the Arabic language and his specialised subjects. Students promoted to higher classes according to these conditions, should attend remedial lessons with at least 75 per cent attendance and re-sit the final examinations for the subjects they failed (16).

However, the new regulations are not radical and do not coincide with the objectives of the policy of the diversification of the general secondary school curriculum. They emphasise the continuous evaluation of students' progress throughout the whole semester, but this progress is interpreted in terms of their achievement in teacher-organised written tests which are allocated

more than 80 per cent of the total semester marks.

Most of these tests stress on checking students' ability to recall learned facts and opinions and little effort is made to generating adequate means of assessing abilities and skills such as the artistic-aesthetic, affective-emotional, physical-manual and personal-social. Though the Directorate of Curriculum Development and Instructional Media claims that it has put into practice the framework for educational objectives put forward by B. Bloom, D. Krathwohl and A.J. Harrow for the cognitive, effective and psychomotor domains in designing the new syllabuses for the general secondary school, most teachers do not have the appropriate experience to apply this framework either in teaching or in assessing their students.

To conclude, there is an urgent need for a more effective assessment and guidance programme in the general secondary schools and in particular the pre-vocational subjects which are still evaluated on the same bases as the academic ones. Students also need to be aware and engaged in self-analysis and appraisal. This will increase their involvement so that they may cope better with their choice of specialisations and will be encouraged to try to benefit as much as they can from their future occupational choices because the existing system of examination has deflected students' education from its proper purposes.

As a matter of fact, parents as well as society still recognise the importance of the general examinations and their offsprings' success in them can be of considerable help in getting a good job or winning a place at the institutions of higher education, either within the state or abroad. Changing of this attitude is a long process and demands extra effort

from all those who are concerned with educational policies and their implementation.

6.2.6 Teachers: Their Education and Qualifications

Since 1973, the Ministry of Education has inaugurated a plan to Bahrainise the teaching staff and to raise the standard of the profession, but the plan has not achieved its objectives because the policy of expanding the education system and its institutions has forced the government to depend on expatriate teachers (Arab and non-Arab) to fulfil its policy. However, the dependence upon non-national teachers is the lowest compared to Kuwait and Saudi Arabia.

Concerning the standard of the indigenous teachers in the secondary schools, the majority of them are university graduates without any kind of teacher training. Table No. 36 shows that Bahraini teachers who have teaching training are few compared to the total number of secondary school teachers.

Prior to 1978, there were no special institutions in Bahrain for training secondary school teachers. There were however, two Teacher Training Colleges to train elementary teachers but the course only lasted two years. With the attempt to localise the teaching profession and integrate all forms of teacher education into higher education, the Ministry of Education with the cooperation of UNESCO set up the University College of Arts, Sciences and Education (UCB) in 1978-79. The U.C.B. at present, is responsible for pre-service and in-service of teacher education with the cooperation of the Directorate of Training within the Ministry of Education.

The initial education and training at the U.C.B. is diversified and aims to qualify teachers for elementary, inter-

mediate and secondary schools and the length of courses offered is four years after the preparatory programme*.

The teacher training programme for elementary teachers includes academic, educational, psychological and professional courses. For those who intend to teach in secondary schools, double majors with teaching training are available. The study plan of the double majors make it possible for the prospective teachers to acquire mastery of a subject and to simultaneously obtain teaching qualifications.

In general, the content of the training programmes have been impported and are similar to training programmes operating in the Egyptian colleges of teacher education. Little effort has been made to modify and adapt them to the changing local conditions of Bahrain's schools and society. For example, the reorganisation of the general secondary education has not affected the content of the teacher education and training programmes at the U.C.B. The 1982 Unesco Mission's Report on the teacher education in Bahrain criticised these programmes. The report states that they are not linked to the changes taking place at schools and the implementation of recent policies. It argues that teaching in schools in Bahrain will not be improved by academic training alone. As a matter of fact, the obvious starting point for better teacher training is that such training must be in the service of schools and ought to be linked to its objectives (17).

---

* The preparatory programme is designed to provide concentrated preparation in Arabic, English, French, mathematics and the sciences and to enable students to make a smooth transition from secondary school to college.

It seems as schools' curricula are in the process of revision and modification, it is essential to adapt the programmes of teacher education to changes which demand new skills and a different kind of professional knowledge. Extra care is necessary in recruiting teacher training instructors because national teachers are largely taught and trained by non-nationals who ought to be familiar with changes taking place in Bahrain. Close links with those in charge of teacher education at the U.C.B. and all who are concerned with education in schools and the ministry will lead to coordinating all efforts to raise the standard of the profession quantatitively and qualatitively.

Teacher education and training is not limited to the prospective teachers but it includes those in the profession. Attempts, however, have been made to introduce in-service training for secondary school teachers and the 1973 plan of Bahrainising the teaching staff did consider this aspect.

Before 1978, teachers who were nominated by the ministry for extra-professional training were usually sent abroad. Since 1980, candidates usually attend either a programme leading to the post-graduate Diploma in Education at the U.C.B. or some refresher courses organised by the Directorate of In-Service Training. The majority of the teachers and administrators who won the Ministry's scholarship prefer to pursue their higher studies in their specialisations abroad despite the U.C.B.'s attempts to organise higher studies courses such as M.Ed. in sciences.

Since 1975, candidates for administrative positions in secondary schools,i.e. head teachers, deputy heads have usually been sent to England to attend courses (4-24 weeks) in secondary school management and administration.

In 1980, the four headteachers who attended a three-

month course at the university of Leeds commented that their course content was dominated by aspects related to the English education system. They agreed that they had acquired new experiences in terms of school management and administration, but they found it difficult in applying what they had studied at Leeds within their own schools because of being bound by rules and regulations enforced by the central authority. In addition, they have, however, limited freedom compared to the administrative and academic staff in the English schools in general (18).

Within a centralised educational system, the administrative and the professional staff of schools cannot take any initiative towards change. They ought to follow regulations even though they may contradict their convictions. The school staff's authority is limited and if extra-responsibilities are delegated by the central authority, they are reluctant to carry out such responsibilities. For active participation in educational development, teachers must be given certain responsiblities to enhance innovation and changes becuase nobody can accelerate the changes in schools except the teachers themselves. Since the Ministry is concerned with the teachers and administrative staff who are responsible for carrying out its policies and programmes in schools, it ought to have the necessary administrative channels to coordinate programmes, supply information and extend more opportunities for training of national and non-national teachers.

To summarise this section, the introduction of the new reforms which stress on the diversification of the curriculum in the general secondary school in Bahrain has been justified by the Ministry of Education as the right policy to solve the state's needs in terms of skilled and semi-skilled manpower and to qualify those who intend to pursue higher education. But the Ministry

has faced and is still facing difficulties in persuading students to register in sufficient numbers for some of the pre-vocational specialisations such as agriculture, textile and clothing, hotel and catering and health sciences. Al-Sulayti explains the students' reluctance to join such programmes because they prepare them for jobs which have a low level of social prestige in Bahraini society (19). In addition, the majority of the students still prefer the academic or the theoretical streams despite the government's policy to reduce the percentage of students in the general secondary education and in particular in the academic theoretical specialisations.

The introduction of the diversified curriculum was also an attempt to solve the problem of drop-out especially of those students who considered their secondary education as irrelevant to the actual world of work. But the 1983 statistics reveal that the drop-outs in the general secondary school and also in some specialisations still persists (Table No. 37). These statistics show that the drop-out is higher in rural than in urban areas. For example, in Jid-haffs the percentage for boys' drop-out is 34.8, while in the main towns (Muharraq and Manama), the drop-out is 14.1 per cent. For girls, the statistics for Essa town and Jid-haffs secondary schools reveal that there was about 16.1 per cent of drop-out compared to 8.2 per cent in the main Essa towns (20). The high percentage of drop-out in the towns and Jid-haffs may be due to the fact that the majority of these schools' students come mainly from working families and low-income categories. Boys leave school before graduation and join the labour market and the construction projects attract this group of students because the employers do not state specific skills for certain jobs related to these projects.

Most of the girls who leave before graduation prefer to get married since the acceptable age of marriage is sixteen.

The recent policy of the reorganisation of the general secondary school has not yet achieved its objectives because the defects of the previous system are still persisting. Many constraints hinder its success. For example, the scarcity of well-qualified national teachers who believe in the effectiveness of these policies and are willing to implement them is one of the major problems. Within the curriculum content, the conflict between the theoretical and pre-vocational subjects has not been resolved. Integration between them is an aim which has yet to be achieved. The new regulations regarding admission to the theoretical specialisations are more rigid that to the vocational ones. Students as well as their parents are aware that the pre-vocational specialisations are terminal and do not allow their children to pursue higher education which ensures better occupations and salaries. The introduction of the vocational specialisations has not accompanied with well planned career educational programmes carried out by counsellors and career advisers who are well informed of the job conditions in the country.

6.3 The Branching Programme Secondary School in Kuwait

6.3.1 Government Policy Towards General Secondary Education

In Kuwait, unlike Bahrain, the attempt to reform the secondary education system has taken a different dimension, though this attempt is based on the same principles, explained earlier in the case of Bahrain. These principles stress on meeting the state's requirements in terms of qualified indigenous manpower - in addition to ensure education as a human right.

The Kuwaiti Government has neither changed its policy of admission to the general (academic) secondary school nor stated criteria of selection for this type of schooling. Instead, it has moved up most of vocational/technical institutions to a higher level of education and attempted to reform the general secondary school curriculum to include academic and vocational programmes.

A major step towards the reforming of the general secondary school was taken in 1976 when a National Educational Commission under the Chairmanship of the Under-Secretary of the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs, Ahmed Sa'ad Al-Jaber. The Commission which comprised experts in curriculum development and evaluation was expressly charged with the task of finding ways and means to reorganise the general secondary school curriculum and to study the possibilities in the movement towards comprehensivisation of secondary education.

The Commission, it appears, has been expressed by the American concept of the Comprehensive High School and the notion of the universalisation of secondary education. It urged that secondary education should be life-centred and shaped by both the present and future needs of individuals and the society.

The Commission has identified the following broad-based ojectives for the general secondary school:

- offering students essential knowledge and experience that they needed for the future;
- concentrating on essential skills especially reading, understanding, analysing, expression, independent thinking and developing a sense of cooperation;
- encouraging independent study, creative ability and enabling students to solve their own problems;

- meeting the increasing need for trained technical and professional manpower (21).

To translate these aims into practical terms the Commission stressed that the curriculum should be reorganised so as to accommodate a wide range of individual abilities and needs of students. It recommended the acoption of a system of options which would help students to advance in their individual specialisation. It also proposed the introduction of guidance and counselling in secondary schools. It suggested a flexible system of student grouping and banding and considered the application of individualised learning which would help to enhance independent study (22).

The Commission drew a general plan for reorganising the general secondary school by employing a vertical organisation of the curriculum which would permit continuous progression of all learners at different rates and suiting the range of abilities and interests of students.

The Ministry of Education, in Kuwait, adopted the Commission's plan with some modifications. The plan, however, was set in motion in the academic session 1978-79 and the Sabah Salim Al-Sabah Secondary School for Boys in the capital was chosen for the experiment. By 1983, there were six experimental schools for both sexes. These experimental schools were supervised centrally by the Higher Council of Secondary Schools (1977). In addition to this Council, the Ministry of Education has introduced councils and committees, mentioned in Appendix No. 15, to further the implementation and evaluation of the policy adopted and to ensure that all members in the experimental schools are given the opportunity to participate in these schools' planning within the Ministry's specified regulations.

The re-organisation of the general secondary school curriculum has been introduced on an experimental base to allow for proper evaluation and collection of empirical evidence concerning its effectiveness before it is disseminated in all schools.

Since the reforms have concentrated on the curriculum of this school, it is worthwhile to examine how they are being applied within the school context. What follows deals with the content.

6.3.2 Content of the Curriculum

In general, the experimental school is subject-centred, departmentalised and graded. The whole range of the curriculum contents which comprise the graduation requirements is described in terms of 'units'. The content covers eight branches of studies which are shown in Table No. 38 for the four years, while Tables Nos. 39A-H describe in detail the courses for each branch (specialisation).

According to the Commission's plan, there are a number of subjects that require learning by all students throughout the four years. Table No. 40 gives the range of the required subjects for all students. Non-Muslim students are exempted from taking Islamic studies. They may choose other subjects in order to complete the requirement.

After being in operation for nine years certain surveys have been carried out recently on the project to measure the effectiveness of the experiment and in particular the curriculum changes.

In 1982, an empirical survey was done by Kuwait University to find out if the branching programme system had

brought about the results intended especially to encourage more students to join technical/vocational specialisations. The survey covered four schools* and included both sexes. The methodology applied in this study consisted of two questionnaires, one for students and another for the teaching and administrative staff. Between twenty-two and fifty-five samples from each branch were chosen. The break down of respondents among students and the teaching and administrative staff who answered all the questions is shown in Table No. 41.

The findings of the students' questionnaire showed that 40.4 per cent of pupils joined the social sciences branch were not satisfied with their choice. In addition about 24.3 per cent of males who were in the industrial branch were dissatisfied because they had realised that this branch does not offer them a better chance for higher education. The female students expressed their conviction that they had chosen commercial studies because the industrial studies were not offered in their schools. Students in mathematics and sciences branches compleined that their programmes were overloaded with theoretical aspects irrelevant to their interests and needs (23).

However, the survey did not give exact percentages of those who were not satisfied with their choices in all branches. Nevertheless about 85 per cent of the respondents preferred the branching programmes to the traditional sciences and arts sections. They stated that:

---

* The four schools were:

- Sabah Salim al Sabah for Boys;
- Kiyfan Secondary School for Boys;
- al Mansuriyah Secondary School for Girls;
- al Jazaa'r Secondary School for Girls.

- the choice-system ensured more freedom for them to choose according to their needs and interests;
- independent study encouraged more individual work and involvement in the learning process;
- the introduction of extra-curricula activities periods offered them more opportunities to develop certain skills and interests which ordinary teaching periods neglected (24).

Students showed their dissatisfaction in regard to teaching materials and laboratories. They preferred that the school should announce the free-choice courses in advance to give them more time to select those courses which matched with their specialisations.

Responses to the questionnaire distributed to the teaching staff showed that about 41.8 per cent felt that the content of some courses (social sciences, Arabic, mathematics, and natural sciences) was inappropriate to students as well as to society's needs. About 16.7 per cent stressed that as these courses retained their traditional content, the traditional teaching methods also continued to persist. They mentioned the following problems which they thought hindered the changes in the experimental schools:

(a) scarcity of textbooks and teacher guidebooks for newly-introduced courses;

(b) lack of coordination and integration between courses of different branches - complementary, free-choice and elective courses (25).

For their part, the researchers who conducted the study on behalf of the Kuwait University concluded that in the process of implementation of the comprehensive plan, there were some

ledge concerning concepts of curriculum development. They have insufficient experience in applying modern teaching techniques and their previous training, if they had any, irrelevant to the educational changes taking place in Kuwait.

The Ministry of Education has supplied the experimental schools with up-to-date teaching materials and technology, but these aids have not been utilised to enhance effective educational changes. To overcome this problem, the Ministry is organising in-service courses on the usage of aids and equipment and how to utilise them to improve the teaching/learning methods for both national and non-national teachers.

Extra-curricula activities are utilised in the experimental schools to achieve some kind of integration among students from different branches and to put into practice the concept of students' participation in school activities. To some extent, the schools have been able to achieve some success in this respect. Most students have been given chances to participate and run their own activities. Under the school guidance, they are encouraged to set up clubs and societies, and organise exhibitions. However, these activities are not integrated into the formal curriculum though the school is directed to give them sufficient consideration.

To sum up, it has been realised by the Ministry as well as the educationists that the implementation of the new methods of teaching and grouping need time to be fully accepted and understood by the teachers.

6.3.4 Guidance and Counselling

In the Kuwaiti branching programme schools, the purpose of Guidance and Counselling as explained in the original

negative aspects which should be considered and solved by the Ministry of Education before dissemination in all secondary schools. They proposed the introduction of new specialisations such as computer studies, agriculture, arts and music studies and home economics if the school is to be effectively concerned with the state's problem of manpower. They stressed that schools should encourage more students to join Islamic studies and Arabic language and literature branches as the enrolment in these was below the Ministry's expectations. They found it necessary to retrain teachers working in these schools to be able to cope with the new reforms. They also emphasised that selection of counsellors, social supervisors and librarians should be based on these job requirements (26).

6.3.3 Methods of Teaching and Grouping Practices

Although the general plan for the experimental comprehensive school in Kuwait stresses on the application of a variety of means of teaching/learning methodologies and techniques to meet individualised learning and mixed ability grouping, the majority of teachers still apply the traditional methods of teaching which assume that children are equal in their intellectual abilities. Most teachers in the experimental schools, according to Kuwait University Survey 1982, argued that the utilisation of such modern methods of teaching and grouping requires radical changes in the subjects' content which is still dominated by theoretical aspects and designed in a way to meet the examinations' requirements. So they had little chance to change their teaching habits (27).

But, in addition to these constraints is the problem of well trained teachers. In fact, Kuwait's secondary schools generally depend on imported teachers who have limited know-

plan as well as in the Student Guide is "to help students in their studies and in solving their problems after school" (28). How these problems are to be solved is not explained in detail. In the Student Guide, nothing is mentioned about vocational guidance and careers education and, in general, most of the guidance concentrates on the academic aspects.

A single tutor is usually responsible for guiding and advising twenty students in their studies. As most of his time is reserved for helping students, he does fewer hours of teaching than a full-time tutor. He is directed to apply group-guidance, adopted from the American system, to advise students to assess realistically their capacities and interests in relation to what the school offers.

The introduction of guidance and counselling has neither been accompanied with sufficient preparation of tutors in charge of counselling nor with developing guidance programmes and services. As a result there was more emphasis on academic aspects of counselling and most of the programme's content is directed to those students intending to pursue university education.

In 1982, a survey was carried out by Q.A. Al-Sarāf and B.A. Al 'Aumar in the six branching programme schools. Their survey aimed to measure the effectiveness of the guidance and counselling programme offered to students in these schools. Their survey revealed that:

- educational and vocational guidance was not integrated and coordinated with the pressing needs of the society;
- most of the tutors' efforts are devoted to students planning to proceed to higher education;
- students in vocational/technical branches received the minimum guidance concerning their future occupations

and the opportunities available for them in Kuwaiti technical institutions (29).

However, the guidance and counselling programme introduced in Kuwaiti schools has not been based on these schools' objectives to satisfy different needs and to prepare for future careers. Certain basic components of careers education need to be understood and inculcated into this programme. For instance, a provision for comprehensive career development involving active cooperation and participation of both school and non-school personnel must be made as should a provision for work experience and work study opportunities for students and for those who educate them in the school setting. Within the school, every class teacher in every subject at every level must concentrate, where appropriate, on the career implication of what they are teaching. And vocational skill training for successful entry into employment must be emphasised and available for all students regardless of their specialisations.

6.3.5 Evaluation of Students' Achievements

Although general secondary school examinations are organised for all schools in Kuwait, the branching programme schools have adopted the American system of Grade Point Average. which is explained in reference No (30).

Regulations for graduation from these schools specify that each student must earn a minimum average of one and a half grade points. If he does not succeed in earning this mimimum, he has to take extra courses to raise his GPA to the level required (31). Many school activities (e.g. extra curricula activities) are not examinable or easily assessable, but the cumulative records kept by the school provide some guidance to

the success of the staff in motivating students to work hard in areas of the curriculum that do not lead to examination grades.

According to the Ministry's guidelines, teachers are required to evaluate their students' work in each course by different means such as observation, written and oral tests and final written examinations at the end of each semester. These tests and examinations should assess abilities, skills as well as the cognitive aspects, but, in fact, most of them are still designed according to the traditional criteria which pay more attention to how much theoretical knowledge students acquire.

Similar to Bahrain, the subjects specialists within the Ministry of Education have made certain efforts to design the content of most courses on the lines of the pre-specified educational objectives curriculum model. Yet, teachers are not able to assess their students' progress accordingly because they lack the sufficient experience to do so.

To conclude, the assessment and examination systems in Kuwait's secondary schools as well as in the experimental ones face the same problems as Bahrain. The grade system, introduced in the experimental schools, has been modified in order to satisfy Kuwait University's requirements as the majority of these schools' graduates are intending to pursue their higher education.

6.3.6 Teachers: Their Education and Qualification

The dependence upon non-national teachers at all levels in Kuwait is the highest compared to Bahrain and Saudi Arabia. The Kuwaitis refusal to take up teaching as a career is attributed to the following reasons:

- the availability of jobs in other Government offices and ministries;
- the chance of promotion in the Ministry of Education (the largest) is very slight compared to the others;
- teaching is considered hard work, requiring long hours of preparation of study (32).

The Kuwaiti Government, in an effort to overcome the shortage of Kuwaiti teachers, has initiated a programme of providing national teachers with 'bonus salaries' referred to as tabee'at'amal' meaning 'professional motivation fees' which amounts to a 25 per cent increase on the basic salary. Even then Kuwaitis do not find the profession particularly attractive and most schools are dominated by non-Kuwaiti teachers as is clear from Tables Nos. 42A-B.

All teachers in Kuwaiti secondary schools, national and non-national, are university graduates, but the majority of them do not have professional training.

As this section deals with the experimental secondary schools the discussion will concentrate only on those who are recruited to teach in them.

The Ministry of Education has laid down certain criteria for teachers at the experimental schools, which are intended mainly to ensure staff stability over a long period of time. The criteria are:

- personal initiative and interests;
- previous experience in teaching;
- academic and educational qualifications;
- previous experience, (theoretical and practical), in teaching in the branching programme schools (for non-Kuwaiti teachers);

- attending most of the in-service training courses organised for the new system;
- personal interviews;
- special skills and hobbies **(33).**

As the Ministry cannot supply these schools with sufficient numbers of Kuwaiti teachers, expatriate teachers on a private contract should be recruited for these schools because it is easier to renew their contracts rather than those who have governmental contracts.

The above regulations have not been accompanied with additional incentives or increments for teachers in the experimental schools to compensate them for the extra responsibilities they have as compared with those who teach in the traditional secondary schools.

Despite the official efforts to screen teachers for the experimental schools, the 1982 Survey, investigating the teaching and administrative staff's qualifications showed that:

- most of the teaching staff lacked the theoretical as well as the practical experience for the new system;
- many of the Kuwaiti teachers did not like to be transferred to these schools though their qualifications met the requirements stated by the Ministry as a great deal of extra work is demanded from them;
- many of those who are already in these schools were reluctant to change their traditional method of teaching in which they had been trained and had acquired proficiency **(34).**

In an attempt to make teachers familiar with the system, the Ministry of Education organised some in-service training courses, but these courses were not sufficient to give them pro-

fessional training for the new system and to cope with the changes taking place. However, the need for well qualified teachers whether for these schools or for secondary schools in general puts more pressure on The Faculty of Arts and Education of Kuwait University to review its educational programmes and to develop training programmes to develop the teaching competence demanded for this system whether for the prospective teachers or those in the profession.

To summarise,evaluating the experimental branching programme secondary school in Kuwait is not an easy task due to the lack of documented information, but certain observations can be made.

These schools have, to a restricted extent, been able to achieve some of the avowed objectives by offering general education with a measure of free-choice. However, the students' free-choice is still limited as these schools have not offered identical specialisations for both sexes or within each individual school.

Integration between vocational and theoretical courses throughout the whole specialisations to qualify all students for entrance to universities or the labour market has not been incorporated. In general, the majority of students still prefer the academic specialisations to the technical and vocational ones because they feel that the former specialisations can better secure places in universities in Kuwait or abroad; hence better employment and status in the future.

Although the experimental schools accept students with diversified abilities, admission to different specialisations depends on intermediate examination results especially for the academic ones. So those students who obtain low grades are

usually advised to join the vocational/technical branches.

The proceeding analysis of the curriculum content reveals that the theoretical subjects and the traditional methods of teaching continue to dominate. Teachers themselves give high prestigious status to the academic subjects rather than the practical ones. Even the guidance and counselling programmes provided, concentrate mostly on the academic aspects; vocational guidance and careers education for those whose schooling terminates at the age of sixteen is almost totally neglected. Tutors who act as councellors and carry out the guidance programmes have neither the proper qualifications nor the training to do so.

There are no indications which show that the school has been able to achieve the stated objectives of the adopted policy related to the manpower problem at medium level because most of the students are planning to proceed for their higher education, particularly in the academic studies. This observation is inferred from an interciew which the researcher had with the Head of Sabah Salem al-Sabah School in 1981. The head clearly admitted that he and his staff were able to help most of their students to get the highest grades and to be accepted easily at Kuwait University. It seems that the situation has not changed much since 1981 as these schools are operated on a limited scale.

Despite the persistence of the defects inherited from the old system and transferred and implanted in the new school system, Kuwait's experiment has been able to achieve some success. The new system of organisation enhances participation of those concerned with schools' work. It offers a variety of extra-curricula activities to satisfy students' interests and hobbies. A final point to be mentioned is employing subject specialists

in these schools whose duties are to help the trial schools to devise new approaches to teaching and learning, follow up the implementation of new courses, assist teachers and coordinate the Ministry's efforts with these schools in terms of curriculum development and evaluation.

6.4 Experimental Comprehensive Schools in Saudi Arabia

6.4.1 Government Policy Towards General Secondary Education

In Saudi Arabia, the government did not adopt a policy to limit student enrolment in the general secondary school when it reorganised its curriculum. But it has tried to direct more students to the technical/vocational types of school as has been done in Bahrain. It has not intended to upgrade the vocational/technical institutions to higher education and reconstruct the general secondary school curriculum on an experimental basis as has been attempted in Kuwait. In fact, the Saudi's policy towards secondary education is to encourage more students to join vocational/technical secondary schools without enforcing laws and regulations. At the same time, the adopted policy stresses the reorganisation of the secondary school curriculum to include pre-vocational as well as academic programmes. This policy however, aspires to create qualified indigenous manpower and ensure education as a human right as in Bahrain and Kuwait.

The policy makers within the Saudi's Ministry of Education emphasise that the adopted policy concerning the reorganisation of the general secondary school is based on comprehensive education principles. The Saudi Arabian comprehensive school's objectives are fundamentally based on the general educational policy of the Kingdom but are distinguished from other types of secondary school. The plan for the trial

comprehensive school states that this school should:

- stress on individual needs and offer suitable education to meet these needs;
- avoid the overloaded academic curriculum and minimise the encyclopedic study that characterises education in the Kingdom;
- provide a diversified curriculum and give the students enough time to specialise in an area of their own interest;
- allow for a flexible system of organisation to help individual students to choose their specialisation and decide the time for their graduation;
- offer remedial teaching for those who are facing difficulties in certain areas of studies **(35)**.

To translate these objectives into practical terms, the Plan for the Comprehensive Secondary Schools, put into practice in 1976-77, stresses the same principles and offers the same suggestions included in Kuwait's Plan for general secondary school reorganisation. Exceptions to the proceeding suggestions is the admission criteria for these experimental schools. They are specified by the Saudi Ministry of Education as follows: students should obtain an Intermediate School Certificate, but general secondary school students are admitted to the comprehensive after passing their first year examination at the general secondary school **(36)**. This kind of decision has been taken to limit students' movements between general and comprehensive schools and to monitor the comparative experiment. However, few students have expressed interest to transfer to the experimental schools because they know that they should repeat the first year in the comprehensive school.

The plan for comprehensive schools in Saudi Arabia was implemented on an experimental basis with effect from the academic year 1976-77 and the first three schools for boys which were established are: Al-Yremook in Riyadh, Al-Dammam in Eastern Region and **Al-Hara** in Makkah. Since then, the number is increasing and it is expected that the comprehensive secondary school will be disseminated all over the Kingdom by 1986-87.

These schools are supervised by a specially appointed Committee by the Ministry of Education. The Committee members were chosen according to their position and power in decision-making. Educationists, subject specialists from universities and colleges operating in the Kingdom, and heads of these experimental schools are permanent members of the Committee. The Directors of General Education of the regions have also their important roles to play in this Committee. In addition, different Consultative Committees were established for Curriculum development which comprise subject specialists whose duties are to design new syllabuses, evaluate the new programmes and suggest the appropriate changes which are supposed to be discussed and approved at the annual meeting of the General appointed Committee.

To gauge whether the adopted policy and the foregoing objectives assigned for the Saudi's experimental comprehensive school have been put into practice, it is worthwhile to study the curriculum and aspects related to it which came into use in the academic year 1976-77 when these schools were introduced. What follows deals first with the content.

6.4.2 Content of the Curriculum

As in Bahrain and Kuwait, the Saudi's experimental comprehensive school is subject-centred, departmentalised and graded.

The curriculum plan for this school includes the following specialisations:

- Islamic and Religious Studies;
- Social Sciences and Administerial and Business Studies;
- Languages;
- Natural Sciences and Mathematics;
- Technical Studies, and
- General Sciences studies.

The languages specialisation is divided into Arabic, English or French. The natural sciences and mathematics specialisation is divided into three branches: physics/mathematics, chemistry/biology and physics/chemistry. Tables Nos. 43A-C give a summarised description of the options in these branches at Al-Dammam Comprehensive School in the Eastern Region. The technical studies are also divided into: agricultural, commercial and industrial studies.

Most of the foregoing specialisations are designed to qualify students either for work or higher education. But the General Sciences studies stream, as indicated in the general plan, is proposed to qualify secondary graduates in villages and remote areas and especially those school leavers who intend to work after finishing secondary school. It is expected that it will provide them with skills and experiences needed in their communities. So schools are guided to select the optional courses for this specialisation according to the specific conditions related to each community (37).

According to the Curriculum Plan 1976-77, there are a number of core subjects required by all students throughout their three years of study. These include Recitation and Reading of the Qurān, Theology (Tawhīd), Jurisprudence (Fiqh),

Composition and Rhetoric and Research and Library. Then there are the optional subjects for each specialisation, in addition to the elective subjects which are offered through the semesters according to the facilities available in each individual school (38).

Before 1984, extra-curricula activities were not considered as an integrated aspect of the formal curriculum. But the continuous evaluation of the experiment between 1977-83 showed that they had attracted few students, so some alterations were made on the original plan and these activities are, at present, allocated 50 credit hours out of the total 150 required for graduation. The remaining 120 credit hours are distributed as follows: 20 for the core subjects, 75 for the options and 25 for the electives.

Since the introduction of the comprehensive school most of the curriculum evaluation has concentrated on the organisational matters concerning each specialisation and which subjects should be added or dropped out, and little attention is being paid to survey the content and its relationship to the stated objectives.

Empirical surveys have not been carried out in Saudi's experimental comprehensive schools to measure the effectiveness of these schools and to find out if their curriculum which is organised on the assumption that it will minimise the number of students who take up general academic studies which lead to a surplus in art graduates and a shortage in the skilled and semi-skilled labour force.

It seems that the introduction of the comprehensive secondary school in Saudi Arabia has not led to radical changes in the content of the curriculum. The theoretical specialisations dominate and cater for students intending to pursue their

higner education. The technical/vocational specialisations attract few students and the percentage of enrolment in them failed to meet the expectation of the Ministry of Education. For example, in Al-Dammam Comprehensive School the enrolment in these specialisations did not exceed 60 our of 800 students in 1983.

There is clear evidence that there is a lack of co-ordination between different subjects within each individual specialisation. Each subject is treated as a discipline for its own sake and little attention is being paid to integrate it with other subjects and the outside world. For instance, for the academic year 1984-85, according to the Ministry of Education's direction, the social sciences and the administerial and business streams were integrated. But integration is interpreted and put into practice by schools in terms of grouping subjects of both streams under one umbrella without paying attention to the co-ordination among these subjects, then objectives, content and suitability to students' needs and work requirements outside the school.

Attempts have been made by the experimental comprehensive school to introduce sciences, mathematics, statistics and computer courses for students in some theoretical specialisations i.e. Religious Studies and Languages, but few changes have been introduced in these subjects' syllabuses and teaching approaches to meet the needs of students in these specialisations.

Most of the specialisations offered at the Saudi's comprehensive schools are biased against aesthetic and practical subjects. Before 1984, fine arts, physical education and woodwork were offered outside the formal curriculum. At present though they are given credit hours and considered within the

extra-curriculum activities, they are still not awarded marks as the rest of the subjects. Students' performance in these subjects is shown on a descriptive scale only and it is specified with "satisfactory" only (39).

The introduction of changes in the curriculum organisation needs changes in the method of teaching and grouping practices. Does the Saudi experimental comprehensive school achieve some success in this respect? The following part will examine these aspects to highlight if curriculum changes are supported and sustained by changes in teaching and grouping practices.

6.4.3 Methods of Teaching and Grouping Practices

In comparison with Kuwait, the plan of the Saudi's experimental comprehensive school stresses the adoption and application of different teaching methods and grouping to respond to the differences in students' abilities and needs. But the plan does not give clearly defined and detailed guidelines concerning the procedures the schools ought to follow as does the Kuwaiti's Plan. So most teachers revert to the pre-innovation practices.

In general, students in the Saudi's experimental comprehensive schools are grouped in mixed abilities classes of 25-30 in each specialisation. Integration among students as well as teachers in different streams is minimal. As most of the extra-curricula activities are organised on courses bases and few are offered beyond the formal curriculum, students find it difficult to practice activities according to their interests.

The normal practice for teaching different subjects is the application of the traditional methods which anticipate that students are equal in their intellectual abilities. Remedial classes are organised for individual or a group of students who

have some learning difficulties in certain subjects. In fact, teachers - national and non-national are not familier with modern methods of grouping i.e. setting and banding in order to differentiate the content and approach to a subject according to the ability of the students. Methods associated with linking classroom learning and practical actions are not seriously considered by the majority of teachers.

Styles of teaching and learning are also conditioned by resources and accommodation. In this respect, the Saudi Ministry of Education has supplied the experimental schools with enough, and to some extent, appropriate science equipment, teaching aids and library resources, but these facilities have not been utilised effectively because most teachers neither change their teaching methods nor have sufficient experience to utilise them effectively.

6.4.4 Guidance and Counselling

In the Saudi's experimental comprehensive schools, guidance and counselling is directed towards the academic aspects. This observation is inferred from the duties assigned to tutors who are chosen from the academic staff which are stated as follows:

- to explain the regulations of the comprehensive school;
- to guide each student to the specialisation he is interested in;
- tp plan with him his programme of study until the end of his graduation;
- to advise him if he is facing difficulties in his studies;
- to inform him about any changes in the school regula-

tions and how to cope with them (40).

As in Bahrain and Kuwait, the guidance system introduced has not yet undergone any process of evolvement and therefore needs to catch up with new trends in the field of educational and vocational guidance. Specialised programmes, techniques and trained personnel are demanded to guide students and help them to a better understanding of themselves, their potentialities so that they can make appropriate decisions regarding their specialisations and future life.

6.4.5 Evaluation of Students' Achievements

In Saudi Arabia, general examinations for the experimental comprehensive schools have been abolished and replaced by the credit system. Students are awarded units of credits. For example, one unit is given for the successful completion of a course meeting fifty minutes per day and five days per week through fifteen weeks per semester.

The new regulations stress a system of continuous assessment. To ensure the system's applications, the whole maximum marks for each subject are distributed as follows: 40 per cent for students' work through the semester, 10 per cent for the attendance, 25 per cent for mid-semester tests and 25 per cent for final semester examinations (41).

Students' performance in a certain course is shown on numerical and descriptive scales as below:

Marks	Descriptive Scale	Numerical Scale
90-100	Excellent	5
80-89	Very good	4
70-79	Good	3
60-69	Satisfactory	2
Less than 60	Fail	1

Regulations for graduation from these schools are specified, in the same manner as explained earlier in the case of Kuwait. But, in Saudi's experimental schools, students who fail to get the total passing average during two semesters are brought under direct supervision of tutors in charge of guidance and counselling in school. If they fail to get the satisfactory average they might be transferred to another specialisation appropriate to their abilities (42).

In general, the assessment and examination system in these schools faces similar problems as existing in Bahrain and Kuwait. For instance, written tests and final semesters examinations are the most visible forms of assessment. There is still a more fundamental need to apply regular and systematic means of evaluation to measure students' progress and solve their learning difficulties.

6.4.6 Teachers: Their Education and Qualifications

Saudi Arabia faces the same problems the other two states encounter in terms of the dependence upon non-national teachers at all levels and the availability of well qualified indigenous teaching staff.

However, for the experimental comprehensive schools to be reflective of the ethos of the society, the general plan states that it is preferable to recruit native teachers. But it is apparent that Saudi Arabia follows the same policy adopted by Kuwait, which stresses recruiting non-national teachers who are on private contract for these schools to ensure the stability of the teaching staff.

Similar to Bahrain and Kuwait, the majority of those who were nominated to teach in the experimental schools are

untrained subject teacners who are not educated or trained for this kind of education though they are university graduates and some of them have had some traditional professional training. Therefore, some attempts have been made by the Ministry of Education to organise some short training courses for the serving teachers, but this kind of training which stressed explaining the new organisation and curricula reforms, is not sufficient to make the teachers' participation in implementing certain policy effective.

This kind of training needs to begin before the implementation of any scheme to allow enough time for teachers to understand first the system and then contribute towards its development.

The universities and colleges of education in the Kingdom might contribute a lot in implementing the Six-Year Plan for training prospective and serving Saudi teachers for different specialisations* if effective changes are introduced into the content of teacher-training programmes. A general revision of their content is demanded because they are inadequate when they are considered in the light of educational aims directed towards the overall development of all students. Training of this kind should include male and female teachers especially if the plan will be implemented throughout the Kingdom in both sexes schools.

It should be also realised that teacher education and training is not limited to the academic but should include the administrative staff and more attention should be paid to qualify counsellors and career advisors for these schools.

---

* The Six-Year Plan for Teachers' Education and Training was adopted by the Saudi Government in 1983.

To sum up, since the comprehensive secondary school has recently been introduced in Saudi Arabia and for boys only, it is difficult to predict or assess its effectiveness in such a short time. However, some conclusions can be drawn from the experimental stage.

First, in Saudi Arabia, the policy makers have assumed that the introduction of this type of secondary school would help to offer general education, meet the diverse needs, abilities and interests of individuals and satisfy societal demands. The reforms are, in fact, directed to the curriculum content and organisation to include both theoretical and vocational/technical specialisation. However, it seems that there was little evidence to support the contention that the curricula reforms have been able to equalise students' enrolment in both types of specialistions. This is attributed to these two factors. The policy of comprehensivisation, unlike that of Bahrain and Kuwait, has not been accompanied with regulations and conditions concerning enrolment in different specialisations. The second factor is exemplified in the prevailing attitudes held by students and their parents towards the academic studies. To eliminate prejudice against pure academic education vis a vis the technical/vocational education demands changes in rules and conditions concerning salary scales, work incentives, promotion and access to higher education which are mostly biased towards academic qualifications.

Secondly, the curriculum content and organisation of the experimental comprehensive school has not diverted much from the general secondary school's practices. Broadly speaking, the most common organisation is the traditional departmentalised subjects oriented. Correlation and integration of subject matter and between different specialisations has not been attempted.

Thirdly, reforms do not produce the desired outcomes unless those who are responsible for implementing such reforms are, on the one hand, well equipped with the professional experience and have the conviction on the other hand, that these reforms will produce effective results. In Saudi Arabia, as in Bahrain and Kuwait, the majority of the secondary school teachers lack these aspects, in addition, they are not fully aware of the society's needs and how to gear education to meet them.

Finally, the introduction of the comprehensive secondary school exclusively for boys is totally against the fundamental principles of this school which stresses on equality of opportunity. It is difficult to predict how these reforms will be introduced in the girls' secondary schools especially as has been emphasised by the policy makers that comprehensive schools will be disseminated throughout the Kingdom by the academic year 1986-87.

Despite the foregoing defects, the new school has been able to:

- introduce diversified specialisation;
- offer free-choice subjects;
- ensure common education through the core subjects;
- introduce guidance and counselling;
- initiate changes in the evaluation and examinations system;
- bring to the focus on the importance of teachers' education and training.

6.5 Conclusion

The examination of the three plans, put into practice concerning the reorganisation of the general secondary school's

curriculum shows that all the three states have come to a general conclusion that by introducing a diversified curriculum which includes academic and practical specialisations within this school, they could break with elitistic concepts of academic schooling, encourage attitudes favourable to manual work and create qualified indigenous manpower, help integrate the school with the society and ensure general education for all secondary school students.

Although there is a general agreement among these states as to the objectives of their general secondary schools' reorganisation, their respective strategies of implementations, however, are very different. For instance, in Bahrain, the Ministry of Education was directed by the Cabinet to follow a nationwide policy implementation approach regarding the general secondary schools' curriculum and this policy was dropped upon schools with little warning with the expectation that the schools would immediately begin to take up the proposals. In contrast Kuwait and Saudi Arabia adopted a more cautious path of reform. Faced with a choice of issuing a directive to all secondary schools to modify their programmes or of undertaking initial trial in only a few schools, they opted for the latter to allow more time to find out the effectiveness of these curricula reforms and to avoid the problems of initial dissemination.

These states are also different in the manner of their policies' practical applications. The Bahraini plan specifies the percentage of students who are supposed to be enrolled in each type of secondary school and diversifies the general secondary curriculum to include pre-vocational as well as academic specialisations and lays down the conditions for admission to particular streams. The plan in general has completely

turned towards the state's immediate manpower needs from secondary and university graduates.

However, the Kuwaiti and Saudi plans do not put conditions concerning admission. In fact, their trial schools accept all intermediate graduates, who wish to join these schools, but the students' intermediate examinations results are used as criteria for admission to different programmes offered in these schools.

After the implementation of adopted policies concerning the re-organisation of their general secondary schools, certain constraints, however, make transition difficult and hinder the progress of their innovation. These constraints have emerged because the following conditions have not been fully visualised:

(1) The adoption of some kind of policy based on borrowing some features of comprehensive secondary school models existing in the West, i.e. Sweden and the U.S.A., it seems has not been based on well-founded understanding of the specific initial conditions of these states' context. However, adopting certain educational policies needs finding out if they are relevant to e certain society's context to ensure the success of implementation strategies in the long term.

(2) What is observed in regard to the re-organisation is the fact that the structural changes have not taken place and most of the reforms are directed towards the curriculum. These curricula reforms do not divert much from the encyclopaedic theory of curriculum. Practical reforms in curriculum do not involve major shifts in the 'Curriculum Theory' as in the case of the U.S.'s Comprehensive High School curricula reforms which are

based on the pragmatic theory of curriculum or in Sweden where the encyclopaedic theory of curriculum was adopted in addition to some features of the pragmatic and polytechnic theory.

Even if the intention is to keep the content encyclopaedic, any revision of the traditional school subjects should be based on current ideas of the discipline concerned and its pedagogy or on recent practical experience in the classroom. In fact, these aspects have not been considered by subject specialists in the ministries of education in these states and who do not have direct contact with the schools. So most of their efforts in curriculum planning have been directed to designing and reorganising the existing materials and textbooks and little attention is devoted by them to the renewal and revision of the curriculum content to satisfy diversified abilities and needs and match with the assigned objectives for these schools.

(3) The concept of ability is maintained throughout these schools' curriculum in all three states despite the introduction of the option system which is supposed to confirm a kind of students' freedom to choose subjects or programmes of their own interests.

(4) Equality between genders in terms of specialisation is not ensured. Although one of the main principles of the comprehensive secondary school is ensuring equal opportunities for both sexes, in Bahrain and Kuwait, some specialisations, i.e. technology, computer courses are available in boys rather than in girls' schools. The fact remains, however, that sex differences in

educational opportunity within the secondary schools persist in spite of reforms that on the surface seem to offer greater opportunities.

(5) Most of the teachers' guidebooks for the new subjects, produced centrally in all three states, place emphasis on the application of modern methods of teaching, but teachers themselves seem unable to do so because of their limited experience in how to apply them. Therefore, most of them stick to the 'chalk and talk' teaching method.

(6) Ability to learn independently according to one's needs, stressed in the official educational document drawn up in these states, implies the transformation or alteration of the structure of the learning environment that conflicts with the principles of individualised learning. Unfortunately the physical condition and facilities of classes do not allow that. In addition, teachers themselves, are required to cover syllabuses assigned for different courses within a time limit which does not help them to pay sufficient attention to individual need or allow students to work independently according to their individual progress.

(7) The three states have attempted to introduce extra-curricula activities to offer some kind of freedom and allow students to practice their hobbies and satisfy their particular interest, but the concept of extra-curricula activities, however, is interpreted and put into practice in ways which contradict their basic objectives. For instance, in Bahrain, teachers consider them a waste of time and some of the teachers

usually use their periods for extra tuition in academic subjects. In Saudi Arabia, these periods are allocated for subjects, i.e. fine arts and physical education which ought to be among the core or electives. Only in Kuwait, some success has been achieved in this respect. Despite this success, the concept of extra-curricula activities is not interpreted in terms of coordination between the school and community at large. Extending society's role by promoting the total development of children has neither been realised by central educational authority, or by teachers and their students.

(8) Guidance and counselling, recently introduced in the general secondary schools throughout the three states. The attempted efforts in this respect have not helped in building up occupational awareness of individual abilities because those who are responsible for guidance and counselling lack skills and experience to do so. Therefore, most of the students view their secondary education as a means to join universities and in particular the academic courses though they may not be able to do so. A provision for comprehensive career development involving active cooperation and participation of both school and non-school personnel has to be recognised by schools as well as the society.

