INFORMATION TO USERS

This was produced from a copy of a document sent to us for microfilming. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the material submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or notations which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting through an image and duplicating adjacent pages to assure you of complete continuity.

2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a round black mark it is an indication that the film inspector noticed either blurred copy because of movement during exposure, or duplicate copy. Unless we meant to delete copyrighted materials that should not have been filmed, you will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.

3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., is part of the material being photographed the photographer has followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin filming at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. If necessary, sectioning is continued again—beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.

4. For any illustrations that cannot be reproduced satisfactorily by xerography, photographic prints can be purchased at additional cost and tipped into your xerographic copy. Requests can be made to our Dissertations Customer Services Department.

5. Some pages in any document may have indistinct print. In all cases we have filmed the best available copy.

University
Microfilms
International

300 N. ZEEB ROAD, ANN ARBOR, MI 48106
18 BEDFORD ROW, LONDON WC1R 4EJ, ENGLAND

Downloaded from SHAREOK. Persistent Handle URL: https://hdl.handle.net/11244/4833

8113241

AL-AJROUSH, HAMAD AL-ALI

A HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN SAUDI ARABIA FROM 1930 TO THE PRESENT

The University of Oklahoma PH.D. 1981

University Microfilms International 300 N. Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106

Copyright 1981

by

AL-AJROUSH, HAMAD AL-ALI

All Rights Reserved

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

A HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN SAUDI ARABIA FROM 1930 TO THE PRESENT

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE COLLEGE

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for

the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

Hamad A. Al-Ajroush

Norman, Oklahoma

1980

A HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM IN SAUDI ARABIA FROM 1930 TO THE PRESENT

Approved by

Charles E. Butler (Chairman)

Robert F. Bibens

Glen R. Snider

Lloyd P. Williams

DEDICATION

To

My Mother, the illiterate,

My Wife, who is striving for knowledge,

and

To those in the Arabian Peninsula who are

seeking a better and more relevant education

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am indebted to many people for the successful completion of this study and in making it possible. The writer acknowledges the willing cooperation of a number of Saudi educators in the Ministry of Education, the educational districts and the secondary school personnel with whom I visited. The cooperation extended to me by the library personnel of the Institute of Public Administration is also gratefully acknowledged.

The writer wishes to express his sincere appreciation to the chairman of his dissertation committee, Dr. Charles Butler, for giving generously of his time and guidance, but most of all for his patience. The writer also extends his gratitude to Dr. Robert F. Bibens, Dr. Glen R. Snider, and Dr. Lloyd P. Williams for their constructive criticism and helpful suggestions.

A special word of thanks is expressed to my brother Saleh, the director of the Al-Jazeerah daily newspaper for providing me with assistance in the translation of some of the material used in this study.

Particular gratitude is expressed to Miss Elinor Harris and Chuck and Dottie Wilkinson for their reliable and efficient job with respect to the editing, typing, and proofing of my work.

Last, but not least, is my sincere debt of appreciation to my wife, Madeha Al-Ajroush, for her valuable ideas and encouragement during the study and writing of the results. Also, the understanding, patience and confidence expressed by my wife and the rest of my family are unforgettable and deeply appreciated.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS		iv
LIST OF TABLES		viii
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS		xi
Chapter		
I	INTRODUCTION	1
	Background of the Problem	
	Statement of the Problem	
	Purpose of the Study	
	Justification of the Study	
	Definition of Terms	
	Delimitation of the Study	
	Data Gathering	
	Organization of the Study	
II	REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RELATED STUDIES	8
	Educational Ideals of the Golden Age Period (750-1400 AD)	
	The Arab State Educational Reform Movement (1945-1980)	
III	EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT (Historical Background)	32
	The Golden Age Period	
	The Wahhabi Period (1740-1900)	
	The Unification Period (1900-1953)	
	The Moderization Period (1900-Present)	
	Educational Planning During 1960's	
	Educational Planning During 1970's	
	Educational Influence of Foreign Practices	

IV THE ORGANIZATION AND THE CURRICULUM OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM. 70

Administrative Structure and Control
The Ministry of Education
The General Presidency for Girls' Education
Religious Colleges and Universities
Ministry of Higher Education
Other Authorities
Curriculum Affairs
Curriculum Affairs at the Ministry Level
Curriculum Affairs at the District Level
Curriculum Affairs at the Secondary School Level
The Structure of the School System
Kindergarten
Elementary
Secondary
Higher Education
Adult Education
Special Education
Alternative Education

V DEVELOPMENT OF THE CURRICULUM IN THE PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL. 125

Curriculum Reforms
Program of Studies
Teaching Methods
Teachers and Teacher Training
Examination System
Instructional Material
Discipline

VI SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS. 177

Summary
Findings
Conclusion
Recommendation

BIBLIOGRAPHY 185

APPENDIX A 193

APPENDIX B 204

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Public Expenditure (budget allocation) on Education 1964/65, 1969/70, 1974/75, to 1977/78	57
2.	Total Enrollment in Educational Institutions by Level and Type in 1964/65, 1969/70, 1974/74, and 1979/80 Projected Plan	58
3.	Distribution of Pupils in Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary Schools by Levels and Age in 1974/75	59
4.	The Elementary School Program of Studies for (Boys) 1970	97
5.	The Elementary School Program of Studies for (Girls) 1977	98
6.	Distribution of Pupils in Secondary Schools in Literature and Science Tracks 1969/70 and 1974/75	102
7.	Program of Studies and Weekly Time Periods of Industrial Education Distributed by Grade Level	105
8.	Program of Study and Weekly Time Periods of Commercial Secondary School Distributed by Grade Level.	106
9.	Program of Study and Weekly Time Periods of Modern Technical Agricultural Institution Distributed by Grade Level	107
10.	Summary Data of Various Colleges and Universities 1974/75	113
11.	The Expansion of the Elementary Level Program (Adult Education: Schools and Students) 1964/65, 1969/70, & 1974/75. . .	115

12. Special Education: Institutes, Enrollment and Teaching Staffs, 1964/65, 1969/70, and 1974/75. 116

13. The Academic Secondary School Program of Study and Weekly Time Periods Distributed by Grade Levels, 1939. 128

14. The Academic Secondary School Program of Study and Weekly Time Periods Distributed by Grade Levels, 1945 Revision. 130

15. The Academic Secondary School Program of Study and Weekly Time Periods Distributed by Grade Levels, 1953 Revision. 132

16. The Academic Secondary School Program of Study and Weekly Time Periods Distributed by Grade Levels, 1959 Revision. 133

17. The Academic Seconday School Program of Study and Weekly Time Periods Distributed by Grade Levels, 1974 Revision. 135

18. Saudi and Non-Saudi Teachers by Level and Type of Educational Institution (1964/65 to 1974/75) 159

19. Results of Secondary Certificate Examination from 1964/65 to 1974/75. . . . 166

20. Number of Promotees and Repeaters by Level and Grade in Boys Schools Under the Ministry of Education from 1969/70 to 1974/75. . . . . 167/168

21. Kindergarten: Number of Schools, Pupils and Teachers from 1969/70 to 1977. 204

22. Elementary Stage: Number of Schools, Pupils and Teachers from 1969/70 to 1976/77 205

23. Intermediate Stage: Number of Schools Pupils and Teachers from 1969/70 to 1976/77. 206

24. Secondary Stage: Number of Schools Pupils and Teachers from 1969/70 to 1976/77 207

25. Teacher Training Institutes: Number of Schools, Pupils and Teachers from 1969/70 to 1976/77. 208

26. Technical Education: Number of Schools, Pupils and Teachers from 1969/70 to 1976/77. 209

27. Special Education: Number of Schools, Pupils and Teachers from 1969/70 to 1976/77 210

28. Adult Education: Number of Centers, Pupils and Teachers 1969/70 to 1976/77 211

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure		Page
1.	Education Problems of Arab Countries (Schematic representation of problem and conflict areas).	21
2.	Summary of the Organization of Muslim Education (750-1400AD)	35
3.	Administrative Structure of the Ministry of Education of Saudi Arabia	73
4.	Location of the Educational Districts in Saudi Arabia.	77
5.	Administrative Structure of the Educational District Office in Saudi Arabia	78
6.	The Structure of the Public School System (Educational Ladder).	93

CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Saudi Arabia, like any developing country, has an implicit faith in education as an effective tool for instilling in the young generation a dedication and capacity for reconstructing and improving the social, cultural, and economic conditions of the country. As Saudi Arabia progressed in her history and relationship with the outside world (the West), especially with the discovery of oil in the 1930's, the economic and social position of the average layman grew stronger, and modern schools were established for secular-religious education.

In this process of educational modernization, the school curriculum in general, especially at the secondary level, received major attention. Due to traditional and historical circumstances, the curriculum of the school at all levels (K-12 plus higher education) embodied national values (Islamic faith and Arab nationalism) which were and still are the basis for national identity and social cohesion. On this was based the general policy of education:

> The education policy is the broadline on which rests the educational process in fulfilling the duty of acquainting the individual with his God and religion and adjusting his concept in accordance with the teachings

> of religion in fulfillment of the needs of society and in achievement of the nation's objectives. It covers the various fields and stages of education, the programs and curricula, the means of education, the administrative system, the organs in charge of education and all other related subjects.[1]

In the last two decades, with the implementation for development of the first five year plan (1970-1975), and the second five year plan (1975-1980), and as demand and wealth necessitated it, a great stride was made in qualitatively and quantitatively improving the educational system. This current "education explosion" is perhaps bringing about greater changes than any previous reform. This recent trend created conflicts and dilemmas which have rendered curriculum development one of the most intractable educational problems of contemporary Saudi Arabia.

The Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to investigate the development of the public secondary school curriculum in Saudi Arabia, from the time these schools were established around the 1930's to the present, focusing attention on curriculum reform which has taken place in the last two decades. In more precise terms, the study, therefore, was:

1. To trace the changes which occurred in public secondary school organization, program of studies (subject matter), methods of instruction, and systems of examination.

---

[1]Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Higher Education, The Educational Policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1978, p. 5.

2. To analyze and define the factors which were aiding or working against curriculum reforms.

3. To examine the impact of curriculum development in the context of local and national needs and social ideals of the country.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to give an accurate assessment of the historical development of the Saudi Arabian educational system up to modern times, emphasizing the development of the public secondary school curriculum (i.e., organization, program of study, teaching methods, teacher education, and examination system) in the pursuit of a clearer understanding of the country's unique problems and developmental challenge.

Justification of the Study

Times change. The Saudi Arabian society has been characterized as accepting artifacts rapidly (i.e., automation and other new inventions) but reluctant to change old values, customs, or beliefs in favor of new ones. The school could not exist in an ivory tower. Instead it had to teach pupils to adjust to the change that was taking place around the globe. The young people who attend school today are the citizens of tomorrow. This means that the school system should not only move with the times, but keep one step ahead of them. Curricula in which rules and recommendations for the work of schools are set out have to

be renewed at regular intervals. Pupils today learn different things from what their parents had to learn when they were in school, and in a different way.

It seemed evident that the secondary school curriculum of the Saudi Arabian educational system was in need of drastic change, both in its subject matter content, and in the method and use of institutional materials, including development of appropriate teaching objectives and learning results. Thus, it was the aim of this study to give a clear assessment of the development of secondary education, which along with the survey of the existing curriculum can serve as a base for recommendations for future action toward establishing a pertinent program.

Definition of Terms

Saudi Arabia: A kingdom in southwest Asia. It is one of the largest countries (in area) in the Middle East. It occupies the major part of the Arabian Peninsula. It is bordered on the north by the Arab states of Kuwait, Iraq and Jordan; on the south by Yemen, on the east by the Persian Gulf; and on the west by the Red Sea. It has an area of about 850,000 square miles. Population estimates range from four to six million.

Islam: "Submission to the will of God." A monotheistic religion whose supreme being is Allah and whose prophet is Mohammad.

The Koran: The holy book of Islam.

Imam: A religious leader in Saudi Arabia.

Public Secondary School: Refers to schools that housed grades (7 - 12) for general instruction prior to 1953, and grades 10 - 12 after 1958, where general instruction (grade 10), specialized instruction (grades 11 - 12), and preparation for college are offerred.

Curriculum Development: Refers to a wide range of activities which imply a planned change in the learning situation and not simply the production of materials.

Curriculum: All of the experiences that individual learners have in a program of education, which is planned in terms of a framework of theory and research.

Learning Theory: Refers to the knowledge and interpretations of how learning and behavior occurs in human beings. There are two major families of learning theories. The first is the S-R conditioning family, and the second is the cognitive field family. The first is represented by Thorndyke's, Skinner's, and Gagne's theories of learning. The second is represented by Wortheimer, Piaget, and Bruner.

Human Development: Refers to a way of approaching curriculum development from a point of view based on knowledge of child and adolescent biological growth and mental development.

Nature of Knowledge: Refers to the thought that knowledge is an organized body of facts and concepts which are related in some fashion, and have structure. This organized fusion of knowledge is referred to by scholars as

facts, concepts, and generalizations are presented to the learner in a systematic way.

Delimination of the Study

This study is delimited by:

1. The development of boys education; discussion of girls education is included only to the extent that it is relevant for understanding boys education.

2. The development of public schools; discussion of private education is included only to the extent that it is relevant for understanding public education.

3. The development since 1930; discussion of the pre-1930 is included only to the extent that it is relevant for understanding the post-1930 period.

4. The development of the academic secondary school; discussion of non-academic, technical high schools is included only to the extent that it is relevant to the understanding of the academic school.

Data Gathering

In this study the descriptive/historical methods of investigation were employed. Therefore, to fulfil the purpose of this study, sources were sought from:

1. Recent, as well as old, reports on education published by the Ministry of Education, along with books, periodicals, local newspapers and official government documents, both in Arabic and English, were considered.

2. Special attention was given to studies and reports on education reforms in Saudi Arabia published by UNESCO educational agencies in the United States. Also considered were the contributions of many Western educators who have undertaken scholarly studies of the secondary school's curriculum reforms since the beginning of the twentieth century.

3. Charts, figures, and statistics related to the study were included.

The Organization of the Study

This study was organized into six chapters. In the first chapter the nature, scope, and design of the study are defined. Chapter Two is a review of literature and related studies in Saudi Arabia. Chapter Three deals mainly with the historical development of the educational system, emphasizing the development of secondary education. Chapter Four focuses on the administrative structure and control of education, curriculum planning, and structure of the educational system. Chapter Five traces the changes that occurred in the secondary school program of studies, teaching methods, and system of examinations. The final chapter includes the summary, findings, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RELATED STUDIES

"The Arabs," El-koussy wrote, "have passed from an active position to a limited borrowing, to toleration in innovation, and finally to avid and conscious adoption of Western ideas."[1] Within this context, it was most appropriate to review the available literature concerning two periods in order that it might serve as a basis for this study: (1) The "active position" of the Arabs in relation to their "educational ideals" in what has been referred to as the "Golden Age Period (750-1400AD)" and, (2) The "conscious adoption of Western ideas" period, in relation to the results of the Arab educational conferences during the second half of the twentieth century as a basis for educational development in general and curriculum development in particular.