(9) Though changes have been enforced by the Ministries of Education in these states concerning the examination and the evaluation system, the introduction of the credit/unit system, teachers still value and prefer written tests and examinations and give the highest percentage of total marks for any subject to the written

tests. This is not surprising because even the Official Guidelines emphasise this aspect. Again, many teachers do not know how to apply the new methods of assessment enforced by the central educational authorities and stick to their own ways of evaluation.

(10) Holmes states that the formal adoption of a policy does not ensure that it will be implemented unless the individuals responsible for its implementation have incorporated appropriate beliefs into their mental states (43). And within the educational institutions teachers who are specified by him as "the technical personnel" and the ones who facilitate or hinder educational policies progress. The general observation that may be high-lighted in the case of policy formulation, adoption and implementation, the interaction between teachers and personnel concerning policy formulation and adoption is minimal. Unfortunately the majority of secondary school teachers - national and non-national - do not have any role in these respects which may be practiced in other societies.

During the policy implementation, teachers are not given clearly defined and detailed information about the objectives of such innovation practices. In addition, they lack the skills and knowledge to make the stated objectives of these schools meaningful in curriculum. The reorientation of teachers from traditional pedagogical methods to ones more in keeping with the new curriculum changes is not an easy task and demands extra effort by those concerned with teacher in-service training.

(11) Most of the existing secondary schools are not purpose-built and do not adequately meet the current demands. Curricula reforms and particularly 'diversification' does not only mean to enforce the plan's implementation, it needs sufficient buildings which must be accompanied by a series of software components that prove to be the cornerstone in the implementation of the reform. For instance, in Bahrain, the general secondary schools' facilities are very limited; there are not enough well equipped workshops for car-repairs, electronics and electricity courses, so many of the teaching hours of these courses are devoted to theoretical rather than practical learning. Attempts have been made by the Ministry to benefit from such facilities in technical secondary schools, but the capacities of such schools are too limited to absorb all students (males) joining these courses from all general secondary schools for boys throughout the state.

In both Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, though, it is easy to provide the trial schools with the teaching aids and equipment, the school buildings are not designed to accommodate the modern equipment, i.e. language laboratories and computer soft and hardware equipment. Therefore, some technical/vocational programmes had to be postponed or implemented on a very limited scale. For example, for almost four years, computer and agricultural studies were implemented in only one school in Saudi Arabia.

To conclude, the study of the implemented policies concerning the general secondary schools in Bahrain, Kuwait and

Saudi Arabia has highlighted that one important aspect which Holmes explains in his methodology in detail. He states, failure to take into account the specific initial conditions (or the societal context) leads to unconditional prophecies about the future of education as opposed to conditional scientific predictions (44).

As the policy to improve the general secondary school on comprehensive lines has already been put into effect by these states, the researcher will attempt to advise on the best ways of achieving the stated aims of policy guided by the general statement about the initial conditions of these states as discussed in Chapter Four and by selecting features or parts of the comprehensive secondary schools' models - their principles, structural patterns and curriculum organisation - which are peculiar and incidental to local needs and coincide with the Arab Gulf States context.

Chapter Six

References and Notes

(1) Johanson, S. (Unesco Expert), Specialist in Secondary Education Funds in Trust - A Report on the Project Progress, Bahrain, 8th March 1981, p. 2.

(2) State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Educational Planning Unit of Documentation, Information and Educational Research, Educational Development in Bahrain during 1978/79, 1979/80. A Report presented to the 38th Session of The International Conference on Education held in Geneva, from 10-19 November, 1981, p. 7.

(3) Johanson, S., op.cit. p. 3.

(4) Ibid., p. 7.

(5) Ibid., p. 10.

(6) Ibid., p. 11.

(7) op.cit.

(8) Sulayti, H.A., Practices and Strategies of Curriculum Development in Bahrain, (unpublished paper), Ministry of Education, Bahrain, 1980, p. 40.

(9) Dawlat Al-Bahriyn Wazārat Al-Tarbiya-t A'idārat Al-Manāij wa Al-Kutub, Wa al-Wasāal 'il al-ta'alimiyh, Nateejat Taqweem al-manihij al-miṭawar li al saf al-a'wal al-thanawi, Being: Evaluation Results of Curriculum Improvement in the First Year- General Secondary School, September 1981, Ministry of Education, Bahrain, 1981, pp. 7-8.

(10) Ibid., p. 6.

(11) Dawlat al-Bahriyn - Wazārat Al-Tarbiya-t, A'idāra-t al-Manāhij wa Al-Kutub wa al-Wasāa'l al-Ta'alimiyh, Nateejat Taqweem al-manihaj al-muṭawar li al sfiyn al-a'wal wa al-Thani al-Thanawiyin, Being: A Report on Questionnaire Survey concerning Curriculum Content Improvement in First and Second Year General Secondary August, 1982, Ministry of Education, 1982, pp. 2-4.

(12) Ibid., p. 4.

(13) Ibid., p. 7.

(14) State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Unit of Documentation and Research, A Report on General Secondary Education in Bahrain, Bahrain, 1978, p. 10.

(15) State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Plans and Programming, Unit of Educational Documentation, Information and Research, Educational Development in Bahrain from 1980/81 - 1982/83. A Report presented to 39th Session of International Conference on Education held in Geneva from 16-25 October, 1984, Bahrain, 1984, p. 29.

(16) Ibid., p. 30.

(17) State of Bahrain, The University College of Arts, Science and Education Bulletin, 1982-83, Union Press, Bahrain, 1982, p. 38.

(18) Al-Sammak, A.A. et al., A Report on a Short Study Course on School Management and Administration at the University of Leeds April-July 1980, Bahrain, 1981, p. 10.

(19) Sulayti, H.A., A Paper on Relationship of Education to Work in Bahrain, State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, April 1983, p. 6.

(20) Dawlat al-Bahriyn, Wazārat Al-Tarbiya-t A'dārat al-Takhṭeet Al-Tarbawi, Dirāsah Taḥaleeliyh 'an al-Tasarub fi Jameea' maraḥal al-tu-'alim. Being: The Drop-out - An Analytical Statistical Study on the Drop-out Issue in all levels of Education in Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Educational Planning, Bahrain, November 1983, p. 33.

(21) Dawlat al-Kuwiyt, Wazārat al-Tarbiya-t, Nizam al-MuQararrāt Bi - el - Marḥala al-Thanwiyh. Being: The Final Report of the Educational Commission for Branching Programm System in Secondary Schools, Ministry of Education, Kuwait, 1977, p. 3.

(22) Ibid., pp. 8-10.

(23) Bustan, A.A.B., Salih, A.J. al-Tashi'aīb fi Nizam al-muqararāt. Being: Specialisations (Branchings) in Kuwait Secondary Schools. A Report submitted to the Twelfth Educational Week, 10-15 April 1982. Association of Kuwaiti Teachers, Kuwait, 1982, p. 5.

(24) Ibid., pp. 15-17.

(25) Ibid., p. 29.

(26) Ibid., p. 30.

(27) loc. cit.

(28) Ministry of Education, The Final Report of the Educational Commission for Branching Programme System in Secondary Schools, op.cit., p. 20.

(29) Al-Sarāf, Q.A., Al-'Aumir, B.A., Bahith Miydaniy haul 'amaliyt - al-taqīym wa al-a'rishād fi Nizām al Muqararāt fi Dawlet al-Kuwiyt li a 'asibua' al-tarbiya-t al-ithani 'ahar, Being: A Field Study on Schools' Assessment and Guidance presented to the Twelth Educational Week 10-15 April 1982, Association of Kuwaiti Teachers, Kuwait, 1982, p. 23.

(30) *GPA is the mean of grade points obtained on a number of school courses. A minimum GPA must be maintained in order to graduate. The GPA, calculated every semester and cumulatively over the time one has been in school, is part of the official record of each student. It takes into account both the grades earned and the number of hours of credit for which one is taking a course. The student ordinarily receives one hour of credit for , (a class that has three hourly sessions a week gives three credit hours). To find the GPA for the semester, one multiplies the number of credit hours for each course by four if the grade is A, by three if it is B, by two if it is C, by one if it is D and by zero if it is F. A student who receives all As has an average of four, a student who receives all Fs has an average of zero and so on.

for a course which meets four to hours per week (a class ...

(31) Ministry of Education, The Final Report on the Educational Commission for Branching Programme System in Secondary Schools, op.cit., p. 25.

(32) Al-Essa, S.Y., The Manpower Problem in Kuwait, Kegan Paul International, London, 1981, p. 24.

(33) Al-Hashil, S.J., Muqtarah li al' 'adād al-Kawādar al-Bashriyh al-Asāsiyah li nizam al-Sa'aāt al-Mu'atamadan fi la ta'alim al-thanawi Nizām al-Muqararāt fi Kuliyat al Tarbiya. Being: A Proposal Plan for Training Teaching Cadre for Branching Schools - Branching Programmes in Teacher Training Colleges, Association of Kuwaiti Teachers, Kuwait, 1982, p. 12.

(34) Ibid., p. 19.

(35) Ministry of Education, A Report on the First Symposium of the Experimental Comprehensive Schools in Saudi Arabia, (translated by S. Issan), Saudi Arabia, 1977, pp. 4-5.

(36) Ibid., p. 7.

(37) loc.cit.

(38) Ibid., p. 4.

(39) Al-Mamemlakah Al-Su'adiyn Al-'Arabiyh, Wazārat Al-M'aāraf, Idārat Al-Ta'alim al-Thanawī, al-ta'alīm al-thanawī, Dalīl Al-ṭāleb li al-madrassah al-thanawiyh al-Shāmmelah 1401 A.H. (1980 A.D.), Being: Comprehensive Schools - Student Guide Book, Al-Noor Press, Makkah, Saudi Arabia, 1981, p. 15.

(40) Ministry of Education, A Report on The First Symposium of the Experimental Comprehensive Schools in Saudi Arabia, op.cit., p. 7.

(41) The Ministry of Education, Comprehensive Schools: Student Guide Book, op.cit., pp. 15-16.

(42) Comprehensive Schools - Student Guide Book, op.cit., p. 18.

(43) Holmes, B., "Paradigm Shift in Comparative Education" in Comparative Education Review, Vol. 28, No. 3, August, 1984 Comparative and International Education Society, U.S.A., 1984, p. 555.

(44) Ibid., p. 604.

Chapter Seven

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

7.1 Introduction

Since 1975, in recognition of the labour market's needs for trained and qualified indigenous manpower in addition to their commitment to provide education as a basic Human Right, Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia have adopted policies for the reorganisation and diversification of secondary education.

Concerning reforms directed specifically to the general secondary school, the policy makers believed that reforms at this school on the lines of the comprehensive school were necessary because it would attract the majority of intermediate school graduates who vary in their abilities, interests and achievements. They were convinced that the curricula changes introduced at school and elaborated in the previous chapter, should aim to achieve the following objectives:

- equip students with the best type of all-round general education;
- provide an education necessary for different occupations, and
- ensure that in the future suitably trained young adults would be able to enter the labour market.

However, in view of the initial socio-economic conditions and the prevailing educational systems, these policies have not made the impact expected of them. They have neither become instrumental in transforming the traditional outlooks of parents and students towards technical/vocational education nor have they been able to introduce youth to the World of Work. The most crucial aspect, however, is that they have not come up to the expectations of the plannersin these states in their desire to

overcome or reduce the major educational difficulty, that is to say, of preparing adequate and skilled national manpower to replace the expatriate work force.

However, a policy of selective borrowing some features of the comprehensive secondary schools of Sweden and the U.S.A., as the educational planners of these states claim to have done, without considering the specific initial conditions that facilitate success in their own context, has aggravated rather than solved the dilemma. In this respect, Holmes argues that a thorough understanding of the specific initial conditions of the national context would help the planner to avoid a number of unexpected and unwanted consequences of social policy (1).

Thus, in the light of the specific initial conditions of the Gulf Arab States, explored in Chapters Four and Five, an attempt will be made to suggest some possible changes that may help comprehensive secondary schools to succeed. These suggestions will take into account the degree of success of the ideal-typical models (studied in Chapters Two and Three) and what aspects or a combination of features from the three models could be most successfully implemented in the Gulf Arab States.

It is worth reiterating that the policy of comprehensive secondary education as discussed in Chapter Two has not been totally accepted by all social groups in the selected countries. It is also true as Holmes states, that the power of members of established education institutions (i.e. as a result of the mental states of teachers, parents and public in general) makes it difficult to move away from the traditional liberal education which once prepared youth for the learned professions. Even where there is general acceptance of the need to combine liberal and vocational education in a way that will make the latter the core

of the former (as in the case of the U.S.S.R.); "it seems hard", argues Holmes, "to find suitable educational theories and appropriate institutional ways of achieving this aim in practice" (2).

In keeping with the above argument, it may be true that the comprehensive secondary school has, in fact, not solved all the problems particularly that of integrating liberal and vocational education, generally, even in the three selected model countries. However, in the interest of a comparative study, the ideological principles and different structures including curriculum organisation of these models can be considered as ideal typical comprehensive schools and used as guides for the Gulf Arab States. Basically comprehensive education evolved to combine the diverse types of educational provision in a unified school system. Its success, however, depends largely on the society in which it operates and the capacity of existing educational practices to absorb the principles of comprehensivisation of education.

Therefore, guided by the specific initial conditions of the Gulf Arab States, the researcher will reflect on the main features of the ideal comprehensive school models to find which features from these models could be adopted to improve the structure, curriculum and the general functioning of comprehensive schools in the Gulf Arab States.

7.2 Reflections on the Comprehensive School: Ideological Principles and their Application

Ideologically speaking, as elaborated in Chapter Two, the general principles of comprehensive education emerging either from Socialism as in the case of Sweden and England or pragmatism as in the U.S.A., do not contradict Islamic norms. Islamic norms,

in principle, agree with the notion of equality of opportunity, freedom, participation and social prosperity.

Therefore, within the Gulf Arab States, the concept of comprehensive education is largely acceptable. It satisfies the basic Islamic view of education in which all types of useful education are considered desirable. It also upholds the Islamic principles of social equality, participation and egalitarianism. Perhaps the only area in which the concept may create some degree of resistance is the notion of the equality of the sexes and co-education. However, differences about the principles of co-education can be met by providing single sex comprehensive schools with the same curricula and educational facilities. In this respect, the English comprehensive school model provides guidelines which could be well harmonised with Islamic norms.

Concerning the practical application of the principles of comprehensivisation (equality of educational opportunity, participation and societal prosperity), the latter have taken different forms to satisfy the specific initial conditions in each of the model countries as indicated in Chapter Two.

(1) To recall what has been already discussed regarding equality of educational opportunity, in Sweden, it is no longer limited to equal opportunity to compete or to preserve freedoms which count for so much in terms of individual aspirations under conditions of societal prosperity. Swedish policy-makers explicitly tried to compromise between intellectual abilities, students' and parents' aspirations and social requirements, whereas these aspects have been ranked differently in the other model countries. For instance, the English comprehensive school has concerned itself with all these aspects, but has striven to maintain academic standards which have high value in English society.

The American comprehensive high school has attempted to meet the individual's present and future aspirations.

Therefore, in view of the more harmonious practical applications of the principles of equality of educational opportunities, the Swedish model seems more relevant to the Gulf Arab States because Swedes have tried to frame rules and regulations to ensure greater equality. Their centralised system has consistently tried to open all types of secondary education to both sexes with fixed quotas to ensure the recruitment of both boys and girls to the different lines of study. If a set of regulations along these lines were adopted in the Gulf Arab States, it would help to balance student enrolment in different specialisations and would allow more women to have access to specialisations which have hitherto been biased towards men. This type of approach would hopefully, in the long term, ensure the greater development.

(2) The ideal of greater participation in school policy-making and administration is accepted in principle in all the three model countries. The actual degree of participation by various groups, however, depends largely on the traditions and patterns of democratisation of educational administration as well as the mental states of different social groups.

In the English and the American decentralised systems of education, the promotion of effective participation in comprehensive school is not guaranteed by rules and regulations. It depends entirely on the internalised beliefs of teachers as to how participation should be promoted and who should be involved in policy-making. In addition, it is affected by the social structure of a specific area or neighbourhood. For example, in the middle class areas in both countries, parents have more opportunities to participate in school activities and to influence

policies as well as actually working in a comprehensive school than those in the working class and deprived areas. Such participation practices are also related to society's perception of individual freedom and involvement in making rules and regulations as well as in the flexibility of the system in permitting a range of choices to individuals.

In both England and the U.S.A., employers are not required by law to provide students with information about working conditions in the labour market and to offer career education programmes in these schools. Therefore, these failures have not helped the comprehensive school to gear its curriculum towards anticipated changes in the labour market.

In Sweden, however, to ensure that the principle of participation is put into practice, the central authority directs schools to set up within a certain locality joint Committees representing all interest groups to involve them in planning and monitoring the policies by which comprehensive schools are to be administered. In the same way the employers are obliged by the 1977 Joint Regulation of Working Life to provide schools with information about working conditions and expected changes in employment opportunities.

In the case of the Gulf Arab States, considering the limited scope of public participation in political decision-making and taking into account traditional social conditions and the mental states of people concerned with educational policy-making, it is suggested that a policy of mandatory involvement of parents, students and employers similar to the Swedish system would prove more effective than voluntarism on the U.S.A. and English models.

(3) With regard to the achievement of societal prosperity,

the English and the American comprehensive secondary schools have still to strike a balance between the contending pressures to meet individual aspirations and social requirements (including the demands of the labour market). In both systems, student and parent choices are given priority in allocating students to different programmes and specialisations; and schools do not have the power to channel them according to the demands of the labour market as there is no central policy directed towards career selection.

In contrast, the comprehensive integrated secondary school is regarded by the Swedish authorities as a link between the raw labour and the labour market in addition to its other assigned functions explained in Chapter Two. Therefore, all types of education offered in this school tend to respond to the changing conditions of the Swedish labour market and prepare youth for jobs available within the economy.

Here again, it seems reasonable to conclude that Swedish policy would be more appropriate to the Gulf Arab States because they are already committed to a diversification of secondary education to provide a wider range of future career options relative to their expanding economies and to better match the skills learned in school with those urgently needed in the labour market. But, there is a caveat. This policy of integrating secondary education with labour market needs may prove successful at present in replacing semi-skilled and skilled expatriates. If it is adopted as a long term policy, the likelihood is that it will lead to new problems of unemployment among skilled workers because the availability of specific occupations could not be guaranteed. It would appear advisable that the comprehensive school should avoid preparing pupils with narrow

vocational skills. A careful selection of vocationally oriented specialisations should be made according to a long range viable strategy. At the same time, the comprehensive school curriculum needs to be planned on a time scale which includes continuing and recurrent adult education.

Having discussed alternative policy proposals related to the principles of comprehensive education, it now remains, in the following section, to reflect on the three models of comprehensive education in terms of structure and curricula and consider what relevance they might have to the success of the comprehensive secondary schools in the Gulf Arab States.

7.3 Suggested Alternative Solutions

7.3.1 Structure

In view of the stated objectives of the Gulf Arab States to offer a basic nine-year common education for all children at the elementary level and intermediate stage (first cycle of secondary education), and to introduce specialisations at the second cycle of the secondary level, the (6-3-3) structure which prevails in the U.S.A., is considered relevant to these states. This pattern already exists in Bahrain, Saudi Arabia and other Gulf Cooperation Council (G.C.C.) member states such as Oman, Qatar and the U.A.E. except Kuwait where a (4-4-4) pattern operates.

The latest tendency towards regional educational planning and integration between the Gulf Arab States necessitates the adoption of a uniform structural pattern. Therefore, the (6-3-3) pattern which works in the U.S.A. is likely to help to standardise curricula at all levels of education and would allow students mobility within the Gulf Arab States which is an agreed objective of these states under their policy of regional coopera-

tion in education.

7.3.2 Curriculum

Of the three theories of curriculum (pragmatic, essentialist, encyclopaedist) that inform systems in the model countries, discussed in Chapter Three, the pragmatic and encyclopaedic theories are in keeping with the Islamic views on the nature of knowledge which recognises the importance of all established disciplines and considers the acquisition of practical skills necessary for the progress of Islamic society. However, from a different perspective, even the essentialistic theory has its place within the Islamic concept of curriculum as in the classical Islamic education, the religious sciences, which purport to promote spiritual and moral faculties in man, are considered higher in value and essential compared with the secular sciences which are useful in day-to-day work and necessary for the economic and technical development of Muslim societies.

Together, the three theories call for the differentiation of curriculum to include various programmes serving different purposes. If these curriculum theories are judiciously applied, they are likely to contribute to the development of a well organised, differentiated and multiple-choice curriculum which could cater for the diverse needs of the secondary school students.

Curriculum planners and teachers in the model countries have adopted two policies for curriculum planning from the Behaviouristic and Process Models of Curriculum (see Chapter Three) in spite of their unpopularity among some educationists.

Within the Gulf Arab States, curriculum specialists have given priority to the American Behaviouristic Model in designing the content of each subject at the first and second levels

of education. They usually advise teachers to apply this model in teaching and in the assessment of students' learning.

Unfortunately, the features of this model (objectives, content and learning experiences, and evaluation) have not been put into practice consistently. For example, in designing the content of each subject area, curriculum specialists are concerned more with the objectives that are related to theoretical knowledge and the cognitive abilities of pupils; they do not pay sufficient attention to the practical application of knowledge and hence fail to impart skills and attitudes that are necessary to qualify secondary school graduates to enter the labour market.

The Behavouristic model may work successfully in the Gulf Arab States if a variety of concreted efforts are made to implement it. In the first place, the curriculum specialists need to pay equal attention to all the features of this model. They need to recognise the practical application of subjects in such a way as to aim at the specific kind of skills to be imparted to students. At the same time, they ought to plan the content of subjects in such a way that their teaching is not done in isolation, but integrated and coordinated with the curriculum objectives of the comprehensive school.

Since there is a shortage of properly trained curriculum specialists especially for the comprehensive schools, it would be necessary for these states to arrange special programmes of short-term training for curriculum specialists in the field of curriculum planning and development for comprehensive schools. This could be arranged either at the regional level for all the three states or within each country. It would also help if national curriculum specialists are sent abroad to study and observe the practical working of model comprehensive school curricula in different countries.

7.3.3 Curriculum Content and Organisation

As explained in Chapter Three, the curriculum content in the three models of comprehensive school are expressed largely in terms of subjects. All subjects maintain their autonomy despite efforts made towards integrating them in the case of the U.S.A. The three models also include a common core to ensure a general education for all youth and a free choice of elective subjects for different lines of specialisation in the case of Sweden. Programmes in the U.S.A. and blocks or bands in England allow some freedom for students to choose subjects according to their individual interests.

Although the curricula of all the three models of comprehensive school, by and large, purport to prepare students for higher education and employment immediately on leaving school, each model offers a unique organisational policy. For the Gulf Arab States, it appears that the Swedish model of curriculum organisation is more appropriate because it provides precise lines of study to satisfy different needs. Each of these lines ensure all round general education and allows sufficient specialisations for entry into higher academic education and technical/vocational training, or into work immediately after secondary school. The range of lines of study are more controlled and therefore they could be used to channel students to the world of work according to the needs of the labour market.

To make the Swedish pattern of curriculum organisation work in the Gulf, educational planners should choose lines of study appropriate to their contexts because the introduction of many lines and numerous vocational courses, operating in the Swedish integrated comprehensive secondary schools, are certainly beyond the capacity of the Gulf Arab States to provide at this

stage. To enhance the success of these lines of study, the enrolment ratios for both sexes have to be regulated in accordance with manpower needs on a short and long-term basis. In the same way, policies could be implemented which would promote the principles of equality of opportunity for all on a fair basis including the urban and rural areas and especially the Bedouin children in the desert areas in Saudi Arabia. It could happen that certain remote areas could be deprived of various lines which would be tantamount to injustice and ways would have to be found to extend opportunities to all areas and all sections of the population.

7.3.4 Methods of Teaching and the Grouping of Students

Ideally speaking, the three comprehensive school models aim to organise teaching in heterogenous groups at all levels and through the school years to promote social unity. But the wide range of abilities, social needs and individual students' aspirations have obliged them to adopt a variety of approaches even though they contradict the ideal of the comprehensive school. A variety of grouping procedures - such as homogeneous classes of pupils of the same ability (streaming) in specific subjects; or in a school year; setting which has the same characteristics as streaming, or the broad-ability band system - have been adopted in the English comprehensive school. The Swedish integrated comprehensive secondary school however is advised by the central educational authority to apply mixed-ability groupings throughout the lines of study, and is also told to emphasise individualised learning to provide remedial classes for students with learning difficulties. On the other hand, in the American high school, at the senior level, the most common form of grouping is 'tracking'

from the vocational two-year lines. Paradoxically, selection for higher education does take place despite the claim that access is open to everyone.

The three Gulf Arab States have attempted to develop their own systems of assessment and evaluation in their experimental secondary schools by introducing regulations designed to quantify student progress. For example, in Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, the American credit system has been adopted. In Bahrain, external public examinations have been considered suitable to assess students' level of achievement.

Nevertheless, as these states are anxious to grant greater access to higher education (academic and technical) for all students according to their levels of achievement and at the same time maintain standards of educational performance, a policy of public examination on the line of the English model is more appropriate for these states than the American Credit System because free access to higher education is officially not open to everyone as in the U.S.A. and to some extent in Sweden.

At present, the institutions of higher education in the Gulf Arab States suffer from the problems of drop-out, low standards among their graduates and above all, an imbalance in gender enrolments. The case of Kuwait University is typical. The Kuwaiti Minister of Education announced that in the academic year 1984-85, about 3,000 students (males and females) out of the total of 17,000 were on the 'warning' list and about 1,500 of them had been advised to leave the university because their academic standard was below the requirements. The majority of these 1,700 students were enrolled in the arts faculties. Therefore the Minister argued that this condition was attributed to the 1984 admission regulations which made access to higher educa-

tion open for students with low public examination grades (3). Therefore, these states are advised to revise their admission procedures and reset standards for higher studies and balance student enrolments in higher education (universities and colleges of technical and vocational education) with their needs of high level qualified manpower. The generous system of scholarship and grants operating at present, ought to be rationalised in order to give priority to criterion of manpower demands and to relate closely to the targets of national development plans.

7.3.6 Career Education

The three ideal-typical models of the comprehensive school represent different policies which have emerged from their prevailing general ideology and inherited traditions. For instance, in Sweden, as indicated earlier, comprehensive school principles are derived from socialist doctrine and central to such doctrine is the unification of mental and physical labour coupled with a morality which considers work as the foundation of a socialist society and the development of the ideal socialist man. To achieve the objectives within their comprehensive school, career education and vocational programmes are organised to help students develop positive attitudes towards manual work and value all occupations because they are vital to societal prosperity.

In the U.S.A., Dewey's pragmatism stresses combining liberal education and vocational training. In addition, the main concern of the American comprehensive high school is to help all students to gain knowledge and experience relevant to adult life. But the American pragmatic concept of work differs from the Socialist concept. According to the pragmatists, through work, individuals achieve identity and attain stature. But certain types of work

and occupations are seen by them as having high or low stature. However, the American comprehensive school tends to offer well organised programmes in career education and vocational guidance for all students despite their future aspirations. These programmes are stratefied at the senior level (unlike Swedish) according to students' abilities and intended future occupations or professions.

In England, though the comprehensive school notion is to combine liberal education and vocational training, the former still maintains the same status as it had in the grammar school. Therefore, it has not been able to reduce the dichotomy between liberal education and vocational education. Further more, as elaborated in Chapter Two, its career education programmes are only offered to students who, according to their schools, are considered unable to proceed to (or qualify for) higher education or pick up academic subjects.

In the Gulf Arab States, although recent policies of general secondary school reorganisation stress coordinating curricula to the world of work, translation of such policies into curricula and organisational terms has not been achieved. This can be attributed, to some extent, to the failure in educational policy to consider integrating education, training and work, though prevailing educational Islamic ideals emphasise the integration of these aspects.

However, under existing economic conditions of the Gulf Arab States and the policy of qualifying indigenous manpower, the American and the Swedish career education policies could contribute more than the English policy in giving guidelines for the comprehensive school.

To coordinate the comprehensive school curriculum with

the world of work, the following aspects need to be given priority:

(1) a course which offers labour market orientation for all students would provide them with general background knowledge of their subsequent careers and make them familiar with available occupations in the labour market;

(2) opportunity of work experience, practical vocational orientation, field studies and contact with working life, if they are offered for all students, would help them to be familiar with work conditions;

(3) as social welfare officers, for the time being, are assigned the duties of career counsellors, it is essential at this stage to organise in-service training programmes of two to three months duration in career education for them. This course can be organised on a regional level by the Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States with the coordination of Kuwait University where adequate facilities and qualified personnel in the area of career education are available. To enhance the success of this course, specialists in the field from the model countries can be invited to participate in planning and implementing it. If such a course is introduced it would help these welfare officers to carry out their duties effectively in comprehensive secondary schools;

(4) in the long run, schools need to be supplied with permanent and fully-trained career counsellors. The institutions of teacher education in each state should have to design programmes in career education and vocational counselling to provide comprehensive secondary schools with fully qualified personnel.

7.3.7 Administration and Management

In the western models countries, attempts have been made to decentralise the administration of the comprehensive schools to allow for more participation of the teaching and ancilliary staff members in the running of school affairs instead of vesting all administrative authority in the headteacher. The establishment of large comprehensive schools in these countries has made the head of these schools - the recktor in Sweden, the headteacher in England and the principal in the U.S.A. - function as a leader within an administrative bureaucracy rather than a chief who commands total authority within the school. Even in Sweden, where educational policies are generally formulated and adopted at the central level after mutual consultation with different social groups, statutory regulations have been devised to ensure that sufficient autonomy is left to the schools to decide independently on matters such as the timetable, extra-curricula activities, designing of the school day, allocating of duties among teachers and purchasing of teaching materials and similar other questions of day-to-day administration (4).

In the case of the Gulf Arab States, the establishment of the experimental comprehensive schools have not been accompanied by changes in their administrative procedures in order to ensure effective participation and involvement of the staff in the decision-making processes. In fact, most decisions affecting the internal operation of the schools are usually taken at the ministerial level and very limited responsibilities have been delegated to the staff. The overall control of the administrative affairs of the school is vested in the headteacher whose responsibility is to supervise the whole staff. He is accountable to the Director

of Secondary Education in the Ministry of Education both in Bahrain and Kuwait and to the regional Director-General of Education in Saudi Arabia. These practices do not coincide with the ideal comprehensive school administration and management which is based on the principles of participation, delegation of responsibilities, involvement in decision-making and freedom. Therefore, to promote the success of this school in the Gulf Arab States, it would be advisable to introduce changes in its administrative procedures. The Swedish policy in this respect may work in these states especially because it ensures local level autonomy within the schools by statutory regulations. Such a policy, it is hoped, will make it possible gradually to reduce the problem of rigid centralisation of educational administration and oblige school staff to assume responsibilities and get trained in the exercise of decision-making.

Heads, teachers and other school staff are not, however, the only people concerned with policy-making in schools, students are also concerned. In the model comprehensive schools, many methods have been adopted to ensure an effective relationship between students and school staff and to encourage students' involvement in the school policies. For instance, School Councils are established in the English comprehensive schools whose purposes are defined by R. King as follows:

> "they are to enable students to suggest valuable ideas about the running of their schools, allow them to bring their discontent into the open, so preventing the growth of ill-feeling and create a feeling of community in a large school. The benefit of such councils for students is that they give them responsibilities and experience in helping to run the school and an introduction to the method of democracy" (5).

In the states under study, such councils only exist in the Kuwaiti secondary comprehensive schools and not in the Bahraini and Saudi schools. The educational authorities in these two states would gain, by the example of Kuwait, in allowing such councils to be formed in their comprehensive schools. Student Councils similar to those operating in English comprehensive schools can work as a feedback process and allow students to learn how to express responsible opinions about the quality of their education as well as to share, to some extent, the responsibility with the staff to run their schools and arrange their extra-curricula activities.

For the public interest participation there is a tendency among the policy-makers in the Ministries of Education in the Gulf Arab States to encourage the establishment of Parent Councils which are usually composed of parents, teachers and the administrative staff. But participation of parents in such councils does not imply their direct involvement in school policy formulation or implementation as in England and the U.S.A; nor do they act as consultative groups as in Sweden. In fact, the Parent Councils are established in these states to make parents initially familiar with school activities, the progress of children and to create some atmosphere of confidence between the school and the community.

However, for the comprehensive education policy to become successful in its operation and in producing the desired results, it is suggested that even if the political systems of these Gulf Arab States are not democratic in nature, they would benefit by allowing the formation of Consultative School Councils similar to those operating in Sweden which would allow parents, community members, employers and respresentatives from Ministries of Education and Work and Social Affairs to participate in school

policy-making and implementation. Formation of such councils would make comprehensive secondary schools integrate with and respond to the needs of the community and the society at large.

7.3.8 Teacher Education and Training

The comparative study of teacher education and training, in Chapter Three, has shown that in Sweden, an over-all policy of coordinating teacher training programmes with the comprehensive education reforms has been adopted by the central authority since the 1950s. This policy aims at ensuring that potential teachers are well informed and trained to teach in comprehensive schools and contribute more to facilitate the progress of comprehensive education. In England and the U.S.A., there is no general policy which ensures such coordination between comprehensive education reforms and teacher training programmes. In these two countries, it has been left to the initiatives of teacher training institutions to develop their programmes and consider necessary changes in designing content of the teacher training courses.

To cope with the latest reforms in comprehensive schools, especially in their curricula, in the three model countries, teacher training programmes for prospective teachers have been modified to include general education, a specialisation and professional education*.

---

* The professional courses are usually offered in English institutions of teacher education include: Psychology of Educatin, Sociology of Education, Philosophy/Theory of Education, Comparative Education, School Organisation, Educational Planning, methods of teaching the various subjects, educational counselling and vocational guidance, Principles of Education, Curriculum Theory, Special Education (for the handicapped), Out of School Education, Teaching Practice. The teaching practice and principles of education are compulsory subjects for all courses.

Consequently, three approaches have been adopted by these model countries to train teachers for comprehensive secondary schools.

Firstly, to cope with the development of the new interdisciplinary studies and to avoid the risk of teachers being completely ignorant of other subjects taught at the lower secondary level, two specialisations are offered for prospective teachers in Sweden (6). This trend has also been accepted in England to prepare teachers at middle comprehensive schools. In the U.S.A. potential teachers at junior comprehensive high schools usually follow two specialisations (major/minor) in addition to the general education and professional courses. However, they receive more instruction in the major than in the minor subject compared to Sweden where equal instructional hours are devoted to both specialisations.

Secondly, at the higher comprehensive secondary level, in all three model countries, specialisation in one subject is essential for potential teachers who are expected to teach general or academic subjects. They are also expected to follow a course of initial training. For instance, in England, after gaining their Bachelor's degree in one specialisation at a university, prospective teachers are offered a one-year course leading to a specific professional qualification although in shortage subjects they are usually excused. The Bachelor of Education programme is also a one-year supplement to the three-year certificate course which is usually available to specially selected students who intent to teach at secondary schools. In Sweden, they are required to pursue a four and a half year course, three and a half year is for subject study with a concurrent general course of practical pedagogy, preceded by one-term study on methodology and

teaching experience, while the final term is devoted to teaching practice. In the U.S.A., potential teachers are also required to specialise in one major in addition to the other requirements (general and professional courses) during their four or five years period of study.

Thirdly, comprehensive schools offer technical/vocational programmes along with academic or general ones in which particular attention is paid to the education of teachers of practical and vocational subjects. For example, in Sweden and England, teachers of these subjects have also a full year of professional training after gaining their degree or certificate in their specialisations.

However, to promote the success of comprehensive schools in the Gulf Arab States the following features can be adopted from the three selected models of initial teacher training:

(1) an over-all policy of coordinating teacher training programmes and comprehensive secondary school reforms, similar to the Swedish policy, would allow the needs of these schools to be built into the content of teacher education and would contribute to the supply of well-trained teachers who understand the proposed reforms and can act effectively to achieve them.

(2) In general, the American model of teacher education has already been adopted in the three Gulf Arab States though it has not been fully developed. Efforts to implement this model have been concentrated more on the organisational aspects rather than on the development of curricula content. Also, little attention has been paid to link the content of the training programmes with the recent reforms in secondary education. What is needed to promote the success of the comprehensive secondary

education policy is the reconstruction of teacher education programmes along the lines of the American model which is based on comprehensive training principles that aim to give potential teachers a mastery of a specialisation, general education and professional training. And to develop teaching skills and competencies in teachers, the Competency-Based Teacher Education Approach, operating in the U.S.A., would help to develop certain competencies in teachers which would in turn promote better learning among their students. If the American model of teacher education is thoughtfully applied, it can contribute to bring teacher training up to date and ensure sufficient preparation for teachers at secondary level.

(3) As the polytechnic in Bahrain and higher institutions of vocational/technical education in Kuwait and Saudi Arabia are responsible for providing specialised training for those candidates who intend to teach technical and vocational subjects in comprehensive and other types of technical/vocational secondary school, this group of teachers cannot function properly because they have not received professional training. Therefore, to train this group of teachers the English model of teacher education provides a solution that may work in the Gulf Arab States. Here two alternatives along the English model are possible. First, during four or three - years period of study, potential teachers should attend professional training courses offered at the institutions in charge of teacher education. This solution is relevant to the Bahraini and Kuwaiti conditions which allow student-teachers' mobility between the technical/voca-

tional and teacher training institutions. In view of the geographical and climatic conditions which may hinder student-teachers' mobility in Saudi Arabia, the English model provides another solution. Accordingly, their specialised courses can be condensed into a two or three-years period so that their final year can be allocated for professional training either in the regional colleges of teacher education or in the faculties of education in Saudi universities.

7.3.9 In-service Education and Training

In-service education and training has been emphasised in all the three model countries in order to enrich the initial training of teachers, to prepare them for new roles, i.e. head teachers, deputy heads, heads of departments - and to make them familiar with changes in school curricula.

In fact, Sweden is the only country in which the reform of the school system on comprehensive lines has been associated with a policy of compulsory in -service teacher training. The Swedish authorities have attempted to regulate and make in-service training compulsory for all teachers. Attempts to implement this policy accompanied the school reorganisation at the earlier stage of experimentation. For instance, between 1950-1962, in every area where the experiment of the comprehensive school system of nine years was being carried out, teachers were introduced to the new system through special courses, study days and various kinds of meetings. Experts were nominated both centrally and at the regional level and assigned the task of designing in-service courses for teachers working in the experimental schools. Special courses were even begun for the headteachers of the new experimental

schools to help them to understand their new roles.

England and the U.S.A. have not formulated a coherent in-service training policy consistent with the comprehensive education reform. The educational authorities in these two countries prefer to encourage ad hoc development by confining their efforts to benevolent support to individual teachers who are keen to attend in-service training courses.

As the problems of teacher training in the Arab Gulf States have been highlighted in Chapter Six, it is clear that in-service training programmes for secondary school teachers are not implemented according to a general in-service training policy. Therefore, an in-service training policy along the Swedish lines would be more desirable because this kind of policy would regulate in-service training and make it compulsory for all comprehensive secondary school teachers. It would also ensure an over-all staff development which is an urgent need at present.

Concerning the forms of in-service training provision in the model countries, a variety of approaches have been adopted such as the study days, the short courses ranging from those of specialist subject to more general ones, induction schemes for all full-time probationary teachers (in England), studies of professional practice for teachers of vocational subjects in comprehensive secondary schools (in Sweden), study trips, correspondence courses and School-Focused INSET, which gives each individual school an opportunity to devise its own staff development programmes and the local authorities provide external support (7).

In comparison to the model countries' efforts to develop in-service training programmes, the Gulf Arab States have still a long way to go. However, they can benefit a great deal, both from what to adopt and what to avoid from model countries' practices.

As the main concern here is in-service training programmes for comprehensive secondary school teachers in order to raise the level of their efficiency for their new tasks, the following components of in-service training applied in the model countries may be selected:

(1) Special short courses on comprehensive secondary school administration and management, for head teachers can be introduced at a regional or national level. Such courses would allow a greater familiarity with comprehensive secondary school reforms and their new tasks. And to make headteachers familiar with practices in other countries, these states can arrange to send selected headteachers to attend similar courses in the model countries where the comprehensive education systems have, to some degree, been effective. More attention to such courses should be paid to actual implementation of comprehensive policies rather than on the theoretical aspects.

(2) Field trips, conferences, seminars concerning comprehensive school curriculum should be arranged for all teachers. Attendance and contribution in such activities should be compulsory for all, national and expatriates.

(3) In Saudi Arabia, the adoption of School-Focused INSET (operating on experimental levels in England) can help to train teachers especially in comprehensive secondary schools established outside the main cities. This scheme can be implemented under be auspices of the Units of In-Service Training in each regional educational authority.

7.4 Conclusion

To conclude, if the suggested alternative solutions for the comprehensive secondary school are adopted in the Arab States of the Gulf, it is hoped that these schools would prove to be instrumental in the integration of theoretical and practical aspects of secondary education so as to develop a sound system of schooling designed to offer good all-round academic and technical/vocational education necessary for these emerging Arab states. Such a system would function to equip the young with skills needed for different occupations at different levels. It would also help generate greater equality of educational opportunities for all types of students and of both sexes.

Nevertheless, the proposed changes should not be considered as the ideal method of solving the problem of shortage of trained local manpower in the Gulf Arab States. The premise that the introduction of reforms along comprehensive lines will solve such a specific problem is questionable because the accumulated evidence about the potentialities of comprehensive secondary education in the three model countries shows their limitations for such a goal. The purpose of understanding the comprehensive school is precisely to distinguish between those reforms that can be achieved through the schools and those that require changes outside the schools, in the larger primary and secondary institutions of the Gulf States.

Indeed, conditions are changing so rapidly in these states that it is feared that even the solutions proposed above may face certain constraints if they are to be implemented. For example, efforts to maintain desirable standards of education may be affected by the current reviews of national expenditure as a result of a sudden recession in oil revenues. The educational budget may be drastically reduced and the educational authorities

may be forced to limit their spending which may mean inadequate supply of equipment, shortages of facilities to develop teaching/ learning conditions.

Again, aversion to manual work is a universal phenomenon, and, in the Gulf Arab States, where the oil wealth has created too many rich people, too soon, it is obvious that members of the younger generation will tend to see themselves more as the employers of foreign workers or as businessmen, government employees, rather than skilled workers. Therefore, prolonged periods of general national consciousness and economic understanding vis-a-vis increasing level of education and culture will be needed to change long held attitudes to work.

A final conclusion that the researcher would like to draw is that this research has opened up many avenues in which further investigations are called for. These include education and its bearing on employment, career education, education and equality, teacher education and training and regional educational cooperation, all of which and many more issues would require thorough investigation and a deeper understanding in order to develop a successful and effective system of education in the Gulf Arab States.

Meanwhile, the conclusions reached suggest ways forward for the governments of these states committed as they are to the provision of education for all and to the development of an adequately trained indigenous labour force.

Chapter Seven

References

(1) Holmes, B., "Paradigm Shift in Comparative Education" in Comparative Education Review, Vol.28, No. 3, August, 1984, Comparative and International Education Society, U.S.A., 1984, p. 604.

(2) Holmes, B., A Comparative Approach to Education, University of London Institute of Education, U.K., (n.d.) p. 87.

(3) El-Ebrāheem, H., "Sayāsat al-Qubūl al-Jadeedah fi Jama'at al-Kuwiyt" being: "A New Policy for Students Admission at Kuwait University" in AL-ANBA Daily News, 2nd March, 1986, No. 3660, Kuwait, p. 5.

(4) N.S.B.E. The 1980 Compulsory School Curriculum, N.S.B.E., Information Section, Sweden, 1980, p. 30.

(5) King, R., School Organisation and Pupil Involvement - A Study of Secondary Schools, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1973, pp. 150-153.

(6) O.E.C.D. Training, Recruitment and Utilisation of Teachers in Primary and Secondary Education, O.E.C.D., Publications, Paris, 1971, pp. 429-430.

(7) Bolam, R., "In-Service Teacher Training in Developed Countries" in Bude, U. and Greenland, J. (eds.), In-Service Education and Training of Primary School Teachers in Anglophone Africa - Report on the Dissemination Conference for Eastern, Central and Southern Africa. Harare, (Zimbabwe) 19-23 April, 1982. Nomas Verlagsgesellschaft - Baden-Baden, West Germany, 1983, pp. 136-137.

List of Tables

(1) Timetable in Swedish Compulsory Comprehensive School - Senior level - Class Type A.

(2) The Swedish Upper Integrated Secondary School - The Academic Three and Four Year Lines.

(3) Subject Pools for Options in the Fifth Year in a Large 11-18 Comprehensive School in England.

(4) Options Organisation at the John Cleveland College. An Upper Comprehensive School - England.

(5) Science Subjects Studied by Pupils in the Fourth and Fifth Year - by Types of School and Sex of Pupils in Schools Surveyed by D.E.S. in England, 1978.