Educational Ideals of the Golden Age Period (750-1400AD)

Educational ideals of the Arabs of the Middle East (in the indicated period) were developed in the frame of learning theory on which the aims and objectives of their

---

[1]Matta Akrawi, A. El-koussy, "Recent Trends in Arab Education," International Review of Education, vol. 17, 1971, p. 181.

education (curriculum) was based. These ideals were theoretically formulated, not organized, and have never been tested. However, they were a reflection of their respective religion, tradition and environmental conditions. Tibawi wrote:

> The essence of Muslim education is slated in the divine revelation in the Koran, and is restated in greater detail in the traditions of the prophet Muhammad. It took more than two centuries of practice for still more detailed exposition of theory to be formulated. Most of the formulations were necessarily close to the first principles laid down in the divine revelation, but some of them were designed partly to rationalize innovations. [2]

Within this context, the aim of Muslim education during this long period was stated as follows:

> 1. The Religious aims, based on: (a) The Qur'an as source of knowledge (b) Spiritual foundation of education (c) Dependence upon God (d) Sectarian morals (e) Subordination of secular subjects to religion (f) Equality of all men before God and man.
> 2. Secular aims, based on: (a) An education open to all on equal terms, limited only by ability and interest (b) Pursuit of knowledge, as the revelation of nature of God (c) Guidance and teaching as essential to promote (initiate) knowledge and education, and (d) The importance of education as suggested by Muslim tradition, attributed to prophet Mohammad, who said, "the best among you are not those who neglect this world for the other, or the other world for this, but the one who works for both together."[3]

These aims were expressed by Arab educators and philosophers in their educational views on learning and knowledge, teaching and teaching methods, classification of

---

[2] L.A. Tibawi Islamic Education: Its Tradition and Modernization into the Arab National Systems. (New York: Crane, Russak and Company, Inc.), 1972, p. 35.

[3] M. Nakosteen, History of Islamic Origins of Western Education. (Colorado: University of Colorado Press, 1964), p. 41.

knowledge, and making education a source of earning a living (vocational education).

Views on Learning and Knowledge

Education was propogated slowly by virtue of the encouragement of the prophet Mohammad (570-632AD) and by virtue of the Qur'an (the Koran, the holy book). The prophet regarded education as both a right and duty of every individual regardless of race, sex, wealth, or poverty. He instructed his followers that: The quest for learning is a duty incumbent upon every Moslem male or female. The prophet also views knowledge as a means to:

> . . . enable its possessor to distinguish right from wrong; it lights the way to heaven; it is our friend in the desert, our society in solitude, our companion when friendless; it guides us to happiness, it sustains us in misery.

The prophet's emphasis upon the value of knowledge laid the foundation for the Arab cultural and educational movement which was to enrich all mankind, for he inspired Arab scholars to search the world for knowledge; "seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave" and "seek knowledge even in China." [4]

During the days of the prophet and the centuries followed (750-1400AD), Muslim philosophers (Al-Gazzali, Ibn-Khaldun, among others) assimilated their educational system not only in consideration of those branches of learning

---

[4]The prophet's saying are collected in a text referred to as the "Hadith."

which were related to religion, but to the best of classical cultures, and improved them.

Briffault points out that the method of scientific research began with Muslims:

> The Greeks systematized, generalized, and theorized, but the patient ways of investigation, the accumulation of positive knowledge, the minute method of science, detailed and prolonged observation, experimental inquiry, were altogether alien to the Greek temperament . . . What we call science arose in Europe as a result of a new spirit of inquiry, of new methods of investigation, of the development of mathematics in a form unknown to the Greeks. That spirit and those methods were introduced into the European world by the Muslims. [5]

Al-Ghazzali (1058-1111) refuted the idea that the imparting of knowledge was the object of education and emphasized the necessity of stimulating the moral consciousness of students. He was the first author in Islam according to Hitti "to bring the problems of education into organic relation with a profound ethical system." [6] This certainly is apparent in his writing when he discussed the process of learning. He wrote that:

> Knowledge exists potentially in the human soul like a seed in the soil, by learning, the potential becomes actual. [7]

Tibawi shows clearly in Al-Ghazzali's system that there are two distinctions in the process of learning acquisition: actual application and divine aspiration. He,

---

[5] R. Briffault, The Making of Humanity (New York: Macmillan Company) 1919, p. 185.

[6] P.K. Hitti, History of the Arabs, (London: Macmillan & Co. Ltd.) 1960.

[7] L. A. Tibawi, op. cit., p. 40.

therefore, emphasized two sources of knowledge, revelation and reason. Tibawi wrote:

> Al-Ghazzali's system is so balanced that its preoccupation with things divine and with mystical experience leave room for rational thinking, logical deduction and empirical observation.[8]

Ibn-Khaldun (1332-1406), famous for his prolegomena (Mugaddima) to this universal history, emphasized the vital importance of "experience." He urged that the human soul should not be contented with individual experience, but must learn from the total experience of humanity as a whole, by studying it and criticizing it. [9]

Ibn-Khaldun began with the first principles suggesting that,

> . . .education is a social phenomenon and teaching is one of the social crafts; man is a social animal and his prosecution of learning is conditioned by the nature of the material, intellectual and spiritual forces of the civilization in which he lives.[10]

Ibn-Khaldun, like Al-Ghazzali before him, managed to be original within the Islamic culture. He saw that learning and education can only flourish and succeed in a civilized society. He stated that:

> Man is distinguished from animals by a capacity to reason. His reason guides him to make a living, to cooperate with other members of his society and to accept what God has revealed through His prophets for

---

[8]Ibid., p. 41.

[9]D. Saliba and G. Tomeh "Islam, the Great Tradition" in the Yearbook of Education: Education and philosophy, (London: Evans Brothers, Ltd.,) 1957 p. 71.

[10]L.A. Tibawi, op. cit., p. 42.

man's welfare in this world and the next. Man is therefore a reasoning animal, and reasoning is the foundation of all learning. [11]

Views on Teaching and Teaching Methods

Although teaching as a profession was encouraged and rewarded by the prophet and scholars, it was regarded by the whole society, now and then, as an unprofitable (profession) and of low status socially. The most undesirable and common views of this profession were that of the teacher's foolishness and small mindedness: transition "more foolish than a kuttab (elementary school) teacher" and "how could intelligence and wisdom be found in one who rotates between infant and a woman." [12]

However, a number of educated scholars and philosophers defended such a profession. Al-Jahiz (AD 869) in the defense of the teacher stated:

> There are, in my view, two classes of teachers: men who raised themselves above teaching the children of the common people to specialize in teaching those of the nobility, and men who raised themselves above teaching the children of the nobility to devote themselves to teaching princes who would succeed to the caliphate. . . . The unfavourable views of teachers cannot apply to either class. It cannot even apply to all teachers in village Kuttabs, for they are like any other class of men; they include the superior and the inferior. [13]

---

[11] Ibn-Khaldun, Al-Mugaddima, Translated from Arabic by F. Rosenthal (New York, Bollingen Foundation 1958) in 3 vol., vol. 2, p. 411, L.A. Tibawi, op. cit., p. 42.

[12] I. Goldziher, "Muslim Education", Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics, vol. 5, p. 203.

[13] Al-Jahiz: Al-Bayan Wal-Tabyin, vol. 2, p. 139. L. A. Tibawi, op. cit., p. 36.

Ibn Suhnun's argument about the essentiality of material reward for the teacher even on teaching the Qur'an is instructive. He wrote:

> The community cannot do without a ruler for upholding justice lest transgression prevails, without sale and purchase of copies of the Qur'an lest its diffusion diminishes, or without teachers to instruct the children against payment lest the people remain illiterate.[14]

The brother of purity (Ikhawan as-safa) quoted in defense of the teaching profession:

> Know, oh brother, that your teacher is the begetter of your soul just as your father is the begetter of your body. Your father gave you physical form, but your teacher gives you a spiritual one. Your teacher nourishes your soul with learning and wisdom and guides it to attain everlasting bliss.[15]

Teaching methods and the ways the young should be taught occupied much concern for Arab philosophers and educators of this period. Al-Ghazzali, started by perceiving the infant mind as "tabula raza," susceptive to objective impressions.[16] He urges parents and teachers to have solemn responsibility for the principles for which they may stamp permanently upon the young soul. He wrote:

> The youngster may be an ideal citizen if he is educated well and may be a harmful person if he is ill-trained or neglected. . . The attempt to teach ill-qualified person is as unjust as to prevent the well qualified from learning.[17]

---

[14]Ibn Suhnun, Adab Al-Muallimim (teaching good grammar), L. A. Tibawi, op. cit., p. 37.

[15]L. A. Tibawi, op. cit., p. 39.

[16]I. Goldziher, op. cit., p. 204.

[17]Nakosteen, op. cit., p. 95.

Al-Ghazzali, however, formulated a set of rules to govern the relationships between pupils and teacher, although humanity and equity must be present. He instructed teachers to:

> 1. Have sympathy with his students and to treat them as if they were his own children;
> 2. Follow the example of the Prophet and seek no remuneration;
> 3. Be perfectly honest with the students and prevent them from presenting themselves as candidates before they are worthy;
> 4. Exhort them and rebuke them for misconduct; and
> 5. Guard against the teaching of matter which is beyond the comprehension of the student.[18]

Ibn Al-Arabi (AD 1148) who expounded his educational ideas in a work entitled Maragi Al-Zulfa (stages of approach, i.e., to God) advocated the essentiality of games and hours of recreation for children. He pleaded that:

> If a child is kept from play, and forced to work at his tasks without intermission, his spirit will be depressed; his power of thought and his freshness of mind will be destroyed; he will become sick of study and his life will be overclouded, so that he will try all possible shifts to evade his lessons.[19]

Al-Ghazzali in the same manner urges emphatically on the evil of overpressure. He wrote:

> After school the pupil must be allowed to play for recreation but not to the degree of exhaustion. To prevent play and to insist on continuous study leads to dullness in the heart, diminution in intelligence and unhappiness.[20]

---

[18] K. A. Totah, The Contributions of the Arabs to Education (New York: Teacher College Press, Columbia University, 1926) p. 63.

[19] I. Goldziher, op. cit., p. 206.

[20] L. A. Tibawi, op. cit., p. 41.

Ibn-Khaldun, advocated gradual imparting of knowledge according to the capacity of the learner. He asserted that the teaching of scientific subjects to the learner was:

> ". . .effective only when it proceeds gradually and little by little." He added, "A good and necessary method and approach in instruction is not to expose the student to two disciplines at the same time, since he has to divide his attention and is diverted from each of them by his attempt to understand the other. Thus, he will consider both of them obscure and difficult, and be unsuccessful in both of them."[21]

Although, Ibn-Khaldun's main concern was students of higher learning, it was interesting to note that he also has a valuable view concerning elementary education up to the age of adolescence. He, for example, advocates the gentle treatment of youngsters and guards against corporal punishment. He believed that "severe punishment" in the course of instruction does harm to a student. He also asserted that if punishment becomes severe, thenthe learner's "souls become too indolent to acquire the virtues of good character qualities." "Thus," he added, "they fall short of their potentialities and do not reach the limit of their humanity. As a result, they revert to the stage of the lowest of the low."[22]

In his view of the curriculum, and the order of subjects to be taught, though he was skeptical, he commended and quoted an Andalusian student of Al-Ghazzali that poetry

---

[21]Ibn Khaldun, op. cit., vol. 3, p. 292.

[22]Ibid., p. 305.

and the Arabic language should be taught first. From this, the student should go on to mathematics, until he knows its basic forms. He should then go on to the study of the Qur'an, because with his previous preparation it will be easy for him. Although he believes this is a good approach, he argues that accepted custom is not favorable to it and custom has greater power over conditions.[23]

Classification of Knowledge

The acquisition of knowledge was considered an essential in the part of the livelihood of every society of this era and so was its classification. Philosophers and scientists each classified knowledge as they saw fit in their time and each modified his own as he perceived it. For example, Al-Farabi (died 950) developed one of the most influential early classifications to be later developed with minor changes by Avicenna (Ibn-Sina, 980-1037). Al-Ghazzali and Averroes (Ibn-Rushed, 1126-1198) followed at a later date the same path.[24] However, with the development of knowledge and crystallization of Islamic civilization, the most complete and detailed description and classification of knowledge was presented by Al-Ghazzali and Ibn-Khaldun.

To Al-Ghazzali, knowledge has three degrees:

a) Common-sense knowledge, restricted by undisciplined sense-experience and dependent upon external authority.
b) Mystical knowledge, which accrues only after a long

---

[23]Ibid., p. 304.

[24]Washington Irving, Mohemet and his Successors (Madison Wisc: University of Wisconsin Press, 1970).

period of training and ends in a vision of the ultimate truth. This stage cannot be reached by reason but through illumination only.
c) Scientific knowledge, which does not except anything as valid except that which is established by proofs. This stage is based on seven principles or conditions: (1) stimulation of the research; (2) advancement of applied sciences and extensive application of them; (3) application of scientific arts; (4) development of laboratory and experimental pursuits; (5) encouragement of arts and crafts; (6) encouragement of individual initiative and academic freedom for both teacher and student; and (7) attainment of excellence to produce great men of learning and leaders in public affairs.[25]

Ibn-Khaldun classified knowledge into two different kinds. The first was comprised of the philosophical sciences and the second was comprised of the traditional and conventional sciences. The philosophical sciences according to Ibn-Khaldun were:

> . . .the ones with which man can become acquainted through the very nature of his ability to think and to whose objects, problems, arguments, and methods of instruction he is guided by his human perceptions, so that he is made aware of the distinction between what is correct and what is wrong in them by his own speculation and research, in as much as he is a thinking human being . . . .[26]

The intellectual sciences, according to him, were natural to man. They were not restricted to any particular nation or group. They were studied by all groups who are equally qualified to learn them and to do research about them. These sciences were comprised of:

> a) Logic--this is a science protecting the mind from error in the process of evaluating the unknown facts that one wants to know from the available, known facts.

---

[25] Nakosteen, op. cit., p. 41-42, and Saliba and Tomeh, op. cit., p. 71.

[26] Ibn-Khaldun, op. cit., vol. 2, pp. 111-112.

b) Physics--a study of the elemental substances perceivable by the senses, namely, the minerals, the plants, and the animals, which are created from the heavenly bodies, natural motion and the soul from which the motion is originated, etc.

c) Metaphysics--a study of spiritual matters.

d) Mathematical Sciences--a study of geometry, arithmetic, music, and astronomy.[27]

The traditional and conventional sciences according to him:

> . . .depend upon information based on the authority of the given religious law. There is no place for the intellect in them, save that the intellect may be used in connection with them to relate problems of detail with basic principles. Particulars that constantly come into being are not included in the general tradition by the mere fact of its existence. Therefore, they need to be related (to the general principles) by some kind of analogical reasoning. However, such analogical reasoning is derived from the (traditional) information, while the character of the basic principle, which is traditional, remains valid (unchanged). Thus, analogical reasoning of this type reverts to being traditional (itself), because it is derived from it.[28]

Learning as a Source of Making a Living

As was shown earlier, teaching professions should be rewarded by money, thus the view that learning is a source for making a better living. Al-Namari stated bluntly that learning brings money.[29] Ibn-Sina (Avicenna) asserted that adolescence should be directed for a definite vocation. In that, he stated:

> When the boy has completed his Qur'an and has mastered the fundamentals of the Arabic language, his education should be focused on his future calling. This is to be

---

[27]Ibid., vol. 3, pp. 111-112.