(6) Typical Required and Elective Courses in Junior Comprehensive Schools - United States.

(7) Courses Offering and Graduation Requirements - Amherst Central High School, U.S.A.

(8) A List of Various Subjects in Science Usually Offered in American High Schools.

(9) Frequently Offered Social Studies Courses by Grades in American High Schools - 9-12 Grade.

(10) The Share of the Oil Sector (%) in The Kuwaiti Economy.

(11) Basic Indicators of the Population in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia.

(12) Occupations in Critically Short Supply in Bahrain.

(13) Comparison of Bahrain vs. Non-Bahraini in a Random Selection of Occupations.

(14) A - Labour Force by Major Occupational Groups 1970-1975 in Kuwait.

B - Technicians, Skilled and Semi-Skilled Worker, 1975, in Kuwait.

(15) A - Population by Nationality in Saudi Arabia, 1974- 1975.

B - Estimated Saudi and Non-Saudi Manpower by Occupation Group (1400 A.H.) (1979 A.D.)

(16) Teachers, by Nationality in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, 1975/76 and 1980/81.

(17) Subjects Offered and Periods Allocated for them in General Secondary School Prior to 1980/81 - Bahrain.

(18) Curriculum Plan for Technical Secondary Education, 1981/82.

(19) Curriculum Plan for Commercial Secondary Education 1981/82 - Bahrain.

(20) Curriculum Plan for Religious Education, Bahrain.

(21) A - Number of (Bahraini) Students by Type of Secondary and Sex 1972/73 - 1975/76.

B - The Development of Students by Type Branches and Sex of Secondary Education 1977/78 - 1981/82 - Bahrain.

(22) Curriculum Plan in Kuwait General Secondary School.

(23) Enrolment in Government School by Sex and Level of Education in Kuwait 1972/73 - 1981/82.

(24) Number of Students at General and Vocational Schools in Kuwait.

(25) General Summary of Educational Institutions, Pupils and Graduates by Level and Type of Education in Saudi Arabia 1969-70 - 1974-75.

(26) The Curriculum Plan for Second Level - Cycle II - Put Into Practice in 1980-1982 in Saudi Arabia.

(27) Curriculum Plan in Dammam Technical Institute, Saudi Arabia.

(28) Curriculum Plan and Weekly Periods for Commercial Secondary School in Saudi Arabia.

(29) Curriculum Plan and Weekly Periods for Model Technical Agricultural Institute of Burayadah in Saudi Arabia.

(30) Projected and Obtained (Actual Number of Enrollees in Technical Institution during 1975/76 - 1978/79, Saudi Arabia.

(31) Curricula Plan for the Literacy Section of General Secondary Education - Bahrain.

(32) Curricula Plan for the Scientific Section of General Secondary Education - Bahrain.

(33) Curricula Plan for Health Sciences Secondary Education, Bahrain.

(34) A - Curricula Plan for Hotel Secondary Education.

B - Curricula Plan for Textile and Clothing Secondary Education.

C - Curricula Plan for Agriculture and Livestock Resources Secondary Education.

D - Curricula Plan for Printing Secondary Education.

(35) The Number of Students who Received the Questionnaire and those who Responded and Their Percentage - 1st and 2nd Year Secondary - Bahrain.

(36) Teachers of Secondary (General, Commercial and Health Sciences) School by Qualification, Age, Nationality, and Sex 1980-1981 - Bahrain.

(37) A Comparison Statistics of Students Drop-Out in Different Kinds of Secondary Education and their Percentage 1981-82, 1982-83, Bahrain.

(38) The General Plan for the Curriculum in Kuwaiti Experimental Secondary School.

(39) A - H. Curriculum Plan for Different Specialisations in Kuwait Experimental Secondary School.

(40) The Number, Name and Unit of Credits Covered of the Required Core Subjects in Kuwait Experimental Secondary Schools.

(41) The Breakdown of Respondents Among Students and Staff in Kuwait University Survey 1982 about Conditions in Kuwait Experimental Secondary School.

(42) A - Number of Teachers by Nationality and Sex in Kuwait.

B - Teachers in Government Secondary Schools by Nationality and Sex 1978-79 in Kuwait.

(43) A - Curriculum Plan - Chemistry/Biology Stream Al-Dammam Comprehensive School in Eastern Region - Saudi Arabia.

B - Curriculum Plan - Physics/Chemistry Stream.

C - Curriculum Plan - Physics/Mathematics Stream.

Table No.1

Timetable in Swedish Compulsory Comprehensive School - Senior Level - Class Type A

SUBJECT	Hpw in					
	Gr 7		Gr 8		Gr 9	
	S	T	S	T	S	T
1) Compulsory subjects						
Swedish	3	4	3	4	4	5
Mathematics	4	4	4	4	4	4
English	3	3	3	3	3	3
Music	2	2			1	1
Drawing	2	2	2	2	1	1
Handicraft	2	2	2	2	1	1
Domestic Science			3	3	2	2
Physical Education	3	3	3	3	3	3
2) Orientational subjects						
Religious knowledge Civics Geography History Biology Chemistry Physics	10	13	10	13	10	13
3) Practical vocational orientations						2
4) Optional subjects	4		3		4	
5) Freely chosen work	2		2		2	
TOTAL	35		35		35	

Hpw = hours per week T = Teacher(s)
S = Student(s) G = Grade(s)

Source: The National Swedish Board of Education.
Curriculum for the Comprehensive School Lgr 69 General Section
Stockholm 1971, 118

Table No. 2

The Swedish Upper Integrated Secondary School - The Academic Three and Four Year Lines

	All	Arts		Soc. Sc.		Economics		Sciences		Technology		
	1	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	4
1 - Swedish	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	2	
2 - English	3	3	2	2	-/3	2	-/4	2	-	2	-/1	
German/French	-/3	3	2/4/6	3	-/4	3	3/4	-/3	-/3	-/3	-/1	
3rd Language	4/-	3	-/4	3	-/4	3	-/4	-/3	-/3	4/-	-/1	
History	2	4	2	4	2	2		4		2		
Civics	3	-/3	2/4½	3	4½	3	2½		2		2	
3 - Mathematics	5			2	4	-/3	-/3	5	5	5	5	
P.E.	3	3	2	1	1	1	1	3	2	3	1	
Linguisitcs	3											
Latin	-/7	-/7										
Greek	-/4	-/4										
4 - Religious Knowledge		3	3		3		2		2		2	
Philosophy	1/2			2				2				
General Science	-/3/5	2		4								
Physics	2½						4	4	4	4		
Chemistry	2½						2½	2	4			
Biology							1½	1½				
History of Art/Music	1	1		1			1					
Music or Drawing	1	1		1			1					
Psychology				2			2					
Managerical Economics	-/2					8	-/3					3
Accounting							-/7					
Distribution							-/7					
Administration							-/7					
Law							2					
Typing	-/2					1	-/1					
Shorthand						-/3	-/3					
Ergonomics												2
Technology										6	5	
Technical Variants											11½	30

Source: L. Boucher, Traditions and Change in Swedish Education, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1982, p. 107.

Table No. 3

Subject Pools for Options in the Fifth Year in a large 11-18 Comprehensive School* in England

1		2		3		4		5	
18 French	o/c	23 History	o/c	23 Geography	o/c	30 Chemistry	o/c	20 Physics	o/c
8 Spanish	c	4 Typing	c	9 Chemistry	o	15 Physics	o/c	35 Biology	o/c
37 History	o/c	8 Technical drawing	o	11 Biology	c	11 General science	c	14 General science	c
37 Geography	o/c	8 Metal work	c	8 Typing	c	4 Economics	o	14 Art	o/c
		8 Engineering	c	6 Scripture	c	15 Social studies	c	9 Typing	c
		24 Domestic science	o/c	14 Art	o/c	9 Music	c	8 Accounts	c
		10 Needlework	o/c	14 Technical drawing	o/c	9 Typing	c		
		7 Catering	c	7 Domestic science	c	7 Accounts	c		
		8 Woodwork	o/c	8 Engineering	o				

The figures give a rough indication of the percentage of pupils choosing the subject in each column in a typical year.
o = GCE groups. c = CSE groups.

*These optional subject pools do not, of course, include the required subjects which all pupils must study (English, mathematics, religious education, 'careers', physical education).

Source: C. Benn and B. Simon, Half Way Through - A Report on the British Comprehensive School Reform, U.K. McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Ltd., (1970), p. 178.

Table No. 4

Options Organisation at the John Cleveland College - An Upper Comprehensive School - England

COURSE 1	COURSES 1B AND 2 **See separate note	COURSE 3	COURSE 4
CORE SUBJECTS English 4hrs, Mathematics 3hrs, PE 2hrs and RI 1hr.	CORE SUBJECTS English 4hrs, Mathematics 3hrs, PE 2hrs and RI 1hr.	CORE SUBJECTS English 4hrs, Mathematics 3hrs, Science 3hrs, Geography 2hrs, History 2hrs, PE 2hrs and RI 1Hr.	CORE SUBJECTS English 2hrs, Drama 1hr, Mathematics 3hrs, Science 3hrs, Humanities 7hrs, PE 2hrs
Option 1 (3hrs) French German Commerce Engineering Drawing	*Option 1 (4hrs) Physics Engineering Science General Science Biology Human Biology	Option A (4hrs) †Technical Studies Engineering Drawing Cookery/Housecraft Catering for Boys Typing/Office Prac. Needlecraft ϕArt/Craft French Music	DESIGN SUBJECTS INCLUDE Engineering Sculpture Engineering Drawing Pottery Art Picture Making Pastry Cooking Soft Furnishings Beauty Care Dressmaking Embroidery Jewellery Making Home Management Woodwork Leatherwork Plastics
Option 2 (3hrs) Physics Biology Engineering Science Russian	Option 2 (3hrs) History Geography Computer Studies		
Option 3 (3hrs) Chemistry French Geography RI Computer Studies	Option 3 (4hrs) Engineering Drawing †Technical Studies Homecraft/Catering Needlecraft Geography French Art/Craft Music		
Option 4 (3hrs) Geography History Latin Music Engineering Drawing	Option 4 (4hrs) Engineering Drawing †Technical Studies Chemistry Typing/Office Prac. Homecraft/Catering Needlecraft ϕArt/Craft Drama	Option B (4hrs) †Technical Studies Engineering Drawing Cookery/Housecraft Catering for Boys Typing/Office Prac. Needlecraft ϕArt/Craft Drama	
Option 5 (3hrs) Biology History Geography †Technical Studies Cookery Needlecraft ϕArt/Craft			

** Students will be put in course 1b for a particular subject on the recommendation of the high school. Such students will embark on an O-level course in that subject.

* Students embark on a common course which separates into the subjects shown after progress and aptitude have been assessed.

ϕ Art/Craft includes two- and three-dimensional work in a variety of materials.

† Technical studies include a choice of woodwork, plastics, engineering, auto-technology, jewellery and aesthetic metal work.

Source: A.N. Fairbairn, The Leicestershire Plan - 1980, London, Heinemann Educational Books, (1980), pp. 114-115.

Table No. 5

Science subjects studied by pupils in the fourth and fifth years: by type of school and sex of pupils.

Surveyed by the D.E.S., 1978 - England.

Percentages of pupils

	Type of school					
	Mod	Gram	FR Comp	RR Comp	Trans	All schools
Year 4						
Boys studying						
Physics	41	86	51	46	47	51
Chemistry	14	70	34	22	27	31
Biology	22	54	33	27	30	32
Integrated and general science	29	2	21	24	15	21
Other science	15	—	7	5	2	7
Girls studying						
Physics	6	41	13	11	9	13
Chemistry	5	49	21	13	14	19
Biology	50	87	61	56	58	60
Integrated and general science	19	5	16	19	10	15
Other science	7	—	4	3	1	4
Year 5						
Boys studying						
Physics	40	79	48	42	41	48
Chemistry	15	59	32	22	23	29
Biology	21	52	32	28	27	31
Integrated and general science	29	2	24	23	27	23
Other science	14	—	6	6	3	7
Girls studying						
Physics	4	28	11	6	6	10
Chemistry	4	37	18	11	13	16
Biology	50	84	59	54	54	58
Integrated and general science	16	5	16	19	16	15
Other science	6	—	3	3	2	4
Thousands of pupils						
Year 4						
Boys	5.6	2.3	18.9	4.2	2.7	33.5
Girls	5.8	2.6	17.8	3.8	2.5	32.6
Year 5						
Boys	5.7	2.3	18.3	4.2	2.5	33.0
Girls	5.7	2.6	17.3	3.5	2.7	31.7
Number of schools	97	51	163	45	28	384

Source: D.E.S., Aspects of Secondary Education in England - A Survey by H.M. Inspectors of Schools, London, H.M.S.O. Publication, (1978), p. 167.

Table No. 6.

Typical Required and Elective Courses in Junior Comprehensive School - United States

Grade	Required Courses	Periods	Elective Courses
7	English	5	Ability Grouping
	Social Studies	5	
	Mathematics	5	Ability Grouping
	Foreign Language		
	Science	5	Ability Grouping
	Physical Education		
	Art) Industrial Arts) Home Economics) Music)		These courses are often required part-time during the year. Some schools make them electives.
8	English	5	Ability Grouping
	Social Studies	5	
	Mathematics (algebra)	5	Ability Grouping
	Foreign Language		
	Science	5	Ability Grouping
	Physical Education		
	Industrial Arts) Music) Home Economics)		Some schools make these optional.
9	English	5	Ability Grouping
	Algebra or Gen.Math	5	Algebra or Gen. Math
	Social Studies	5	Ability Grouping
	Science	5	Ability Grouping
	Foreign Language		Foreign Language
	Physical Education		Art, Industrial Arts Music, Home Economics Typing

Source: James Bryant Conant. Recommendations for Education in the Junior High School Years, 1960.

Source: Shimshon, S., Equality of Educational Opportunity through the Comprehensive School - A Comparative Study of Comprehensive Secondary, Ph.D., pp. 91.

Table No. 7

COURSE OFFERINGS AND GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS
AMHERST CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL

Requirements for an
Amherst Central High School Diploma

	Units
4 years of English	4
9th grade Social Studies	1
European Culture Studies	1
American Studies	1
General Science	1
1 year of mathematics	1
Health Education	½
3-year sequence (other than History or English)	3
Electives	4½*
4 years of physical education	1
Total	18

*If math or science is used as a major only two additional courses are required and then there may be 5½ units of electives.

Special Requirements for a
New York State Regents Diploma

1. Regents examinations must be passed in English, Comprehensive Social Studies and the major sequence (if offered).
2. Basic Math, Math 9, or Business Arithmetic only may be used to satisfy the one-year requirement.
3. Intermediate Algebra may not be used for a major sequence.
4. Although 4 years of physical education are required for graduation, no unit credit is given towards the regents diploma.

(A unit is the credit given to a subject meeting 4 or 5 class periods a week for a school year.)

-- continued

Suggestions for the 3-Year Sequence
(Major)

Art Courses

	Units
Basic Art	½ or 1
Sculpturing	½ or 1
Design and Illustration	1
Drawing and Painting	1
Advanced Design	1
Art Seminar	1
Three Dimensional Design	½
Art History	½ or 1

Business Courses

Typewriting I	1
Shorthand I	1
Shorthand II and Transcription	1½
Secretarial Practice	1
Consumer Arithmetic	1
Business Arithmetic	1
Bookkeeping	1
Business Law	1
Office Practice 1	1
Office Practice 2	1
Distribution	1
Store Experience	½ or 1
Personal Typing	½
Advanced Typing	½
Consumer Education	½

Typewriting I is recommended for all who plan a business major. It is a prerequisite for Shorthand II and Office Practice I.

Typewriting I or Personal Typing is a prerequisite for Advanced Typing.

Home Economics

Home Economics 1--Personal & Child Development	1
Home Economics 2--Personal and Family Management	1
Home Economics 4--Child Development	½
Home Economics 6--Housing, Home Furnishings and Equipment	½
Home Economics 10--Nutrition & Meal Management	½

Table No. 7 Continued

-- continued

Home Economics 11--Textiles and Clothing	½
Home Economics 12--Family Values for Democratic Living	½

Courses are co-ed. There are no prerequisites.

Industrial Arts

Graphic Arts (9th grade)	1
Electricity (9th grade)	1
Wood Lab I	½
Wood Lab II	½
Wood Lab III	½
Advanced Wood Lab	1
Metal Lab I	½
Metal Lab II	½
Auto Tech Lab	1
Small Engines Lab	½

Wood I and II are prerequisites for Advanced Wood. Wood II is prerequisite for Wood III.

Mathematics Courses

9th year Math (Elementary Algebra)	1
10th year Math (Geometry)	1
11th year Math (Int. Algebra and Trig.)	1
Intermediate Algebra	1
Trigonometry	½
Solid Geometry	½
Principles of Math	½
Probability	½
Analytical Geometry	½

Mechanical Drawing Courses

Mechanical Drawing I (general)	½
Mechanical Drawing IIA (Sheet Metal)	½
Mechanical Drawing IIB (Machine Parts)	½
Mechanical Drawing III (Cams and Gears)	½
Mechanical Drawing IV (Architectural)	1
Mechanical Drawing V (Survey, & Topography)	½

-- continued

Music Courses

Music I -- Rudiments	1
Music II -- Harmony	1
Music Literature	½
General Music III	½
Orchestra	1
Band	1
Choir	1
Mixed Chorus	1
Girls Chorus	1
A'Cappella Choir (admission is selective)	½
	1

Science Courses

General Science (9th grade)	1
Biology	1
Physics	1
General Chemistry	1
Chemistry	1
Earth Science	1
Biological Science	1
Physical Science	1

Math 9 (Elementary Algebra) is a prerequisite for Chemistry.

Math 10 is a prerequisite for Physics.

Electives

Electives may be selected from any of the preceding courses and from those listed below:

Driver Training	½
Comparative Governments	½
Sociology	½
Economics	½
Anthropology	½
Canadian Studies	½
Urban Studies	½
Mythology	½
Our Roman Legacy	½
Drama 1	½
Drama 2	½
Phonoscript	½

American Studies is a prerequisite for Sociology, Economics, and Comparative Governments.

Source: Shimshon, S., Equality of Educational Opportunity through the Comprehensive School - A Comparative Study of Comprehensive Secondary, Ph.D., pp. 94-97.

Table No. 8

A List of Various Subjects in Science.
Usually offered in American High Schools.

Ninth Grade

Earth Science
General Science
Chemistry
Biology
Physical Science

Tenth Grade

Biology
Advanced Biology
Applied Chemistry
Chemistry

Eleventh Grade

Advanced Physical Science
Advanced Biology
Astronomy
Physics
Aviation
Advanced Chemistry
Chemistry
Agriculture
Applied Physics
Meteorology

Twelth Grade

Advanced Physical Science
Physics
Chemistry
Advanced Physics
Advanced Chemistry
Advanced Biology
Electronics
Astronomy
Meteorology
Aviation
Advanced Agriculture
Machines and Electricity

Source: L.H. Clarke, et a., The American Secondary School Curriculum, 2nd ed., Collier Macmillan, Publishers, London, (1972), p. 314

Table No. 9

Frequently Offered Social Studies Courses by Grades in American High Schools

A. *Junior High School*

7th	*8th*	*9th*
World Geography	*American History*	*Civics*
American History—Geography	American History—State History	World Geography
American History	American History—Civics	World History
Geography	American History—Geography	State History—Civics
State History—Geography	World Geography	Social Studies
Social Studies		
State History		

B. *Senior High School*

10th	*11th*	*12th*
World History	*American History*	*Problems of Democracy*
American History	Economics	American Government
World History—Geography	Sociology	Sociology
Modern History	World History	Economics
State History	American History—Government	Psychology
	World Geography	World History
	World Cultures	World Cultures
		Advanced Placement History[a]

[a] Adapted from Willis D. Moreland, "Curriculum Trends in the Social Studies," *Social Education* 26:72–76, 102, Feb., 1962, and updated with information from Grace S. Wright, *op. cit.*

Source: Clark, L.H., Klein, R.L., and Burks, J.B., The American Secondary School Curriculum, 2nd. ed., London, Collier Macmillan Publishers, (1972), p. 175.

Table No. 10

A THE SHARE OF THE OIL SECTOR (%) IN THE KUWAIT ECONOMY

YEAR	1972/73	1973/74	1974/75	1975/76	1976/77	1977/78
Oil	59.9	68.5	77.2	70.0	73.2	65.1
Non-Oil	40.1	31.5	22.8	30.0	26.8	34.9

Source: Khouja M.W. & Sadler P.G. "Economic and Social Development of Kuwait" Paper presented to the Conference on Industrial Strategies and Policies for Kuwait (Kuwait, March 1980)

B CRUDE OIL OUTPUT (Thousand barrels/day)

PERIOD	AVERAGE ANNUAL PRODUCTION	AVERAGE ANNUAL % INCREASE
1946 - 1949	39.6	-
1950 - 1954	253.7	32.5
1955 - 1959	456.3	8.8
1960 - 1964	714.0	10.0
1965 - 1969	929.4	3.76
1970 - 1971	1128.0	7.4
1972 - 1975	963.8	-13.9

Source: S M Al-Sabah Development Planning in an Oil Economy and The Role of the Woman: The Case of Kuwait, Eastlords Publishing Limited, UK, (1983) p. 71.

Table No. 11

BASIC INDICATORS OF THE POPULATION IN BAHRAIN, KUWAIT AND SAUDI ARABIA

	COUNTRIES	INFANT MORTALITY RATE (ages 0-1)		TOTAL POPULATION (millions)	ANNUAL NO. OF BIRTHS INFANTS AND CHILD DEATHS (0-4) (Thousands)	GNP PER CAPITA (USA $)	LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH (Years)	% ADULTS LITERATE MALE/ FEMALE	% OF AGE GROUP ENROLLED IN PRIMARY SCHOOL M/F	% OF SHARE HOUSEHOLD INCOME 1972 - 1981
		1982	1960	1982	1982	1982	1982	1980	1980-82	
A	High IMR Countries (60-100) Median	90	140	660	24,414/3.035	900	58	69/57	104/94	-
	SAUDI ARABIA	100	140	10.0	434/67	16000	56	35/12	79/54	-
B	Middle IMR Countries (26-50 Median)	38	80	1451	31,198/1,959	1885	67	90/83	106/103	-
	KUWAIT	31	90	1.5	57/2.0	19870	71	72/54	96/93	-
	BAHRAIN[2]	38	130	0.4	--/0.5[3]	9280	68	75/52	108/95	-

[1] Infant Mortality Rate: High (60-100) Median — Saudi Arabia
Infant Mortality Rate: Middle (26-50) Median — Kuwait and Bahrain

[2] Bahrain's basic indicators are classified under the less populous countries

[3] UNICEF Field Office Source.

Source: The State of the World's Children, 1985, pp. 120-124.

Table No. 12

OCCUPATIONS IN CRITICALLY SHORT SUPPLY IN BAHRAIN

(1) Professional and Managerial Occupations

Series of Occupations	Foreign* Employment
I Managerial Services	
Banking, industrial transportatation, Hotel and Catering and Retail Trade	1119
II Technical and Administrative Series	
Public Adm.	1095
Accountants	852
Civil and Road Engineers	225
Building Construction Engineers	135
Surveyors	70
Electrical & Electronic Enginrs.	113
Aircraft pilots, navigators, Flight Engineers	304
Ship deck officers and pilots	620
nurses	
Medical doctors and vets	97
Systems analysts, statisticians	36
Teachers	586
Architects	36
Mechinical Engineers	119
Metallurgists	14
Mining Engineers	22
Petroleum Engineers	35
Pharmacists	54
Computer programmers	59
Personnel Adm.	57

(2) Technicians (Ed. Level: Sec. School Completion with two Additional Years of Study with a speciality)

Series of Occupations	Foreign Employment
Draughtsmen	89
Architectural Tech.	89
Chemical Engineering Tech.	25
Civil Engineering Techn	136
Telecommunication Technicians	65
Electronics/electrical engineering	129
Mechanical Engineering technicians	55
Heating Ventilation and refrigeration technicians	85
Chemical/Petroleum Technicians	37
Physiotherapists	17

(3) Clerical and Related Occupations

Series of Occupations	Foreign Employment
Typists/File clerks, teletype operators & key-punch operators	526
Book-keepers and purchasing	710
Secretaries/stenographers	569
Computer machine operators	59
Receptionists and travel clerks	137
Telephone and telegraph operators	52
Clerical Supervisors	537
Correspondence and reporting clerks	886
Stock clerks	555

(4) Skills Occupations

Series of Occupations	Foreign Employment
Production supervisors	1136
Earth Moving equipment and related machinery	236
Bricklayers, stone masons, reinforced concreters	3139
Cement finishers	472
Electronic computer and related equipment mechanics	57
Radio and television repairmen	105
Electrical and electronic equipment repairmen	40
Maintenance & Building electr.	457
Electric linemen and cable joiners	121
Plumbers and pipefitters	1083
Welders	612
Sheet metal workers	351
Structural metal preparers and erectors	450
Printing general including printing pressmen	299
Metal machine operators	177
Aircraft Eng. mechanics	186
Office equipment repair mechanics	27
Refrigeration equipment installation & repair mechanics	254
Automobile mechanics	528
Cooks	1127
Machinery fitters	978
Electrical	457
Metal processors	244
Crane operators	262

Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs: Summary of the Ministry of Labour's Staff Paper on Manpower Planning for Bahrain - A Society in Transition, 1979, Bahrain, pp. 4-6.

* No. does not indicate complete count of foreigners employed by public and private sectors in any particular occupation - e.g. data for private sector only includes foreigners resported in the Manpower Survey and statistics accumulated at the Ministry.

Table No. 13

COMPARISON OF BAHRAINI vs. NON-BAHRAINI IN A RANDOM SELECTION OF OCCUPATIONS

KINDS OF OCCUPATION	BAHRAINI	NON-BAHRAINI	% BAHRAINI OF TOTAL
I Managerial			
- Banking, Industrial, Communication, Transportation, Commercial and Related	351	1119	24
- Architects	3	104	3
- Civil Engineers	4	225	2
- Electrical, Electronic Engineer Pilots, Navaigators, Flight Engr	45	304	13
II Technicians			
- Draftsmen	16	89	15
- Electrical/Electronic	13	129	9
III Job Title			
- Clerical Supervisors	443	573	44
- Stenographers/typists/keypunch	590	1006	37
IV Occupational Title			
- Production Supv. & general foreman	811	1163	41
- Machinery fitters	792	2322	25
- Plumbers, welders and metal preparers	1070	2496	30

Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, "A Report on Manpower Planning for Bahrein - A Society in Transition", 1982, Bahrain, (subscripts nid.), pp. 24.

Table No. 14A

Labour Force by Major Occupational Groups, 1970-1975 in Kuwait

	1970						1975					
Occupation	*Kuwaiti*	*%*	*non-Kuwaiti*	*%*	*Total*	*%*	*Kuwaiti*	*%*	*non-Kuwaiti*	*%*	*Total*	*%*
Scientific & professional	3,734	6.1	21,888	12.4	25,622	10.8	9,739	11.2	32,097	15.2	41,836	14.0
Administrative & managerial	611	1.0	1,169	0.7	1,780	1.0	1,045	1.2	1,809	0.8	2,854	1.0
Executive & clerical	11,474	18.6	16,730	9.5	28,204	11.9	17,853	20.5	20,165	9.5	38,018	12.7
Sales	6,548	10.6	14,545	8.3	21,093	8.9	6,185	7.1	17,908	8.5	24,093	8.1
Services	23,216	37.6	34,521	19.6	57,737	24.3	32,900	37.8	45,400	21.5	78,300	26.2
Agricultural & fisheries	893	1.4	3,050	1.7	3,943	1.6	3,897	4.5	3,805	1.8	7,702	2.6
Production and raw labor	13,385	21.7	83,581	47.5	96,966	40.8	15,348	17.7	90,260	42.7	105,608	35.4
Unclassified	1,821	3.0	589	0.3	2,410	1.0	4	–	–	–	4	–
Total	61,682	100.0	176,073	100.0	237,755	100.3	86,971	100.0	211,444	100.0	298,415	100.0

Source: Industrial Bank of Kuwait, *Labor Force Statistics of Kuwait*, August 1976 (memorandum).

Table No. 148

Technicians, Skilled and Semi-Skilled Workers, 1975 in Kuwait

	Kuwaiti	*non-Kuwaiti*	*Total*	*% Kuwaiti*
Technicians				
Tech. assistants to physical & life scientists	115	543	658	17.5
Engin. Surveyors, draughtsmen and related Tech.	775	2,242	3,017	25.7
Pharmacist Assist.	97	251	348	28.0
Nurses and Obstetricians	64	2,007	2,071	3.1
Total scientific and technical	1,051	5,043	6,094	17.2
Stenographers, typists & rel.	1,266	4,298	5,564	22.7
Bookkeepers, cashiers and rel.	1,942	4,671	6,613	29.4
Other clerical	12,127	10,722	22,849	53.0
Total clerical	15,335	19,691	35,026	43.8
Total techn. group	16,386	24,734	41,120	39.8
Skilled & semi-skilled				
Prod. Supervisors & Foremen	3,102	4,523	7,625	40.7
Miners & Quarrymen, etc.	78	218	296	26.3
Chemical workers & Refiners	274	500	774	35.4
Carpenters	194	2,987	3,181	6.1
Blacksmiths	164	1,538	1,702	9.6
Assembly and Maintenance Tech.	1,741	8,487	10,228	17.0
Electricians	1,331	7,378	8,709	15.3
Plumbers & Welders	554	5,811	6,365	8.7
Printing Workers	390	690	1,080	36.1
Total	7,828	32,132	39,960	19.6

Source: Government of Kuwait, Ministry of Planning, *The Five-Year Development Plan 1977-1981.*

Compiled by, El-Essa, S.Y., The Manpower Problem in Kuwait Kegan Paul International, London, 1981, pp. 25-26.

Table No. 15A

POPULATIONS BY NATIONALITY - IN SAUDI ARABIA 1974/75

SAUDIS	NON-SAUDIS
4.59m	1.56m

Note: Number in millions.
The work force is 1.8m of whom 1.03 are nationals - 57% and 773,400 are migrants 43%

Table No. 15B

ESTIMATED SAUDI AND NON-SAUDI MANPOWER BY OCCUPATION GROUP (1400 AH)-(1979 AD)

OCCUPATIONAL GROUP	SAUDIS	NON-SAUDIS
Managers, officials	8.7	12.4
Professionals	52.9	23.5
Technicians and Sub-professionals	33.4	81.3
Clerical Workers	99.6	121.8
Sales workers	97.2	112.6
Service workers	134.5	145.2
Operatives	57.1	51.2
Skilled workers	93.5	101.9
Semi-skilled workers	215.0	162.5
Unskilled workers	296.4	-
Farmers	281.0	-
Bedouins	98.7	-
TOTAL	1,518.0	812.6

Note: Numbers in thousands

Source: Saudi Arabia; Five Year Development Plan, 1975-1980 Central Planning Organisation, p. 115.

Table No. 16

Teachers, by Nationality in Bahrain, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, 1975/76 and 1980/81

State	National		Non-National		Total
	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	
(1) Bahrain					
1975/76	2,169	75.6	701	24.4	2,870
1979/80	2,847	80.0	710	20.0	3,557
(2) Kuwait					
1975/76	4,758	30.8	10,714	69.2	15,472
1979/80	6,077	26.4	16,838	73.6	22,885
(3) Saudi Arabia					
1975/76	25,101	49.0	26,075	51.0	51,176
1979/80	44,768	52.0	41,301	48.0	86,077

Source: Birks, J.S and Rimmer, J.A. Developing Education Systems in the Oil States of Arabia: Conflicts of Purpose and Focus, Centre for Middle Eastern and Islamic Studies, University of Durham, U.K., 1984, p. 15

Table No. 17

Subjects offered and periods allocated to them in General Secondary School Prior to 1980/81 - Bahrain

SUBJECTS	FIRST YEAR		SECOND YEAR				THIRD YEAR			
			ART		SCIENCE		ART		SCIENCE	
	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
1 Religion	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
2 Arabic L & Lit.	7	7	8	8	5	5	8	8	5	5
3 History	2	2	3	3	-	-	4	4	-	-
4 Geography	2	2	4	3	-	-	4	4	-	-
5 Sociology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 Philosophy & Psychology	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	5	-	-
7 Economics	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
8 Mathematics	6	6	4	4	8	8	-	-	9	9
9 Physics	2	2	-	-	3	3	-	-	4	4
10 Chemistry	2	2	-	-	3	3	-	-	3	3
11 Biology	2	2	-	-	3	3	-	-	3	3
12 Art Education	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	-	-
13 Physical Education	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	1
14 Home Economics	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	-	-	-
15 Library	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-
TOTAL	28	29	26	26	27	28	26	25	29	27

B = Boys
G = Girls

Source: I. Wahiba, The Development of Secondary Education and Its Curricula, Proposals and Recommendations, State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, The Directorate of Curricula, Textbooks and Educational Aids, December, 1976. State of Bahrain, 1976, p. 22.

Table No. 18

Curriculum Plan for Technical Secondary Education + 1981/82

Subjects	Classes		
	1st	2nd	3rd
General Academic Subjects			
Arabic Language & Religious Education	2	-	-
English Language	4	4	4
Sciences (Physics and Chemistry)	2	2	2
Mathematics	3	2	2
Total	11	8	8
Technical Academic Subjects			
Tecnical and Engineering Drawing	3	3	3
Applied Mechanics	-	2	2
Principles of Technology	3	4	4
Total	6	9	9
Workshops*	18	18	18
Physical Education	1	1	1
Total	36	36	36

* Three days per week

Source: State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Education Development in Bahrain, from 1980/81 to 1982/83, Bahrain, 1984, p. 23.

Table No. 19

CURRICULUM PLAN FOR COMMERCIAL SECONDARY EDUCATION 1981/82
BAHRAIN

A. Subjects in Common

Subjects	3rd Grade			2nd Grade	1st Grade
	General Branch	Secretarial Branch	Accounting Branch		
Religious Education	2	2	2	2	2
Arabic Language	5	5	5	5	6
English Language	6	6	6	8	8
Arabic Typing	4	4	—	3	4
English Typing	3	4	—	4	—
Economics	2	2	2	—	—
Labour Law and Commercial Law	1	1	1	—	—
Bank Accounting	—	—	4	—	—
Secretarial Practice in English	—	4	—	—	—
Secretarial Practice in Arabic	2	—	—	—	—
English for special purposes	—	3	3	—	—
Financial Mathematics	3	1	3	—	—
Accounting in English	—	—	4	2	—
Accounting in Arabic	4	—	2	—	—
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2
Total	34	34	34	26	22

B. General Optional Subject

Subjects	3rd Grade			2nd Grade	1st Grade
	General Branch	Secretarial Branch	Accounting Branch		
Art Education	3	3	3	3	3
Music	3	3	3	3	3
French Language	3	3	3	3	3
Social Subjects	3	3	3	3	3
Mathematics	3	3	3	3	3
Home Economics	3	3	3	3	3
Arabic Typing	3	3	3	3	—
English Typing	3	3	3	3	—
Vocational Activities	3	3	3	3	3

... Continued

C. Assigned Subjects Compulsory at One Term only of the Year

Subjects	الصف الثالث 3rd Grade	الصف الثاني 2nd Grade	الصف الاول 1st Grade
Financial Mathematics	—	5	5
Elementary of Commerce	—	—	4
Social subjects	—	3	3
Accounting & Book-keeping	—	5	5
Applied Secretary	—	3	4
General Sciences	—	—	3

D. Commercial Optional Subjects

Subjects	3rd Grade الصف الثالث			الصف الثاني 2nd Grade	الصف الاول 1st Grade
	الشعبة العامة General Branch	شعبة السكرتارية Secretarial Branch	شعبة المحاسبة Accounting Branch		
Salesmanship	2	2	2	2	—
Store-keeping & Purchasing	2	2	2	2	—
Insurance	2	2	2	2	—
Accounting & Costing	2	2	2	2	—
Governmental Accounting	2	2	2	2	—
Shorthand	2	2	2	2	—
Commerce	2	2	2	2	—
Travel Agency	2	2	2	2	—

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Educational Statistics - 1981-82, Arabian Printing and Publishing House, Bahrain, 1983, pp. 145-147.

Table No. 20

CURRICULUM PLAN FOR RELIGIOUS EDUCATION - BAHRAIN

SUBJECTS	PRIMARY			INTERMEDIATE			SECONDARY			TOTAL
	4	5	6	1	2	3	1	2	3	
RELIGIOUS SUBJECTS										
1- Quran	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	1	1	22
2- Tafsir	-	-	-	1	1	1	2	3	3	11
3- Al-Hadith	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
4- Al-Tawhid	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	10
5- Al-Fugh	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	33
6- Al-Tajweed	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	2
TOTAL	7	7	7	12	12	11	11	11	11	89
7- Arabic Language	11	10	10	10	10	11	12	12	12	98
8- English Language	5	5	5	4	4	4	5	5	5	42
9- Mathematics	5	5	5	4	4	4	2	-	-	29
10- Social Subjects	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	26
11- Sociology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
12- Economics	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
13- Psychology	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	2
14- Philosophy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1
15- Logic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	2
61- Fine Education	2	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
17- Sciences	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	-	-	16
18- Physical Education	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	12
TOTAL	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	324

Source: State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, The Development of Secondary Education in Bahrain, Bahrain, 1979, p. 14.

Table No. 21A

NUMBER OF (BAHRAINI) STUDENTS BY TYPE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AND SEX 1972/73 - 1975/76

LEVEL AND TYPE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION / SCHOLASTIC YEAR	SEX	1972/73	1973/74	1974/75	1975/76
GENERAL SECONDARY	Male	2606	2780	3102	3116
	Female	3050	3413	3717	3801
COMMERCIAL SECONDARY	Male	523	495	511	523
	Female	229	351	393	451
INDUSTRIAL (TECHNICAL) SECONDARY	Male	588	629	679	676
	Female	-	-	-	-
RELIGIOUS EDUCATION	Male	138	136	133	113
	Female	-	-	-	-
TOTAL					

Source: The Ministry of Education, Educational Statistics 1975-1976, (Bahrain: The Ministry Publication 1977) p. 26.

Table No. 21B

THE DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS BY TYPE AND BRANCHES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AND SEX - 1977/78 - 1981/82

TYPES & BRANCHES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION / SCHOLASTIC YEAR	SEX	1977/78	1978/79	1979/80	1980/81	1981/82	1982/83	1983/84
General Secondary	Male	3568	4001	3127	2699	2194	2094	2188
	Female	4191	4425	3272	2938	2486	2906	3431
Commercial Secondary	Male	589	702	622	751	1181	1677	2029
	Female	576	706	613	927	1455	2134	2492
Industrial (Technical) Secondary	Male	567	815	813	1071	1036	1748	2062
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Health Sciences	Male	-	-	-	-	16	48	89
	Female	-	-	-	61	105	160	175
Hotel and Catering	Male	-	-	-	-	-	34	39
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	16
Livestock and Agriculture	Male	-	-	-	-	-	30	62
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Textile Technology	Male	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	23	81
Printing	Male	-	-	-	-	-	-	22
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Religious Secondary	Male	-	-	-	-	20*	17	20*
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL		9491	10689	8447	8447	8477	10848	12706

* No. of students joining Religious Secondary education is very limited

Source: H. El-Rumahi, A Report on Development of Secondary Education in Bahrain - 1940-1984, Ministry of Education, April 1984, (a typescript nid) p. 10.

Table No. 22

CURRICULUM PLAN IN KUWAIT GENERAL SECONDARY SCHOOL

(Science and Arts Sections) - Both Sexes

SUBJECTS	FIRST YEAR		SECOND YEAR		THIRD YR (ARTS)		THIRD YR (SCIENCE)		FOURTH YR (ARTS)		FOURTH YR (SCIENCE)	
	No. of pr.	%	No. of pr.	%	No. of pr.	%	No. of pr.	%	No. of pr.	%	No. of pr.	%
RELIGIOUS STUDIES	3	8.1	2	5.4	2	5.4	2	5.4	2	5.4	2	5.4
ARABIC LANGUAGE	7	19	7	19	8	21.6	6	16.2	8	21.6	6	16.2
SOCIAL SCIENCES	5	13.5	5	13.5	9	24.3	-	-	10	27	-	-
MATHEMATICS	6	16.2	5	13.5	1	2.7	7	19	-	-	6	16.2
NATURAL SCIENCES	4	10.8	7	19	2	5.4	13	35.1	2	5.4	15	40.5
FOREIGN LANGUAGE: ENGLISH	8	21.6	7	19	8	21.6	7	19	8	21.6	7	19
FOREIGN LANGUAGE: FRENCH	-	-	-	-	5	13.5	-	-	6	16.2	-	-
PHYSICAL EDUCATION	2	5.4	2	5.4	2	5.4	2	5.4	1	2.7	1	2.7
ART EDUCATION	2	5.4	2	5.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL HOURS	37	100	37	100	37	100	37	100	37	100	37	100
HOME ECONOMICS (FOR GIRLS)	4	-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4	-	4	-

Source: Kuwait, Ministry of Education, Secondary Education in Kuwait, Ministry of Education Publication, Kuwait, 1980, p. 100.

Table No. 23

ENROLMENT IN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS BY SEX AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN KUWAIT 1972/73-1981/82

Sex & Years		Total	Others **	Vocational *	Secondary	Intermediate	Primary	Kindergarten
1972/73	M	88,897	1,552	1,303	11,533	29,711	38,104	6,694
	F	71,334	1,063	609	9,745	22,688	31,137	6,092
	T	160,231	2,615	1,912	21,278	52,399	69,241	12,786
1973/74	M	93,371	1,719	1,279	12,779	30,016	41,369	6,209
	F	76,046	1,023	445	11,328	23,370	34,130	5,750
	T	169,417	2,742	1,724	24,107	53,386	75,499	11,959
1974/75	M	100,061	2,003	1,206	13,692	31,014	45,610	6,536
	F	82,717	1,648	—	12,828	24,224	37,971	6,046
	T	182,778	3,651	1,206	26,520	55,238	83,581	12,582
1975/76	M	109,873	2,390	1,226	15,047	33,621	50,034	7,555
	F	92,034	1,162	703	14,915	26,146	42,206	6,902
	T	201,907	3,552	1,929	29,962	59,767	92,240	14,457
1976/77	M	127,380	2,875	1,240	18,725	41,031	55,781	7,728
	F	107,823	1,111	850	16,901	33,325	48,504	7,132
	T	235,203	3,986	2,090	35,626	74,356	104,285	14,860
1977/78	M	136,714	2,660	1,196	20,605	43,325	60,936	7,992
	F	116,498	1,281	888	19,030	35,306	52,573	7,420
	T	253,212	3,941	2,084	39,635	78,631	113,509	15,412
1978/97	M	143,586	2,726	869	22,180	47,159	62,303	8,349
	F	123,932	1,567	739	20,928	38,430	54,418	7,850
	T	267,518	4,293	1,608	43,108	85,589	116,721	16,199
1979/80	M	152,656	1,724	2,050	24,711	51,291	64,269	8,611
	F	132,677	709	1,951	22,565	41,280	57,969	8,203
	T	285,333	2,433	4,001	47,276	92,571	122,238	16,814
1980/81	M	160,987	1,661	2,432	27,506	55,409	64,876	9,103
	F	141,623	752	2,303	24,454	45,209	60,238	8,667
	T	302,610	2,413	4,735	51,960	100,618	125,114	17,770
1981/82	M	170,812	1,595	3,068	30,091	59,554	66,370	10,134
	F	151,700	794	2,682	26,455	49,127	63,014	9,628
	T	322,512	2,389	5,750	56,546	108,681	129,384	19,762

* Technical, Vocational and religious education included

** Handicaped institute & equivalent education

Source: Ministry of Planning, Central Statistical Office, Annual Statistical Abstract, 1982, Ed. XIX, Ministry of Planning Publication, Kuwait, 1982, p. 309.

Table No. 24

NUMBER OF STUDENTS AT GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS IN KUWAIT

SCHOOL LEVEL and SEX	1980 - 1981				1981 - 1982			
	STUDENTS	TEACHERS	CLASS ROOMS	SCHOOLS	STUDENTS	TEACHERS	CLASS ROOMS	SCHOOLS
SECONDARY SCHOOL								
Male	27506	2710	869	36	30091	3086	954	41
Female	27454	2871	801	35	26455	3173	841	35
TOTAL	51960	5581	1670	71	56546	6259	1786	76
RELIGIOUS SCHOOL								
Male	592	85	26	2	896	92	32	2
TEACHER TRAINING								
Male	614	162	-	1	845	160	-	1
Female	970	127	-	1	1180	132	-	1
TOTAL	1584	289	-	2	2025	292	-	2
COMMERCIAL INSTITUTE								
Male	518	81	-	1	403	88	-	1
Female	1192	46	-	1	1312	58	-	1
TOTAL	1710	127	-	2	1715	146	-	2
PUBLIC HEALTH INST.								
Male	-	6	-	-	-	5	-	-
Female	141	30	-	1	190	32	-	1
TOTAL	141	36	-	1	190	37	-	1
TECHNOLOGICAL INST.	708	156	-	1	972	133	-	1

Source: Ministry of Planning, Central Statistical Office
Annual Statistical Abstract 1982, Ed. XIX
State of Kuwait, December 1982, p. 308.