[28]Ibid., vol. 2, pp. 436-437.

[29]K. Totah, "The Contribution of the Arabs to Education," op. cit., p. 89.

conditioned, however, by the capacity of the lad; for he is to follow that profession for which he is naturally fitted and should not be guided by his whims.[30]

As for learned men, it was said by the prophet that, "One of those who will suffer most in the day of judgment would be a learned man whose learning is not utilized." The great jurist, Abu Hanifa (700-767) has emphasized that learning has no other function but to be used.[31]

The Arab State Educational Reform Movement

Tradition which has dominated the Arab world has been coupled with an undesirable experience of colonization by foreign powers. Despite these complex political and historical events, the Arab of the Middle East entered the twentieth century with a high rate of illiteracy. Education was available only to "the elite" and severe underdevelopment was the result. Education on one hand was perceived as the "main vessel" of a better future, and the "passport" to development and progress, and on the other hand, curriculum still reflected the traditional cultural, social and political development of the Arab society.

Wheeler set forth the educational problems of the Arab world during and after the first half of the twentieth century in an "Axis of Cleavage"[32] (see fig. 1).

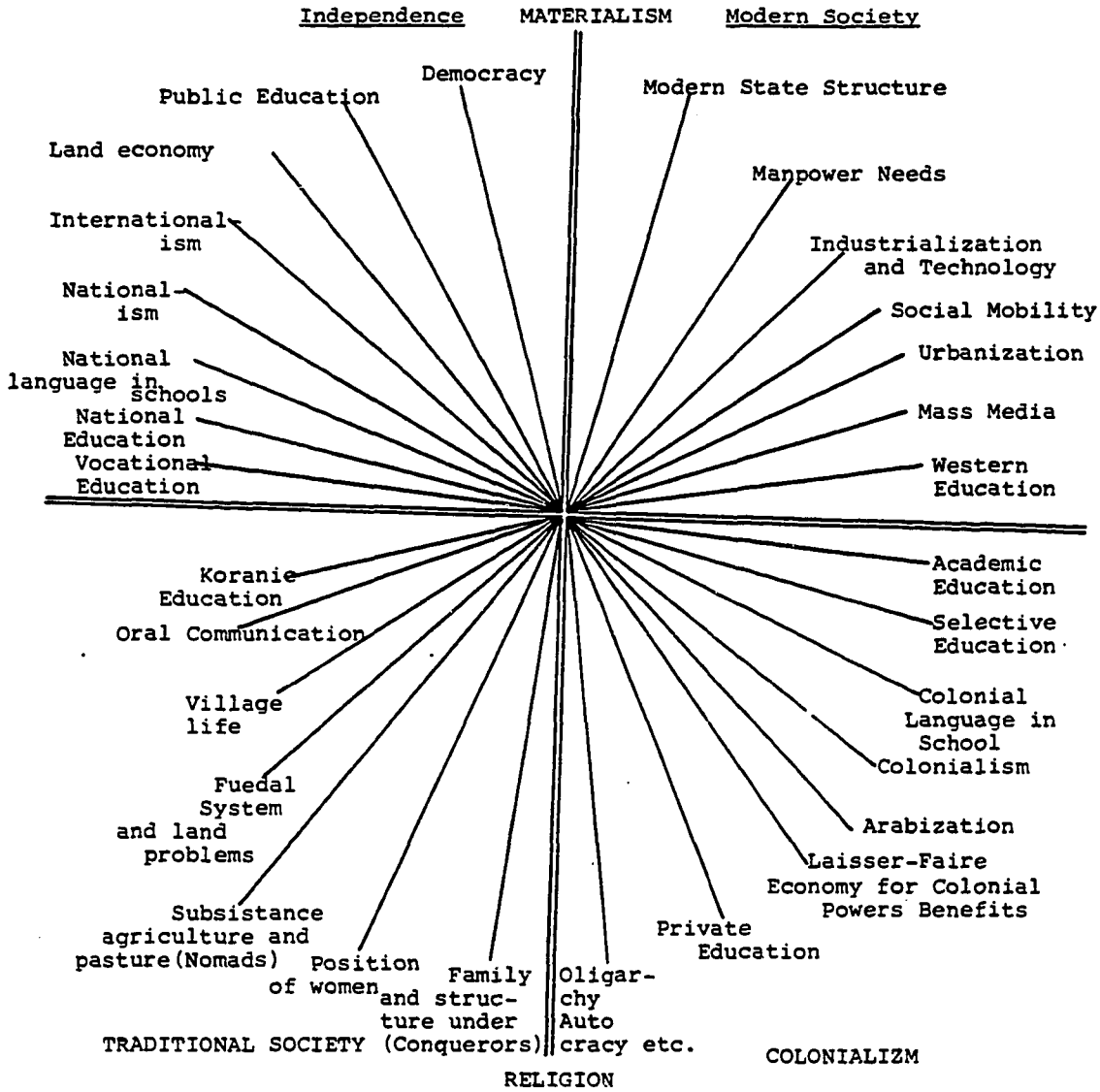
---

[30]Al-Machrig, vol. 5 (1903) and vol. 9 (1906), Beirut, p. 90.

[31]Ibid., p. 90.

[32]D. Wheeler, "Education Problems of Arab Countries," International Review of Education, vol. 13, 3, 1966. p. 301.

Figure 1



1) An "axis of cleavage" can be thought of as a social or cultural area where opposed value structures suggest the possiblity of undue tension, conflict, or social strain.

The radial lines indicate transformations or socio-cultural changes that are in process and the ensuing conflicts, potential or actual, that are relevant to education and the promotion of educational systems. Some of the questions that arise are more closely related to the transition from colonial status to independent nationhood, e.g., what are the effects of a policy of "arabization," to what extent can educational orientation be changed from "academic" to vocational, where does education fit into the national planning and to what stage can it be made universal. Others relate to the transition from traditional societies to more complex, industrialized one, e.g., the effects of technology and the mass media, increasing urbanization, the man power needs of the community, and the growth of the apparatus of the modern state. While they are separated in order to present a schema, they must be considered as interdependent and not discrete.

D. Wheeler, "Educational problem of Arab Countries" International Review of Education vd. 12 No3 1966 p. 301.

It was against this background that the Arab leaders created "the League of the Arab States"[33] in 1945. The cultural agreement between the Arab States in 1946 has led to the creation of the Directorate of Culture at the Secretariat of the League. The agreement aimed at cooperaton in educational fields by integrating the educational systems in the Arab countries and the re-creation of an Arab culture based on the heritage of the Arabs and enriched by the achievement of knowledge.

Among the specific provisions of this agreement were the following:

> (1) An increased exchange of teachers, technicians, and students between the member states; (2) The promotion of cultural and educational conferences; (3) The establishment of educational and research institutions; (4) The encouragement of the translation of foreign works into Arabic; (5) The standardization of scientific terms in Arabic; (6) The standardization of the curricula in elementary and secondary schools, and the standardization of the requirements for higher degrees.[34]

The execution of this ambitious program has been entrusted to the Directorate of Culture, which directed and organized a number of meetings and seminars during the

---

[33]The League of Arab States referred to as The Arab League was established by a covenant signed in March 1945 by a representative from Egypt, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, and Yemen. Other states joined after achieving their independence during the 1950's and 1960's. The league is a regional organization within the framework of the United Nations and has played an important role in strengthening and coordinating the economic, cultural, and political policies between the members.