Table No. 25

General Summary of educational institutions, pupils, teachers, and graduates by level and type of education in 1389-90 and 1394-95 (A.H.) (1969-70 and 1974-75 A.D.)- Saudi Arabia

المرحلة ونوع التعليم Level and type of education	الجنس Sex	المدارس/المعاهد/الكليات Institutions			الطلبة Pupils			المعلمون والمعلمات Teachers			المتخرجون والمتخرجات Graduates		
		1389-90 1969-70	1394-95 1974-75	إضافة Increase	1389-90 1969-70	1394-95 1974-75	إضافة Increase	1389-90 1969-70	1394-95 1974-75	إضافة Increase	1389-90 1969-70	1394-95 1974-75	إضافة Increase
رياض الأطفال Kindergarten	MF	45	88	43	4.169	13.903	9.734	66	392	326	—	--	--
	F	32	76	44	2.684	5.573	2.889	66	383	317	—	—	--
الإبتدائية Elementary	MF	1.824	3.028	1.204	397,153	634,498	237,345	17,181	29,756	12,575	29.133	59.567	30.434
	F	378	881	503	119,789	223,304	103,515	4,330	8,864	4.534	7,072	19.913	12.841
المتوسطة Intermediate	MF	350	647	297	60.600	136,883	76,283	3,308	7,418	4.110	12.367	21.572	9.205
	F	22	117	95	5.305	38,544	33,239	189	1.771	1.582	1.132	7.831	6.699
الثانوية Secondary	MF	79	182	103	15.285	41,539	26,254	512	2,132	1.620	2.806	7.246	4.440
	F	6	26	20	1,487	10,206	8,719	14	449	435	369	1.674	1.305
المهني Technical	MF	6	17	11	840	3,913	3,073	275	437	162	157	683	526
	F	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
إعداد المعلمين Teacher Training	MF	48	76	28	10,812	14,674	3,862	626	1,070	444	2.117	4.935	2.818
	F	35	49	14	6,492	3,840	(—)2,652	258	252	(—)6	1.049	2.083	1.034
التعليم الخاص Special Education	MF	10	15	5	1,248	1,784	536	223	524	301	72	129	57
	F	2	4	2	151	234	83	43	99	56	—	—	—
الثقافة الشعبية Adult Education	MF	607	1.425	818	42.314	99.673	57.359	—	5.953	5.953	—	—	--
	F	—	350	350	—	24.622	24.622	—	1,118	1.118	—	—	—
التعليم العالي Higher Education	MF	18	22	4	6.942	19.093	12.151	573	1.741	1.168	808	1.909	1.101
	F	1	2	1	434	2,922	2,488	17	245	228	13	157	144
أخرى Other	MF	—	111	111	—	12.517	12.517	—	280	280	—	—	—
	F	—	11	11	—	822	822	—	81	81	—	--	--

(-) indicates decrease.

Source: Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia. A Statistical Review 1385-1397 A.H. (1956-1977 A.D.), National offset Printing Press, Saudi Arabia, 1978, p. 117

Table No. 26

THE CURRICULUM PLAN FOR SECOND LEVEL CYCLE II - PUT INTO PRACTICE IN 1400 - 1402 AH, 1980 - 1982 A.D. IN SAUDI ARABIA

SUBJECTS	DIVISION OF SUBJECTS	1st yr	LITERARY SECTION		SCIENCE SECTION	
			2nd yr	3rd yr	2nd yr	3rd yr
RELIGIOUS STUDIES	Quara'n Recitation	1	1	1	1	1
	The Traditions	1	1	1	1	1
	Jurisprudence	1	1	1	-	-
	Theology	1	1	1	1	1
	TOTAL	4	4	3	4	3
ARABIC LANGUAGE STUDIES	Grammar	3	3	3	2	2
	Rhetoric & Literary Criticism	1	2	2	-	-
	Literature (Its History & Prose & Poetry)	3	3	3	1	1
	Composition	1	1	1	1	-
	Comprehension	1	2	2	-	-
	TOTAL	9	11	11	4	3
SOCIAL STUDIES	History	2	3	3	-	-
	Geography	2	3	3	-	-
	Psychology	-	2	-	-	-
	Sociology	-	-	2	-	-
	TOTAL	4	8	8	-	-
SCIENCES	Physics	2	-	-	4	4
	Chemistry	2	-	-	4	4
	Biology	2	-	-	3	3
	Geology	-	-	-	1	1
	TOTAL	6	-	-	12	12
MATHEMATICS		5	-	-	7	7
FOREIGN LANGUAGE		4	4	4	4	4
PHYSICAL EDUC.		1	1	1	1	1
TOTAL		33	28	27	32	30

Source: Saudi Arabia. The Ministry of Education Centre for Statistical Data and Educational Documentation. Sections in History of Education In the Kingdom. Secondary Education (Boys) Nov. 1982, p. 43.

* Physical Education is usually offered in boys' schools and Home Economics in girls' schools.

Table No. 27

CURRICULUM PLAN IN DAMMAM TECHNICAL INSTITUTE - SAUDI ARABIA

1. Practical Programme

Sections

Electricity -
- Electrical installations
- Electrical Engineering

Minerals (Metals)

Mineraology -
- Welding
- Blacksmithing
- Electrical welding
- Gas welding (oxygen)
- Arc welding (?

Mechanics
- Automative
- Repair and Maintenance

2. Theoretical Programme
- Car Repairs
- Mathematics
- Industrial Economy
- English Language
- Electricity
- Chemistry/Physics
- Mechanical Engineering
- Arabic Language and Religious Studies

Source: The General Organisation for Technical and Vocational Training - Dammam Technical Institute. Student Guide Book - Saudi Arabia, 1975. The Institute Printing Centre.

Table No. 28

Curriculum Content and Weekly Periods
for Commercial Secondary School in Saudi Arabia

Subjects	Grade			Total
	1	2	3	
Arabic	6	4	4	14
Religion	2	2	2	6
English Language	6	6	6	18
Geography and Economy	3	-	-	3
Physical Training	1	1	1	3
Book-keeping	4	4	4	12
Business Training (Arabic)	3	3	3	9
Business Correspondence	-	3	3	6
Financial Mathematics	4	4	4	12
Principles of Economy	-	3	3	6
Typewriting (Arabic and English)	6	6	6	18
Total	35	36	36	107

Source: General Department of Technical Education, Figures and Statistical Information, Ministry of Education, Saudi Arabia, 1977, p.10

Table No. 29

Curriculum Plan and Weekly Periods for Model Technical Agricultural Institute of Burayadah in Saudi Arabia

Subjects	GRADE#			Total
	1	2	3	
Arabic	2	2	1	5
Religion	2	2	-	4
English Language	2	2	2	6
General Mathematics	3	-	-	3
Applied Physics	2	-	-	2
Applied Agricultural-Chemistry	3	-	-	3
Physical Training	1	1	1	3
Biology	3	-	-	3
Plant Protection	-	2	2	4
Agronomy	3	2	2	7
Horticulture	-	2	3	5
Soils	2	2	-	4
Plant Nutrition	-	2	2	4
Irrigation and Drainage	2	2	2	6
Farm Machinery and Workshops	3	1	2	6
Anatomy and Physiology	2	-	-	2
Animal Health	-	1	2	3
Poultry and Bookkeeping	1	1	2	4
Agricultural Economics	-	2	2	4
Farm Management and Bookkeeping	-	1	2	3
Agriculture - Industries	-	2	2	4
Agriculture - Marketing	-	2	2	4
Agriculture - Extension	1	2	3	6
Animal Production	3	4	3	10
Total	35	35	35	105

Source: General Department of Technical Education Figures and Statistical Information, Ministry of Education, Saudi Arabia, 177, p. 12.

Table No. 30

Projected and obtained (Actual Number of Enrollees in Technical Institutions During 1975/76 - 1978/79

Saudi Arabia

Number of Enrollees	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79
Projected No.	1,640	2,040	2,150	2,920
Enrolled No.	869	483	382	486
Percentage of Attainment	53	24	18	17

Source: Ministry of Education, Illustration of Statistical Studies and Educational Situations, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, 1978, p. 20.

Table 31

Curricula Plan for the Literacy section of General Secondary Education – Bahrain

Subjects compulsory for all streams	Classes		
	1st	2nd	3rd
Religious Education	2	2	2
Arabic Language	7	8	8
English Language	9	9	8
Social Subjects	6	7	8
Mathematics	3	-	-
General Sciences	2	-	-
Physical Education	2	2	2
Statistics & Probability or French Language	3	-	-

Subjects for particular streams

Streams	Subjects	Classes	
		2nd	3rd
Languages	English Language	2	2
	French Language	4	4
Home Economics	Home Economics	6	6
Fine Arts	Fine Arts	6	6
Economics and Office Practice	Economics	2	2
	Office Practice	2	2
	Commerce	2	-
	Typing	-	2

Optional subjects: Each student opts for one of the following subjects each year studied for three periods a week: Typing, Home Economics, Fine Arts, General Sciences, Mathematics, French Language, Technical Drawing, Cars, Electronics, Electricity and Music

Number of compulsory subject periods per week	34	34	34
Number of optional subject periods per week	3	3	3
Number of activity periods per week	5	5	5
Total	42	42	42

Table 32

Curricula Plan for Scientific Section of General Scondary Education – Bahrain

Subjects compulsory for all Streams	Classes		
	1st	2nd	3rd
Religious Education	2	2	2
Arabic Language	7	5	5
English Language	9	8	7
Social Subjects	2	-	-
Mathematics	6	6	6
Physics	2	2	2
Chemistry	2	2	2
Biology	2	2	2
Physical Education	2	2	2

Subjects for particular streams

Streams	Subjects	Classes	
		2nd	3rd
Mathematics & Physics	Mathematics	2	3
	Physics	3	3
Chemistry & Biology	Chemistry	3	5
	Biology	2	2

Optional subjects: Each student opts for one of the following subjects each year studied for three periods a week: Typing, Fine Arts, French Language, Technical Drawing, Cars, Electronics, Electricity, Social subjects, Music and Home Economics.

Number of compulsory subject periods per week	34	34	34
Number of Optional subject periods per week	3	3	3
Number of activity periods per week	5	5	5
Total	42	42	42

Source: State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Educational Development in Bahrain from 1980/81 to 1982-83, Bahrain, 1984.

Tables 31 and 32 (cont.)

Optional Subjects for Arts and Sciences Branches (Sections)

Subject	1st Grade	2nd Grade	3rd Grade
Typing	3	3	3
Vocational Activities	3	3	3
Home Economics	3	3	3
Fine Arts	3	3	3
Music	3	3	3
French Language	3	3	3
Social Subjects*	3	3	3
General Sciences**	3	3	3
Mathematics**	3	3	3

* Social Sciences is an optional subject for Sciences Branch only.

** General Sciences and Mathematics are optional subjects for Arts Branch.

Source: State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Educational Development in Bahrain from 1980/81 to 1982/83, Bahrain, 1984.

Table No. 33

Curricula Plan for Health Sciences Secondary Education

Subjects	Classes		
	1st	2nd	3rd
Religious Education	2	2	2
Arabic Language	7	5	4
English Language	8	8	5
Humanities (Sociology & Psychology)	4	-	-
Mathematics	2	2	-
Physics	2	-	-
Chemistry	2	-	-
Biology	2	-	-
Physical Education	2	2	2
Health Sciences & Nursing	6	18	24
Total	37	37	37

Source: State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Educational Development in Bahrain from 1980/81 to 1982/83, Bahrain, 1984.

Table No. 34

A -Curricula Plan for Hotel Secondary Education

Subjects	Classes		
	1st	2nd	3rd
Religious Education	2	2	2
Arabic Language	5	5	4
English Language	5	5	5
French Language	3	3	3
Physical Education	1	1	1
Typing	3	-	1
Mathematics	2	-	-
General Sciences	-	2	-
Principles of Book-Keeping	3	-	-
Humanities (Sociology & Psychology)	2	-	-
Geography & Tourism	-	-	2
Hotel Sciences	14	21	21
Total	40	39	39

B - Curricula Plan for Textile and Colthing Secondary Education

Common Subjects	Classes		
	1st	2nd	3rd
Religious Education	2	2	2
Arabic Language	6	5	5
English Language	5	5	5
Social Subjects & Humanities	2	2	2
Mathematics	2	-	-
Physical Education	2	2	2
Technical Drawing	2	3	3
Textile Technology	4	4	3
Measurement & Costs	-	2	2
Vocational Training	9	9	10
Total	24	34	34

Optional Subjects: Each student opts for one of the following subjects each year studied for three periods a week: Typing, Home Economics, Fine Arts, French Language, Music.

Number of compulsory subject periods per week	34	34	34
Number of optional subject periods per week	3	3	3

Source: State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Educational Development in Bahrain from 1980/81 to 1982/83, Bahrain, 1984.

Table No. 34 (Cont.)

C - Curricula Plan for Agriculture & Livestock Resources Secondary Education

Subjects	Classes		
	1st	2nd	3rd
Religious Education	2	2	2
Arabic Language	6	5	5
English Language	7	6	6
Biology	3	3	3
Physics	2	2	-
Chemistry	2	3	2
Mathematics	2	2	-
Physical Education	2	2	2
Geography	2	2	1
Fishery Resources	2	3	4
Plant Cultivation	5	5	8
Livestock-breeding	2	3	3
Statistics & Marketing	-	-	2
Total	37	38	38

Source: State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Educational Development in Bahrain from 1980/81 to 1982/83, Bahrain, 1984.

D Curricula Plan for Printing Secondary Education

Subjects	Classes				
	1st	2nd	3rd		
			Type Setting & Designing	Camera Operation & Plate Making	Printing and Finishing
Religious Education	2	2	2	2	2
Arabic Language	6	5	5	5	5
English Language	6	6	6	6	6
Social subjects	2	2	-	-	-
Mathematics	2	2	-	-	-
Biology	2	-	-	-	-
Physics & Chemistry	4	2	2	2	2
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2
Typing (Arabic & English)	2	2	2	2	2
Total	28	23	19	19	19

Printing subjects	* T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P	T	P
Type Setting & Designing	1	3	1	4	2	18	-	-	-	-
Camera Operation & Plate Making	1	2	1	4	-	-	2	18	-	-
Printing & Finishing	13	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	18
Total	11		16		20		20		20	

Number of compulsory subject periods	39	39	39	39	39
Number of optional subject periods	3	3	3	3	3
Total	42	42	42	42	42

* T = theoretical P = practical

Table No. 36

TEACHERS OF SECONDARY (GENERAL, COMMERCIAL AND HEALTH SCIENCES) SCHOOL BY QUALIFICATION, AGE, NATIONALITY AND SEX, 1980-1981 -

BAHRAIN

NATIONALITY & AGE GROUP / QUALIFICATION	SEX	GRAND TOTAL	NON-BAHRAINI	BAHRAINI	BAHRAINIS ACCORDING TO AGE			
					Less than 30	30-39	40-49	50 +
1) Diploma of TTC*	M	9	1	8	4	4	-	-
	F	71	3	68	58	10	-	-
2) Below University	M	4	3	1	1	-	-	-
	F	12	1	11	10	1	-	-
3) Below Univ & Training*	M	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	F	2	-	2	2	-	-	-
4) B.Sc.	M	54	48	6	4	2	-	-
	F	60	26	34	33	1	-	-
5) B.Sc. + training	M	29	20	9	9	-	-	-
	F	27	19	9	9	-	-	-
6) B.A.	M	123	82	41	28	13	-	-
	F	157	56	101	95	5	-	-
7) B.A. + training	M	56	34	22	15	7	-	-
	F	60	25	35	25	10	-	-
8) B. of Economics Commerce & Business	M	27	20	7	6	1	-	-
	F	41	16	25	25	-	-	-
9) M.Sc.	M	2	2	-	-	-	-	-
	F	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
10) Msc. + training	M	3	2	1	-	1	-	-
	F	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11) M.A.	M	3	2	1	-	1	-	-
	F	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
12) M.A. + training	M	1	-	1	1	-	-	-
	F	2	1	1	-	-	-	-

* Teachers in categories 1,2,3 are promoted to secondary schools after completing training courses. For example teachers of English usually attend a two-year training course in teaching English as a foreign language in England.

Source: State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Educational Planning Superintendence of Statistics. Educational Statistics 1980-1981, Arabian Printing & Publishing House, Bahrain, 1982, pp. 90-92.

Table No. 37

A COMPARISON OF STATISTICS OF STUDENT DROP-OUTS IN DIFFERENT KINDS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AND THEIR PERCENTAGE 1981/82 - 1982/83 - Bahrain

Kinds of Secondary Education	Male			Female		
	No.	Percentage 1982-1983	Percentage 1981-1982	No.	Percentage 1982-1983	Percentage 1981-1982
General Secondary	43	2.1	1.6	31	1.1	2.1
Technical (Ind.) Secondary	101	5.8	6.7	-	-	-
Commercial Secondary	34	2.0	4.3	43	2.0	2.4
Nursing and Health Sciences	3	6.3	-	2	1.3	5.7
Other Specialisations	2	8.3	-	-	-	-

Source: State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Planning- The Drop-Out - An Analytical Statistical Study on the Drop-Out Issue in all levels of Education in Bahrain, 1982-1983, State of Bahrain, November 1983, p. 39.

Table No. 38

THE GENERAL PLAN FOR THE CURRICULUM IN KUWAIT EXPERIMENTAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

	Areas of Studies	UNITS OFFERED					
		Common Core Subjects	Choices		Complementary	Electives	Total
			Compulsory	Optional			
1	Islamic Studies	22	5	5	1	9	40
2	Arabic Language	21	5	3	3	8	40
3	English Language	21	5	3	3	8	40
4	Social Sciences	23	5	3	-	9	40
5	Natural Sciences	23	6	2	2	7	40
6	Mathematics	23	5	3	3	6	40
7	Commercial Studies	23	6	4	1	6	40
8	Technical and Vocational Studies	23	6	3	-	8	40

Source: A.D. Hassan, A. Shehab, J. Jaber and A. Abdul Muhesen, Student Guide Book, (Kuwait: The Ministry of Education Publication, 1978), p. 24.

Tables Nos. 39A-H - Curriculum Plan for Different Specialisations in Kuwait Experimental Comprehensive Schools

Table No. 39A

CURRICULUM PLAN FOR THE ISLAMIC STUDIES BRANCH (SPECIALISATION)

COURSE No.	COURSE NAME	CREDITS	PRE-REQUISITE COURSE
1.1	Compulsory Courses		
34	Quranic Studies & Traditions (A)	1	Islamic Studies 30
44	Quranic Studies & Traditions (B)	1	Islamic Studies 34
54	Islamic Legislation (Jurisprudence)	1	
64	Islamic Legislation (Regulations) (Authoritative Rules dealing with details of procedure)		
1.2	Electives		
57	Quranic Studies (Interpretation)	1	Islamic Studies 34
58	Sina and Biographies	1	
68	The Traditions	1	Islamic Studies 34
69	Islam, Man and Society	1	
87	Islamic Legislation (Jurisprudence)	1	
88	Islam and Contemporary Society	1	
1.3	Complementary Courses*		
1.3.1			
42	Arabic Language (A)	1	Arabic Language 20
52	Arabic Language (B)	1	Arabic Language 42
62	Arabic Language (C)	1	Arabic Language 52
1.3.2			
42	Social Science: Islamic State & its expanse	1	
52	Social Science: The Contemporary Islamic World	1	
62	Social Science: The Islamic Civilization	1	
1.3.3			
42	Science: Man and the Universe	1	Science 20
44	Science: Metabolism and Balance in Living Organisms	1	Science 20
54	Science: Geology	1	Science 20

* Students are required to choose: Four courses from the electives and three from the complementary courses list

Table No. 39B

CURRICULUM PLAN FOR ARABIC LANGUAGE BRANCH (SPECIALISATION)

COURSE NO.	COURSE NAME	CREDITS	PRE-REQUISITE COURSES
1.1	Compulsory Courses:		
44	Language and Literature Studies	1	Arabic Language 40/41
54	Contemporary Literature & Grammar	1	Arabic Language 44
55	Literature and Rhetoric	1	44,54
64	Literature, Rhetoric & Grammar	1	54 & 55
74	Contemporary Literary Criticism	1	64
1.2	Electives*		
34	Language Arts Studies	1	40
38	Language and Literature Studies	1	40
67	Prose Arts Studies	1	54
68	Poetry	1	54
77	Rhetoric and Literary Criticism	1	64
87	Readings in Language, Literature and Rhetoric	1	54
88	Grammar and Morphology	1	64
1.3	Complementary Courses*		
1.3.1			
42	Islamic Studies: The Quran and Traditions	1	
52	Islamic Studies: Quranic Studies, Sina and Biographies	I	Islamic Studies 42
62	Islamic Studies: Islamic Civilisation		Islamic Studies 52
1.3.2			
43	Social Sciences: The Arabs before Islam	1	
53	Social Sciences: The Emergence of Muslim society	1	
63	Social Sciences: The Caliphate & Spread of Islam	1	
1.3.3			
32	English: English (1)	1	English 21
52	English: English (2)	1	English 32
63	English: English (3)	1	English 52

* Students are required to choose: five from the electives and three from the complementary courses list

Table No. 39C

CURRICULUM PLAN FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE BRANCH (SPECIALISATION)

COURSE NO.		COURSE NAME	CREDITS	PRE-REQUISITE COURSE
1.1		Compulsory Courses:		
34		Elementary English	1	English 20 or 21
42		Preparatory English (1)	1	34
54		Preparatory English (2)	1	44
64		Advanced English (1)	1	54
74		Advanced English (2)	1	64
1.2		Electives*		
77		Composition	1	English 64
78		Comprehension - Written	1	English 64
87		Translation	1	English 64
88		Comprehension - Oral	1	English 64
89		Conversation	1	English 64
1.3		Complementary Courses*		
1.3.1	Islamic Studies			
43		Islam and Contemporary Problems	1	
58		Sina & Biographies	1	
62		Islamic Civilization	1	Islamic Studies 58
1.3.2	Arabic			
43		Arabic Language (A)	1	Arabic Language 30 or 31
53		Arabic Language (B)	1	Arabic Language 43
63		Arabic Language (C)	1	Arabic Language 53
1.3.3	French			
43		Elementary French	1	-
53		French Language (for English branch 2)	1	French 43
63		French Language (for English branch 2)	1	French 53

* Students are required to choose three courses from the electives and three from the complementary courses list (three of one group)

Table No. 39D

CURRICULUM PLAN FOR SOCIAL STUDIES BRANCH (SPECIALISATION)

COURSE NO.	COURSE NAME	CREDITS	PRE-REQUISITE COURSE
1.1	Compulsory Courses:		
34	Islamic History	1	-
44	Natural Geography	1	-
54	Population	1	-
64	Scientific Thinking (Methods)	1	-
74	Sociology	1	-
1.2	Electives*		
57	Psychology	1	
67	The Modern Arab History	1	
77	Economic Resources	1	
78	The Modern World History	1	
87	Philosophy	1	
1.3	Complementary Courses:		
	Not included		

* Students are required to choose three from the electives

Table No. 39E

CURRICULUM PLAN FOR THE SCIENCES BRANCH SPECIALISATION

COURSE NO.	COURSE NAME	CREDITS	PRE-REQUISITE COURSE
1.1	Compulsory Courses:		
44	Metabolism and Balance in Living Organisms	1	Science 20
54	Geology	1	Science 20
55	Chemistry (A)	1	Science 20 & Maths 42
64	Waves and Energy	1	Maths 42 & Science 20
65	Chemistry (B)	1	Science 55 & Maths 42
74	Laws of Existence	1	Maths 52 & Science 64
1.2	Electives*		
77	Life and Relationship among Living Organisms	1	Science 44
47		1	Science 74
88	Chemistry (C)	1	Science 65
1.3	Complementary Courses*		
42	Basic Maths and Algebra	1	Maths 20
52	Calculus	1	Maths 20

* Students are required to choose two courses from the electives and the two complementary courses stated

Table No. 39F

CURRICULUM PLAN FOR MATHEMATICS BRANCH SPECIALISATION

COURSE NO.	COURSE NAME	CREDITS	PRE-REQUISITE COURSE
1.1	Compulsory Courses		
34	Basic Mathematics (A)	1	Maths 20
44	Basic Mathematics (B)	1	Maths 34
54	Algebra and Trigonometry	1	Maths 44
64	Calculus	1	Maths 54
74	Calculus	1	Maths 64
1.2	Electives*		
57	History of mathematics	1	Maths 20
67	Geometry	1	Maths 20
68	Astronomy	1	67
77	Industrial Design	1	67
87			20
1.3	Complementary Courses:		
63	Physics	1	
44	Metabolism and balance in living organisms	1	Science 20
55	Chemistry	1	Science 20 & Maths 42
83	Science of	1	Science 64 & Maths 74

* Students are required to choose three courses from the electives and three from the complementary courses list

Table No. 39G

CURRICULUM PLAN FOR THE COMMERCIAL STUDIES BRANCH (SPECIALISATION)

COURSE NO.	COURSE NAME	CREDITS	PRE-REQUISITE COURSE
1.1	Compulsory Courses:		
34	Typing (Arabic) (A)	1	-
35	Accountancy (A)	1	Commerce 10
44	Typing (English	½	-
46	Office Practice	1	Commerce 10
55	Accountancy (B)	1	Commerce 35
56	Secretarial Work	½	Commerce 10
65	Mathematics of Finance & Trade	1	Maths 20
1.2.	Electives*		
57	Typing (Arabic) (B)	1	Typing 34
67	Typing (English) (B)	1	lyping 44
69	Office Practice	1	Commerce 10
78	Accountancy (C)	1	Accountancy 55
79		1	
88	Accountancy (D)	1	Accountancy 55
89	Correspondence (English)	1	35, 46, 43
1.3	Complementary Courses*		
43	English (Commercial Studies)	1	English 20 or 21

* Students are required to choose four courses from the electives and the complementary course stated

Table No. 39H

CURRICULUM PLAN FOR THE INDUSTRIAL BRANCH SPECIALISATION

COURSE NO.	COURSE NAME	CREDITS	PRE-REQUISITE COURSE
1.1	Compulsory Courses		
34	Measurements and Mechanical Instrumentation (A)	1	
44	Measurements and Mechanical Instrumentation (B)	1	34
55	Geometrical & Industrial Design	1	
54	Methods of constructing substances components	1	
64	Technology and Energy Investment	1	
65	Chemistry (B)	1	Chemistry (A) & Maths 42
1.2	Electives*		
79	Mechanical Technology (A)	1	10
78	Electronic Engineering & Electricity (A(	1	10
84	Industrial Chemistry	1	Science 65
88	Electronic Engineering and Electricity (B)	1	78
89	Mechanical Technology (B)	1	79
1.3	Complementary Courses*		
32	Science (Physics) (B)	1	Science 20
55	Science (Chemistry) (A)	1	Science 20 & 43
42	Mathematics and Algebra	1	Maths 20

* Students are required to choose three courses from the electives and the three complementary courses

Table No. 40

The Number, Name and Unit of Credits Covered of the Required Core Subjects in Kuwait Experimental Secondary Schools

	Name of Studies	Number of Periods	Units Credited	Total of Units Credited
1	Islamic Studies	4	½	2
2	Arabic Language	8	½	4
3	English Language	8	½	4
4	Physical Education	8	½	4 (For Non-Kuwaitis)
5	Physical Education	5	½	2½ (For Kuwaitis)
6	Military Education	3	½	1½ (For Kuwaitis)
7	Mathematics	2	1	2
8	Natural Sciences	2	1	2
9	Social Sciences	2	1	2
10	Commercial Studies	1	1	1
11	Technical Studies	1	1	1
12	Library and Research Methods	2	½	1
	Total			23

Source: The Committee of Curriculum Development in Secondary Schools in Kuwait, op.cit., p. 16.

Table No. 41

The Breakdown of Respondents Among Students and Staff in Kuwait University Survey 1982 About Conditions in Kuwaiti Experimental Secondary Schools

A. The breakdown of Respondents among Students in Kuwait University Survey - 1982, are:

Branch	Number of Respondents
Islamic Studies	22
English Language	33
Social Sciences Studies	47
Mathematics	55
Natural Sciences	46
Commercial Studies	34
Industrial Studies	34
TOTAL	274

B. The questionnaire for the teaching and administrative staff covered the following:

Branch	Number of Respondents
Headteachers	2
Deputy Heads	3
Heads of Department	10
Teachers	68
Social supervisors	4
Educational counsellors	4
Librarians	5
TOTAL	96

Table No. 42a

Number of teachers, by nationality and sex – Kuwait

Nationality	*Year*	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*	*%*
Kuwaiti	1976-7	1,824	3,205	5,029	27.7
	1977-8	1,975	3,332	5,307	26.8
	1978-9	2,109	3,396	5,505	26.7
Egyptian	1976-7	3,583	3,875	7,458	40.9
	1977-8	4,093	4,422	8,515	43.1
	1978-9	4,425	4,694	9,119	44.2
Palestinian and Jordanian	1976-7	2,983	1,860	4,843	26.6
	1977-8	3,051	1,895	4,946	25.0
	1978-9	3,074	1,910	4,984	24.2
Syrian	1976-7	272	109	381	2.6
	1977-8	333	202	535	2.7
	1978-9	331	190	521	2.5
Iraqi	1976-7	61	106	167	0.92
	1977-8	72	104	176	0.9
	1978-9	75	104	179	0.9
Lebanese	1976-7	48	38	86	0.47
	1977-8	47	34	81	0.4
	1978-9	44	37	81	0.4
Other	1976-7	91	113	204	1.1
	1977-8	96	118	214	1.1
	1978-9	100	135	235	1.1
Total	1976-7	8,862	9,306	18,168	100.0
	1977-8	9,667	10,107	19,774	100.0
	1978-9	10,158	10,466	20,624	100.0

Source: Ministry of Education, Statistics Department, *Census of Nationality of Male and Female Teachers*, 1976-7; Ministry of Planning, *Annual Statistical Abstract 1979*, table 298, p. 338, *Annual Statistical Abstract 1978*, table 297, p. 336.

Compiled by Al-Essa, Shamlan, Y., The Manpower Problem in Kuwait, Kegan Paul International, London, 1980, p. 59.

Table No. 42b

Teachers in Government Secondary Schools by Nationality and Sex, 1978-79

SEX \ NATIONALITY	KUWAITIS	EGYPTIANS	JORDANIANS PALESTINIANS	IRAQIS	LEBANESE	SYRIANS	OTHERS	TOTAL
MALE	57	1,398	696	22	7	102	35	2,317
FEMALE	342	1,770	280	36	10	63	53	2,554
TOTAL	399	3,168	976	58	17	165	88	4,871

Source: Ministry of Education
Technical and Vocational Education in Kuwait
Ministry of Education, Kuwait, Oct. 1979, p. 65.

Table No. 43A

CURRICULUM PLAN - CHEMISTRY/BIOLOGY STREAM - AL DAMAM COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL IN EASTERN REGION - SAUDIA ARABIA

OPTION	OPTION NO.	PRE-REQUISITE	TEACHING HRS PER WEEK
MATHEMATICS:			
Logic and Algebra	43/1	-	5
Analytic Geometry	43/3	43/1	3
Trigonometry	43/4	43/1	3
Logarithms	43/5	43/1	2
Matrix and Symbols	43/6	43/1	5
PHYSICS:			
Properties of Matter	44/1	-	2
Thermodynamics	44/2	-	3
Acoustics	44/3	-	3
Mechanics (Light)	44/4	-	3
BIOLOGY:			
Life Phenomena	45/1	-	3
Genetics	45/2	-	3
Cells Composition & Hygiene	45/3	45/2	3
Bionomic Classification	45/4	-	4
	45/5	45/1	4
	45/6	45/5	6
CHEMISTRY:			
Nuclear Chemistry	46/1	-	3
Organic Chemistry	46/2	-	2
Analytical Chemistry	46/3	46/1	2
Nuclear Chemistry	46/4	46/1	2
Petro Chemistry	46/5	46/2	2
Chemistry - Accounts	46/6	46/1 and 46/2	3
Physical Chemistry	46/7	46/1	5
Chemistry Holigention	46/8	46/1	2
Organic Chemistry	46/9	46/2	3
GEOLOGY:			
Physical Geology	47/1	-	2
Historical Geology	47/2	47/1	3
ARABIC & ISLAMIC STUDIES			
Recitation & Reading Quran	10	-	2
Theology (Tawhid)	15	-	2
Jurisprudence (Fiqh)	16	-	2
Islamic Culture	19/1	-	3
Islamic Culture	19/2	19/1	3
Composition & Rhetoric	23/1	-	2
Composition & Rhetoric	23/2	23/1	2
Dictation	25	-	2
Research & Library	26/1	-	2
ELECTIVES	FIVE COURSES ARE REQUIRED		

Translated by the researcher

Table No. 43B

CURRICULUM PLAN - PHYSICS/CHEMISTRY STREAM

OPTION	OPTION No.	PRE-REQUISITE	TEACHING HRS PER WEEK
MATHEMATICS:			
Logic & Algebra	43/1	-	5
Analytic Geometry	43/3	43/1	3
Trigonometry	43/4	43/1	3
Logarithms	43/5	-	2
Matrix and Symbols	43/6	-	3
Complex Numbers	43/7	-	3
PHYSICS:			
Properties of the MAtter	44/1	-	2
Thermodynamics	44/2	-	3
Acoustics	44/3	-	2
Mechanics (A)	44/4	-	2
Light	44/5	-	3
Mechanics (B)	44/6	43/4 & 44/4	3
Static Mechanics	44/7	44/4	2
Mechanics(C)	44/8	44/6	2
Magnetic	44/9	44/6 & 44/7	3
Atoms (excited, static & inverted)	44/10	44/8 & 44/9	3
CHEMISTRY:			
Biology	45	-	3
Nuclear Chemistry	46/1	-	3
Organic Chemistry	46/2	-	2
Solutions	46/3	46/1	2
Nuclear Chemistry	46/4	46/1	2
Petrochemistry	46/5	46/2	2
Chemistry - calculations	46/6	46/1 & 46/2	3
Physical Chemistry	46/7	46/1	5
Chemistry Hologention	46/8	46/1	2
Organic Chemistry	46/9	46/2	3
GEOLOGY:			
Physical Geology	47/1	-	2
Historical Geology	47/2	47/1	3
ARABIC & ISLAMIC STUDIES			
Recitation & Reading Quran	10	-	2
Theology	15	-	2
Jurisprudence	16	-	2
Islamic Culture	19/1	-	3
Islamic Culture	19/2	19/1	3
Composition & Rhetoric	23/1	-	2
Composition & Rhetoric	23/2	23/1	2
Dictation	25	-	2
Research & Library	26/1	-	2
ELECTIVES		THREE	

Table No. 43C

CURRICULUM PLAN FOR PHYSICS/MATHEMATICS STREAM - AL-DAMAM COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL

OPTION	OPTION No.	PRE-REQUISITE	TEACHING HRS PER WEEK
MATHEMATICS:			
Logic and Algebra	43/1	-	5
Index Numbers	43/2	43/1	4
Analytical Geometry	43/3	43/1	3
Trigonometry	43/4	43/1	3
Logarithms	43/5	43/1	2
Matrix and Symbols	43/6	43/1	3
Complex Numbers	43/7	43/1	3
Statistic Probability	43/8	43/1	3
Modern Algebra	43/9	43/4 and 43/5	5
Calculus	43/10	43/9	6
PHYSICS:			
Properties of Matter	44/1	-	2
Thermodynamics	44/2	-	3
Acoustics	44/3	-	2
Mechanics (A)	44/4	-	2
Light	44/5	-	3
Mechanics (B)	44/6	44/3 and 44/4	3
Static mechanics	44/7	44/4	2
Mechanics (C)	44/8	44/6	2
Magnetic	44/9	44/6 and 44/7	3
Atoms (excited, static & inverted)	44/10	44/8 and 44/9	3
BIOLOGY	45/1	-	2
CHEMISTRY:			
Nuclear Chemistry			
Organic Chemistry			
Physical Chemistry			
ARABIC & ISLAMIC STUDIES:			
Recitation & Reading Quran	10	-	2
Theology	15	-	2
Jurisprudence	16	-	2
Islamic Culture	19/1	-	3
Islamic Culture	19/2	-	3
Composition & Rhetoric	23/1	-	2
Composition & Rhetoric	23/2	23/1	2
Dictation	25	-	2
Research & Library	26/1	-	2
ELECTIVES	EIGHT		

Translated by the researcher.

List of Figures

(1) The Development of the Swedish School System from 1945-1975.

(2) The Compulsory School Structure in Sweden.

(3) Studies Lines and their Duration in the Upper Secondary School - Sweden.

(4) The English Education System.

(5) The United States of America's Education System.

(6) Philosophic Trend in American High Schools.

(7) Tyler's Model: The Derivation of Objectives.

(8) A - Instrumentation of Educational Objectives in the Cognitive Domain.

B - Instrumentation of Educational Objectives in the Affective Domain.

C - Instrumentation of Educational Objectives in the Psychomotor Domain.

(9) Changes Introduced in the Grundskolan Curriculum from 1950-1980.

(10) Schematic Views of Routes of Study in Proposed Reform of Gymmasieskolan SOU 1981-1990.

(11) The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching Proposed Core Curriculum.

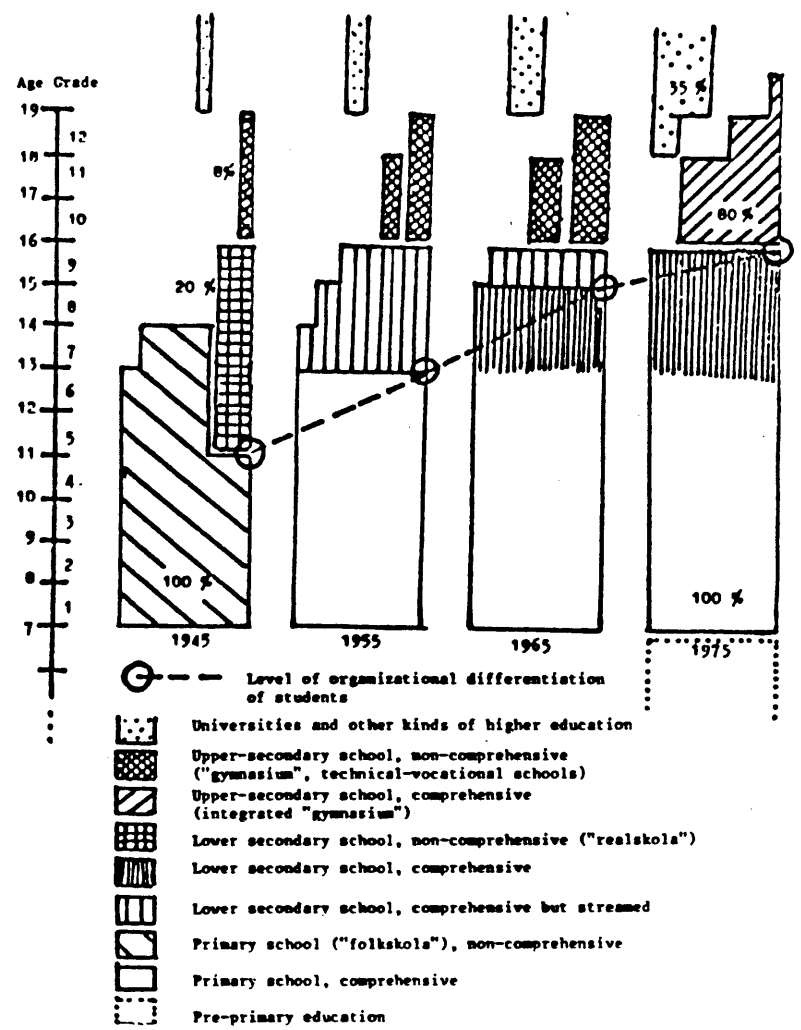
(12) The Nature of Knowledge and the Process of its Acquisition in Islam (Al-Ghazali's Scheme).

(13) Ibn Khaldūn Classification of Knowledge.

(14) Secondary Education Streams Commencing 1981/82.

Figure No. 1

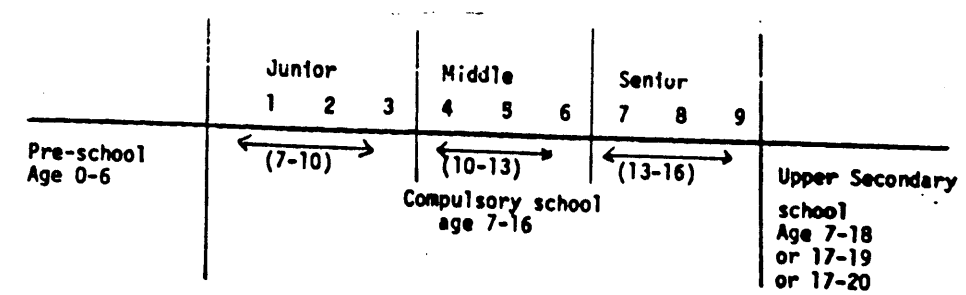
The Development of the Swedish School System from 1945 to 1975



Source: Marklund, S. The Democratisation of Education in Sweden, No. 8, (Sweden: Institute of International Education, p.9)

Figure No. 2

The Compulsory School Structure in Sweden



Source: Hamber, H. A Report on Compulsory Education in Sweden, National Swedish Board of Education, Information Section, Stockholm, Sweden, 1982, p. 1.

Figure No. 3

Studies Lines and their duration in the Upper Secondary School - Sweden

THE SWEDISH GYMNASIESKOLAN: STRUCTURE

YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	YEAR 4

1. HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCE SECTOR

Consumer - 5 variants	1	
Care - 4 variants	2	
Music	3	
Social	4	
Humanities - 5 variants		1
Social Science - 3 variants		2

2. ECONOMIC SECTOR

Distribution and Commerce 3 variants	5	
Economics (2-year)	6	
Economics (3-year) - 6 variants		3

3. TECHNICAL AND NATURAL SCIENCE SECTOR

Electro-technical - 5 variants	7	
Process technology - 5 variants	8	
Forestry	9	
Agricultural	10	
Technical (2-year) - 6 variants	11	
Natural Science		4
Technical (4-year) - 6 variants		1
Clothing - 2 variants	12	
Foodstuffs - 5 variants	13	
Workshop Techniques - 4 variants	14	
Motor Engineering 4 variants	15	
Woodwork - 3 variants	16	
Building - 9 variants	17	
Operational Engineering	18	
Horticulture	19	
Computers	20	

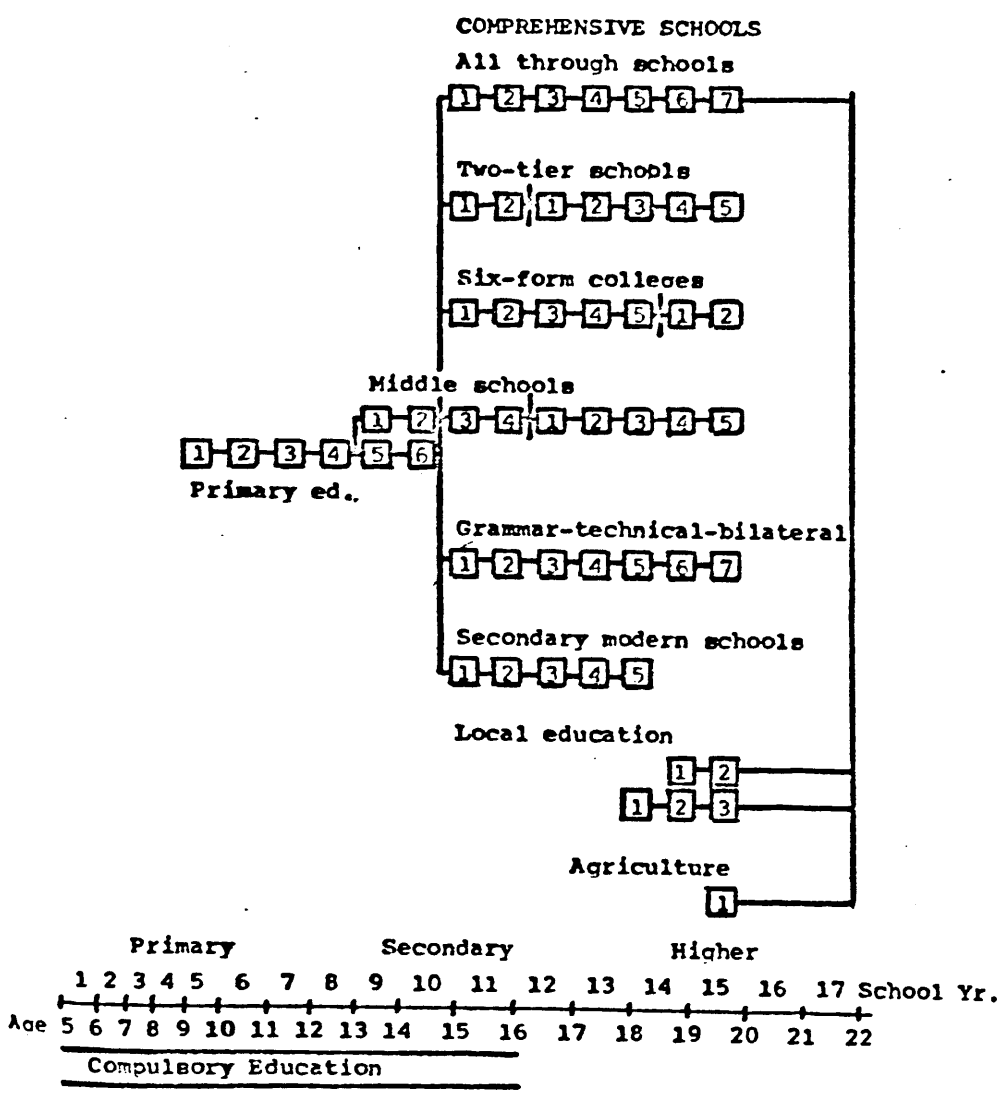
SPECIAL COURSES

Humanities and Social Sciences Sector	Play Leaders; Physiotherapy Occupational Therapy; Short Courses	
Economics Sector	Decorating; Pharmacy Assistants; Receptionists; Short Courses	
Technical and Natural Science Sector	Cartography; Furriers; Hairdressing; Short Courses	

Source: L. Boucher, Compare vol. 13, no. 2, 1983, p. 130.