[34]The Arab Information Center, The Arab League: Its Origin, Purpose, Structure and Activities (New York: 1955), Information Paper No. 1, p. 20.

1950's; the most important of which was the conference held in Cairo in 1953. At the Ministerial level, however, four conferences were held during the last two decades for this purpose--notably, Lebanon (1960), Libya (1966), Morocco (1970), and the last one in the United Arab Emirates (1977).

The Cairo (1954) conference was certainly a point of departure on which educators in the Arab world had come together to define their educational problems and find a solution to them. As a first step, the conference adopted plans uniting the structure of the school system from its diverse structure to a 6-3-3-4 system; a common core of subjects which would strengthen the bond of unity between the Arab nations (i.e., religious instruction, the teaching of classic Arabic, and the history and geography of the Arab world, paying particular attention to the cultural, social, economic, and political relations which link the Arab people together); a revision of the tradional academic secondary school curriculum that had not been either Arab or European, but contains traditionally approved elements from both cultures.[35]

The conference ended in formulating a new philosophy of education fora new Arab world, among which were the following:

> (1) We believe that the Arab peoples in their different countries constitutes a national and cultural unity in

---

[35]D. Rugh, "New Trends in Arab Education," Education vol. 76, No. 10, 1956, p. 596. UNESCO, Compulsory Education in the Arab State, (Netherlands: Drukker's Holland, 1956) p. 53.

view of their common language, history, civilization, culture and aspirations. . . and that they have a sacred mission to perform: the overall development of the Arab nation in the social, educational, political and economic fields. They also have a humanitarian mission: cooperation with all other nations. One of the most important aims of Arab education is to foster the faith of the Arab youth in such unity.

(2) We believe that the Arab nation is passing through a stage of transition involving a revival in all fields. This awakening has, in varying dgrees according to each Arab country, given rise to different forms of anxiety and confusion which call for a reconsideration and careful examination of our present conditions, with a view to determining the main principles on which our renaissance should be based and to expressing the fundamentals of a national philosophy which would enable us to reorganize our life in general and our system of education in particular.

(3) We believe that this new life requires that the Arab nation should build its new structure on new democratic bases and formulate its social, economic and educational policies in the light of the interest of the masses. This revival should form the general basis of our educational efforts.

(4) We believe that education, which is the process of creating sound mental, emotional and practical attitudes towards the world and the community, is a useful method to reform the individual and the group and to prepare the youth for the new life, by training individuals to become productive citizens.

(14) We believe that our new life requires first the enforcement of free compulsory education, which is the right of every citizen, and that it also requires that the individual be provided with as many opportunites as possible to receive post-elementary education, on the sole basis of his aptitudes and regardless of his social or financial conditions. It further requires that increasing attention be paid to the introduction of different types of training in the secondary cycle, and that efficient personnel, which are now lacking in the community, be provided in order to train youth properly in all fields.

(15) We believe that the teacher's task is of primary importance in the building up of the Arab nations. Therefore it is necessary to encourage the cream of our youth who show a gift for the teaching profession to enlist in this worthy profession. The preparation of teachers is of primary importance and therefore should be the first aim of the Arab nations. Colleges should be opened for the training of teachers who possess adequate educational qualifications and the mental, moral, psychological and social dispositions required for the proper education of the youth.

(16) We believe that it would be well for the Arab peoples to give teachers a financial and social standing corresponding to the importance of their task, which is to prepare the future generations. We also believe that it is necessary to provide teachers with an opportunity to raise their educational and technical standards.
(17) We believe that the teachers, forming as they do a special class of the population, should undertake through their associations to lay down their own national and professional constitution.
(19) We believe that women play a very important role in the education of Arab youth, especially in the first stage.
(22) We believe that the university represents the living conscience of the nation, responds to its needs and prepares efficient men, who take the lead in the different walks of life.[36]

The decade of the 1960's brought with it the urgent need for educational planning in the Arab countries. It was during the 1960 conference held in Beirut, Lebanon, for the Arab Ministers of Education, under the auspices of UNESCO, that a report was drafted which stated:

> There are still many Arab countries which have not started to plan their educational development. Some ministeries of education. . .have elaborated their plans and have achieved satisfactory results. It remains, however, abundantly clear that the question of planning should be given very serious thought by the majority of the Arab Ministers of Education.[37]

The (1966) conference held in Tripoli, Libya confirmed and reaffirmed the vital importance of education planning methods in the Arab State as well as of the work done by UNESCO and by Arab State Center for the Advance Training of Educational Personnel in developing knowledge in

---

[36]D. Rugh, op. cit., pp 599-600.

[37]UNESCO, "Report on the Educational Needs of the Arab State," quoted in M. El-Ghannam, Education in the Arab Region viewed from 1970, Marrakesh Conference, Education Studies and Documents, 1 (Paris: UNESCO, 1971) p. 26.

this branch of study. It invited the Arab State to undertake efforts in the fields.

Although the two conferences held during the 1960's were no less important than the Marrakesh Conference (1970), the latter was considered as a new departure in not only Arab life, but also in educational development as well:

> . . .the Third Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Ministers Responsible for Economic Planning in the Arab States, which took place in Marrakesh in January 1970, was considered an augury in as far as the year had already been declared "International Education Year." It was further considered a landmark in Arab life and education, since 1970 also marked the beginning of the Second Development Decade which the United Nations hoped would see the developing countries reach a new stage of social and economic development with higher targets and with more assistance from those countries which had already achieved development.[38]

According to the report of an observer, the participants came to the conference and left it with strong feelings that the coming decade (1970's) would be more crucial and critical than any previous periods and passed the following resolution:

> Universal compulsory education for every Arab child of primary shcool age should be achieved by 1980 with the possibility of extending it beyond six years of schooling.
>
> Wider educational opportunites should be provided at the second and third levels cf education, in conformity with the principles of justice and democracy and as a necessity for the creation of a modern Arab society.
>
> A proper balance should be sought in the general development of education, between general and vocational and technical education, between rural and urban education, between theoretical teaching and practical instruction, between the humanities and science subjects, and between school and out-of-school activities.

---

[38]Ibid., p. 30.

Particular attention shold be paid to the education of the under-privileged (culturally) and to handicapped as well as to gifted children.

The quality of education should be emphasized, with due attention to educational research and experimentation.

New technological methods and equipment should be used to a greater extent and on a wider scale. Science and technology should be emphasized at all levels and in different types of education without neglect to human values and the Arab cultural heritage.

Efforts on behalf of adult education and literacy based on the new concepts of "functional literacy" and "life-long education" and conducted by modern methods and techniques should be reinforced and extended as an important and integral part of national plans for educational development.

Scientific planning should be developed with more integration and a closer symbiotic relationship between educational and economic development and with co-operation among Arab States to co-ordinate and improve their plans.

Closer co-operation should be established on the national and international level for educational development in the region, with special attention to the education of the children of the Arab people of Palestine.[39]

The last conference was held in Abu-Dhabi, United Arab Emirates, in 1977. Its premise was the necessity for Democratization of Education in the Arab world. In its discussions, the conference emphasized modernization and decentralization of educational administration. The development of planning concepts included the involvement and participation of all concerned, methods and techniques, the infrastructures of educational research and innovation, the training of educational personnel and the financing of education. The conference examined these topics and called for the development and implementation of new strategies in these fields. Among them were the following:

---

[39]Ibid., p. 30.