Figure No. 4

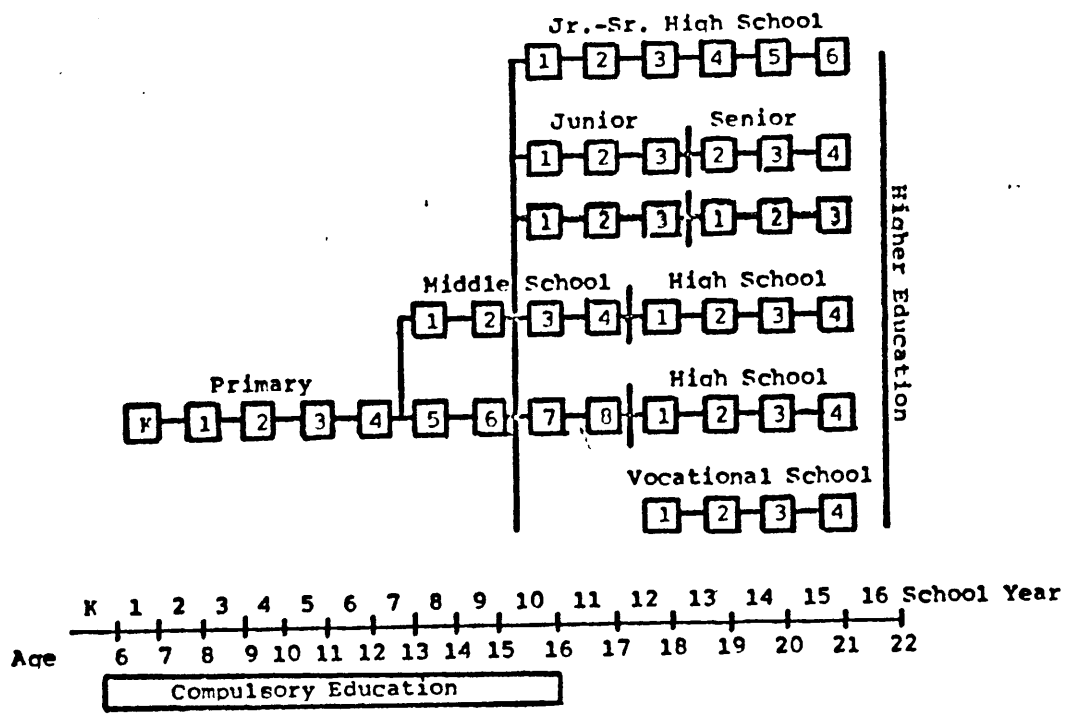
The English Education System



Source: Council for Cultural Cooperation of the Council of Europe: Education in Europe, 1970, p. 273.

Figure No. 5

The United States Education System



Source: OECD: Classificatio of Educational Systems in OECD Member Countries 1972a, pp. 56-79.

Figure No. 6

PHILOSOPHIC TREND IN AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOLS

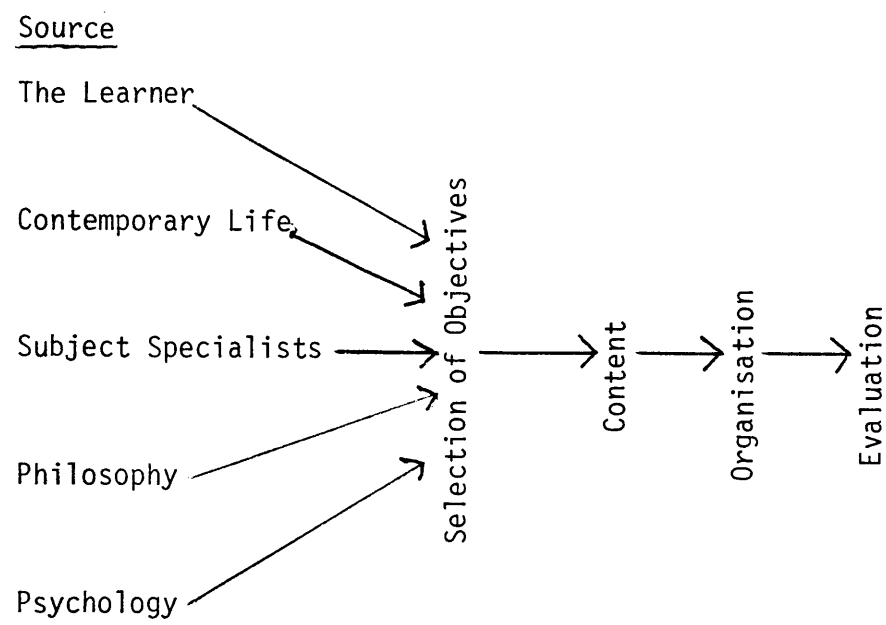
First Half of the Twentieth Century

TYPE OF SCHOOL Period	TRADITIONAL SCHOOL Until about 1900	PROGRESSIVE SCHOOL About 1920-1930	COMMUNITY SCHOOL About 1940	COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL Since about 1958
Orientation	Book-centered	Child-centered	Life-centered	Broad opportunities to learn Accent on individual ability Articulation from kindergarten to college
Ultimate aim	Literacy and college preparation	Personality Development	Improvement of living	Individual excellence Expertness, creativity Specialization
Curriculum pattern	Academic subjects	Interest activities	Social processes and problems (core)	A kindergarten through high school program individualized to ability and interests Challenge all students
Fundamental method	Exposition Explanation Memorization	Problem solving to satisfy personal interests	Problem solving to meet personal and community needs	Problem solving Reflective and critical thought Understanding
Learning values	All deferred	All immediate	Both immediate and deferred	Immediate, deferred, and relative
Keynote of discipline	Repressive control	Freedom from restraint	Cooperative responsibility	Responsibility, appreciation
Resources	Study about people places things	Study with people places things	Study with and about people places things Involvement of the total community	Understand evaluate explore associate participate Education is a continuous process for school and society

Source: Cyphert, F.R. and Harmer, E.W., Riccio, A.C. (eds.), Teaching in the American Secondary School - Selected Reading, McGraw Hill Book Company, New York, 1964, p. 73.

Figure No. 7

TYLER'S MODEL: THE DERIVATION OF OBJECTIVES



Source: Adopted from D Lawton, Social Change Educational Theory and Curriculum Planning, University of London Press Limited, UK, (1973) p. 17.

Figure No. 8A

Instrumentation of the Educational Objectives in the Cognitive Domain

TAXONOMY CLASSIFICATION	EXAMPLES OF INFINITIVES	EXAMPLES OF DIRECT OBJECTS
1.00 Knowledge		
1.10 Knowledge of specifics		
1.11 Knowledge of terminology	to define, to distinguish, to acquire, to identify, to recall, to recognize	vocabulary, terms, terminology, meaning(s), definitions, referents, elements
1.12 Knowledge of specific facts	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	facts, factual information, (sources), (names), (dates), (events), (persons), (places), (time periods), properties, examples, phenomena
1.20 Knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics		
1.21 Knowledge of conventions	to recall, to identify, to recognize, to acquire	form(s), conventions, uses, usage, rules, ways, devices, symbols, representations, style(s), format(s)
1.22 Knowledge of trends, sequences	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	action(s), processes, movement(s), continuity, development(s), trend(s), sequence(s), causes, relationship(s), forces, influences
1.23 Knowledge of classifications and categories	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	area(s), type(s), feature(s), class(es), set(s), division(s), arrangement(s), classification(s), category/categories
1.24 Knowledge of criteria	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	criteria, basics, elements
1.25 Knowledge of methodology	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	methods, techniques, approaches, uses, procedures, treatments
1.30 Knowledge of the universals and abstractions in a field		
1.31 Knowledge of principles, generalizations	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	principle(s), generalization(s), proposition(s), fundamentals, laws, principal elements, implication(s)
1.32 Knowledge of theories and structures	to recall, to recognize, to acquire, to identify	theories, bases, interrelations, structure(s), organization(s), formulation(s)
2.00 Comprehension		
2.10 Translation	to translate, to transform, to give in own words, to illustrate, to prepare, to read, to represent, to change, to rephrase, to restate	meaning(s), sample(s), definitions, abstractions, representations, words, phrases
2.20 Interpretation	to interpret, to reorder, to rearrange, to differentiate, to distinguish, to make, to draw, to explain, to demonstrate	relevancies, relationships, essentials, aspects, new view(s), qualifications, conclusions, methods, theories, abstractions
2.30 Extrapolation	to estimate, to infer, to conclude, to predict, to differentiate, to determine, to extend, to interpolate, to extrapolate, to fill in, to draw	consequences, implications, conclusions, factors, ramifications, meanings, corollaries, effects, probabilities
3.00 Application	to apply, to generalize, to relate, to choose, to develop, to organize, to use, to employ, to transfer, to restructure, to classify	principles, laws, conclusions, effects, methods, theories, abstractions, situations, generalizations, processes, phenomena, procedures

Continued..

Figure No. 8A Continued

4.00	Analysis		
4.10	Analysis of elements	to distinguish, to detect, to identify, to classify, to discriminate, to recognize, to categorize, to deduce	elements, hypothesis/hypotheses, conclusions, assumptions, statements (of fact), statements (of intent), arguments, particulars
4.20	Analysis of relationships	to analyse, to contrast, to compare, to distinguish, to deduce	relationships, interrelations, relevance, relevancies, themes, evidence, fallacies, arguments, cause-effect(s), consistency/consistencies, parts, ideas, assumptions
4.30	Analysis of organizational principles	to analyse, to distinguish, to detect, to deduce	form(s), pattern(s), purpose(s), point(s), of views(s), techniques, bias(es), structure(s), theme(s), arrangement(s), organization(s)
5.00	Synthesis		
5.10	Production of a unique communication	to write, to tell, to relate, to produce, to constitute, to transmit, to originate, to modify, to document	structure(s), pattern(s), product(s), performance(s), design(s), work(s), communications, effort(s), specifics, composition(s)
5.20	Production of a plan, or proposed set of operations	to propose, to plan, to produce, to design, to modify, to specify	plan(s), objectives, specification(s), schematic(s), operations, way(s), solution(s), means
5.30	Derivation of a set of abstract relations	to produce, to derive, to develop, to combine, to organize, to synthesize, to classify, to deduce, to develop, to formulate, to modify	phenomena, taxonomies, concept(s), scheme(s), theories, relationships, abstractions, generalizations, hypothesis/hypotheses, perceptions, ways, discoveries
6.00	Evaluation		
5.10	Judgements in terms of internal evidence	to judge, to argue, to validate, to assess, to decide	accuracy/accuracies, consistency/consistencies fallacies, reliability, flaws, errors, precision, exactness
6.20	Judgements in terms of external criteria	to judge, to argue, to consider, to compare, to contrast, to standardize, to appraise	ends, means, efficiency, economy/economies, utility, alternatives, courses of action, standards, theories, generalizations

Source: Davies, I.K., Objectives in Curriculum Design. McGraw-Hill Book Company, U.K. (1976), pp. 157-160.

Reproduced from Metlessel, N.S., Michael, W.B., and Kirsner, D.A., (1969), Instrumentation of Bloom's and Krathwohl's taxonomies for writing educational objectives, Pyschology in the Schools, 6,3, 227-231.

Figure No. 88

Instrumentation of Educational Objectives in the Affective Domain

TAXONOMY CLASSIFICATION	EXAMPLES OF INFINITIVES	EXAMPLES OF DIRECT OBJECTS
1.0 Receiving		
1.1 Awareness	to differentiate, to separate, to set apart, to share	sights, sounds, events, designs, arrangements
1.2 Willingness to receive	to accumulate, to select, to combine, to accept	models, examples, shapes, sizes, meters, cadences
1.3 Controlled or selected attention	to select, to posturally respond to, to listen (for), to control	alternatives, answers, rhythms, nuances
2.0 Responding		
2.1 Acquiescence in responding	to comply (with), to follow, to commend, to approve	directions, instructions, laws, policies, demonstrations
2.2 Willingness to respond	to volunteer, to discuss, to practice, to play	instruments, games, dramatic works, charades, burlesques
2.3 Satisfaction in response	to applaud, to acclaim, to spend leisure time in, to augment	speeches, plays, presentations, writings
3.0 Valuing		
3.1 Acceptance of a value	to increase measured proficiency in, to increase numbers of, to relinquish, to specify	group membership(s), artistic production(s), musical productions, personal friendships
3.2 Preference for a value	to assist, to subsidize, to help, to support	artists, projects, viewpoints, arguments
3.3 Commitment	to deny, to protest, to debate, to argue	deceptions, irrelevancies, abdications, irrationalities
4.0 Organization		
4.1 Conceptualization of a value	to discuss, to theorize (on), to abstract, to compare	parameters, codes, standards, goals
4.2 Organization of a value system	to balance, to organize, to define, to formulate	systems, approaches, criteria, limits
5.0 Characterization by value or value complex		
5.1 Generalized set	to revise, to change, to complete, to require	plans, behavior, methods, effort(s)
5.2 Characterization	to be rated high by peers in, to be rated high by superiors in, to be rated high by subordinates in and	humanitarianism, ethics, integrity, maturity
	to avoid, to manage, to resolve, to resist	extravagance(s), excesses, conflicts, exorbitancy/exorbitancies

Source: Davies, I.K., Objectives in Curriculum Design, MacGraw-Hill Book Company, U.K., (1976), p. 160.

(Reproduced from Metiessel, N.S., Michael, W.B. and Kirsner, D.A., (1969), Instrumentation of Bloom's and Krathwohl's taxonomies for writing educational objectives, Psychology in the School, pp. 6,3, 227-321.)

Figure No. 8C

Instrumentation of Educational Objectives in the Psychomotor Domain

MAJOR CATEGORIES IN HARROW'S TAXONOMY	ASSOCIATED ACTION VERBS	SOME EXAMPLES OF GENERAL OBJECTIVES
6.00 *Non-Discursive Communication.* Non-discursive communication can be defined as comprising those behaviours which are involved in movement communication. They can range from facial expressions to highly sophisticated dance choreographies as in classical ballet. Generally speaking, such non-discursive activities involve expressive communication forms like gestures and posture, as well as interpretative movements which can be either aesthetic or creative in form. The essential element in such psychomotor movements is that the response comes more from intuition and the tacit dimension than from reason or explicitness. This is why the term 'non-discursive' is employed.	to gesture to carry oneself to stand to sit to express facially to dance skilfully to perform skilfully to paint skilfully to play skilfully to smile knowingly	Moves expressively so as to communicate emotions. Moves interpretatively so as to communicate, aesthetically or creatively, inner feelings. Communicate self-fulfilment through the use of dance movements in a ballet. Uses movement to express joy and contentment in a pastoral idiom.
5.00 *Skilled Movements.* Skilled movements are defined as any efficiently performed complex movement. They require learning, and should be based upon some adaptation of the inherent patterns of movement described in level number two below. Skilled movements involve simple adaptive skills, compound adaptive skills incorporating the management of a tool or implement, and complex adaptive skills requiring a greater mastery of body mechanics. The important thing about skilled movements is that they are performed with ease and grace, almost as if no effort or thought were involved. In every case, however, they have been consciously acquired and practised over a period of time until the present level of skill was acquired.	to waltz to saw to type to play the piano to plane to file to skate to somersault to juggle to punt to twist-dive to fence to change	Changes or modifies basic movement patterns. Changes or modifies basic movement patterns using an implement or tool. Changes or modifies basic movement patterns, with total body involvement, often without a basis of support so that delicate adjustments are constantly necessary.
4.00 *Physical Abilities.* Physical abilities are essential to efficient motor activity. They are concerned with the vigour of the person, and allow the individual to meet the demands placed upon him or her in and by the environment. Physical abilities are an essential foundation for the development of skilled movements. Prominent amongst physical abilities are speed, endurance, exertion, and flexibility.	to endure strenuous activity to endure for long periods of time to improve to increase to stop and start to move precisely to touch toes	Exerts tension against resistance. Moves quickly. Stops immediately. Endures long periods of fatigue.

Figure No. 8C (Cont.)

3.00 *Perceptual Abilities.* Perceptual abilities are really inseparable from motor movements. They help learners to interpret stimuli so that they can adjust to their environment. Superior motor activities depend upon the development of perception. They involve kinesthetic discrimination, visual discrimination, auditory discrimination and coordinated abilities of eye and hand, eye and foot. The skill of discrimination underlies all these abilities, whether they are gross in character or fine in quality. This skill has to be deliberately learned and practised over a wide range of conditions.	to catch to bounce to eat to write to balance to bend to bounce to draw from memory to distinguish by touching to explore	Discriminates kinesthetically. Discriminates visually. Discriminates auditory-wise. Discriminates tactily. Coordinates two or more perceptual abilities and movement patterns.
2.00 *Basic Fundamental Movements.* Basic fundamental movements are defined as those inherent body movement patterns, which build upon the foundation laid by reflex movements. They usually occur during the first year of life, and unfold rather than are taught or consciously acquired. These movements involve movement patterns which change a child from a stationary to an ambulatory learner. They also involve non-locomotor movements of the limbs and portions of the trunk, as well as manipulative movements of the extremities. The movements involved in this category are fundamental to all normal, everyday human activity, and any deficiency is usually quite serious in terms of day to day psychomotor activities.	to crawl to creep to slide to walk to run to jump to grasp to reach to righten to support to handle	Changes location. Creates dynamic movement patterns in space, but remains in one place. Moves extremities in coordinated fashion. (Note: there is usually little need to write objectives for this classification level, unless learner is having difficulties and needs to be placed in a remedial programme.)
1.00 *Reflex Movements.* reflex movements are defined as involuntary motor responses to stimuli. They form the basis for all behaviour involving movement of any kind. Reflex movements are functional at birth, and develop throughout life. They involve one or more spinal segments, and sometimes the participation of the brain centres. Reflex movements represent the lowest level in the psychomotor domain, but without them life, at least as we know it, is impossible.	to flex to stretch to straighten to extend to inhibit to lengthen to shorten to tense to stiffen to relax	Responds with segmental reflexes. Responds with intersegmental reflexes. Responds with suprasegmental reflexes. (Note: there is no need to write objectives for this classification level. Movements are not learned, but are reflex to stimuli.)

Source: Davies, I.K., Objectives in Curriculum Design, McGraw-Hill Book Comoany, U.K. (1976), pp. 162-163.

(Based upon Harrow, A.J. (1972), A Taxonomy of the Psychomotor Domain, New York, Mackay.)

Figure No. 9

Changes Introduced in the Grundskolan Curriculum from 1950-1980

	Swedish	Maths	English	Religious Studies	History	Civics	Geography	Biology	Physics	Chemistry	Music	Art	Craft	Home Economics	Physical Education	Typing	Child Care	TOTAL CORE	ELECTIVES	TOTAL
							CORE CURRICULUM													
1951-55																				
7-9a	10	11	6½	5	6	5	5	6	6	4½	3	4	3	5	9			89	22	111
-9g	10	11	6½	5	6	5	5	6	6	4½	3	4	3	5	9			89	22	111
-9y	10	7	3½	3	4	5	5	5½	4	3	2	2	3	5	9			71	43	114
1955-62																				
7-9a	11	11	3½	5	6	5	5	6	6	4½	3	4	3	5	9			87	24	111
-9g	11	11	6½	5	6	5	5	6	6	4½	3	3	3	5	9			97	14	111
-9y	11	7	3½	3	4	5	5	5½	4	3	2	2	3	5	9			72	39-46	111-118
1962 (Lgr 62)																				
7-9g-s	11	12	4	5	5	5	5	5	6	4	←12→			4	8			86	19	105
-9pr-ht	9	8	4	4	3	5	5	5	4	2	←10→			4	8			71	34	105
1967																				
7-9	10	12	9	←30→							4	5	5	5	9	2		91	8+6	105
1969 (Lgr 69)																				
7-9	10	12	9	←17→				←13→		)	3	5	5	5	9			88	11+6	105
				←30→						)										
1978																				
7-9	10	11	9	←30→							3	4½	5	6	9	1½		90	9(+6)	99(105)
1979 (Lgr 80)																				
7-9	10	12	9	←16→				←13→			2	5	5	4	9		1	88	11(+6)	99(105)

ELECTIVES

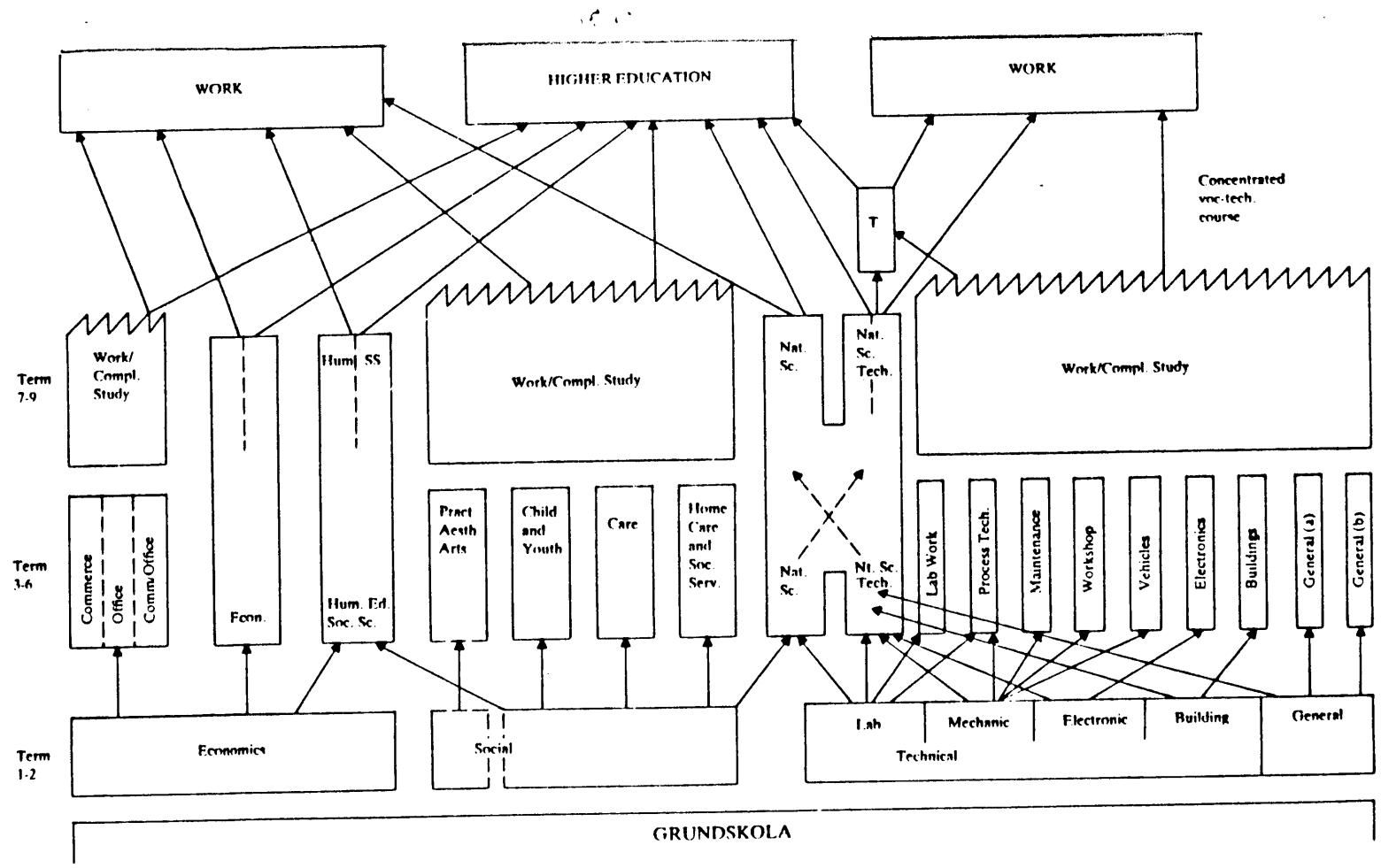
1951-55	Year 7	-	5 periods p.w.	- German/Swedish + indiv.choice/Practical + indiv.choice
	Year 8	-	9 periods p.w.	- German + English/English + Swedish or Practical + indiv.choice/Practical + indiv.choice
	Year 9a	-	8 periods p.w.	- German + French or indiv.choice
	9g	-	8 periods p.w.	- German + French
	9y	-	29 periods p.w.	- 6 vocational lines (Agricultural/Domestic/Industry/Timber-Building/Textile/Commercial) + indiv.choice (3 hrs - could be English or German)
1955-62	Years 7 & 8	-	as in 1951-55	
	Year 9a	-	10 periods p.w.	- German + English or French + indiv.choice
	9g		Nil	
	9y	-	23-30 periods p.w.	- 8 vocational lines (Agricultural-Forestry/Domestic/Industry - metal or wood or textiles/Commerce/Craft/Technical) + 3 hrs p.w. indiv.choice
1962	Year 7	-	5 periods p.w.	- German or French/German or French and Swedish or Maths/German or French and Typing/Craft or Typing and Swedish or Maths/Craft
	8	-	7 periods p.w.	- German or French or English/German or French and English + Typing/Technical + English/Commerce + German or French + English/Home Ec. + English/Music + Art + English/Craft + Typing + English/Craft + Typing/Home Ec. + Typing/Music + Art + Typing/Factory Work/Home Economics
	Year 9	-	7 periods p.w.	- lines 9g (French or German + English); 9h (French or German + English); 9t (Technical + English); 9m (Commerce + German or French + English); 9s (Family & Social Care + English)
		or	22 periods p.w.	- line 9pr (Workshop + Home Economics + Office/Shop work) 9tp (Workshop + Technical Drawing + Technical Maths + Tools) 9he (Swedish + Commercial Maths + Commerce + Bookkeeping + Typing) 9ht (Home Economics + Child Care)
1967	French or German/Home Economics/Technical/Aesthetic Studies + 2 periods per week indiv. choice from a wide range of activities decided by each school			
1969	Ditto			+ 2 periods per week indiv. choice
1978	Languages only - Swedish/Mother Tongue/French/German/Communication skills			
1979	French or German/Aesthetic - Practical/Social Studies/Nat Sciences - Technical/+ indiv. choice (+ 'topics' for individual/group work in care subjects. Electives/topics NOT to be "additional courses or hidden streaming")			

FIG. 5. Grundskolan 13-16 stage curricular (periods per week x three years).

Source: Sixten Marklund, Leon Boucher, "The Curriculum for 13-16 Years Old - Sweden: A Review of Changes", Compare, Vol.10, No. 2, 1983.

Figure No. 10

Schematic Views of Routes of Study in Proposed Reform of Gymnasieskolan'SOU 1981 - 1990



Source: Boucher, L., "Reform of the Swedish Post-Compulsory School 1960-83", Compare, Vol. 13, No. 1, 1983, Journals Oxford Ltd., U.K., (1983), p. 140

Figure No. 11

THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING

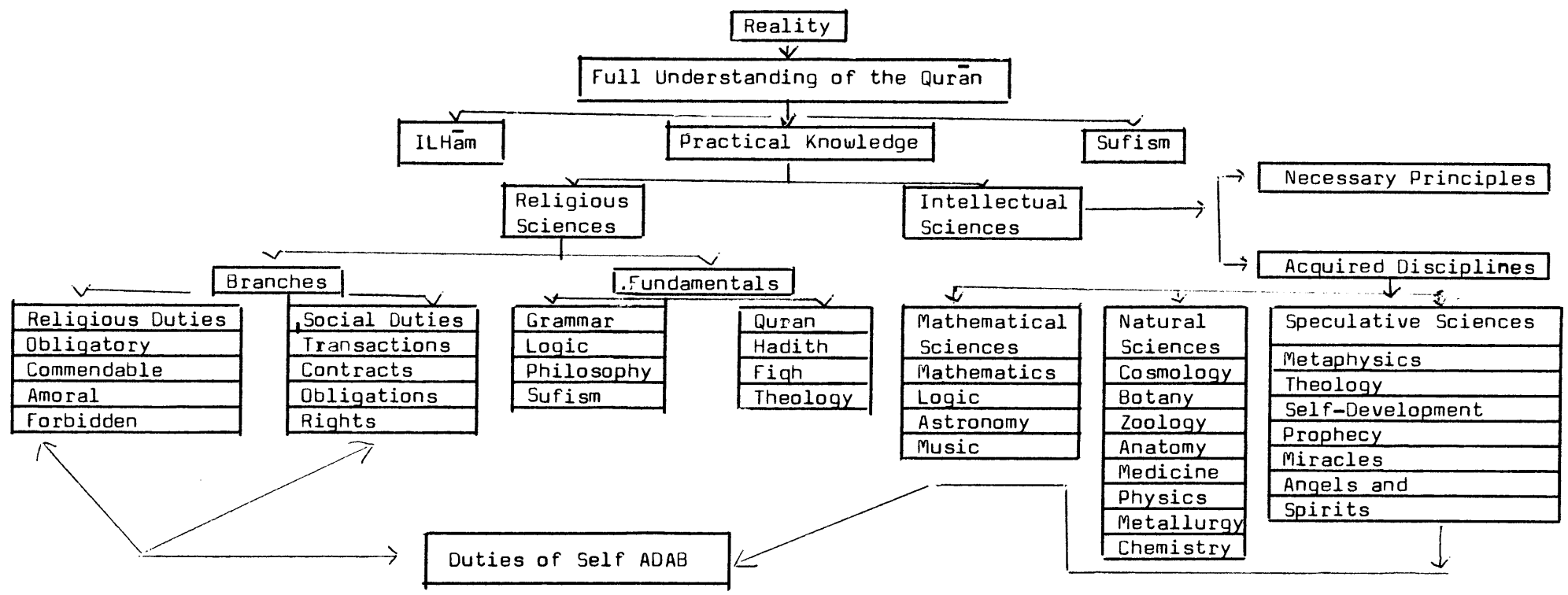
PROPOSED CORE CURRICULUM

SUBJECT	UNIT
(1) Language (5 Units)	
- Basic English: Writing	1
- Speech	½
- Literature	1
- Foreign Language ~~Arts~~	2
- Arts	½
(2) History (2½ units)	
- US History	1
- Western Civilisation	1
- Non-Western studies	½
(3) Civics	1
(4) Science (2 units)	
- Physical Science	1
- Biological	1
(5) Mathematics	2
(6) Technology	½
(7) Health	-
(8) Seminar on Work	½
(9) Senior independent project	½
	14½

Source: E L Boyer, High School. A Report on Secondary Education in America, p. 117.

Figure No.12

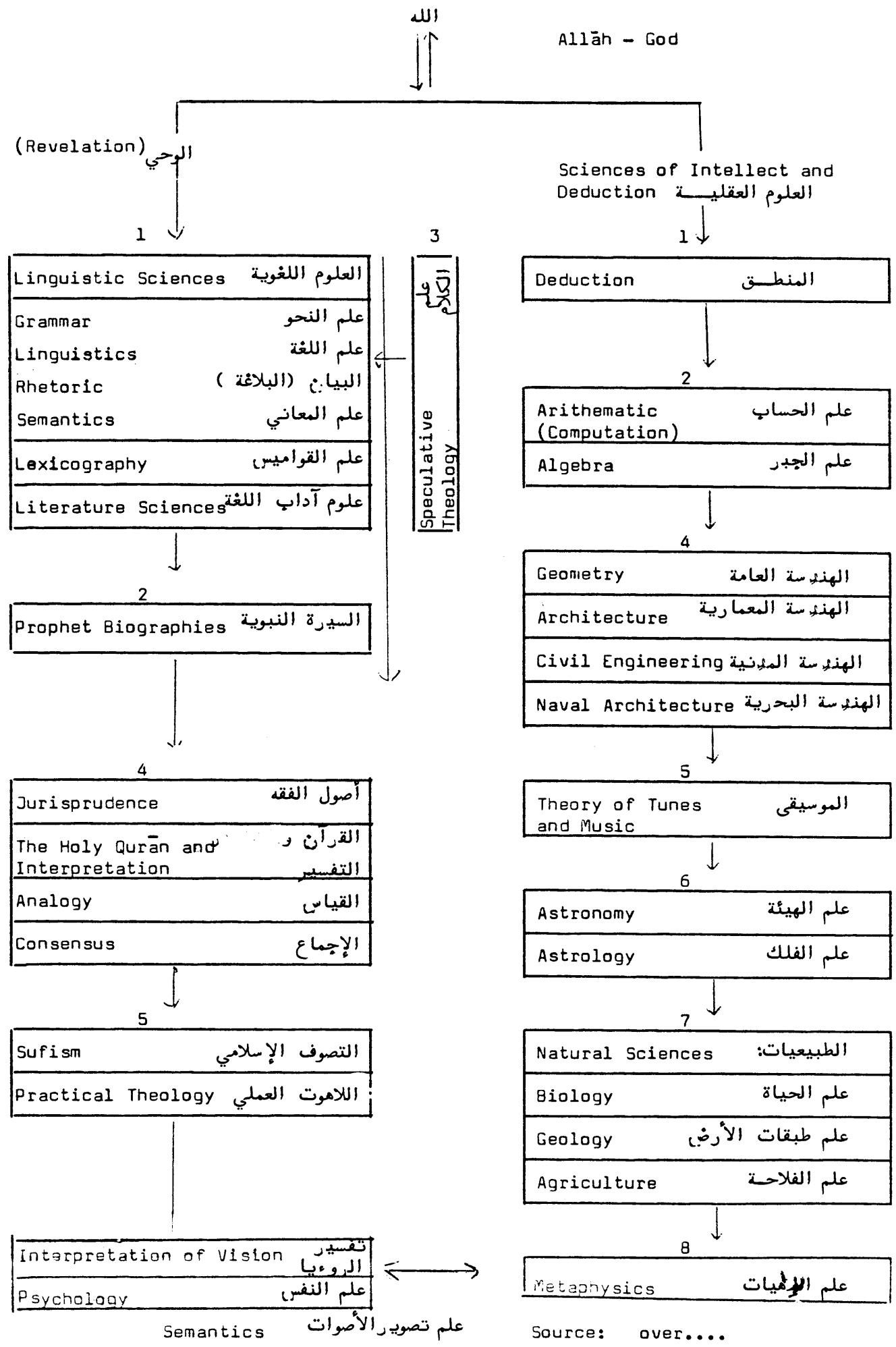
The Nature of Knowledge and the Process of its Acquisition in Islam (Al-Ghazali's Scheme)



Source: Reconstructed from G.N. Saqib, Modernisation of Moslem Education, Reach Press, London, 1977, p. 46.

Figure No.13

Ibn Khaldūn Classification of Knowledge



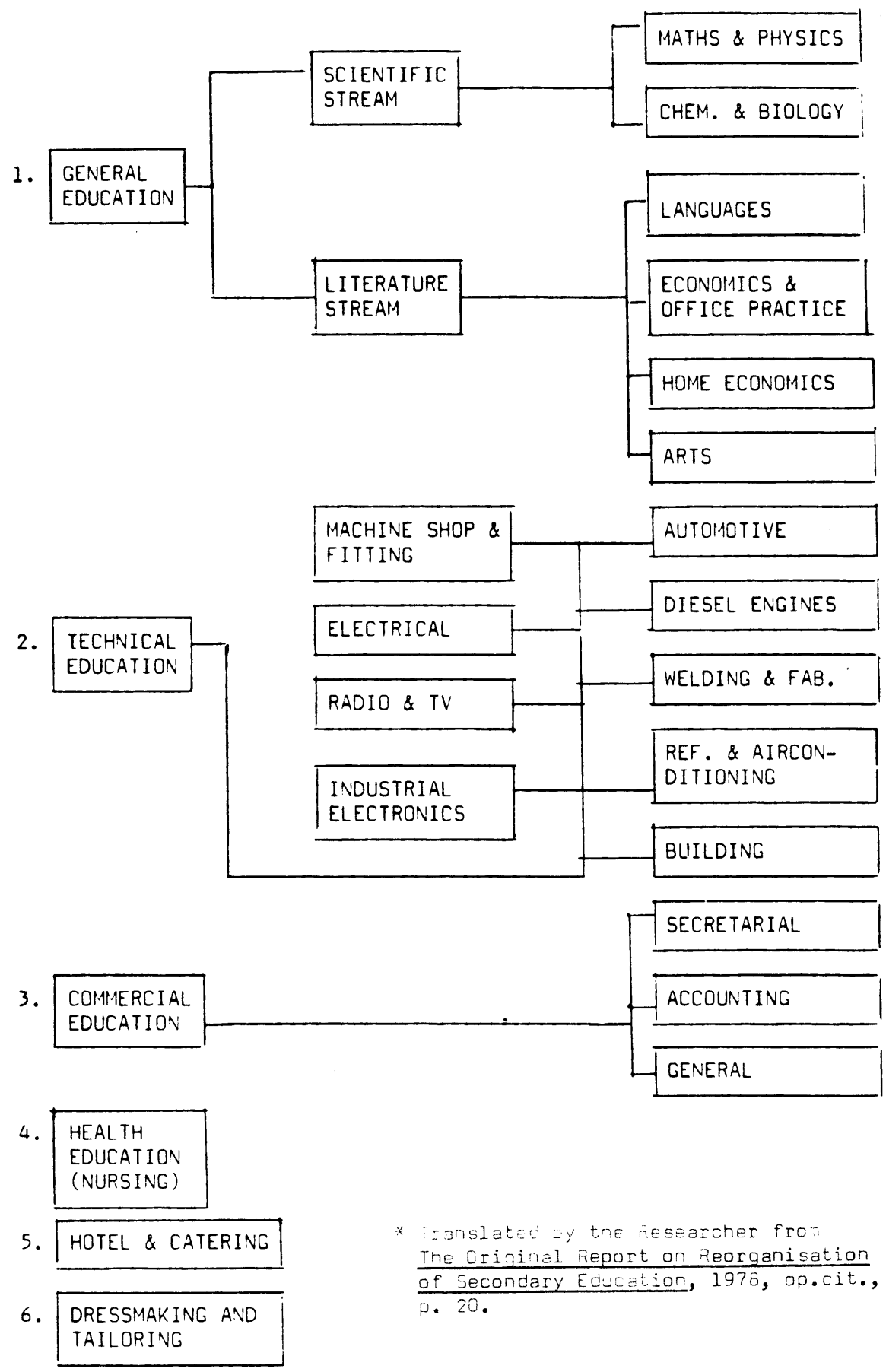
Source: over....

Figure No.13

Source: Zeki, Yaqub, The Islamic Classification of Knowledge - A Lecture delivered on 15.3.1985 to the Comparative Muslim Education Society at the University of London Institute of Education.

Figure No. 14

SECONDARY EDUCATION STREAMS
COMMENCING 1981/82



* translated by the Researcher from The Original Report on Reorganisation of Secondary Education, 1978, op.cit., p. 20.

List of Charts

(1) The Organisation Structure of the Ministry of Education in Bahrain, 1983.

(2) The Organisation Structure of the Ministry of Education in Kuwait.

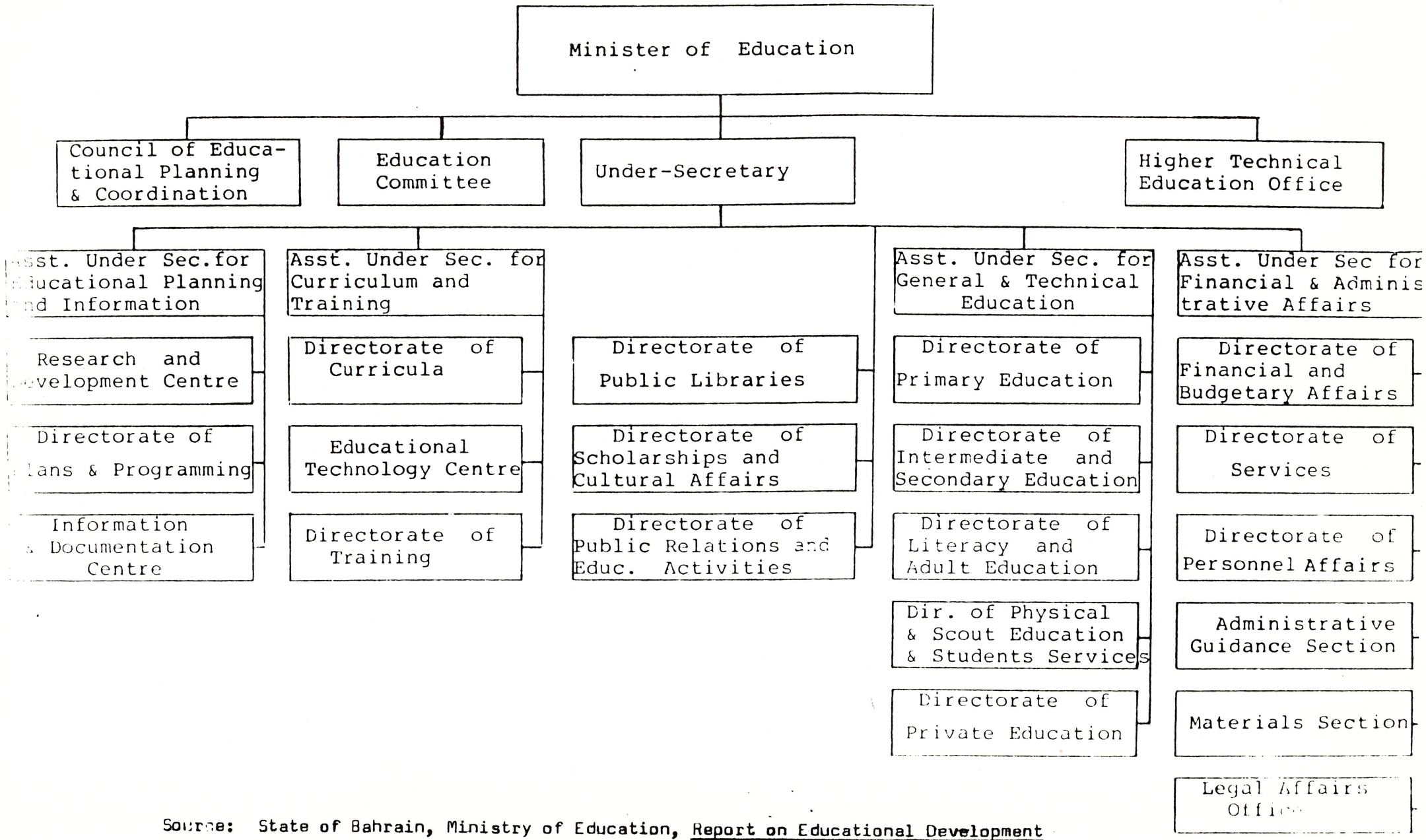
(3) Structure of the Education System in Bahrain, 1982.

(4) The Education System in Saudi Arabia, 1975.

(5) Structure of the Education System in Kuwait.