. . .school administrators should be recruited among educators and given special training in management. In running the school, they should be given opportunities to make educational choices and to associate colleagues, parents and, when appropriate, pupils in their decisions.

Stress should be laid on the decentralization of decisions affecting management and control, which were at present taken a at central level. . .

Educational planning should be an integral part of, and should be in harmony with, the national plan for social and economic development. . .

. . .community participation in planning was a manifestation of the effort to move toward the democratization of education.

The need for a complete cycle of planning, implementation, follow-up and evaluation was stressed.

The need for further collaboration between research institutions and educational bodies (including various categories of teachers) was stressed.

Teachers should receive training in curriculum development considered as a continuous process; in this connection, the curriculum should be seen as encompassing educational aims, content, methods of teaching and evaluation; recognition should be given to the interdisciplinary nature of curriculum content and the need for teachers of the various subjects to work as a team; the teachers should be trained to be an agent of change; he or she should be trained to become an active social worker and a promoter of community development projects; full use should be made of school facilities as offering opportunities for continuous professional growth (library, school broadcasting, regular contact with parents, etc.).

It was recommended that an Arab educational development fund should be established to which all Arab states would contribute, each according to its financial resources.[40]

ALESCO[41] reported recently on the effects of these provisions that resulted from the ministers' conference. One would be likely to agree that there was a noble purpose

---

[40]UNESCO, Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Arab States Held in Abu-Dhabi, 7-14, November 1977 (Paris: UNESCO, 1978) pp. 21-24.

[41]ALESCO (The Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization) is made up of specializing agencies concerned with education, culture and science. It was

expressed toward educational development in general, and in regard to school curriculum in particular. In its report ALESCO observed the following:

> Educational systems in the Arab states began to be considered on a regional basis. . .It now has been standardized to 12 years for pre-university education, and 4, 5, or 6 years for university education, depending on specialization. The educational ladder before university is 6-3-3 in most countries; 4-4-4 or 6-3-4 in special cases. Science is taught to students at all levels, except for some students who are exempt in their last two years of high school.
>
> Another factor which hastened curriculum development was the emergence of some institutions developed for this purpose. Science centers, teacher colleges, and some specialized agencies started activating interest in developing science educaton.
>
> Another current and very significant happening was the formation of the Arab Association of Scientists, Chemists, Physicists, Biologists, and Mathematicians. Among their objectives is the promotion of the teaching of the sciences.[42]

The mid-sixties witnessed a strong movement and genuine interest in the Arab States to improve science and mathematics education. The major development in the field of science is reported by ALESCO:

> The biology project started in 1972. This project not only changed the curriculum pattern, but also improved the whole dynamics of biology education. The theme of the curriculum developed by ALECSO from grades 10-12 is: Living Organisms--emphasizing environmental concepts for the tenth grade, unity and diversity for eleventh, and perpetuation of life for grade 12. Many countries adopted this material for all schools. Others are still experimenting with it.

---

established in 1970. It started its activities in development of the science education in 1972. The main task of ALESCO is to aid and provide services to the whole area of the region in their development program in the areas of mathematics and the field of sciences.

[42]M. S. Selim,"Recent Development in Arab Science Education," International Science Education, vol. 62, No. 1, 1978, pp 122-123.

> The integrated science project for grades 7-9 was started in 1975. The designed curriculum is an integration of the sciences around an environmental theme of "Man and His Environment," starting with the direct environment for grade 7, natural resources and their utilization for grade 8, and the universe as an environment for grade 9.
>
> The physics project was started in 1976 for grades 10-12 in an effort to overcome the teaching of separate branches of physics.[43]

It is, however, true that major achievements in educational development have been observed in most Arab countries. Most of these provisions that resulted from these conferences and those reported by ALESCO are far from being achieved among the member states, because every member molded its educational system according to its tradition and political ideology; this is evidenced in Saudi Arabia. Dr. Al-Khawater, the present Minister of Education, has been quoted recently with respect to a joint Arab strategy in educational planning. He stated that:

> You cannot unify the curriculums and the plans in all Arab countries as it is not practically possible. Moreover, you cannot bind twenty-one countries with one bond for if you did so that means you have overlooked the social, political and geographical circumstances for this or that country. . .the strategy does exist and it is available for the application. This strategy is like a palm tree that gives fruit after a while. Each country grows within its potentialities.[44]

It is true, therefore, that there exists a vast chasm between theory and practice. This certainly is due to inadequate educational facilities, inadequate finances of

---

[43]Ibid., pp. 122-123.

[44]Al-Jazirah, (Local daily newspaper). No 2121, January 7, 1980, p. 4.

member states, attitudes of indifference and the devastation of the Arab-Israel conflict.

CHAPTER III

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The present education system in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is a result of various internal and external factors and influences which have forged and developed this tribal and nomadic nation over the years. The earliest education in the Arabian Peninsula coincided with the birth of Islam in the seventh century A.D. Education from this early period to the present was and is religiously oriented.

The history of the educational development is divided into four major periods: the Golden Age (750-1400), wherein devotion to and search for knowledge made the Middle East the preserve, if not the cradle, of civilizaton; the Wahhabi Period (1740-1900), in which, for the purposes of religious indoctrination and moral teaching, only basic reading and writing instruction prevailed; the Unification Period (1900-1953), which involved the copying of the Egyptian educational system; and the Modernization Period (1953 to the present) in which the Egyptian educational system gave way to the American system of education. This most recent period coincided with the lauching of the first and second five-year plans (1970-1980) for developing education. Although each period has its unique characteristics and educational problems, the overall impact

and influence of these historical eras shaping the present educational system, in general, and affecting curriculum reforms, in particular, are similar in many respects.

The Golden Age Period (750-1400)

Education in the Arabian Peninsula coincided with the birth of the Islamic religion in the seventh century A. D. Although no organized system of education existed at the time, the prophet had urged his followers to learn the rudiments of reading, writing, and the study of religion.[1] Furthermore, "A father," the prophet declared, "can confer upon his child no more valuable gift than a good education." He later stated that, "it is better that a man should secure an education for his child than that he bestow a sa' in charity."[2]

Education, therefore, at the time of the prophet and thereafter during this period, was characterized by these factors. First, education and religious knowledge were declared compulsory in the Muslim world; second, there was an insistence on free education; and third, education and Muslim teaching were conducted in a spirit which stimulated original thinking and personal investigation.[3] Furthermore, educational advancement not only concentrated on religious

---

[1]B. Dodge, Muslim Education in Medieval Times, (Washington D.C.:The Middle East Institute, 1962), p. 1.

[2]I. Goldziher, "Muslim Education," op. cit.,p. 198.