CHART I

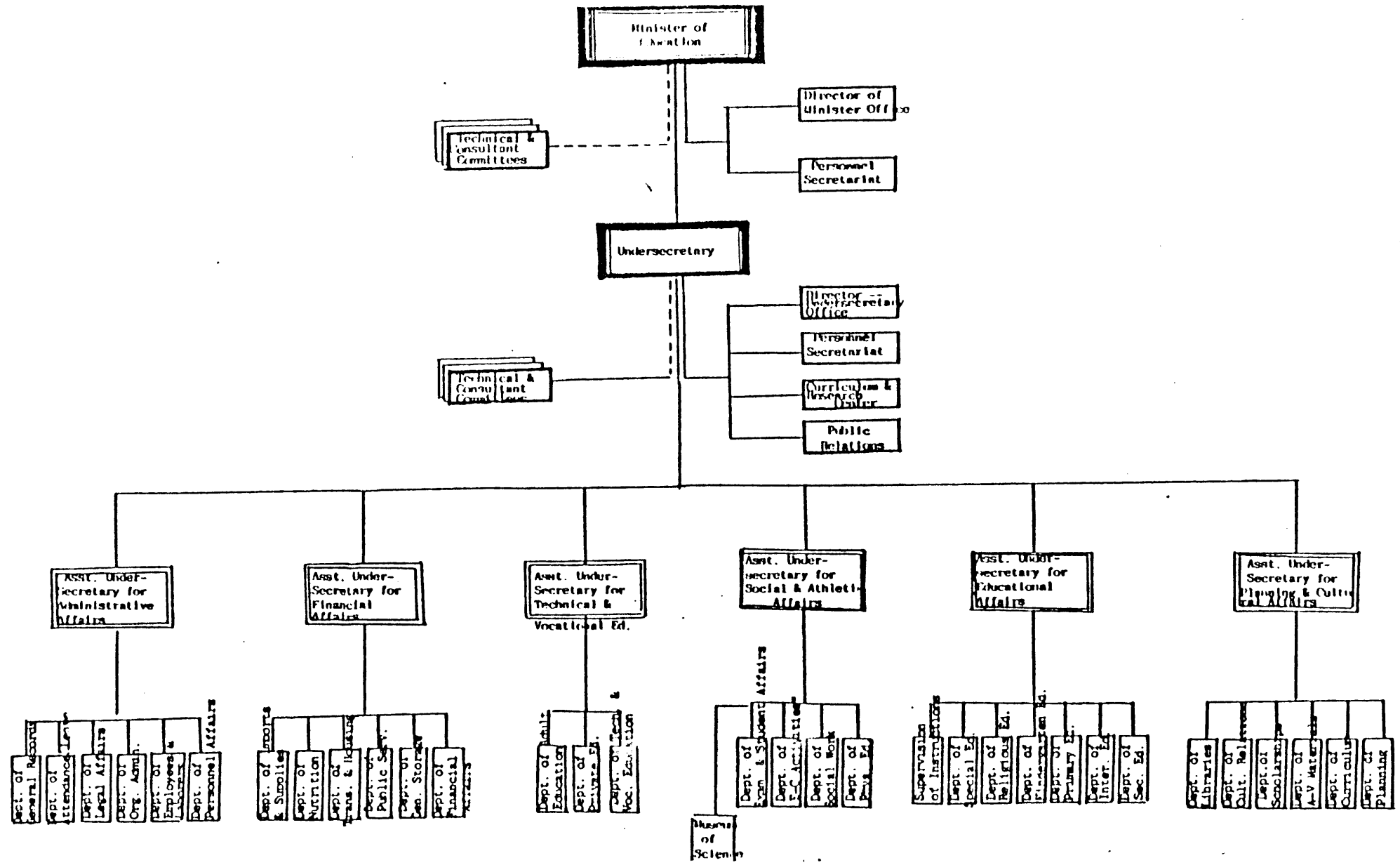
THE ORGANISATION STRUCTURE OF MINISTRY OF EDUCATION IN BAHRAIN, 1983



Source: State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Report on Educational Development in Bahrain from 1980/81 to 1982/83, p. 4.

CHART 2

THE ORGANISATION STRUCTURE OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION IN KUWAIT



Source: Ministry of Education, Department of Organisational Administratives (Translated by Bustan, A.A.), A Survey of Recent Trends and Developments in Higher Education System of the State of Kuwait, (Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis), The University of Kansas Lawrence, Kansas, U.S.A., 1980, p. 46.

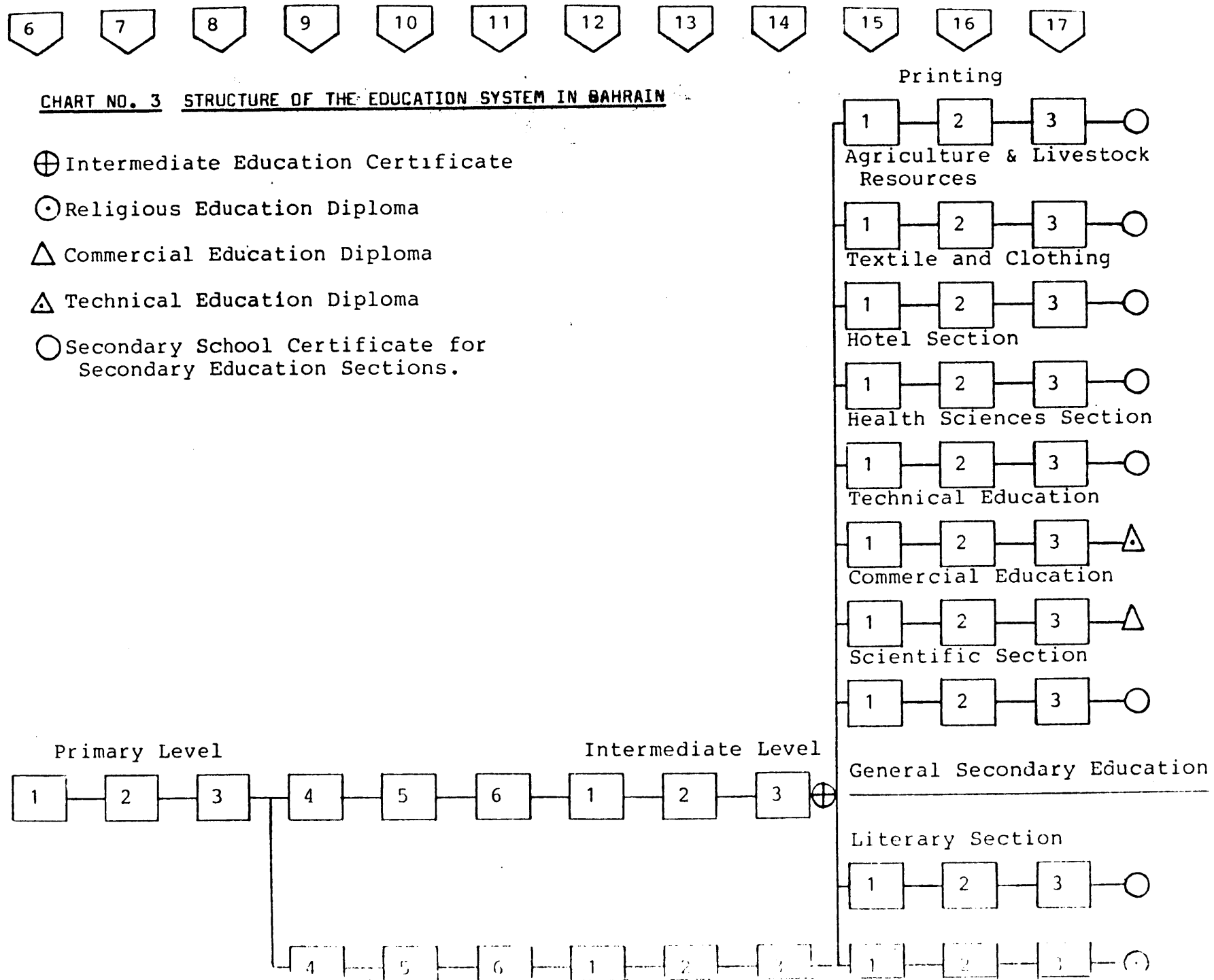


CHART NO. 3 STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN BAHRAIN

⊕ Intermediate Education Certificate

⊙ Religious Education Diploma

△ Commercial Education Diploma

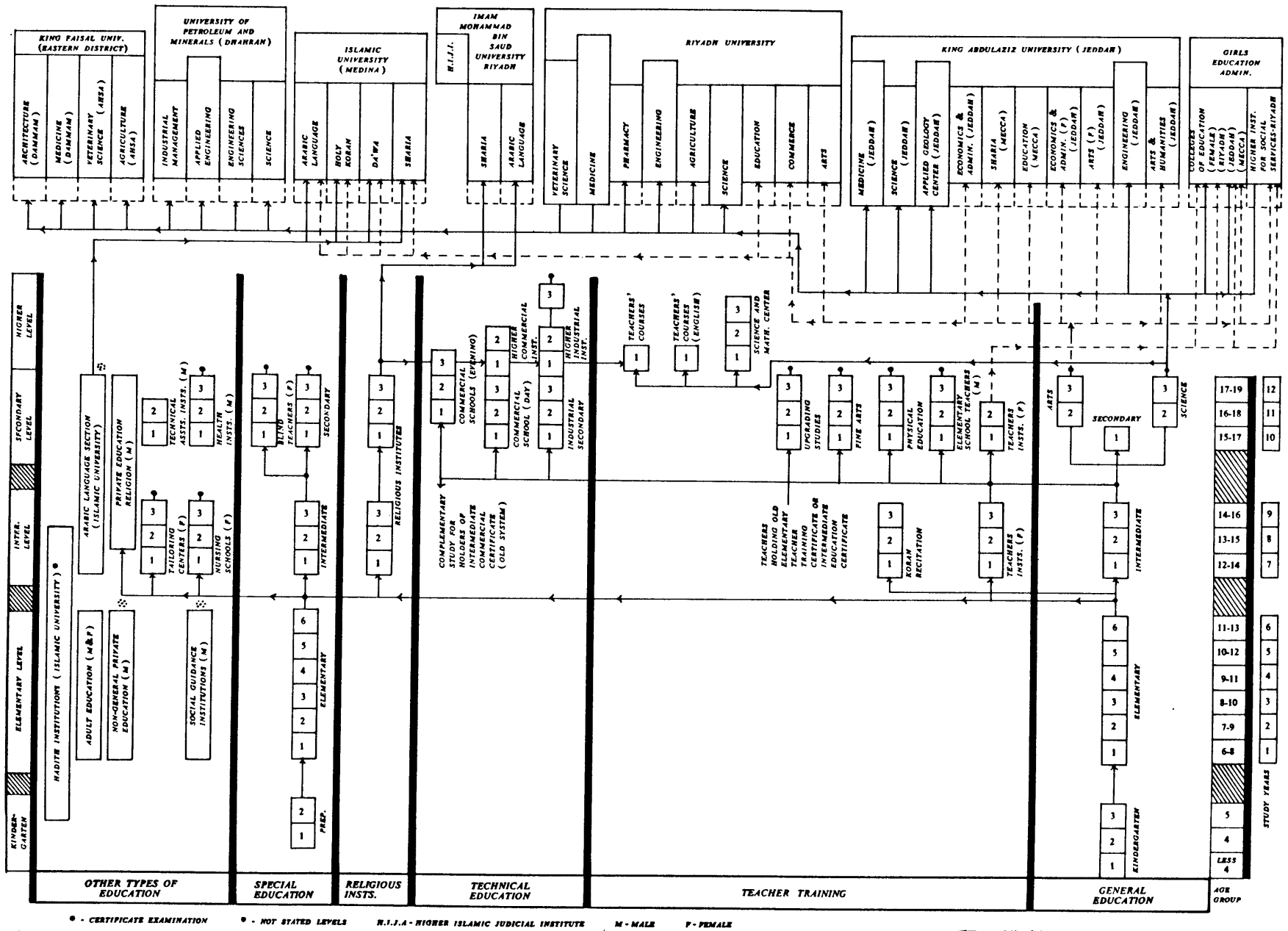
◬ Technical Education Diploma

○ Secondary School Certificate for Secondary Education Sections.

Source: State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Report on Educational Development in Bahrain, from 1980/81 to 1982/83, p.14.

CHART No. 4

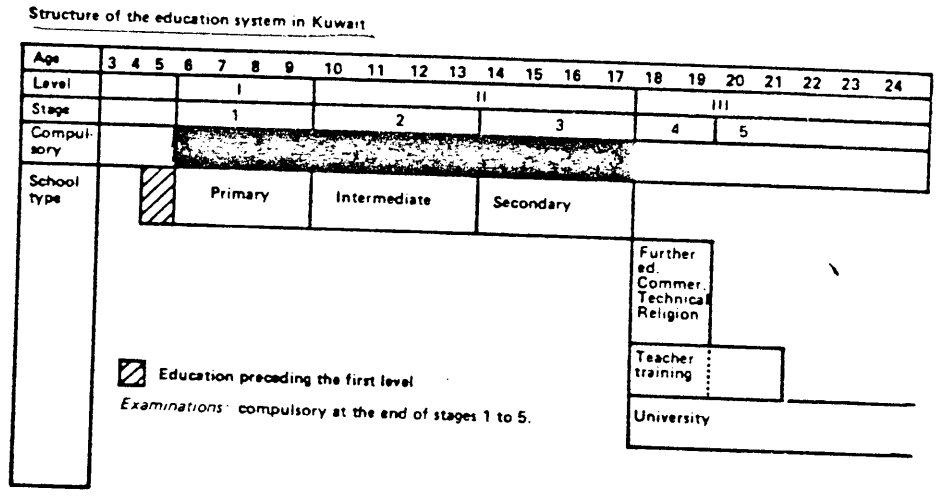
THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN SAUDI ARABIA, 1975



Source: Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia - A Statistical Review 1385-1397 A.H. (1965-1977 A.D.), National offset Printing Press, Saudia Arabia, 1978, p.7

Chart No. 5

Structure of the education system in Kuwait



Structure and organization. Pre-first-level education is optional between 4 and 6 years of age and takes place in kindergartens.

Source: Unesco/IBE
B. Holmes, International Yearbook of Education, Unesco Publication, Paris, 1980, p. 122

APPENDICES

Appendix No. 1

The criteria to determine whether or not Comprehensive Education occurs - in the American High School

A Adequacy of general education for all as judged by:

1 offerings, English and American literature and composition
2 Social Studies
3 Ability grouping in required courses.

B Adequacy of non-academic elective programme as judged by:

4 Vocational programmes for boys and commercial programmes for girls.
5 Opportunities for supervised work experience
6 Special provision for very slow readers

C Special arrangements for the academically talented students:

7 Sepcial provisions for challenging the highly gifted.
8 Special instruction in developing reading skills.
9 Summer sessions from which able students may profit.
10 Individualised programmes (absence of tracks or rigid programmes).
11 School day organised into seven or more instruction periods.

D Other features:

12 Adequacy of the guidance service
13 Student morale
14 Well organised home rooms
15 The success of the school in promoting an understanding between students with widely different academic abilities and vocational goals (effective social interaction among students).

Source: Passow, A.H., American Secondary Education, The Conant Influence - A Look at Conant's Recommendations for Senior and Junior High Schools, National Association of Secondary School Principals, Reston, Virginia, U.S.A. p. 15.

Appendix 2

A. American National Educational Goals in Historical Perspective

Cardinal Principles of 1918		National Goals of 1973
- Health and Physical Fitness - Command of Fundamental Processes - **Vocation** - Civic Education	(Separate interrelated goals)	Adjustment to Change (Mental Health) Communication Skills Computation Skills Occupational Competence - Responsibility for Citizenship - Respect for Law and Authority - Appreciation of Others.
- Worthy Home Membership - Worthy use of Leisure - Ethical Character	(Separate related goals)	- Knowledge of Self - Critical Thinking - Clarification of Values - Economic Understanding - The Achievement of Man, Nature and Environment

B. The National Goals of 1973 – Content and Process Goals

The Content Goals	The Process Goals
- Achievement of communication skills - Achievement of computation skills - Attainment of proficiency in critical and objective thinking - Acquisition of occupational competence - Clear perception of nature and environment - Development of economic understanding - Acceptance of responsibility	- Ability to adjust to change - Respect for Law and Authority - Clarification of Values - Appreciation of the achievement.

Source: Brown, B.F., The Reform of Secondary Education, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, 1973, p. 188

APPENDIX 3

Types of Courses with a Marked Vocational Bias Towards the Sexes

Subjects which are not open boys and number of schools included in their survey		Subjects which are not open to girls and number of schools included in their survey	
SUBJECT	No. of schools		No. of schools
Needlework	186	Woodwork	160
Domestic Science	140	Metalwork	159
Typing	34	Technical Drawing	102
Cooking	27	Building	25
Shorthand	27	Gardening	and under
Dress Design	25 and under	Rural sciences	
Catering		Navigation	
Nursing		Physics and Chemistry	
Girls Craft		Pottery	
Jewellery Making		Surveying	
Hygiene		Technology	
Dancing		Boys Crafts	
Human Biology			

Source: C Benn and B Simon Halfway There - Report on The British Comprehensive School McGraw Hill Publishing Company Limited, 1970, 287-288

APPENDIX NO. 4.

THE CAREER PROGRAMME FOR THIRD YEAR NON-CERTIFICATE PUPILS

First Term:

1.	The Way Ahead	
1.1	Introduction to the Course Aims, content and principles. The importance of informed choice. Those participating school leaving procedure. General discussion.	Careers Master and Careers Advisory Officer
1.2	The Careers outlook	
2.	Choosing a career	
	Talk by Careers Advisory Officer on self-assessment and careers	Careers Advisory Officers
3.	Self-assessment	
	Completion of careers questionnaire and vocational interest inventory. Discussion of arrangement for interviews. Invitation to parents.	Careers Advisory Officer
4.	Further education for non-certificate pupils	
	Films and Talks	Organiser of Further Education
5.	Further education	
	Visits to Technical Colleges	

6.	H M Forces Army, Navy, RAF and Royal Marines	Liaison Officers
7.	Film Programme Films on agriculture, horticulture and ancillaries	
8.	Agriculture Talk and discussion	Speaker from Young Farmers' Club
9.	Agriculture Visits to farm and cattle market	
10.	Horticulture Talk	Curator of University garden
11.	Horticulture Visit to University gardens	
12.	Film Programme Films on Hotel and Catering, service industries etc.	
13.	Food Trades Talk	Head of Department of Food Trades Technical College
14.	Food Trades Visit to hotel/bakery	
15.	The Employment Interview Film strip and discussion Discussion and report on first term programme	

Third Term:

1.	Some uses of leisure Stamp Collecting	President of Stamp Club
2.	Mountaineering and Orienteering	Instructor, National Council for Physical Recreation
3.	Sailing	President of Boating Club
4.	Clubs and youth organisations People who serve the public	President of Junior Red Cross Society
5.	Provost and Town Clerk	Attend meeting of Town Council
6.	Police Constable and Probation Officer	Attend meeting of Court
7.	Librarian and children's officer	
8.	Industrial Chaplain	Discussion
9.	Wages, piecework, bonuses, stoppages, income tax, National Insurance, hire, purchase, savings and personal budget	Bank Manager Manager of Ministry Wages clerks
10.	The last word Panel Discussion	Members of Rotary

Source: Scottish Education Department.
Raising the School Leaving Age. Organisation and Development of Courses, A Progress Report, HMSO? UK, (1970), pp. 41-43.

APPENDIX 5A

A. THE SET OF GRADES USED BY SEVERAL EXAMINATION BOARD IN ENGLAND AND WALES

ORDINARY LEVEL		ADVANCED LEVEL
1		A
2		B
3		C
4	PASSING GRADES	D
5		E
6		-
7	FAILING GRADES	Ordinary Level
8		Pass
9		F

* The results of these gradings are usually available to the schools but not to the candidates who receive the overall grades only.

Source: J. Pearce, School Examinations, Collier Macmillan Publisher, London, (1972), p. 1.

APPENDIX 5B

The CSE Boards are authorised by School Council to record five grades on CSE Certificates. They are to be awarded as follows:

Grade I

It is given to a candidate of such ability in the subject that he might reasonably have secured a pass in the 'O' Level of the GCE if he had followed a course of study leading to that examination.

Grade IV

It is given to a candidate of an average ability who has followed a course of study regarded by teachers of the subjects as appropriate to his age, ability and aptitude.

Grades II and III

They are to be awarded to those whose ability lies between Grades I and IV. Approximately one-half of this middle group of candidates to be assigned to each grade.

Grade V

It is to be awarded to candidates of average ability in the subject who though not meriting the award of Grade IV have nevertheless been properly entered for the exam. All performances interior to those placed in Grade V to be classified as ungraded.

Source: Bruce, G. Secondary School Examinations - Facts and Commentary, Pergamon Press Limited, London, (1969), pp. 52-53.

APPENDIX NO. 6A

Vocational Programme Components

- Agriculture
- Aircraft mechanics
- Appliance repair
- Automechanics
- Building trades
- Commercial Art
- Computer technology
- Cosmetology
- Districutive Education
- Drafting
- Dressmaking
- Electronics
- Foods
- Graphic Arts
- Heating and Ventilating
- Health
- Horticulture
- Machinery
- Office occupations
- Photography
- Practical nursing
- Radio and T.V. repair
- Shorthand
- Textiles
- Typing
- Welding (187)

APPENDIX NO. 6B

A List of some Practical Arts Programmes

- Drawing and planning
- Woodwork
- Metalwork
- Electricity
- Graphic Arts
- Transportation and Power
- Plastics
- Leatherwork
- Ceramics
- Textiles
- Home Mechanics

APPENDIX 7A

A List of General Business Courses Offered in American Comprehensive Schools

- Typing I, II, III
- Shorthand I, II
- Introduction to General Business
- Filing
- Secretarial Bookkeeping
- Retailing
- Business Law
- Retail Selling
- Business Arithmetic
- Store Management
- Salesmanship
- Advertising
- Economics
- Selling and Advertising
- Consumer Education
- Key Punch I, II
- Machine Accounting
- Record Keeping
- Secretarial Practice
- Office Practice
- Clerical
- Business English
- Marketing
- Cooperative Store and Office Training
- Economic Geography
- Transcription
- Electric Data
- Processing

APPENDIX 7B

Curriculum Pattern for General Business Education in some American States

Grade	Course
7th-8th	One Year of Introduction to Business and One Year of Typing (four semesters).
9th	No Business Education courses. General mathematice or Illinois mathematics programme.
10th	Economic Geography, Salesmanship.
11th	Bookkeeping (non-vocational).
12th	Business Organisation, Business Law, Choice of Key Punch Machine, Accounting, Management Science, Consumer Economics, Salesmanship.

Source: L.H. Clark, op.cit., pp. 384-385

APPENDIX NO. 8

THE JUDICIARY STRUCTURE IN BAHRAIN

The law no. 13 of 1971 established the structure of the Judiciary and consolidated its independence. It provided immunity for judges and introduced new legal principles into both Civil and Shari'ah (Islamic) procedure. It also applied the principle of using one or several judges according to the nature and importance of the dispute.

The Civil and Shari'ah Courts are organised as follows:

I. The Civil Judiciary consists of:

1.1 High Civil Appeal Court, presided over by the three most senior judges in the country, deals with appeals raised in the High Civil and Criminal Court

1.2 The Greater Appeal Courts consist of four chambers, three of which investigate all disputes involving non-Muslims and civil and commercial cases outside the jurisdiction of the lower courts, while the fourth deals with mundane cases. Each is presided over by three judges.

1.3 The Middle Courts are divided into three: each are presided over by one judge to look into misdemeanours and violations.

1.4 The lower courts occupy five rooms, each one presided over by one judge, to deal with financial cases whose value does not exceed BD 3,000.

II. The Shariah Judiciary consists of:[1]

2.1 The Higher Appeal Court which has two courtrooms, one for Sunni and the other for Ja'afaris (Shi'ahs) each presided over by three judges who deal with appeal cases raised by the Higher Shar'ah Court

/cont...

2.2 The Higher Shari'ah Court consists of two courtrooms, one for Sunnis, the other for Ja'afaris, each presided over by three judges who handle all personal affairs of Muslims, other than matters specified by civil law.

III In addition to the above courts, there is the Executive Court which carries out the sentences passec by all other courts, and the Arbitration Court which decides in case of dispute which cases are to be handled by the Shariah courts and which by the civil courts.

1 The jurists are not representing one sect of Islam. In fact there are four jurist groups in Bahrain. They are:

- The urban Hawala who follow Shafi'ai law;
- The urban Najdis who follow Hanbali law;
- The Tribal Sunnis who follow Maliki law;
- Shi'ah Arabs or Persians who follow Ja'afari law

Source: Bahrain, Ministry of Information, Bahrain (Bahrain: Ministry of Information and Portico International London, 1980), pp. 121-122.

APPENDIX NO. 9

PROGRAMME OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Proposed by C.R.L. Adrain Vallance, 1940.

1. THE OIL INDUSTRY

I MECHANICAL ENGINEERING
- Fitters
- Turners
- Mechanists
- Blacksmiths

II MOTOR TRADE
- Motor Mechanics
- Woodworkers for Motor Body Work

III STRUCTURAL TRADES
- Welders
- Steel Erectors
- Pipe Fitters
- Plate workers

IV ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING
- Electricians in various specialized branches
- Line and cable workers
- Electrical wiremen

V OIL REFINING AND STORAGE
- Recorders
- Assistant

2 THE GOVERNMENT SERVICES AND MARKET TRADES

I BUILDING TRADES
- Stone and Concrete workers, plasterers etc.
- Carpenters and joiners
- Plumbers and domestic engineers

II FURNITURE TRADE
- Cabinet maker
- Upholsterers

III MOTOR TRADE
- Motor mechanics

IV ELECTRICAL TRADES
- Electrical Fitters and wiremen

Source: C R L Adrain Vallance, Report on Education in Bahrain, P.V. 83 1/12/1941 - 13/8/1945 R 15/1/373/ - 19/248 - III Vol, C.88 Indian Office Library, UK, p. 10.

APPENDIX NO. 10

THE VOCATIONAL/INDUSTRIAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KUWAIT BEFORE 1972-1973

Prior to 1972/73 vocational/technical schools had been established at the second level of education.

(1) 'Al-Kuliyah al-Sina'aiyah' or the technical college which was set up in 1954 provided a four year course along the lines of the technical school programme in Egypt. The aim of the school was to create a class of skilled technicians who were also eligible for entry into higher education if they had the ability and ambition to continue their studies. In order to attract sufficient students to this school, the Ministry of Education offered some special incentives such as providing students with a monthly salary in addition to free boarding. But attendance nevertheless remained desperately low. In 1956-57, for example, only 98 students were on the rolls even though the capacity of the school was 600 students.

The students used to specialise in any of the following branches: fitting, turning, blacksmithing and welding, foundry, wireless and automobile mechanics, electricity, plumbing, carpentry and cabinet-making.

(2) The first commercial school was established in 1960 initially with two courses of different duration. The first type followed the pattern of the ordinary secondary school, i.e. a four year course after intermediate education. The second type course meant basically for in-service government and private sector employees was to extend to two years. Its emphasis was on typing Arabic and English, accounting, secretarial work, office management plus general background courses in Arabic and English.

In 1967-68, the first girls' trade school was opened by the Ministry of Education. It stressed on domestic science with some typing and secretarial training.

(3) To overcome the acute shortage of teachers in elementary schools and to avoid the dependency on expatriate teachers, Kuwait strived for self-sufficiency by implementing teacher-training programmes as early as 1951-52. It followed the pattern of the ordinary secondary school, i.e. a four year course after intermediate education, and graduates were eligible for teaching at elementary level.

The curriculum was similar to general secondary schools. In addition, students were offered extra courses in psychology, teaching methods and teaching practice for the training of teachers at the first level of education.

In 1968, two teachers' colleges were established to provide two years of training to secondary school graduates who were allowed to teach at the intermediate level.

APPENDIX NO. 11

THE ARABIAN AMERICAN OIL COMPANY'S (ARAMCO) CONTRIBUTION IN THE VOCATIONAL/INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN SAUDI ARABIA

Technical education, in its modern form, did not develop in Saudi Arabia until 1940. The initiative was taken by ARAMCO in 1944 to train its employees for specific jobs at its premises at that time. The Company accepted the responsibility only for training its own employees in the skills and requirements for the company.

In the very late 1940s and during the 1950s initial key expansion of the ARAMCO training and development programme was implemented, screening and aptitude testing for job assignment and training were started, work-study schemes were developed to train field production workers, advanced training featuring special training projects in Long Island, New York and Beirut, were used to develop Saudi Personnel. By the mid-1950s, permanent academic industrial training centres (ITC) had been built in Abqiaq, Dhahran and Ras Tanurah in addition to the industrial training shops (ITS).

Till 1960, there were three divisions in the training programmes:

(1) Assigned general industrial training. This was responsible for an intensive course named 'pre-job training for recruits'. Students were instructed in Arabic, English, general science, arithmetic, typing, office practice and hygiene.

(2) Voluntary general industrial training. This was open to all employees of Aramco able to cope with extra work. Tuition was mainly in arithmetic, typing, Arabic and English.

(3) Advanced industrial training started in 1950 and was offered at Dhahran Centre. It offered training of secondary school level to Saudi employees nominated by all three districts and the company general office.

In the 1960s, the concept of full-time training for a year or two, followed by equal periods of full-time work, was developed. This made it possible to provide an appropriate situation for job-related academic training of Saudis and their development on-the-job. However, training slowed down in the late 1960s, but the industrial expansion of the 1970s sparked a vigorous acceleration of the training programmes.

In the 1980s, ARAMCO, tried to modify its training system to meet the Kingdom's policy of placing Saudies in jobs held by foreigners. The Saudi Arab Manpower Committee (SAMCOM, 1979) acts as ARAMCO's key policy-making body in the general area of Saudi Arabia and especially Saudi Career Development. Its primary role is the setting up of policies and establishment of programmes that result in maximising Saudi Arab participation in the affairs of the company at every level of employment.

A Report commemorating ARAMCO's 50th Year in Saudi Arabia, 1982, states that the Company's corporate training expenses in 1982 totalled SR 2.2 billion ($ 643 million) - an amount exceeding more than ten times the 1975 ARAMCO training expenditure.

At present, the ARAMCO training system consists of that sequence of events which deals with getting Saudi employees trained from point of hire to entry - level job qualification and beyond and involved the following three types of training:

(1) Trainees attending ARAMCO academic and job skill facilities, full-time or under-going a work-study regimen involving part-time study in ARAMCO facilities and job skill training on the actual job the rest of the time.

(2) Employees attending college or trade school outside Aramco.

(3) High-potential Saudi employees under-going management training.

Source: Saudi Arabia, ARAMCO,
50 Years of Training Achievement - A Report Commemorating ARAMCO's 50th Year in Saudi Arabia, Saudi Arabia, 1982.

APPENDIX 12

THE PROPOSAL PLAN FOR DIVERSIFYING SECONDARY EDUCATION IN BAHRAIN - FOR THE ACADEMIC YEARS 1979/80 - 1983/84

The Ministry of Education set up a Social Services Committee which was given the responsibility of preparing a draft of a (proposed) plan for the reorganisation of secondary schools. The proposal plan was approved by the Cabinet at its meeting (no. 567) on 15th July 1979.

The main objectives of this plan are stated as follows:

1. Increasing the percentage of students at the first year technical and vocational secondary level; while decreasing the percentage of students at the first year of general secondary education.

   For boys, the 63.7 percent will be decreased to 35 percent in the academic year 1978-79

   For girls the 80 percent will be decreased to 35 percent in the academic year 1983-84.

2. Introduction of the following specialisations (branches):

- Home economics
- Nursing and Medical Services (Health Sciences) in coordination with the Ministry of Health.
- Hotel and Catering (in coordination with the Ministry of Development and Industry - The Training Centre for Hotel and Catering)
- Printing Services (in coordination with the Ministry of Information)
- Agriculture and Livestock (in coordination with the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs

/Cont...

3. Directing 10 percent of intermediate school leavers to the vocational training centres supervised by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.

The Committee referred to the Ministry of Education's intention to set up vocational educational programmes in the intermediate schools in order to discover the pupils' abilities and skills and thereby obtain a guide for the appropriate kind of education at secondary stage. The Committee agreed with the Ministry that the safeguards must be established to protect the graduates of these diversified programmes, at the secondary level against the competition of imported manpower. They will be given priority in terms of available jobs on the market.

* Translation of the original Memorandum submitted to the Cabinet. The Arabic copy is attached

لجنة الخدمات الاجتماعية

مذكرة الى مجلس الوزراء
بشأن خطة خمسية لتفريع التعليم الثانوى

عقدت لجنة الخدمات الاجتماعية عددا من الاجتماعات لمناقشة مذكرة مقدمة من وزارة التربية والتعليم بشأن خطة خمسية لتفريع التعليم الثانوى تمتد من السنة الدراسية ٧٩/ ٨٠ حتى ٨٣/١٩٨٤م

وقد اسفرت مداولات اللجنة عن اقرار صيغة التفريع المرفقة بهذه المذكرة •

وتهدف هذه الخطة الى :

١ ـ رفع نسب القبول بالصف الاول الثانوى بالتعليم الفنى والمهنى ، وخفض نسب القبول فى هذا الصف بالتعليم الاكاديمى العام من ٦٣٫٧٪ سنة ٧٨ / ٧٩ الى ٣٥٪ بالنسبة للبنين ، ومن ٨٠٪ الى ٤٥٪ بالنسبة للبنات بنهاية الخطة ٨٣/١٩٨٤م•

٢ ـ ادخال تخصصات مهنية جديدة بالتعليم الثانوى مثل :
- الاقتصاد المنزلى •
- اعمال تتصل بالتزيين والحلاقة •
- الخدمات الصحية بالتعاون مع وزارة الصحة •
- خدمات الفندقة والسياحة بالتعاون مع وزارة التنمية والصناعة (مركز التدريب للتموين والفندقة) •
- اعمال تتصل بالمطابع بالتعاون مع وزارة الاعلام •
- الثروة الحيوانية والزراعية بالتعاون مع وزارة الزراعة والتجارة •

٣ ـ توجيه ما نسبته ١٠٪ من خريجى الاعدادى بالنسبة للذكور الى مراكز التدريب المهنى التابعة لوزارة العمل والشئون الاجتماعية•

وتوافق اللجنة على ما ورد فى توجيهات وزارة التربية والتعليم فيما يتعلق بتشجيع انشاء برنامج للتربية المهنية فى المدارس الاعدادية يهدف الى اكتشاف قدرات الطلبة واهتمامهم لتوجيههم نحو نوع التعليم المناسب لهم • كما تتفق اللجنة مع رغبة وزارة التربية فى توفير الضمانات اللازمة لحماية خريجى التفريعات الجديدة فى التعليم الثانوى من المنافسة الاجنبية واعطائهم الافضلية فى التوظيف والله الموفق•

ملاحظة : الموافقة على هذه المذكرة فى جلسة مجلس الوزراء رقم ٥٦٧

بتاريخ ١٥ يوليو ١٩٧٩

THE FIVE YEAR PLAN FOR THE DIVERSIFICATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AND THE PROCESS OF INTRODUCING NEW SPECIALISATIONS (BRANCHES)

KIND OF SECONDARY EDUCATION	SEX	1978-1979		1979-80(1)		1980-1981		1981-1982		1982-1983		1983-1984	
		No. 1st Year	%	No. 1st Year	%	No. 1st Year	%	No. 1st Year	%	No. 1st Year	%	No. 1st Year	%
General Secondary	M	1199	63.7	308	60.0	631	52.0	867	46.0	900	40.0	866	35.0
	F	1334	80.0	314	75.0	828	63.0	1112	58.0	1058	50.0	1017	45.0
Commercial	M	243	13.0	154	30.0	182	15.0	283	15.0	338	15.0	371	15.0
	F	334	20.0	104	25.0	355	27.0	537	28.0	614	29.0	678	30.0
(Technical) Industrial	M	347	23.3	52	10.0	304	25.0	546	28.0	767	30.0	743	30.0
	F	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Health Sciences	M					24	2.0	38	2.0	23	1.0	25	1.0
	F					105	8.0	116	6.0	106	5.0	113	5.0
Hotel and Catering	M					73	6.0	75	4.0	90	4.0	99	4.0
	F					26	2.0	38	2.0	148	7.0	113	5.0
Home economics (Tailoring)	M					-	-	-	-	-	-	25	1.0
	F							115	6.0	190	9.0	226	10.0
Livestock & Agriculture(2)	M									90	4.0	49	2.0
	F									-	-	-	-
Printing Services	M											25	1.0
	F											-	-
Hairdressing	M											25	1.0
	F											112	5.0
Vocational & Training (3)	M							76	4.0	135	6.0	247	10.0
	F							-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	M	1879		514		1214		1885		2252		2475	
	F	1668		418		1314		1918		2116		2259	
GRAND TOTAL		3547		932		2528		3803		4368		4734	

NOTES to APPENDIX

(1) The number was dropped down as a result of expanding the intermediate level for three years

(2) Livestock and Agriculture includes: fishing, dairy products and agricluture

(3) Students join vocational training centres after completion of the intermediate stage are not allowed to join secondary stage. They are given technical training for two years to join the market directly.

Translated from the original (attached)

خطة خمسية لتفريغ المرحلة الثانوية وادخال تخصصات دراسية جديدة

نوع التعليم		٧٨/٧٩ العدد بالصف الاول الثانوى	٧٨/٧٩ النسبة المئوية	٧٩/٨٠ العدد بالصف الاول الثانوى	٧٩/٨٠ النسبة المئوية	٨٠/٨١ العدد بالصف الاول الثانوى	٨٠/٨١ النسبة المئوية	٨١/٨٢ العدد بالصف الاول الثانوى	٨١/٨٢ النسبة المئوية	٨٢/٨٣ العدد بالصف الاول الثانوى	٨٢/٨٣ النسبة المئوية	٨٣/٨٤ العدد بالصف الاول الثانوى	٨٣/٨٤ النسبة المئوية
التعليم العام	ن	١١٩٩	٦٣٫٧٪	٣٠٨	٦٠٪	٦٣١	٥٢٪	٨٦٧	٤٦٪	٩٠٠	٤٠٪	٨٦٦	٣٥٪
	أ	١٣٣٤	٨٠٪	٣١٤	٧٥٪	٨٢٨	٦٣٪	١١١٢	٥٨٪	١٠٥٨	٥٠٪	١٠١٧	٤٥٪
التعليم التجارى	ن	٢٤٣	١٣٪	١٥٤	٣٠٪	١٨٢	١٥٪	٢٨٣	١٥٪	٣٣٨	١٥٪	٣٧١	١٥٪
	أ	٣٣٤	٢٠٪	١٠٤	٢٥٪	٣٥٥	٢٧٪	٥٣٧	٢٨٪	٦١٤	٢٩٪	٦٧٨	٣٠٪
التعليم الصناعى	ن	٤٣٧	٢٣٫٣٪	٥٢	١٠٪	٣٠٤	٢٥٪	٥٤٦	٢٩٪	٦٧٦	٣٠٪	٧٤٣	٣٠٪
	أ	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
خدمات صحية	ن					٢٤	٢٪	٣٨	٢٪	٢٣	١٪	٢٥	١٪
	أ					١٠٥	٨٪	١١٦	٦٪	١٠٦	٥٪	١١٣	٥٪
خدمات فندقة وسياحة	ن					٧٣	٦٪	٧٥	٤٪	٩٠	٤٪	٩٩	٤٪
	أ					٢٦	٢٪	٣٨	٢٪	١٤٨	٧٪	١١٣	٥٪
اقتصاد منزلى (تفصيل ، خياطة تدبير)	ن							—	—	—	—	٢٥	١٪
	أ							١١٥	٦٪	١٩٠	٩٪	٢٢٦	١٠٪
الثروة الحيوانية والزراعية *	ن									٩٠	٤٪	٤٩	٢٪
	أ									—	—	—	—
أعمال تتصل بالمطابع	ن											٢٥	١٪
	أ											—	—
أعمال تتصل بالتزيين والحلاقة	ن											٢٥	١٪
	أ											١١٢	٥٪
تدريب مهنى **	ن							٧٦	٤٪	١٣٥	٦٪	٢٤٧	١٠٪
	أ							—	—	—	—	—	—
مجموع التلاميذ	ن	١٨٧٩		٥١٤		١٢١٤		١٨٨٥		٢٢٥٢		٢٤٧٥	
	أ	١٦٦٨		٤١٨		١٣١٤		١٩١٨		٢١١٦		٢٢٥٦	

* الثروة الحيوانية والزراعية تشمل (صيد الأسماك ـ منتجات الألبان ـ الزراعة) .

** الملحقون فى التدريب المهنى لا يدخلون الصف الأول الثانوى وانما يوجهون الى مراكز التدريب المهنى بعد تخرجهم من المرحلة الاعدادية .

ملاحظة ١ ـ قل عدد طلبة الصف الاول الثانوى عام ٧٩/ ٨٠ نظرا لافتتاح الصف الثالث الاعدادى واقتصار الصف الاول الثانوى على خريجى النظام القديم والراسبين فى الاول الثانوى فى العام الماضى .

ملاحظة ٢ ـ مجموع طلبة الصف الأول ثانوى عام ٨٠/ ٨١ يقل عن عام ٧٨/ ٧٩ نظرا لأن هذه الدفعه مرت بامتحان من الصف الثانى الاعدادى الى الثالث وسوف تمر بامتحان ثان فى امتحان الشهادة الاعدادية وهذا يؤدى بالضرورة الى تخلف عدد من هذه الدفعه كراسبين فى الصفين الثانى والثالث الاعدادى .

APPENDIX 14

FUNCTION AND DUTIES OF THE CENTRAL CAREER GUIDANCE UNIT

in the Directorate of General Education, Ministry of Education

Unit Staff: One supervisory counsellor

Two counsellors; one from boys' school
one from girls' school

One clerk + office assistance as needed

Function and duties: To assist the Social Workers functioning as Career Guidance Counsellors in all intermediate and secondary schools through gathering information about the labour market and the opportunities of study as well as other related tasks as specified below.

A. PLANNING, SUPERVISORY AND ADMINISTRATIVE ACTIVITIES

make yearly career guidance plans with the High Council for Vocational Training and with the Advisory Committee for Vocational Guidance, if such committee is established;

supervise and advise school counsellors;

organise visits to companies; informative meetings and conferences in order to supprt and assist school counselling work;

take care of basic and further training of the career guidance personnel

B. INFORMATION SERVICE

maintain a central career guidance library;

collect information about working life and study opportunities in Bahrain as well as abroad;

*) produce and distribute career guidance material for school counsellors and liaison persons;

make publicity work by producing booklets, newspaper articles, films, TV and radio programmes.

PROPOSITION FOR WORK PLAN ON THIS POINT:

*) 1. Make an inventory of the existing vocational information material;
2. Analyse Bahrain's needs of information material;
3. Set these needs in priority order;
4. Make propositions for buying appropriate foreign material that is suitable for Bahrain;
5. Make yearly production and renewing plans;
6. Start practical producing work.

Source: Johanson, S., p. 23.

Saturday Jan 30th	10.00 - 11.30	Requirements for a person applying for a job (Mr Ahmed Manssouri, Personnel Manager of Holiday Inn and Mr Emtiaz Sarwani, Personnel Manager of BAPCO)
	11.30 - 11.45	Evaluation of the seminar (Mrs. Farida Al Jishi)
	11.45 - 12.00	Closing of the Seminar (Mrs. Farida Al Jishi)

All study visists are to be combined with lectures about the establishment, followed by opportunities to ask questions like "What are the requirements for new employees?" - "What training facilities are there within the establishment?" etc.

ADDITIONAL FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES FOR THE PARTICIPANTS:

During a suitable period of the spring term, groups of two persons visit certain establishments (named by the Ministry of Education), making interviews and writing reports about the establishment, its environment, working conditions in the trade etc. Three days would be enough for this programme. The result is to be typed, duplicated and distributed among the Career Counsellors to be used as material in their day-to-day work.

APPENDIX NO. 16

Councils and Committees Introduced in
The Kuwait Experimental Schools

1. The School Council consists of: the headteacher (chairman), deputy head (vice-chairman), registrar, and Heads of Departments. Its duty is to discuss the academic problems that might emerge during the implementation of the experiment and guide the staff in achieving the desired objectives. Its function concentrates on the policy implementation and evaluation as the policy is uauslly formulated centrally.

2. Departments of Specialisation concern also with the policy implementation and evaluation. They organise the academic and instructional aspects of the school and to implement the curriculum plan as it is put forward by the Ministry of Education. Each department consists of subject specialists. The purpose of bringing subject specialists into school is to assess the new system and its progress.

3. The Parent Council has been set up under the Head Teacher and the deputy head as chairman and vice-chairman respectively. The Registrar, social supervisor and eight of the parents, mostly are its members. It is a consultative council and its functions are limited. It does not interfere in the school policy or regulations. Its purpose is to link the school with society and integrate its objectives with society's needs. This kind of council is entirely different from the parent-teacher associations in the English educational system because first teachers are excluded from this council and secondly, it does not have the right to discuss the general policy of the school and suggest changes.

/Cont...

4. A Students Council is also organised annually. The social supervisor heads this Council. Its members consist of students representing each individual area of study. Four students represent the extra-curricula activities practised in the school. The purpose of this council is to encourage students to participate effectively in organising and running their extra-activities and to plan for the school's club and societies. But it does not have any mandatory authority to discuss the school's policy or the curriculum.

5. The Committee of General Affairs consists of the Head Teacher, two members of the staff (nominated by the Head), the social supervisor and two students chosen from the members of the students' council. Its purpose is to guide such school's activities as outside visits, greeting official guests and non-academic and aspects of cultural development.

There are other committees dealing with other activities in the school and appropriate specific duties have been assigned to them.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. English

1.1 Books

Abdullah, Abdul-Rahman Salih, Educational Theory - A Quranic Outlook, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah, Saudi Arabia, (1982).

Abdullah, Abdul-Rahman Salih, Educational Theory - A Quranic Outlook, Umm Al-Qura University, Makkah Al-Mukarramah, Saudi Arabia, (1982).

Abdullah, Abdul-Rahman Salih, Educational Theory - A Quranic Outlook, Umm Al-Qura University Publication, Saudi Arabia, (1982).

Abdal-Wahab, A.W., Education in Saudi Arabia, Macmillan and Co., Ltd., U.K. (1970).

Al-Ebraheem, Hassan A., Kuwait: A Political Study, Al-Qubas Printing Press, Sh'uwaikh, Kuwait, (1975).

Al-Essa, Shamlan Y., The Manpower Problem in Kuwait, Kegan Paul International, London (1981).

Alexander, W.M., The High School of the Future: A Memorial to Kimball Wiles, Charles E. Merriel Pub., Co., A Bell and Howell Co., Columbus, Ohio, U.S.A. (1969).

Alexander, W.M., The Changing High School Curriculum: Readings, 2nd ed., Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., New York, (1972).

Alexander, W.P., Dent, H.C., James, E., Pedley, R., and Shearman, H.C., Comprehensive Schools Today. An Interim Survey by Robin Pedley, Councils and Education Press, Ltd., London (1955).

Al-Afendi, M.A., and Baloch, N.A. (eds.), Curriculum and Teacher Education, Hodder and Stoughton, U.K., (1980).

Al-Attas, Seyed Naquib, The Concept of Education in Islam, Makkah al=Mukarramah - World Centre for Islamic Education - Dar Okaz for Printing and Publishing, Jeddah, (1977).

Al-Farsy, Fouad, Saudi Arabia - A Case Study in Development, Stacey International, London, U.K., (1980).

Al-Mani, M.A., and As-Sbit, A.R., Studies and Documents on Cultural Policy - Cultural Policy in The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Unesco Press, France (1981).

Al-Sabah, S.M., Kuwait: Anatomy of a Crisis Economy, Eastlords Publishing Limited, London (1984).

Al-Sabah, S.M., Development Planning in an Oil Economy and The Role of the Woman: The Case of Kuwait, Eastlords Publishing Ltd., London, (1983).

Al-Hamar, Abdul Malik, Development of Education in Bahrain, 1940-1965, Oriental Press, Bahrain, (1969).

Ali, A. Yusuf, The Holy Quran - Translation and Commentary, 2nd ed., The Muslim Students Association of the United States and Canada, U.S.A., (1977).

Anderson, V.E., and Grunn, W.T., Principle and Practices of Secondary Education, 2nd ed., The Ronald Press Company, New York (1962).

Aroian, L.A., and Mitchell, R.P., The Modern Middle East and North Africa, Macmillan Publishing Company, New York, U.S.A. (1984).

Baalt., G. and Husen, T., Educational Research and Educational Change, The Case of Sweden, John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York, 1967 and Almqvist and Wiksell Boktryckeri, A.B., Sweden, (1967).

Bahrain, Constitution of State of Bahrain, (Translation), Gulf Public Relations, Bahrain, (1973).

Bahrain, U.C.B., University College of Arts, Science and Education Bulletin, 1982-1983, Union Press, Bahrain (1982).

Bantock, G.H., Dilemmas of the Curriculum Issues and Ideas in Education, ed. by Robin Barrow, Martin Robertson, Oxford, (1980).

Basheer, M.O., Hajaltom, Islamic Moral Education: An Introduction, Umm al-Qura University Publication, Saudi Arabia (1982).

Bear, G., and Szoke, H., Population and Society in The Arab East Routledge and Kegan Paul, London (1964).

Behbehani, K., Gingis, M., and Marzouk, S.M. (eds.), Proceedings of The Symposium on Science and Technology for Development in Kuwait, Longman Publication for Kuwait Institute for Scientific Research, London (1981).

Bellaby, P., The Sociology of Comprehensive Schooling, Methuen Co., Ltd., London (1977).

Belgrave, C., Personal Column, Hutchinson & Co., Publishers Ltd., London (1960).

Belgrave, J.H.D., Welcome to Bahrain, The Auguston Press, U.K., (1973).

Beling, W.A., King Faisal and the Modernisation of Saudi Arabia, Croom Helm Ltd., London, U.K., (1980).

Bendix, R., and Lipset, S.M., Class, Structure and Power. A Reader in Social Stratification, 10th edition, Free Press, New York, U.S.A. (1965).

Benn, C. and Simon, B., Halfway There - A Report on the British Comprehensive School Reform, McGraw Hill Publishing Company, U.K., (1970).

Bent, K., Baardman, C.C. and Kronenberg, H.H., Principles of Secondary Education, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, 6th ed., (1970).

Bergsten, U., Adult Education in Relation to Work and Leisure, Department of Educational Research, Stockholm Institute of Education, Almqvist and Wiksell International Stockholm, Sweden (1977).

Bidna, D.B., and Hahn, R.O., Secondary Education: Origins and Directions, The Macmillan Company, New York, and Collier-Macmillan Ltd., London, (1965).

Birks, J.S. and Sinclair, C.A., International Migration and Development in the Arab Region. International Labour Office, Geneva - United Nations Fund for Population Activities, International Labour Organisation, Geneva, (1980).

Birks, J.S., and Sinclair, C.A., Arab Manpower: The Crisis of Development, Croom Helm Ltd., London, U.K. (1980).

Blau, M.P. and Duncan, O.D., The American Occupational Structure, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., U.S.A., (1967).

Bruce, G., Secondary School Examinations, Collier Pergamon Press Limited, London (1969).

Broudy, H.S., Smith, O. and Burnett, J.R., Democracy and Excellence in American Secondary Education, Rand McNally and Company, Chicago, (1964).

Boutas, (ed.) Studies on Asian Topics - No. 6, Women in Islamic Societies: Social Attitudes and Historical Perspectives, Curzon Press, London (1983).

Boucher, L., Traditions and Change in Swedish Education, Pergamon Press, Oxford, (1982).

Boyer, E.L., High School - A Report on Secondary Education in America. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Harper and Row Publishers, New York, (1983).

Brown, B.F., The Reform of Secondary Education. A Report to the Public and the Profession, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, (1973).

Bottomore, T.B., Elites and Society, C.A. Watts and Co., Ltd., London, U.K., (1964).

Bottomore, T.B., Classes in Modern Society, 2nd edition, George Allen and Unwin, Limited, London, U.K. (1966).

Bureau of International Commerce, Saudi Arabia Five Year Plan, 1975-1980, Central Planning Organisation - U.S. Department of Commerce, National Technical Information, P.B., 246 572 U.S.A., (1975).

Calvert, P., The Concept of Class - An Historical Introduction, Hutchinson and Co., Publishers Limited, U.K. (1982).

Campbell, R.F., Cunningham, L.L., Hystrand, R.O. and Usdan, M.U., The Organisation and Control of American Schools, 4th ed., Charles Merrill Publishing Company, Ohio, (1980).

Clements, F.A., Saudi Arabia - World Bibliographical Series, Clio Press Limited, Oxford, U.K. (1979).

Clarke, L.H., Klein, R., and Burks, J.B., The American Secondary School Curriculum, 2nd ed., Collier Macmillan Publishers, London (1972).

Clements, F.A., Oman - The Reborn Land, Longman Group, Limited, London, U.K., (1980).

Clifford, G.J., The Shape of American Education, Prentice Hall Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., (1975).

Cole, R., Comprehensive Schools in Action, Oldbourne Book Co., Ltd., U.K., (1984).

Collins, H.W., Dupuis, V.L., Johansen, J.H. and Johnson, J.A., Introduction to the Foundations of American Education, 4th ed., Allyn and Bacon Inc., U.S.A. (1979).

Conant, J.B., The American High School Today. A First Report to Interested Citizens, First edition, McGraw Hill Book Co., Inc., New York, (1959).

Conant, J.B., The Comprehensive High School. A Second Report to Interested Citizens, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, (1967).

Conant, J.B., Slums and Suburbs, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, (1961).

Conway, E.S., Comprehending Comprehensives, The JFS Experience, Woburn Press, London, (1983).

Cottrell, A. (General Ed.), Bosworth, C.E., Burrell R.M., McLachlan, K. and Savory R.M. (eds.) The Persian Gulf States - A General Survey, The Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore and London, (1980).

Cowen, R., International Yearbook of Education Vol. XXXIII, Unesco Publication Press, (1981).

Cox, C.B. and Dyson, A.E. (eds.), The Black Papers on Education, Davis-Poynter, London, (1971).

Cox, C.B., and Smith, F.R., Secondary Schools in a Changing Society, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, (1976).

Cox, M., One School for All, National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales (1969).

Cyphert, F.R., Harmer, E.W., and Riccio, A.C., Teaching in the American Secondary School - Selected Readings, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, (1964).

Daftari, May Ziwan (ed.) Issues in Development: The Arab Gulf States, MD Research and Service Limited, London, (1980).

Davies, I.L., Objectives in Curriculum Design, McGraw Hill Book Company, Limited, U.K., (1976).

Davies, R.P., Mixed Ability Grouping. Possibilities Experiences in the Secondary School, Maurice Temple Smith Limited, London (1977).

Daws, P.P., A Good Start to Life, and Counselling in the Field of Career Choice: An Appraisal of the Role of Vocational Guidance, Careers and Advisory Centre, U.K., (1968).

Dent, H.C., Alexander, W.P., James, E., Pedley, R. and Shearman, H.C., Comprehensive Schools Today: An Interim Survey by Robin Pedley, Councils and Education Press, Ltd., London, (1955).

Department of Employment, D.E. The Careers Service Employment and Training Act 1973 - Guidance to Local Education Authorities in England and Wales, H.M.S.O., London (1980).

Department of Education and Science (DES), Aspects of Secondary Education in England - A Survey by H.M. Inspectors of Schools, H.M.S.O. Publications, London, (1980).

Dewey, J., How We Think, D. Heath and Co., Boston, U.S.A.(1933).

Dewey, J., The Education Situation, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, (1902).

El-Belghiti, Malika, Women and Development - Indicators of Their Changing Role: Socio-Economic Studies, 3, Unesco Publications, Paris, (1981).

El-Mallakh, Ragaei, Saudi Arabia - Rush to Development - Profile of an Energy Economy and Investment, Croom Helm Limited, London, U.K. (1982).

El-Mallakh, R. and El-Mallakh, D.H., Saudi Arabia - Energy Developmental Planning and Industrialisation. Lexington Books, D.C. Heath and Company, Massachusetts, (1982).

Engineer, Asgha Ali, The Islamic State, Vikas Publishing House, PVI Ltd., Delhi, (1980).

Entwistle, Harold, Class, Culture and Education, Methuen and Co., Limited, U.K., (1978).

Erb, R.D. Guest, (ed.), The Arab Oil Producing States of the Gulf - Political and Economic Development 1980. AEI Foreign Policy and Defence Review, Vol. II, No. 3-4, American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research Publication U.S.A.(1980).

Fairbairn, A.N. (ed.), The Leicestershire Plan, Heinemann Educational Books, London, (1980).

Fleishmann, Report on the Quality, Cost and Financing of Elementary and Secondary Education in New York State, Vol. 1, II, The Viking Press, New York, (1973).

Fargerlind, I. and Saha L.J. Education and National Development: A Comparative Perspective, Pergamon Press, Oxford, (1983).

G.C.C. Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf Charter, GCC Publication, Saudi Arabia, (1981).

George, Z.F., Bereday, A.Y., Lauwerys, J.A. (eds.) The World Yearbook of Education 1965 - The Education Explosion, Evans Brothers Ltd., London, (1965).

Ginzberg, E., The School/Work Nexus: Transition of the Youth from School to Work, A Diamond Jubliee Publication, Phi Delta Kappa, Educational Foundation, New York, (1980).

Gwynn, J.M., Curriculum Principles and Social Trends, The Macmillan Company, New York, (1943).

Hahn, R.O. and Bidna, D.B., Secondary Education: Origins and Directions, The Macmillan Co., New York, (1965).

Hall, R.K., Hans, N., Lauwerys, J.A., The Yearbook of Education 1954. Published in association with the University of London Institute of Education and Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, Evans Brothers, London, 1954.

Halsall, E., The Comprehensive School - Guidelines for the Reorganisation of Secondary Education, Pergamon Press, Oxford, (1973).

Hameyer, Uwe, School Curriculum in the Context of Life Long Education - Uie Monographs 9, Unesco Institute of Education, Unesco, Division of Ed/SCM, Paris, Hamburg, (1979).

Harbison, F. and Myers, C.A., Education - Manpower and Economic Growth Strategies of Human Resources and Development, McGraw Hill, New York, (1964).

Harnett, A.L., Shaw, J.L., Effective School Health Education, Appleton-Century Crafts Inc., New York, (1959).

Hass, G., Wiles, K. and Bondi, J. (eds.), Reading in Curriculum, 2nd ed. Allyn and Bacon Inc., Boston, U.S.A. (1970).

Hass, G., Wiles, K. and Bondi, J. (eds), Curriculum Planning - A New Approach, 3rd ed., Allyn and Bacon Inc., Boston, U.S.A., (August 1975).

Hazleton, Janet, E., Public Finance Prospects and Policies for Bahrain 1975-1985, Scientific Society Printing and Publishing Establishment for the Ford Foundation, Jordan, (May 1975).

Hay, Sir Rupert, The Persian Gulf States, The Lord Baltimore Press and The Middle East Institute, Washington, D.C., U.S.A. (1959).

Heidenheimer, A.J., Major Reforms of the Swedish Educational System 1950-1975, World Bank Staff Working Paper, No. 290, World Bank Publication, Washington, U.S.A. (August 1978).

Helms, Christine Moss, The Cohesion of Saudi Arabia Evolution of Political Identity, Croom Helm Limited, London, U.K. (1981).

Hemming, J., Teach Them To Live, Longmans, Green and Co., Ltd., London, (1957).

Hinton, M., Comprehensive Schools: A Christian's View, SCM Press Ltd., London (1979).

Hilsum, S. and Strong, C.R., The Secondary Teacher's Day. Report of the NFER Research Project, NFER Publishing Company, Limited, U.K. (1978).

Hirst, P.H., Knowledge and the Curriculum - A Collection of Philosophical Papers, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, (1974).

H.M.I. (Wales), Years IV and V in Comprehensive Schools, Portpool, H.M.S.O., by Mid Wales Litho Limited, U.K., (1981).

H.M.I. (Wales), Education Issues I, Comprehensive Schools of Wales: Years I, II and III, H.M.S.O. U.K. (1978).

H.M.O., White Paper on Educational Development, H.M.I. Stationary Office, Dublin, (December 1980).

H.M.S.O., Comprehensive Education, Report of a DES Conference, December 1977, H.M.S.O. London, (1978).

H.M.S.O., Education and Science in 1969, H.M.S.O. London (1970).

Holly, D., Society, Schools and Humanity. The Changing World of Secondary Education, Macgibbon and Kee, U.K., (1971).

Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, George Allen and Unwin, London, (1981).

Holmes, B., Problems in Education. A Comparative Approach, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, (1965).

Holmes, B., A Comparative Approach to Education, University of London Institute of Education Publication, U.K. (n.d.)

Holmes, B., International Yearbook of Education, Vol. XXII, 1980, Unesco Publication, France, (1980).

Holmes, B., Comparative Education: Some Considerations of Method, George Allen and Unwin, Limited, London (1981).

Hooper, R., The Curriculum: Context, Design and Development, Oliver and Boyd in association with The Open University Press, Edinburgh, (1972).

Hopkinson, D. (ed.) Standards and the School Curriculum Analysis and Suggestions from H.M. Inspectorate, Ward Lock Publicational, Computacomp Ltd., U.K. (1978).

Howard, A.W. and Stoumbis, G. The Junior High and Middle School: Issues and Practices, Scranton: Intext Educational Publishers, U.S.A. (1970).

Huntford, R., The New Totalitarians, Allen Lane, A Division of Penguin Books Ltd., London (1975).

Husain, Seyed Sajjad, and Ashraf, Seyed Ali, Crisis in Muslim Education, Hodder and Stoughton, for King Abdul Aziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, (1979).

Husen, T., The School in Question - A Comparative Study of the School and Its Future in Western Societies, Oxford University Press, New York (1979).

Husen, T., Problems of Differentiation in Swedish Compulsory Schooling. Institute of Educational Research, School of Education, University of Stockholm, Sevenska Bokforlaget, Norstedts, Stockholm, (1965).

Hussein, Mohammad, Class Conflict in Egypt, 1945-1976, (Translated by Michel and Susanne Chairman, Alfred Ehrenfeld and Kathy Brown), Monthly Review Press, U.S.A. (1973).

Hussian, Freda (ed.), Muslim Women, Croom Helm Limited, U.K. (1984).

Ingenkamp, K., Methods for the Evaluation of Comprehensive Schools, Verlag Julius Beltz, Weinheim-Berlin,(1969).

Inlow, G.M., The Emergent in Curriculum, John Wiley and Sons Inc., U.S.A., (1973).

International Labour Office, Geneva - Manpower Assessment and Planning Projects in The Arab Region Current Issues and Perspectives - A Review Conducted with the support of UNDP., International Labour Organisation Publication, Geneva (1979).

International Bureau of Education, Studies and Surveys in Comparative Education - Educational Goals, Unesco Publication, (1980).

International Director of Women's Development Organisation, Agency for International Development, Washington, D.C., U.S.A. (1977).

Izzard, Molly, The Gulf - Arabia's Western Approaches, Butler and Tanner Limited, London, U.K. (1979).

Jones, P.E., Comparative Education - Purpose and Method, University of Queensland Press, St. Lucia, Queensland,(1971).

Kahl, J.A., The American Class Structure, Rinehart and Company Inc., New York, U.S.A. (1957).

Kallen, D. and Ryba, R. (eds.), School and Community, Selected Papers Read before The Comparative Education Society in Europe at its Seventh General Meeting, Sevres, 1975. The Comparative Education Society Publication, London,(1975).

Katakura, M., Bedouin Village - A Study of a Saudi Arabian People in Transition, University of Tokyo Press, Japan (1977).

Kelly, A.V., Curriculum Context, Harper and Row Publisher, London (1980).

Khaduri, M.M. and Liebesny, H.J. (eds.), Origin and Development of Islamic Law, Vol. 1, Middle East Institute, Washington, D.C. U.S.A. (1955).

Khouja, M.W. and Sadler, P.G., The Economy of Kuwait - Development and Role in International Finance, The Macmillan Press Ltd., London, (1979).

Khuri, F.I., Tribe and State in Bahrain. The Transformation of Social and Political Authority in an Arab State. Publication of the Centre for Middle Eastern Studies No. 14. The University of Chicago Press, U.S.A. (1980).

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Planning. The Third Development Plan 1400-1405 A.H. 1980-1985 A.D., Ministry of Planning Publication, Saudi Arabia, (1980).

Kronenberg, H.H., Bent, R.K., and Baardman, C.C., Principles of Secondary Education, 6th ed., McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, (1970).

Krug, E.A., The Shaping of the American High School, 1880-1920, Vol. 1. The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Milwaukee and London (1969).

Kurian, G.T., Encyclopedia of the Third World, Vol. III, Mansell Publishing Limited, London (1978, 1982).

Kuwait Chamber of Commerce, Kuwait Guide Book, Government Press, Kuwait, (1965).

Kuwait, Ministry of Planning, Central Statistical Office, Annual Statistical Abstract - 1982 Ed. XIX. The Ministry of Planning Press, Kuwait (December 1982).

Kuwait, Ministry of Planning, Central Statistical Office, Annual Statistical Abstract - 1984 Ed. XXI, The Ministry of Planning Press, Kuwait (December 1984).

Kuwait, Ministry of Guidance and Information, Department of Cultural and Publicity, State of Kuwait, The Government Press, Kuwait (1976).

Kuwait, Ministry of Education Department of Technical and Professional Institute, A Look at the Technical Education in Kuwait, Ministry of Education Publication, Kuwait, (1978).

Kuwait, Ministry of Education, Secondary Education in Kuwait, Ministry of Education Publication, Kuwait (1980).

Lacey, Robert, The Kingdom, Hutchinson & Co., (Publishers) Limited, London, U.K. (1981).

Landon, J.M. (ed.), Man, State and Society in the Contemporary Middle East, Pall Mall Press, London, U.K., (1972).

Lawton, D., Curriculum Studies - Educational Planning, Hodder and Stoughton, London, (1983).

Lawton, D., Class, Culture and the Curriculum, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London (1975).

Lawton, D., Social Change, Educational Theory and Curriculum Planning, University of London Press Limited, U.K. (1973).

Le Gall, A., Lauwerys, J.A., Holmes, B., Dryland, A.B., Mattsson, S., Present Problems in the Democratisation of Secondary and Higher Education, Unesco, Paris (1973).

Levine, A., Handbook on Undergraduate Curriculum, Prepared for the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, Jossey Bass Inc. Publishers, California, U.S.A. (1978).

Levy, Reuben, The Social Structure of Islam - Being the Second Edition of the Sociology of Islam, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, (1979).

Lebkicher, R., The Training of Saudi Arab Employees: Arabian American Oil Company, pp. 514-535, The Year Book of Education, 1954.

Lois, B. (ed.), Women in the Muslim World, Harvard University Press, London, (1978).

Lorimer, J.G., Gazetteer of the Persian Gulf, Oman and Central Arabia, Vol. I, Historical Part 1B Superintendent, Government Printing, India, (1915).

Lundgren, U.P., Model Analysis of Pedagogical Processes, Stockholm Institute of Education, Department of Educational Research, Gotab, Sweden, (1977).

Maclure, S., Innovation in Education - Sweden, O.E.C.D. Publication, Paris (1971).

Mallinson, V., An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education, 4th edition, Heinemann Educational Books Limited, London, (1975).

Mallinson, V., The Western European Idea in Education, Pergamon Press, Oxford (1980).

Marklund, S., The Democratisation of Education in Sweden - A UNESCO Case Study, in Studies in Comparative and International Education, No.2, Institute of International Education, University of Stockholm, Sweden (November, 1980).

Marklund S. and Soderberg, P., The Swedish Comprehensive School, (Translated by Albert Read,) Longmans, Green and Co., Ltd., London (1967).

Marklund, S. and Bergendal, G., Trends in Swedish Educational Policy, Stockholm, The Swedish Institute, (1979).

Martin, J.H., The Education of Adolescents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., U.S.A., (1976).

Martin, J.R., Readings in the Philosophy of Education: A Study of Curriculum, Allyn and Bacon, Inc., Boston (1970).

Mawlana Muhammad Ali, A Manual of Hadith, 9th edition, Curzon Press Limited, London, U.K. (1983).

Meghdessian, Samina Rafidi, The Status of the Arab Women - A Selected Bibliography - Institute for Women's Studies in the Arab World, Mansell Publishing, London, U.K., (1980).

Mentz, R.A., Education and Manpower in the Arabian Gulf, American Friends of the Middle East Publication, U.S.A.(1971).

Mertz, R.A., Education and Manpower in the Arabian Gulf, American Friends of the Middle East (AFME Gulf Study,) U.S.A. (1971).

Michael, J.A. (ed.) Art Education in the Junior High School, The National Art Education Association, Washington, D.C. (n.d.)

Mitchell, D.E., Shaping Legislative Decisions: Education Policy and the Social Sciences, D.C. Heath and Company, Massachusetts, U.S.A. (1981).

Miller, T.W.G., Values in the Comprehensive School - An Experimental Study, Robert Cunningham and Son Ltd., ALVA, U.K. (1961).

Monroe, P. (ed.), Encyclopedia of Education, Vol. V, The Macmillan Company, Canada (1913).

Monks, T.G., Comprehensive Education in England and Wales: A Survey of Schools and their Organisation, Comprehensive Research Project, the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales (N.F.E.R.), King Thorne and Stace Ltd., U.K., (1968).

Monks, T.G., Comprehensive Education in Action, National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, (N.F.E.R.), King, Thorne and Stace Ltd., U.K. (1970).

Mughisuddin, Mohammed, Conflict and Cooperation in the Persian Gulf - Praeger Special Studies in International Politics and Government, Praeger Special Studies Publication, U.S.A. (1977).

Moon, Bob (ed.), Comprehensive Schools: Challenge and Change, The NFER-Nelson Publishing Company Limited, U.K. (1983).

Nakhleh, E.A., Bahrain: Political Development in a Modernising Society, D.C. Heath, Lexington, Mass., U.S.A. (1976).

Nakosteen, Mehdi, History of Islamic Origins of Western Education, 800-1350, with an introduction to Mediveal Muslim Education, University of Colorado Press, U.S.A., (1964).

Nasr, Seyyed, H. (ed.), Philosophy, Literature and Fine Arts, Hodder and Stoughton, U.K. (1982).

National Swedish Board of Education, Immigrants and the Education System: An Action Programme for the Work of the National Board of Education. In connection with Immigrant Affairs, Sweden, (1979).

Niblock, T. (ed.), Social and Economic Development in The Arab Gulf. For Arab Gulf Studies, Exeter, Croom Helm Ltd., U.K. (1980).

Niblock, T. (ed.), State, Society and Economy in Saudi Arabia, Croom Helm, London and Centre for Arab Gulf Studies, Exeter, U.K. (1982)

Nixon, G., Teschber, W.P., Takala, S. and Haft, H. (eds.), Curriculum Change Through Qualification and Requalification of Teachers, published by Council of Europe, Strasbourg, (1981).

O.E.C.D., Review of National Policies for Education. Educational Reforms in Sweden, O.E.C.D., Paris (1981).

O.E.C.D., Educational Policy and Planning Goals for Educational Policy in Sweden, O.E.C.D., Paris (1980).

O.E.C.D., New Patterns of Teacher Education and Tasks - Country Experience Sweden, O.E.C.D. Paris (1974). (Contains three reports.

O.E.C.D., Building for School and Community - Sweden, O.E.C.D., Paris, (1979).

O.E.C.D., The New Pattern of Teacher Education and Tasks, Country Experience: Belgium, France and United Kingdom, O.E.C.D., Paris, (1974).

Page, G.T., Thomas, J.B., Marshall, A.R., International Dictionary of Education, Kegan Paul, London, Nichols Publishing Company, New York (1977).

Passow, A.H., American Secondary Education - The Conant Influence - A Look at Conant's Recommendations for Senior and Junior High Schools, National Association of Secondary School Princip als, Boston, Virginia, U.S.A., (1977).

Parnes, H.S. (ed.), Planning Education for Economic and Social Development, O.E.C.D. Paris, (1964).

Passow, A.H. (ed.) Reaching the Disadvantaged, Teacher College Press, New York (1970).

Patai, Rafael, Golden River to Golden Road: Society Culture and Change in the Middle East, University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, U.S.A. (1969).

Paulston, R.G., Educational Change in Sweden: Planning and Accepting the Comprehensive School Reforms, Teachers College Press, Columbia University, New York, U.S.A.(1968).

Pearce, J., School Examinations, Collier Macmillan Publisher, London (1972).

Pedley, R., The Comprehensive School, C. Nicholls and Co., Ltd., U.K. (1978).

Peters, C. and Tuson, P., Studies in Development - The Middle East, Thomas Nelson and Sons Limited, U.K., (1982).

Phoenix, P.H., Realms of Meaning - A Philosophy of the Curriculum for General Education, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, (1964).

Porter, J.W., The Adolescent, Other Citizens and their High Schools - The Report of Task Force '74, McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, U.S.A. (1975).

President and Fellows of Harvard College, (eds.), Perspectives on Inequality. A Reassessment of the Effect of Family and Schooling in America, Harvard Educational Review, Massachusetts, U.S.A. (1973).

Qubain, F.I., Education and Science in the Arab World, The John Hopkins Press, U.S.A. (1966).

Raccagni, Michelle, The Modern Arab Women: A Bibliography, The Scarecrow Press, U.K. (1978).

Richards, C., Power and the Cucciculum: Issues in Curriculum Studies, Nafferton Books, Walkergate Press Limited, Beverley, (1978).

Ross, J.J., Burton, W.J., Evison, P. and Robertson, T.S., A Critical Appraisal of Comprehensive Education, National Foundation for Education Research in England and Wales, (N.F.E.R.) U.K., (1974).

Rumaihi, M.G., Bahrain - Social and Political Changes since the First World War, (eds.) John C. Dwedney, W. Hale and J. Richmond, Short Run Publishing Services, U.K., (1976).

Ryan, J. and Saad, A.T. (eds.), Agricultural Education for Development in the Middle East, The American University of Beirut Publication, Beirut, (1980).

Saqeb, G., Modernisation of Moslems Education, Reach Press, London (1977).

Saudi Arabia, The Education Policy in the Saudi Arabian Kingdom, 2nd edition, 1394 AH (1974 AD).

Saudi Arabia, Al-Nahda Philanthropic Society for Women Constitution. Registered in the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, No. 2, Nahdah Bookshop and Press, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia (1980).

Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, The Educational Policy in The Saudia Arabian Kingdom, 1394 AH (1974 AD), Ministry of Education Publication, Saudi Arabia (1974).

Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Centre for Statistical Data and Educational Documentation, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia - A Statistical Review 1385-1397 AH (1965-1977AD) Ministry of Education National Offset Printing Press, Saudi Arabia,(1978).

Sayigh, Y.A., The Determinants of Arab Economic Development, Croom Helm Ltd., U.K., (1978).

Scottish Education Department, Raising the School Leaving Age. Organisation and Development of Courses. A Progress Report. H.M.S.O. U.K. (1970).

Serageldin, I., Socknat, J.A., Birks, S., Lu, B. and Sinclair, C.A., Manpower and International Labour Migration in the Middle East and North Africa, World Bank Publication, Oxford University Press, (1983).

Shannon, M.O., Oman and South Eastern Arabia - A Bibliographic Survey, G.K. Hall and Co., U.S.A. (1978).

Shapovalenko, S.G., Polytechnical Education in the U.S.S.R., Unesco Publication, Amsterdam, (1963).

Shariati, Ali, On the Sociology of Islam, translated from Persian by Hamid Algar, Nizan Press, Berekeley, U.S.A. (1979).

Shariati, Ali, Islamic View of Man, (translated by A.A. Rasti) Free Islamic Literature, Houston, U.S.A. (1980).

Sheehan, J., The Economics of Education, George Allen and Unwin, U.K. (1973).

Shiber, S.G., The Kuwait Urbanisation Documentation Analysis Critique, Government of Kuwait, Ministry of Public Works, Kuwait (1964).

Shimoni, Y. and Levine, E. (eds.), Political Dictionary of the Middle East in the Twentieth Century, The Jerusalem Publishing House Limited, Israel (Palestine) (1977).

Siddqi, Amir Hasan, The Origin and Development of Muslim Institutions, Technical Printer, Karachi, (1965).

Sills, D.L. (ed.), International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, Vol. 15, The Macmillan Company and The Free Press, U.K. (1968).

Silver, H., Equal Opportunity in Education, Methuen and Co., Ltd., London, U.K. (1975).

Smith, F.R. and Benjamin Cox, C., Secondary Schools in a Changing Society, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, (1976).

Soderberg, P. and Marklund, S., The Swedish Comprehensive School, (Translated by Albert Read), Longmans, Green and Co., Ltd., London (1967).

Sohlman, A., Education, Labour Market and Human Capital Models, GOTAB, University of Stockholm, Stockholm, (1981).

State of Bahrain, The Ministry of Health: Annual Report for the Year 1980 on the State of Public Health, Ministry of Health Publication, Bahrain (1981).

State of Bahrain, Cabinet Affairs, Directorate of Statistics, Bahrain Census of Population and Housing, 1981, Arabian Printing and Publishing House, Bahrain (1982).

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Information, Bahrain Traditions and Culture, Government Press, Bahrain, (n.d.).

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Information in cooperation with Pontico International (London), Bahrain - Government Press, Bahrain (1980).

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, The Directorate of Educational Planning, Statistical Unit, Studies and Statistical Analysis on Education in Bahrain 1974-1975, Government Press, Bahrain (1977).

State of Bahrain, Constitution of the State of Bahrain, (trans.) Gulf Public Relations Translation Services, Bahrain, (1974).

State of Bahrain, Cabinet Affairs, Directorate of Statistics, Bahrain Census of Population and Housing, 1981, Arabian Printing and Publishing House, Bahrain,(November 1982).

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Public Relations and Educational Activities, The Development of Secondary Education, The Government Press, Ministry of Information, Bahrain (1979).

State of Bahrain, Central Municipal Council, Technical and Engineering Department, Conservation of the Character and Arab Islamic Heritage of Arab Towns, by Ebrahim Uthman, Government Press, Ministry of Information, Bahrain, (1980).

Stephan and Handy Ronart, Concise Encyclopaedia of Arab Civilisation - The Arab East, Djambatan NV, Netherlands (1959).

Stenholm, B., Upper Secondary Education in Sweden - Experience and Prospects - Current Sweden No. 137, The Swedish Institute Publication, Sweden (November 1976).

Stenholm, B., Education in Sweden, The Swedish Institute of Education, Stockholm, (1970).

Stenhouse, L., An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Development, Heinemann, London (1975).

Steven, L.S., (ed.), The Middle East and The Western Alliance, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., U.K. (1982).

Stevens, J.H. and King, R., A Bibliography of Saudi Arabia - Occasional Paper Series No. 3, 1973, University of Durham, Centre for Middle Eastern and Islamic Studies, U.K. (1973).

Sultanate of Oman, Ministry of Education and Youth Affairs, The Internal Efficiency of the Omani Educational System - A Study of Educational Wastage, Oman Printers and Stationers, Sultanate of Oman, (1984).

Taba, Hilda, Curriculum Development - Theory and Practice, Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., New York, (1962).

Tala, I.A. and Owen, R. (eds.), Sociology of Developing Societies - The Middle East, The Macmillan Press Limited, London, U.K. (1983).

Tanner, D., Secondary Curriculum: Theory and Development, The Macmillan Company, New York (1971).

Taylor, P.H. and Tye, K.A. (eds.), Curriculum, School and Society: An Introduction to Curriculum Studies, NFER Publishing Company, U.K. (1975).

Taylor, P.H., An Introduction to Curriculum Studies, NFER - Nelson Publishing Company Limited, U.K. (1985).

Tazi, Abdel Hadi, Education in the Arab States in the Light of the Abu Dahbi Conference, 1977, The Workshops of Unesco Press, Paris, (1980).

The Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States, The New Trends in Secondary Education in the Gulf Arab States - A Census and Documented Survey, Vol. 1, 2 Saudi Arabia, (Arabic Text) (1981).

The Gulf Committee - London, Oman: A Class Analysis (trans.) Original 9 June Studies in Beirut, 1973, Russell Press, London (1974).

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, The Economic Development of Kuwait, The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, U.S.A. (1965).

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, The Middle East and North Africa,1983-84, 30th edition, Europa Publications Limited, U.K. (1985).

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, The New Columbia Encyclopedia, Columbia University Press, U.S.A., (1975).

The Gulf Arab States, Educational Research Centre, Studies and Researches in Abstracts 1404 A.H. (1984 A.D.), The Centres Publication, Kuwait, (1984).

The Mission of International Reconstruction and Development, The Economic Development of Kuwait, Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore (1965).

The National Commission on The Reform of Secondary Education, B. Frank Brown, Chairman, The Reform of Secondary Education: A Report to the Public and the Profession, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, (1971).

The National Swedish Board of Education, Curriculum for the Comprehensive School Lgr 69, General Section, Stockholm, (August 1969).

Til, V.W., Secondary Education: School and Community, Houghton Mifflin Company, U.S.A. (1978).

The Royal Institute of International Affairs, The Middle East - A Political and Economic Survey, Oxford University Press, The Broadwater Press, London, (1950).

Tyler, R.W., Basic Principles of Curriculum Instruction, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, U.S.A. (1949).

Unesco, Regional Office for Education in the Arab World, Population Education Development in the Arab Countries, Impremire Catholique Publication for Unesco, Beirut, (August 1976).

Unesco, Secondary Education in Arab Countries 1962, United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation, Berichthaus, Zurich, Switzerland (1962).

Unesco, Educational Goals, IBE Studies and Surveys in Comparative Education, United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation, Paris, (1980).

United Nations Children's Fund (Unicef), The State of the World's Children, 1985, Oxford University Press, for Unicef, U.K. (1985).

Unwin, P.T.H., Bahrain - World Biographical Series, Vol. 49, Clio Press Limited, Oxford, U.K. (1984).

Wain, G.T. (ed.), Mathematical Education, Van Nostrand Reinhold Company Limited, U.K. (1978).

Walpole, N.C., Area Handbook for Saudi Arabia, The American University, Washington, D.C. (1971).

Weber, Max, The Methodology of the Social Sciences, (translated and edited by Edward Shils and Henty Find), The Free Press, New York, (1949).

Westrum, R., Samaha, K., Complex Organisations - Growth, Struggle and Change, Prentice-Hall Inc., Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, U.S.A. (1984).

Whelan, J. (ed.), Bahrain - A MEED Practical Guide, Middle East Economic Digest Ltd.,(1983).

Whyld, J. (ed.), Sexism in Secondary Curriculum, Harper and Row Publishers, London, (1983).

Wilson, Sir Harold, The Persian Gulf, 2nd ed. Oxford University Press, Allen and Unwin, U.K. (1954).

Winstone, H.V.F. and Freeth, Z., Kuwait: Prospect and Reality, George Allen and Unwin Limited, London, U.K., (1972).

Winstone, H.V.F. and Freeth, Z., Women's Report, Vol.2, Issue 2, January-February 1974, Women's Report Collective Publication, U.K. (1974).

Woodhall, M., Economic Aspects of Education, NFER, U.K. (1972).

Wrany M.J. et al., Employer Involvement in Schemes of Unified Vocational Preparation, NFER, Nelson Publishing Company, Ltd., U.K. (1982).

Wright, G.S., Block Time Classes and the Core Program, Office of Education Bulletin No.6, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, U.S.A. (1958).

Yaacov Shimoni and Eryator Levine, Political Dictionary of the Middle East in the Twentieth Century, The Jerusalem Publishing House, Limited, Israel, (1977).

Yorke, V., The Gulf in the 1980s - Chatham House, Paper No. 6, The Royal Institute of International Affairs, London, Stephen Austin and Sons Litd., U.K. (1980).

Zepper, J.T., A Study of M.K. Krupskaya's Educational Philosophy, Ph.D. Thesis (unpublished), Missouri University, U.S.A. (1977).

1.2 Unpublished Theses and Dissertations

Abdul Hassan Ibrahim, The Relevance of the Manpower Forecasting Approach to Educational Planning in Bahrain, M.A. (unpublished Dissertation), University of Wales, University College, Cardiff, U.K. (1977).

Al-Obaid, Abdullah Salih, Human Resources Development in Saudi Arabia: Case of Technical Manpower Programmes and Needs, (unpublished Ph.D. Thesis), Oklahoma State University, U.S.A., (1979).

Badr, F., Developmental Planning in Saudi Arabia, (unpublished Ph.D. Thesis) University of South California, U.S.A.(1968).

Bustan, Ahmad Abdul Baqi, A Survey of Recent Trends and Developments in the Higher Education System of the State of Kuwait, (unpublished Ph.D. Thesis), The University of Kansas Lawrence, Kansas, U.S.A. (1980).

Henschke, D.T., Career Education - An Account of Policies and Practices in a Selected Number of European Countries and Australian States with special reference to South Australia, (unpublished Associateship Report), University of London Institute of Education, U.K. (1979).

Issan, S.A., A Study of The Theory and Practice of Selective Secondary Education in Developed Countries. Its Relevance for the Possible Reform of this Sector of The Bahrainian System, (unpublished M.A. Dissertation), Hull University, U.K. (September 1979).

Metwally, M.M., A Comparative Study of the Reorganisation of Secondary Education in the U.S.A., England and Sweden after 1945 with reference to Emerging Politics in the Arab Republic of Egypt, (unpublished Ph.D. Thesis) University of London Institute of Education, U.K. (1979).

Shimshon, S., Equality of Educational Opportunity through the Comprehensive School - A Comparative Study of Comprehensive Secondary (unpublished Ph.D. Thesis), State University of New York at Buffalo, U.S.A. (1975).

Shukri, A.I., The Development of Formal Education in Saudi Arabia with Particular Reference to Social and Economic Change, (unpublished M.A. Dissertation), University of London Institute of Education, U.K. (1965).

Shukri, A.I., Education - Manpower Needs and Socio-Economic Development in Saudi Arabia, (unpublished Ph.D. Thesis), The University of London Institute of Education, U.K. (1973).

Al-Mana, A., Economic Development and its Impact on the Status of Women in Saudi Arabia, (unpublished Ph.D. Thesis), University of Colorado, U.S.A. (1981).

1.3 Reports and Papers

Al-Hashimi, I.S.J., The Concept of Effectiveness as it is Related to an Educational Organisation, Bahrain, (nid) op.cit., 30. pp.

Al-Hashimi, I.S.J., An Alternative Planning Approach to Occupational (Technical) Education and Training, Bahrain, 1980, op.cit., 25 pp.

Al-Hashimi, I.S.J., Difficulties and Issues in Planning Technical and Vocational Education in Bahrain, a Paper submitted at the Second Middle East Education Training and Sports Equipment Show and Conference, March 22-25, Bahrain, 1982, op.cit., 25 pp.

Al-Saleh, F. and Mehriz, Z.M., Aims of Education in some Selected Arab States - A Comparative Study, Directorate of Educational Planning - Unit of Documentation, Information and Educational Research, Ministry of Education, Bahrain. 1980, op.cit., 15 pp.

Al-Sammak, A.A., Obiedlly, L.Y., Abdulla, S.Y., and Al-Alawi, H.M., A Report on a Short Course on School Management and Administration at the University of Leeds, April-July, 1980, Bahrain, 1980, op.cit. 15 pp.

Al-Zayani, S., Developing the Role of the Head in a New Commercial Secondary School in Bahrain - A Project Report, May 1982, Sheffield City Polytechnic, U.K. (1982), op.cit. 100 pp.

Aman, M.M., Plan for a Documentation Centre for the Ministry of Education in Bahrain, (Restricted Technical Report 1975-76, 4/22/4), Unesco, Paris, 1976, op.cit., 40 pp.

Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States, The Recent Trends in Secondary Education in the Gulf Arab States - A Study submitted to the Twelfth Educational Week in Kuwait, April 1982, Kuwait, op.cit., 31 pp.

ARAMCO, 50 Years of Training Achievement - A Report Commemorating Aramco's 50th Year in Saudi Arabia, Saudi Arabia, 1982, op.cit., 40 pp.

Bustan, Abdul Baqi, B., Recent Trends in Kuwaiti Educational System, A Paper submitted to the third Cultural Week at the University of Malaysia, January 28 - February 4, 1982, op.cit., 80 pp.

Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI), The Nature of the Curriculum for the Eighties and Onwards, A Report on a Workshop held at the Reinhards Waldschule, 29 June - 4 July 1970, Kassel, Germany, OECD, (1972),

Dearden, A. (ed.), Arab Women - Minority Rights Group - Report No. 27, Expedite Graphic Ltd., London, (1976).

Dialdin, A.M., Aramco Report on Manpower Training: A Report Presented at the Industrial Development Conference, December 1980, Al-Khobar, Saudi Arabia, 1980, op.cit., 40 pp.

Dundas, G.A.F., A Report on G.A.F. Dundas' Tour to Kuwait, 28th September - 14th October 1939, Outline of Educational Activities in Kuwait, Archive No. 15/1/545, Vol. D154, Education at Kuwait from 4.5. 1936 - 31.12, 1940, Indian Office Library, London, U.K.

El-Abed, H.A., A Comparative Study Between Class Teacher System in Bahrain and the U.K. A Paper presented at the Symposium on the Systems of Class Teacher, 15-20 Sept., 1982, Ministry of Education, Bahrain, 1982, op.cit., 55 pp.

Fahmy, M.S. (Unesco Educational Planning Advisor), Impact of Population and Manpower Problems on Strategies for Educational Development in Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Bahrain (1976), op.cit., 65 pp.

Fahmy, M.S. (Unesco Educational Planning Advisor), Report on Gulf Technical College - Analysis of the Present and Outline for Future Development, Bahrain, August 1978, op.cit., 40 pp.

Government of Bahrain, Education Department, Report on Technical Education in Bahrain, Bahrain, 1966, op.cit., 15 pp.

Hamber, H.R., Report on Compulsory Education in Sweden, National Swedish Board of Education, Stockholm, Sweden, 1982, op.cit., 12 pp.

Hussein, Aziza, The Role of Women in the Arab World, A Report presented to the Conference on the Human Roles of Women in Society and in Development, 4-18 August 1974, Sweden, op.cit., 16 pp.

Issan, S.A., A Report on the Educational System in Bahrain, Bahrain, 1982, op.cit., 16 pp.

Johansson, S., (Unesco Expert), Specialist in Secondary Education Funds in Trust - A Report on the Project Progress, Bahrain, March 8, 1982, op.cit., 80 pp.

Johansson, S., (Unesco Expert), Specialist in Secondary Education Funds in Trust - A Report on the Project Progress, Bahrain, March 8, 1981, op.cit., 33 pp.

NSBE, A Report on the New Curriculum for the Swedish Compulsory Comprehensive School, Sweden, 1981, op.cit., 52 pp.

NSBE, A Report on the Vocational Emphasis of Upper Secondary Schooling (translated by Roger Tanner), Information Section, Sweden, 1976- 08 - 31, op.cit., 37 pp.

NSBE, The Integrated Upper Secondary School in Sweden, Information Section, Sweden, 1979, op.cit., 10 pp.

Scheible, P.L. (Advisor for Wages and Prices), A Summary of the Preliminary Earnings Data from the Annual Manpower Survey. A Report submitted to the Minister for Labour and Social Affairs, Bahrain, 1982, op.cit. 45 pp.

Socknat, J., Projections of Manpower Demand and Supply 1971-1986 - A Policy and Programme Suggestion for Bahrain, Bahrain, February 1979, op.cit., 75 pp.

Sulaytī, H.A., Practices and Strategies of Curriculum Development in Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Bahrain (n.d.), op.cit., 35 pp.

Sulaytī, H.A., A Paper on Relationship of Education to Work in Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Bahrain, January 1983, op.cit., 35 pp.

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, A Report on Secondary Education 1971-1972, Bahrain, December, 1972, op.cit., 40 pp.

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Superintendence of Educational Planning and Cultural Relations, A Report on Bahrain's Greatest Needs in Education and Training, Bahrain, April, 1972, op.cit., 10 pp.

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Unit of Documentation and Research, A Report on General Secondary Education in Bahrain, 1978, op.cit., 35 pp.

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Plans and Programming, Unit of Educational Documentation, Information and Research, Educational Development in Bahrain, from 1970-1981 to 1982-1983. A Report presented to the 39th Session of the International Conference on Education held in Geneva from 16-25 October 1984, op.cit., 65 pp.

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Educational Planning, Unit of Documentation, Information and Educational Research, Curricula Plans in Bahrain - for the Academic Year 1980-1981, Bahrain, November 1980, op.cit., 52 pp.

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Educational Planning, Unit of Documentation, Information and Educational Research, Educational Development in Bahrain during 1978/79 - 1979/80. A Report presented to the 38th Session of the International Conference on Education, Geneva, 10-19 November 1981, op.cit., 35 pp.

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Labour and Social Affair, A Report on Manpower Planning in Bahrain. A Society in Transition, Bahrain, 1979, op.cit., 42 pp.

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Memorandum to the Cabinet from the Ministry Concerning Manpower Planning and Development Policy, Bahrain, 1979, op.cit., 25 pp.

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Educational Planning, Unit of Documentation, Information and Educational Research, Development of Education in Bahrain 1976/77 - 1977/78. A Report presented at the 37th Session of the International Conference on Education, Geneva, 5-14 July 1979, op.cit., 35 pp.

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. Directorate of Statistics and Employment in the Public Sector, Manpower Survey, November 1979, Bahrain, op. cit., 32 pp.

State of Bahrain, Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, A Paper on General Discussion of the Main Issues in Education and Manpower Planning, 9.12. 1979, Bahrain, op.cit., 20 pp.

Unesco Mission to Bahrain, A Report on Educational Reforms in Bahrain, May 22 - June 4, 1982, Paris, October, 1982, op.cit., 85 pp.

Unesco, Educational Studies and Documents: Education in the Arab States in the Light of the Abu Dhabi Conference, 1977, No. 36, Unesco Publications, Paris, 1980.

Unesco, Secondary Education in Arab Countries, Unesco Publications Zurich, Switzerland, 1962.

Unesco and Alesco, Report on Conference of Ministers of Education and those Responsible for Economic Planning in the Arab States, UAE - Abu Dhabi 7-16 November, 1977, Unesco Publications, France, 1977.

Unesco, FAO and ILO, Prospects of Educational Advance in Saudi Arabia: A Report of the Joint Unesco/FAO/ILO - 1961-1962, Unesco Publication, September, 1962.

United Nations, Some Aspects of the Development of Human Resources in Various Countries of the Middle East, Studies on Selected Development Problems in various countries in the Middle East, 1968, The United Nations Publication, 1968.

Vallance, C.R.L. Adrain, Report on Government Education in Kuwait - October 1940 - A Report to Major A.C. Galloway - The Agency, Kuwait. Archive No. 15/1/545, Vol. D.154, The India Office Library and Record. London, U.K. 18 pp.

Vallance, C.R.L. Adrain, Report on Education in Bahrain, Archive No. Vol. C 78-19/248 - 22.7.1939 - 3.6.1940, India Office Library and Records, London, U.K.

Vallance, C.R.L. Adrain, Report on Education in Bahrain, P.V. 83-1.12.1941 - 31.8.1945, Arch. Ri5/1/373 - 19/248-111 Vol. C. 88, India Office Library and Records, London, U.K.

1.4 Periodical and Journals

Abu-Laban, B. and Abu-Laban, S.M. "Education and Development in the Arab World", in, Journal of Developing Areas, Vol. 10, No. 3, April, 1976, Western Illinois University U.S.A pp. 285-304, (1976).

Al-Salem, F., "The Issue of Identity in Selected Arab Gulf States", in, Journal of South Asian and Middle Eastern Studies, Vol. VI, No. 4. Summer 1981, Association of Arab-American University Graduates Inc., Massachusetts, U.S.A. pp. 3-20 (1981).

Atiyeb, G.N., "Contemporary Arab Ideologies" in, Middle East Forum, Nos. 3 and 4, Vol. XLVII, Autumn and Winter, 1971, The Alumni Association of the American University of Beirut, Beirut, pp. 23-27, (1971).

Braibanti, R., Fouad, A., and Al-Farsy, S., "Saudi Arabia: A Development Perspective" in, Journal of South Asian and Middle Eastern Studies, Vol. 1, No.1, Fall, 1977, Association of Arab American University Graduates Inc., Mass. U.S.A., pp. 5-36 (1977).

Boucher, L., "Reform of the Swedish Post-Compulsory Schools 1960-1983" in, Compare - A Journal of Comparative Education, Vol. 13, No. 2, 1983, Carfax Publishing Company, Journal Oxford Ltd., pp. 129-145 (1983).

Boucher, L., "Assessment of Scholastic Achievement in Swedish Schools", in, Compare - A Journal of the Comparative Education Society in Europe (British Section), Vol. 3, No. 1, February 1972, pp. 20-23, England (1972).

Burns, R., "The Process and Problems in Educational Reform in Sweden", in, Compare - Journal of Comparative Education, Vol. 11, No. 1, 1981, Carfax Publishing Company, Journal Oxford Ltd., England, pp. 33-45, (1981).

Burnell, R.M., "Politics and Participation - Where Britannia Once Ruled", in, New Middle East, No. 51, December 1972, New Middle East Publishing Co., Ltd., U.K. pp. 32-36, (1972).

Butler, Alan, "Sexual Apartheid in Saudi Arabia", in, New Society, Vol. 45, No. 822, 6 July 1978, Publications Expediting Inc., U.S.A. pp. 13-15, (1978).

Cleveland, R.L., "Kuwait", in, Middle East and South Asia Journal-The World Today Series, 1980, Stryker Post Publication Inc., U.S.A. pp. 60-67 (1980).

Cooper, R., "Bahrain", in, Middle East Annual Review, 1980, Design for Print Ltd., London and Tien Wah Press, Singapore, pp. 179-188, (1980).

Cornell, M.L., "The Development of Education for Women in Kuwait", in, Canadian and International Education, Vol. 5, No. 2, December 1976, Faculty of Education, Althouse College, University of Western Ontario, Canada, pp. 73-83 (1976).

Cowen, R., "Curriculum Issues, 1976-1990: Contents, Policies and Practices in the USA", in, Compare - A Journal of Comparative Education, Vol. 11, No. 1, Carfax Publishing Company, Journal Oxford Ltd., England, pp. 45-49, (1981).

Dougherty, C.R.S., "Substitution and the Structure of the Labour Force", in, Economic Journal, Vol. 82, No. 325, March 1972, Macmillan (Journals) Ltd., London, pp. 170-181, (1972).

El-Saadawi, N., "Women and Islam" in, Spare Rib - A Women's Liberation Magazine, Issue 90, January 1980, Comag Distribution, London, pp. 50-53, (1980).

Emmerij, L., "What is the Relationship between Secondary Education Training and Employment", in,Prospectus, Vol. IV, No.3, Autumn 1977, Unesco, Paris, pp. 331-341, (1974).

Hanby, M.K., "Technical Education in the Arab States", in, Educational Studies and Documents, No. 53, Unesco Publication, Paris, pp. 21-43, (1960).

Hainsworth, G., "16-19 The Need for a Comprehensive Approach", in, Secondary Education Journal, Vol. 13, No. 1, March, 1983, College Hill Press, London, pp. 5-6 (1983).

Halliday, F., "Class Struggle in the Arab Gulf", in New Left Review Vol. 58, 1969, Alden Press, Oxford, U.K. pp. 31-37, (1969).

Halliday, F., "Economic Decline in Oman - PFLO's New Political Strategy", in, Middle East Research and Information Project, No. 67, May 1978, London, U.K. pp. 18-21 (1978).

Hartley, R., "Careers Education in a Depression" in, Forum, Spring 1983, Russell Press Ltd., PSW, UK, pp. 5-8, (1983).

Hanson, H.H., "The Pattern of Women's Seclusion and Veiling in a Shi'ah Village" in, Folk, Vol.3, 1961, The Danish Ministry of Education and the Rask Qrsted Foundation, Denmark, pp. 23-42, (1961).

Harrington, C.W., "The Saudi Arabian Council of Ministers", in, The Middle East Journal, Vol. 12, No. 1, Winter, 1958, The Middle East Institute Publication, Washington, DC, USA, pp. 1-19, (1958).

Holmes, B., "Comparative Education as a Scientific Study" in, British Journal of Educational Studies, Vol. 20, No.2 June 1972, William Clowes and Sons Ltd., London, pp. 205-219, (1972).

Holmes, B., "The Problem Approach in Comparative Education - Some Methodological Considerations", in, Comparative Education Review, Vol. 2, No. 1, June 1958, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio, USA, pp. 3-8, (1958).

Holmes, B., "Models in Comparative Education", in, Compare - A Journal of Comparative Education, Vol. II, No. 2, 1981, Carfax Publishing Company, Journals Oxford Ltd., UK, pp. 155-161, (1981).

Holmes, B., "Paradigm Shifts in Comparative Education", in, Comparative Education Review, Vol. 28, No. 4, November 1984, University of Chicago Press for the Comparative and International Society, USA, pp. 584-604, (1984).

Hussein, M., "Saudi Arabia - The Path of Progress" in, The Journal of Middle East Education and Training, Vol. 6, No.3, 1984, N and W. Litho Ltd., Truro International Trade Publication, Ltd., UK. pp. 11-18, (1984).

Johnny, R., "Saudi IMF Deal: Everyone's Winner", in, Middle East Economic Digest, Vol. 25, No. 22, June 1981, Jonathan Wallace, U.K. pp. 37-39, (1981).

Johnson, M.W. "Career Education and Physical Education", in, Journal of Physical Education and Recreation, Vol. 47, No. 5, May, 1976, AAHPER Presses for American Alliance for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Washington, DC., USA., pp. 39-40, (1976).

Kline, M., "NACOME", Implications for Curriculum Design", in The Mathematics Teacher, Vol. 69, No.6, October 1976, Ed. Press for the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Inc., USA, pp. 449-454, (1976).

Kuwait Oil Company, KS.C. "Adults Welcome at the University", in, Kuwait Digest, July/September 1982, Kuwait, pp. 23-26, (1982).

Linne, A., "Content, Curriculum and Work Experience, Aspects of Educational Integration in Higher Education Programmes", in, Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 27, No.2, 1983, Universitets Forlaget Oslo, Norway, pp. 109-127, (1983).

Lukes, J., "School Sociology and Social Studies in Humberside", in, The Social Science Teacher, Vol. 9, No.2, December 1979, Sidmouth Printing Works Ltd., Sidmouth, Devon, UK., pp. 53-58, (1979).

Lyung, B.O. and Jansson, S., "Recruitment to the Gymnasium in Sweden", in, Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, No. 1. 1970, Universitets Forlaget, Oslo, Norway, pp. 1-4, (1970).

Marklund, S., "The Post-Comprehensive Era of Swedish Education", in, Compare - Journal of Comparative Education, Vol. 11, No. 2, 1981, Carfax Publishing Company, Journal of Oxford Ltd., UK, pp. 185-191 (1981).

Marklund, S. and Boucher, L., "The Curriculum for 13-16 Year Olds in Sweden - A Review of Changes 1950-1980" in, Compare - Journal of Comparative Education, Vol. 10, No. 2, 1980, Carfax Publishing Company, Journals Oxford Ltd., UK, pp. 161-179, (1980).

Marklund, S., "Differentiation and Integration in the Swedish Upper Secondary School", in, International Review of Education, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, pp. 197-206 (1978).

Melier, A.I., and El-Sanabary, N. and Beeson, D., "Women, Modernisation and Education in Kuwait", in, Comparative Education Review, Vol. 23, No. 1, February 1979, The Comparative and International Education Society, USA, pp. 115-124, (1979).

Milligan, S., "Kind Fahd Promises Votes for Saudis", in, The Sunday Times, No. 8365, pp. 1-2, 2 December 1984.

Murad, H.Q., "Ibn Taymiya on Trial: A Narrative Account of his Mihan", in, Journal of Islamic Studies, No. 1, Vol. XVIII, Spring 1979, Pakistan, pp. 1-32 (1979).

Murphy, R.F. and Kasdan, L., "The Structure of the Parallel Cousin Marriage", in, American Anthropologist, Vol. 61, No. 1, February 1954, Mehasha, Winsonsin, USA, pp. 17-29,(1959).

Orr, P., "Sex Differentiation in the Curriculum", in, Secondary Education Journal, Vol. 12, No. 2, June 1982, The College Hill Press (TU) Ltd., for National Union of Teachers, London, pp. 3-5 (1982).

Pattison, M., "Intergovernmental Relations and the Limitations of Central Control: Re-constructing the Politics of Comprehensive Education", in, Oxford Review of Education, Vol. 6, No. 1, 1980, Burgess and Son (Abingdon) Ltd., Oxfordshire, UK. pp. 63-90 (1980).

Presley, J.R., "Education and Economic Development - The Case of Saudi Arabia", in, Education for Development - Journal of the Faculty of Education, University College, Cardiff, Vol. 8, No. 1, Spring 1984, University College of Cardiff Publication, UK, pp. 59-68, (1984).

Rugh, W., "Emergence of a New Middle Class in Saudi Arabia", in, The Middle East Journal, Vol. 27, No. 1, Winter 1973, The Middle East Institute Publication, Washington, DC, USA, pp. 7-20 (1973).

Schmidt, D.A., "A Mixed Economy is the Goal in Kuwait", in, New York Times, January 8, 1965.

Scott, P.J. and Jenkins, E.W. "Some Thought on Science Teaching in Comprehensive Schools During the 1970s", in, The School Science Review, Vol. 54, September 1972 - June 1973, The Association for Science Education, London, UK, pp. 5-12 (1973).

Shipman, M., "The School Curriculum in England 1970-1990", in, Compare - Journal of Comparative Education, Vol. 11, No. 1, Carfax Publishing Company, Journals Oxford Ltd., England, pp. 21-32, (1981).

Sjoberg, L., Drattz, B.M., "Interests in School Subjects and Vocational Reference", in, Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 27, No. 4, Universitets Forlaget, Oslo, Norway, pp. 165-182, (1983).

Tall, G.E., "Patterns of Science Education as Illustrated by Examination Entries from 1962-1977 and the Core Curriculum", in, The School Science Review, Vol. 61, No. 214, September 1979, The Association for Science Education, London, pp. 250-260 (1979).

Torsten, H., "Re-shaping the Upper Secondary Curriculum", in, Education and Culture, No. 27, Spring 1975, Council of Europe, Switzerland, pp. 10-15 (1975).

Wheeler, D.K., "Educational Problems of the Arab Countries", in, International Review of Education, Vol. 12, No. 3, pp. 301-315, (1966).

Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, "The Arabian Peninsula: a Survey of the Inheritance", in, The Economist, Vol. 286, No. 7277, February 19, 1983, The Economist Newspaper Ltd., London, UK, pp. 56-82 (1983).

2. Arabic

Transliteration from Arabic

Arabic Symbol	Equivalent in English	Arabic Symbol	Equivalent in English
I. Letters			
أ	A'	ط	Ṭ
ب	B	ظ	Ẓ
ت	T	ع	'A
ث	Th	غ	GH
ج	J	ف	F
ح	Ḥ	ق	Q
خ	Kh	ك	K
د	D	ل	L
ذ	Dh	م	M
ر	R	ن	N
ز	Z	هـ	H
س	S	و	W
ش	Sh	و	ū (as letter of Prolongation)
ص	Ṣ	ي	y
ض	Ḍ	ي	ī

II. Ḥarakāt and other Orthographic Signs:

Fatḥa perpendicular	a
Fatḥa	ā
Kasra	i
ḍamma	u
Shadda	doubling e.g. (Jāhiliyya)
Tanwīn (with final alif or yā,)	ā
Tanwīn (with nouns or adjectives)	ī

Source: Houtsma, M.Th., Seligsohn, M. et al., Encyclopedia of Islam, Leydon Late, E.J., Brill Ltd., U.K., 1908.

2.1 Books

Abdullah, Abdul-Majeed Al-Baghdadi, al-a'ntalaqah al-Ta'limiyah fi al-mamelakah al-Suadiyh al-'arabiyh, a'usulaha - Jithurah wa a'wlyitiha, Being:
Education in Saudia Arabia. Origins, Roots and Priorities, Daar al-Shrook for Printing, Saudi Arabia, 1982.

Ahmed, Abdul Rahman 'Assa, Siyāsat al-ta'alīm fi al-Mamemlakah al Sa'adiyh al-'arabiyh, Being:
Educational Policy in Saudi Arabia, Darr al-Liwaa, for publication and distribution, Saudi Arabia, 1979.

Al-'Abd Al Ghafwur, Fawziyh Yusuf, Tatwar al-ta'alīm fi al Kuwiyt 1912-1972, Baing:
Education Development in Kuwait, 1912-1972, unknown publication, Kuwait. (n.d.)

A'mal, Hamezah Al-Marzooki, Al-Nazriyh al-Tarbawijaha al-a's al-a'slamiyah wa mafehoom al-Fakir al-Tarbawi al-Gharibi, Being:
The Theory of Islamic Education and the Concept of Western Educational Thinking, M.A. Dissertation (published), Tohama Publication Press, Jeddeh, Saudi Arabia, 1982.

Al-mamelakah Al-Su'adiyh Al-'Arabiyh, Wazarat Al-M'aaraf-A Dara-T Al-A'behath Wa Al-Manahij Wa Al-Mawad Al-Ta'alimiyh, Manhaj al-Marhalah al-Th anawiyh al-'aamah, Being:
General Secondary Education Curriculum, Document No. 1/9/233, Ministry of Education, National Offset Printing Press, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, 1394 AH, 1974, A.D.

Al-Nifisi, Abdulha Fahad, Majlis al-Ta'aawan Al-Khaleeji Al-Etar al-Siayasi wa al-estratiji, Being:
The Gulf Cooperation Council - Its Strategic and Political Framework, Ta-Ha Publishers Limited, U.K. (1982)

Al-Raihani, A., Mulūk al-'Arab, Being: The Arab Kings, Beirut, (1951).

Al-Rashid, Abd Al'Aziz, Tarikh al-Kuwaiyt, Being: History of Kuwait, Beirut, (undated).

Al-Shalabi, H., Madrasat al-Hidiyah al-Thanawiyh al-Kitab al-Sanawi, Being:
Al-Hidaya Boys Secondary School - Annual Book - 1st Issue, May 1980, Bahrain, Ministry of Information, Government Press,(1980).

Al-Shamikh Muhammad Abdul-Rahman, al-Ta'alīm fi Makkah wa al-Madinah akhar al-'ahid al-a'uthmani, Being
Education in Mekkah and Medina - Towards the end of the Ottoman Era, National Offset Printing Press, Saudi Arabia, (1973).

habib, 'Aziz Muhammad, Al'aālam al 'Arabi min al-Khalij ila al-Muhit - Al-Kuwaiyt, Being:
Arab World from the Ocean to the Gulf - al-Kuwait, Anglo-Egyptian Bookshop, Egypt, (1971)

Kuwait, Al-Majlis Al Ta'sisī, Distur Dawlat al-Kuwaiyat wa qanūn al A'ntikhab, Being:
Kuwait Constitution and Election Legislations, Kuwait Government Press, Kuwait, (1962).

Mossa, Hussain, Masirat al Qam'a fi Al-Bahriyn, Being:
Oppression and its Development in Bahrain, (1984).

Yusuf Mustafa Al-Qahadi, Siyāsat al-Ta'alim wa al-tanimiyh fi al-Mamamlakah al-Su'adiyh al-'Arabiyh, Being:
The Educational Policy and Development in Saudi Arabia, Dār al-Mareekh Publication, Saudi Arabia, (1981).

2.2. Papers and Reports (Arabic)

'Abd Al-Rahim, Salih 'Abdulah 'Aumar Suliman Bakish,
Madrasah-t nizam al-sa'āt al-Mu'atamadah wa al-Biyia'h al-Muhi|ah Biha, Being:
Credit/Unit System School and the Community. A Study presented by Educational Research Committee, Association of Kuwaiti Teachers. The Twelth Education Week, April 10-15-1982, Association of Kuwaiti Teachers, Kuwait (1982), 125 pp.

'Abdul Mu'ati, Yusuf, Al-madrasah al-thanawiyh al-shāmilah - Dirasah tahiliyliyah taqwimiyh, Being:
The Comprehensive School - An Analytical and Evaluational Study. Presented to the Ninth Educational Week, December 1978, Association of Kuwaiti Teachers, Kuwait, (1978).

A'Hmad 'Alli al'Aumran, "Taqrir 'an al-Ta'alim 1965-1966", Being: "Report on Education 1965-1966", The Government Annual Report, 1966, Bahrain - Directorate of Education, (1966), op.cit.

Al-Dimirdāsh, 'Abdul Hamiyd Sarhan, Tajirabit al-Kuwiyt fi Taṭbyq Nizām al-Muqararāt fi al-madrasah al-thānawiyat Being:
Kuwait Experiment of Branching Programme in Secondary Secondary School. A Report presented to the Ninth Educational Week - March, 1979 (Arabic Text), Association of Kuwaiti Teachers, (1979), 30 pp.

Al-Dimirdāsh, 'Abdul Hamiyd Sarhan, Taṭwir al-Manāhej bi dawlat al Kuwiyt - ususuh wa mutaṭilabat wa marāhlih, Being:
The Curricula Development in Kuwait - The Ministry of Education, The Curriculum Research Centre, Kuwait (1976), 12 pp.

Al-Hashil, Sa'ad Jasim, Muqtarah li al''adād al- Kawādar al-Bashriyh al-asāsiyh li niẓām al-Sa'āt al-Mu'atamadah fi al ta'alim al-thanawi 'Niẓām al-Muqararāt fi Kuliyat al Tarbiya, Being:
A Proposal Plan for Training Teaching Cadre for Branching Schools. Branching Programmes in Teacher Training College, Association of Kuwaiti Teachers, Kuwait (1982), 25.pp.

Al-Mamemlakah Al-Su'adiyh Al-'Arabiyn, Wazarat Al'M'Aaraf, al-Ta'alim al-Thainawiy Dalīl al-Tāleb Madrasa-t al-Yrmook al-Shāmelah-al-Riyad - Being: Secondary Education. Sutdent Guide Book, Al-Yremook Comprehensive School, Riyadh, Ministry of Education, Saudi Arabia, 1399 A.H. 1978 A.D. 36 pp.

Al-Mamemlakah Al-Suadia, Wazarat Al-M'Aaraf Al-A'Idaraha Al-M'AAmah Li Al-Ta'Alim Fi Al-Mantqah Al-Shariqyha, Al-Taqrīr al-Nihāhī 'an al-Nadwat al-Thālethan li al-Madāras al-thanawiyh al-Shāmelah. Being: The Final Report on the Third Symposium for Comprehensive Schools. Damman, 2-7 February 1979, Ministry of Education, Saudi Arabia, (1979).

Al-Mamelakah Al-Su'adiyh Al-'Arabiyh, Maketab Al-Tarbiya-T Al-'Arabi Li Dwal Al-Khaleej, Al-A'tijāhāt al-hadīthah fi al-ta'alīm al thanawi bi dwelal-Khaleej al'Arabī, Being: Education in the Gulf Arab States - A Census and Documented Survey, Vol. No. 1-2, , The Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States Publication, Saudi Arabia, (1981).

Al-Mamemlakah Al Su'adiyh Al-'Arabiyh, Wazarat Al-Ma'Araf Markiz Al-M'Atumat Al-A'Hsaiyh Wa Al-Tawthiq Al-Tarbiwi; Fswūl fi Tarikh al-Ta'alīm fi al-Mamemlakah - Ta'alīm al-Fatat- 'Arid Wathaa'qi a'ihsaai, Being: Sections on History of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia - Intermediate Education - First Cycle of Secondary Education - Statistical and Documentional Study, January, 1982. (Arabic Text) 60 pp. Ministry of Education, Centre for Statistical Data and Educational Documentation, Saudi Arabia, 1982.

Al-Mamemlakah Al-Su'adiyh Al'Arabiyh, Wazarat-Al-M'Aaraf-Markiz Al-M'Atumat Al-A'Ihsaiyh Wa Al T awthiq Al Tarbiwi; Fswūl fi Tarikh al-ta'alīm fi al mamemlakah - al-Ta'alīm al-thanawi al-'aam-'Arid Wathaqī a'ihsaa'i, Being: Sections on History of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia - General Secondary Education - Statistical and Documentational Study, November, 1982, , 106 pp. Ministry of Education, Centre for Statistical Data and Educational Documentation, Saudi Arabia, (1982).

Al-Mamemlakah Al-Su'adiyh Al-'Arabiyh, Wazaret-Al-M'Aaraf, Al A'Idaraha Al-'Aamah Li Al-Ta'alim Fi Al-Riyhad Taqrīr 'an al Nadwah al-a'ūlā li al-Madaras al-thauawiyh al-Tujribiyh al-Shamelah - fi Su'adiyh. Being: Report on the Symposium of the Experimental Comprehensive Schools in Saudi Arabia. February, 1977. Ministry of Education, Saudi Arabia,(1977). 15 pp.

Al-Mamemlakah al-Su'adiyh al-'Arabiyh, Wazaret al-m'aaraf, al a'idarah al-m'aaraf, al a'idarah al'aamah li al- Ta'alīm fi al-Mantaqah al-Gharibiyha. Taqrīr 'an al-Nadwah al-Rabi'ayha li al-Madāras al-thanawiyh al-Tajribiyh al-Shamelah, fi Su'adiyh-al-Qarārāt wa al Muqtrahāt, Being: Reports on Decisions and Recommendations of the Fourth Symposium of the Experimental Comprehensive Schools in Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Saudi Arabia (1981), 15 pp.

Al-Mamemlakah Al-Su'adiyh Al-'Arabiyh, Wazarat Al-M'Aaraf-Al A'Idarah Al-'Aamah Li La-Ta'Alim Fi La-Riyhad, Muqtarahat al-nadwah al-Khamisah li al-madaras al-thanawiyh al-tajribiyh al-shamelah fi Suadiyh, 14/4/1401 A.H. (21.4.1981) Being: Recommendations of the Fifth Symposium of the Experimental Comprehensive Schools in Saudi Arabia, 21.4.1981, Ministry of Education, Saudi Arabia,(1981), 16 pp.

Al-Mamemlakah Al-Su'adiyh Al-'Arabiyh, Wazarat Al-M'Aaraf, Idarat Al-Ta'Alim Al-Thanawi, al-ta'alim al-thanawi, Dalil al-taleb li-al-Madarash al-thanawihy al-Shammelah 1401 A.H. (1981 A.D.) Being: Comprehensive Schools Students Guide Book, Al-Noor Press, Makkah, Saudi Arabia,(1981).

Al-Mamelakah Al-Su'adiyh Al-'Arabiyh-Al-Mua'sasah Al-'Aamah Li Al-Ta'Alim Al-Fani Wa Al-Tadreeb Al-Mihani, Al-Ma'Ahad Al-Sna'ai Bi Al-Damman, Dalil al-Ma'ahad al-Sna'ai, Being: Dammam Technical Institute - Student Guide Book, The Institute Printing Centre, Saudi Arabia, 1975.

Al-Mamelakah Al-Su'adiyh Al-'Arabiyh, Maketab Al-Tarbiya-t Al-'Arabi Li Dwal al-Khaleej, Al-Nadwah al-Fikriyh al-a'ula li ru-a'saa' wa Mudeeri al-Jamia'at al Khaleejiyh-Al-Bahriyan, Being: Report on the First Symposium of Deans and Directors of Universities in the Gulf Region, General Recommendations - 4-7 January (1982), The Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States, Saudi Arabia, (1982), 10 pp.

Al-Mamemlakah Al-Su'adihy Al-'Arabiyh, Wazarat Al-M'Aaraf, Taqrir 'an al-Nadwah al-Thaniyha li al madaras al-thanawiyh al-tajribiyh al-Shamelah fi al-Suadiyh, Makkah. Being: The Final Report on the Second Symposium, 1398 A.H. (1978 A.D.) Ministry of Education, Saudi Arabia,(1978), 10 pp.

Al-Mamelakah Al-Su'adiyh Al-'Arabiyh, Maketab Al-Tarbiya-t Al-'Arabi Li Dwal Al-Khaleej, al-a'tijahat al-Hadithah fi al-Ta'alim al-thanawi bi dwal al-Khaleejal- al'arrabi, Being: The New Trends in Secondary Education in the Gulf Arab States - A Census and Documented Survey, Vol. 1,2 (Saudi Arabia: The Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States Publication, 1981.)

Al-Manai, Latifah, Dirasah tahileeliyh fi al-a'nfaq al-Tapaleem; fi al-Bahriyn - 1980-81, Being: An Analytical Study on Educational Expenditure in Bahrain for the Academic Year 1980-1981 - Comparing it to the Other Gulf Arab States. Ministry of Education, Directorate of Educational Planning, Unit of Planning and Supervision, Bahrain, 1982.

Al-Manai, Latifah, Dirasah tahileeliyh fi taklifat al-ta'aleem wa kulfat al-talib fi Jamee'a marahal al-ta'alim 1978-80 - 1983-84, Being: An Analytical Study on Students' Cost at All Levels of Education in Bahrain 1979/80 - 1983/84, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Educational Planning, Unit of Planning and Supervision, Bahrain, 1984.

Al-Markaz-Al'Arabi Lil-Buhwuth Al-Tarbawiya-T Li-Diwal Al-Khalij, Al-a'tijahat al-Hadiytha-t fi al Iaa'lim al-thanawi bi Diwal al-Khalij al-'Arabi, Dirasah Mashiha wathaiqiha, Being: The Recent Trends in Secondary Education, in the Gulf Arab States - A Survey and Documental Study, Vol. I, II , Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States Publication, Kuwait (1981).

Al-Ju'aan, Sabikah 'Abdulh, al-Mushikalāt al-a'dāriyh fi al-Madrasah al-thanawiyh bi, al-Kuwiyt (Arabic Text) Being: The Administrative Problems in Kuwait Secondary Schools - A Report presented to the Ninth Educational Week, March 1979, Association of Kuwaiti Teachers, Kuwait (1979), 15pp.

Al-Saraf, Qasim 'Ali, Badir 'Aumir Al-'Aumir, Bahith Miydaniy haul 'amaliyt-al-taqīym wa al-a'rishad fi Nizām al Muqararāt fi Dawlat al Kuwiyt li a 'asibua' al-tarbiy-t al- thnī - 'ashar. Being: A Field Study on School's Assessment and Guidance in Branching Programme Schools in Kuwait. A Study presented to the Twelfth Educational Week 10-15 April 1982 , Association of Kuwaiti Teachers, Kuwait,(1982), 25 pp.

Arab League of Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organisation (ALECSO), Directorate of Educational Research, al-Ta'alim al-Thanawi fi al-Bilādāl-al-'Arabiyh, Being: Secondary Education in the Arab World (Countries), ALECSO Publication, Tunisia, (1982).

Bustan, A'Hmid 'Abdul Baqi Salih A'Bdulh, Jasim, al-Tashi'aib fi Nizām al-muqararāt Being: Specialisations (Branchings) in Kuwait Secondary Schools. A Report submitted to the Twelfth Educational Week, 10-15 April 1982, Association of Kuwaiti Teachers, Kuwait (1982).

Dawlat Al-Bahriyn, Wazārat Al-Tarbiya-t, A'Idārat Al-Takhtit Al-Tarbiwai, Shu'Abat Al-A'Hsa, Dirasat wa Buhuth a'ihsāyha 'an al-Ta'alim fi al-Bahriyn 1974-1975. Being: Studies and Statistical Analysis on Education in Bahrain 1974-1975, Ministry of Education, Bahrain, (1977)

Dawlat Al-Bahriyn, Wazārat Al-Tarbiya-t A'Idārat Al-Takhteet Al-Tarbawi, Al-Taqreer al-Sanawi 1980-1981, Being: Annual Report 1980-1981, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Educational Planning, Directorate of Documentation, Information and Educational Researches, Bahrain, (1981).

Dawlat Al-Bahriyn-Wazārat Al-Tarbiya-t A'Idārat Al-Manāhij Wa Al Kutub Wa Al-Wasaa'il Al-Ta'Alimiyh, Nateejat Taqweem al-manihaj al-mitawarli al-saf al-a'wal al-thanawi. Being: Evaluation Results of Curriculum Improvement in the First Year - General Secondary School, September, 1981, Ministry of Education, Bahrain, (1981), op.cit., 55 pp.

Dawlat Al-Bahriyn, Wazārat Al-Tarbiya-t A'Idārat Al-Takhteet Al-Tarbiwai, Shu'abat Al-Tawtheeq Wa Al-M'Alumāt Al Tarbawiyh, Taqreer a'n 'anjazāt wazarat al-tarbiya-t fi al-fatrah 1980-1981, Being: Report on the Ministry's Achievements During the Period October 1980-October 1981, Ministry of Education, Bahrain, 1981, op.cit. 50 pp.

Dawlat Al-Bahriyn-Wazārat Al-Tarbiya-t-A'Idāra-t Al Manāhij Wa Al-Kutub Wa Al-Wasaa'il Al-Ta'Alimiyh Shu'Aba-t Buhuth Al-Manāhij, Nateejat a'statlā'a a'rāa' talabat al-Sfiyn al-a'wal wa al-Thani al-Thanawiyin, Being: A Report on Questionnaire Survey Concerning Curriculum Content Improvement in First and Second Year General Secondary, August, 1982, Ministry of Education, (1982), Bahrain, op.cit. 80 pp.

Dawlat Al-Bahriyn-Wazārat Al-Tarbiya-t A'Idāra-t Al-Manāhij Wa Al-Kutub Wa Al-Wasāa'il Al-Ta'Alimiyh, Nateejat Taqweem al-manihaj al-mutawar li al-Saf al a'thāi al-thānawi, Being: Evaluation Result of Curriculum Improvement in the Second Year General Secondary School, September 1982, Ministry of Education, Bahrain, (1982), op.cit., 60 pp.

Dawlat Al-Bahriyn, Wazārat Al-Tarbiya-t A'Idārat Al-Takhteet Al-Tarbawi, Dirasah tahaleeliyh'an al-Tasarub fi Jamee' a'marahal al-ta'alim. Being: The Drop-Out - An Analytical Statistical Study on the Drop-Out Issue in all levels of Education in Bahrain (Bahrain: Ministry of Education, Directorate of Educational Planning, November, 1983).

Dawlat Al-Bahriyn-A'Idārat Al-Ma'Aarif, Taqrir 'an a'hwah al-ma'aārif bi imārate al-Bahriyn 1371 AH (1952 AD) Being: Report on Conditions of Education in the Emirate of Bahrain, 1952, Daar al-'alam al-'Arabi, Egypt, (1952).

Dawlat Al Kuwiyt, Wazārat-t Al-Tarbiya-t, al Ta'alīm al-thānawi fi al-Kuwiyt, Being: Secondary Education in Kuwait, Ministry of Education Publication, Kuwait, (1980).

Dawlat Al-Kuwiyt, Wazāra-t Al-Tarbiya-t, al-taqrir al-Khitami li lajnat al-Ia'alim 'an Nizām al muqararāt fi al-Madāras al-thānawiyh, Being: The Final Report of the Educational Commission for Branching Programme System in Secondary Schools, Ministry of Education, Kuwait, (1977), 32 pp.

Dawlat Al-Kuwiyt, Wazarat Al-Tarbiya-t, Dalīl al-Talib li nizamal-Muqararat al Marhalah al-thanawiyh, 1400-1401 AH 1980-1981 AD. Being: Student Guidebook for Branching Programme System (Secondary level), Ministry of Education, Directorate of Publishing Affairs, Kuwait, (1981).

Dawlat Al-Kuwait, Wazarat Al-Tarbiya-t, Dalīl a'wliā'a 'ala' umnr li nizām al-Muqararat, Being:
Students Patrons Guidebook for Branching Programme System (Secondary level), Ministry of Education, Directorate of Publishing Affairs, Kuwait, (1981).

Fahmy, M.S., wāq'a Ma'ahadi al'Mu'alimeen wa al-mu'alimat fi al-Bahriyn wa mustaqibilahuma - tahileel le la waq'a wa Nazrah li al-mustaqibal, Being:
The Existing Conditions of Teacher Training Colleges and their Future - An Analytical Study and the Future Perspectives, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Educational Planning, Office of Unesco Expert for Educational Planning, Bahrain, undated.

Hafiz, H., Daleel Tatweer al-Manahij fi al-Bahriyn, Being: The Guide of Curriculum Development - Bahrain, Ministry of Education, Bahrain, (1977), op.cit.

Lajinat Dirāsa-t Nizam Al-Muqararat Bi-el Marhala Al-Thanawiyh, al-Wathiqh al a'sāasiyaha li-thanawiyat Sbaāh Saālim al Sbaāh 1978-1979, Being: The Committee of Curriculum Development in Secondary Schools. The Document of Sabah-Salam Al-Sabah Secondary School. The System of Branching Programme Schooling in Kuwait 1978-1979 (Arabic Text), The Ministry of Education Publication, Kuwait, (1978).

Maketab Al-Unisca Al-A'qlimi Fi Al-Dwal Al-'Arabiyh-Al-Shabakat Al-A'Qlimiyh Li Al-Tajdeed Al-Tarbiwai Min A'Jal Al-Tanimiyah Fi Al-Dwal Al-'Arabiyh, Masah li al-a'tijahāt wa al-mumarasāt al-Tarbawiyah al-qaa'imah, Being: Survey of Recent Educational Trends and Practices in the Arab World, Vol. No. 2, Researches and Surveys, Unesco Regional Bureau for the Arab World, The Regional Network of Educational Innovation for Development in the Arab World, Beirut, (1980).

Mansoor, Hussian 'Aumar, "Tatiweer al-Quwa al-'Aamiylah wa-Ikhtiyar al-Taqaniyah al-munāsibah Ka-a'sās lil Tanimiyah wa-al Takāmal al-a'qtisadi fi-Duwal Majlis al-Ta'aāwan al-Khaliji." Being:
"The Manpower Development and the Selection of Appropriate Techniques as a Base for Economic Advancement and Integration in the GCC State Members", A Paper presented on the Seminar about the Economic Integration of GCC States held by King Saud University, Riyadh with the Coordination of the Arab Planning Institute, Kuwait, 13-16 Rabi'al al a'wal 1404 AH, 17-20 December, 1983, AD, 50 pp.

Muhammed 'Aumar Tushkandi, Nizam muqtarah li-al-Ta'alim al-Thanawi, Being: " Proposal Plan for Secondary Education", Al-Madinah Daily Newspaper, No. 5784, Sunday 23, 1983, p. 5. Al-Madinah, Saudi Arabia.

Sulaty, H.A., al-qarārāt al-Siyasiyah wa Ta'thirah bi al-Nisbah li al-takhṭīṭ al-tarbawai, Being: Political Decisions and their Impact in Terms of Educational Planning, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Educational Planning, Bahrain, March 1981, op.cit.

Wahiba, I (Unesco Expert), Taṭweer al-Ta'alīm al-Thanawi wa Manāhijah fi al-Bahriyn-Dirasah wa Muqtarahat, Being: The Development of Secondary Education and its Curricula in Bahrain - A Study and Proposals, Ministry of Education, Directorate of Curricula, Textbooks and Educational Media, Bahrain, December, 1976.

2.3 Periodical Articles

Abdullah Al-Harkhan, "Thalathan wa 'ashrīn alif Tā Libaha fi al Riyḥaḍ wa a'kithar min a'thnin wa Thalathin Madrasah-Judīdah", Being: "2300 Girls in Riyadh and more than Thirty-two New Schools," Al Jazeerah Daily Newspaper, No. 3770, 15.1. 1983, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, (1983).

Al-Rumaihi, M.G., "Al-Tajrabah Al-Siyasiyah fi-al Kuwaiyt: 1962-1981", Being: "The Political Participation Experiment in Kuwait: 1962-1981" pp. 91-107. In: Al-Mustaqbal Al-Arabi - ARAB Future Journal, No. 64, June, 1984. Centre for Arab Unity Studies, Beirut, Lebanon, (1984).

Dawlat Al-Baḥriyn Kuliyat al-Khleej al-Snā'aiyah, "A'afaq li-'aam a'lfeeḥ-Dawr al-Qita'a al-Khas al-Sina'ai fi Taṭweer al-ta'alim al-H'andisi wa al-fani bi al-Khaleej", Being: "The Role of Industrial Sector in Developing Technical and Engineering Education in the Gulf" - Special Volume Concentrating on this Aspect, Swat al Teknuliuiyh, No.3, 1983, Bahrain, (1983).

Dawlat Al-Kuwiyt, Niẓam Muqararāt al-Sāat al Mu'atamadeh, Being: The Branching Programme System, A Special Volume Compiling all Information Related to the Twelfth Educational Week, 10-15 April 1982, (Arabic Text) Al-Raa'd Journal, No. 562, 15 April (1982)

Saud Al-Mamaz, "T'adeel Shāmel li-Barāmij al-Ta'alīm li le Marhalah al-thanawiyh. fi al-Mamemlakah", Being: The General Reorganisation of General Secondary Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia" (Arabic Text) The Daily Al-Riyadh, No. 5337, Tuesday 25 January, 1983, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

El-Ebrāheem, H., Syāsat al-Qubūl al-jadeedah fi Jama'at al-Kuwiyt, Being: "A New Policy for Students Admission at Kuwait University," in Al-ANBA Daily News, 2nd of March, No. 3660, Kuwait, 1986.

ADDENDA

Amnesty International British Section, The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Amnesty International, British Section Publication U.K., (1983).

Bereday, G.Z.F, & Lauwerys, J.A., The World Year Book of Education, 1965 - The Education Explosion. Evans Brothers Ltd., London, (1965).

Bereday, G.Z.F. & Volpicelli, L. (eds.) Public Education in America. A New Interpretation of Purpose And Practice. Harper & Brothers Publishers, New York, (1958).

Birks, J.B. & Rimmer, J.A. Developing Education Systems in The Oil States of Arabia: Conflicts of Purpose and Focus. Centre for Middle Esatern And Islamic Studies, University of Durham, U.K. (1984).

Bolino, A.C. Career Education - Contributions To Economic Growth - Praeger Publisher, New York, (1973).

Bude, U. & Greenland J. (eds.) In - Service Education And Training of Primary School Teachers in Anglophone Africa. Nomas Verlagsgesellschaft - Baden - Baden, West Germany, (1983).

Enayat, H. Modern Islamic Political Thought. The Macmillan Ltd., London. (1982).

Gordon, P. Selection For Secondary Education. The Woburn Press, London, (1980).

Haberman, M. & Stinnet, M.T. Teacher Education And The New Profession of Teaching. McCutchan Publishing Corporation, U.S.A, (1973).

Jenkins, S. Conservative And Comprehensives. Bow Group Publications For Political Centre, London, U.K. (1968).

Johnson, A.J. Collins, H.W., DUpuis, V.L. & Johanson, J.H. Introduction To The Foundation of American Education 4th ed. Library of Congress. Cataloguing Publication Data, Allyn & Bacon Inc., USA, (1979).

Karabel, J. & Halsey A.H. (eds.) Power And Ideology in Education - Oxford University Press, New York, USA, (1979).

Kazmias, A.M. Politics, Society And Secondary Education in England. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, USA,(1966).

King, R. School Organization and Pupil Involvement - A Study of Secondary Schools. Routledge And Kegan Paul, London, (1973).

ADDENDA (continued)

Mayer, F. Foundations of Education. 3rd ed. Charles E. Merrill Books Inc. USA, (1 965).

Mernissi, F. Beyond The Veil - Male Female Dynamics in a Modern Muslim Society. Schenkman Publishing Company, Massachusetts, (1975).

O.E.C.D. Classification of Educational Systems - Belgium, Denmark, The United States. O.E.C.D. Publications Paris, (1972).

O.E.C.D. Training, Recruitment And Utilization Of Teachers in Primary And Secondary Education. O.E.C.D. Publications, Paris, (1971).

Sarup, M. Marxism And Education - Routledge & Kegan Paul, London U.K. (1978).

Sizer, T.R. A Review And Comment on The National Reports - Perspectives - National Association of Secondary School Principles, Boston, Virginia, USA, (1983).

Smith, O. & Burnett, J.R. (eds.) Democracy And Excellence in in American Secondary Education. Rand McNally And Company, Chicago, USA (1964).

Spring, J. An Introduction To Social And Political Aspects. Longman Inc., New York (1983).

Welch, A.R. (ed.) The Politics of Educational Change. Centre For Social And Cultural Studies in Education. University of New England, (1983).