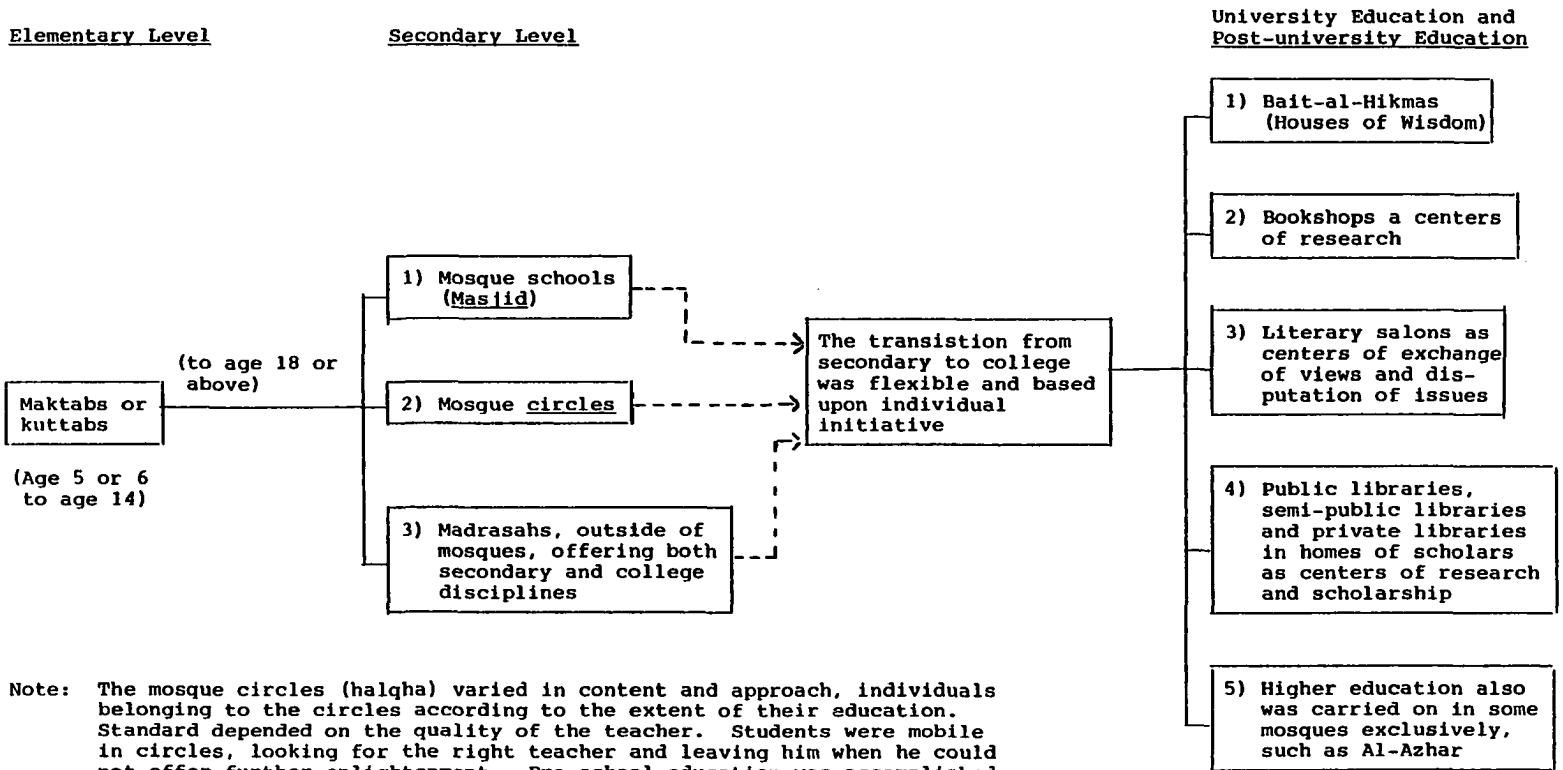
[3]K. Kh. Kinany, "Islamic School and University," Yearbook of Education (London: Evans Brothers Ltd., 1957), p. 334.

studies and the practical application of religious values in everyday life, but prose literature, art, poetry, history, geography, mathematics, natural sciences, and medicine were also emphasized.

Education in the Arabian Peninsula has developed in two lines, traditional and formal. Learning in the former type, the Qur'anic school, (pre-school) is religiously oriented and conducted in the home or the mosque (place of worship). The Qur'anic school is run by a religious leader called Figeh or Imam. The curriculum of the Qur'anic school is based on the Qur'an (the holy book) as the basic text, on the hadith (the sayings and doings of the prophet), and includes rudimentary Arabic language studies. The instruction has traditionally been primarily oral, with an emphasis on memorization.

Formal education was organized into two types of schooling, the kuttab (primary school), situated near or attached to the mosque, and the madrassa (school of higher learning) (see fig. 2). In the kuttab, instruction was limited to subject matter such as religion, the Arabic language and basic arithmetic. Although the kuttab has given way to the modern elementary school in the twentieth century, it is interesting to note that the pattern of similarity (i.e., the nature of the curriculum, the instruction method, and the image of the teacher) still exists along the lines of the one described by Hitti in his writing about education in this early period. He wrote:

Fig. 2 Organization of Muslim Education, 750-1400



Note: The mosque circles (halqha) varied in content and approach, individuals belonging to the circles according to the extent of their education. Standard depended on the quality of the teacher. Students were mobile in circles, looking for the right teacher and leaving him when he could not offer further enlightenment. Pre-school education was accomplished in the home, sometimes under private tutors or moral guardians. There was no formal pre-school organization.

Source: M. Nakostine, University of Islam Origins of Western Education, University of Colorado Press, 1964. (reorganized by the author for clarification)

> The child's education began at home. As soon as he could speak it was the father's duty to teach him "the word". . .La ilah illa-Allah (no god but Allah). When six years old the child was held responsible for ritual prayer. It was then that his formal education began.
>
> The elementary school (kuttab) was an adjunct of the mosque, if not the mosque itself. Its curriculum centered upon the Koran as a reading textbook... . Together with reading and penmanship the students were taught Arabic grammar, stories about the prophets--particularly hadiths relating to Muhammad--the elementary principles of arithmetic, and poems. . . throughout the whole curriculum memory work was specially recognized. . . .
>
> Girls were welcome to all the religious instruction in the lower grades of which their minds were capable, but there was no special desire to guide them further along the flowery and thorny path of knowledge. . . .The children of the wealthy had private tutors. . .who instructed them in religion, polite literature and the art of versification. Very commonly these tutors were of foreign extraction. . . .The teacher in the elementary school. . .came to occupy a rather low status socially. . . . A whole body of anecdotes in Arabic literature developed around the teacher as a dunce. . . .But the higher grade of teachers were on the whole highly respected.[4]

The place of the madrassa, or school of higher learning, in the system of education was one of leadership and eminence. Its purpose was to maintain the traditional roles enjoyed by the clergy, particularly that of teaching. The madrassa's curriculum covered three main branches of knowledge: a) grammer, language studies, and literature; b) theology and law, and c) philosophy and general (natural) science. Instruction at this high level of learning was to a certain extent free from the one-sidedness of theological teaching as it prevailed in the kuttab.[5]

---

[4]Philip K. Hitti, op. cit., p. 408-413.

[5]K.H. Totah, op. cit., pp. 48-57.

This arrangement was described by Nakosteen:

> The following methods of instruction prevailed in "medieval" Islam, though adaptions were made to meet the needs of different levels of instruction. Formal delivery of lecture with the lecturer squatting on a platform against a pillar and one or two circles (a circle within a circle) of students seated before him was the prevailing method in higher levels of instuction. The teacher read from a prepared manuscript or from a text, explaining the material, and allowed questions and discussion to follow the lecture. Students were encouraged to question the teacher's statements and even to differ with him provided they brought evidence to support their position.[6]

This type of institution and others like it in this glorious "Golden Age" of the Arabs has vanished, and the people of the area have never regained control of their treasure of learning. Szyliowicz sums it up in this fashion:

> The Middle East enjoyed a civilization culturally far superior to that of Western Europe. Altogether this civilization endured for about five hundred years, from the eighth to the thirteenth century, and witnessed intellectual, artistic, scientific, and cultural achievements that were to deeply influence world culture. Yet in the end this rich and complex culture became ossified, the high achievements in science, literature, and medicine, and the fine arts became dim memories, and pedantism and obscurantism replaced the thirst for knowledge and intellectual activity. Similarly, the educational system that once produced savants and scholars, statemen and administrators, has now become an agency for conservatism and reaction.[7]

The Wahhabi Period (1740-1900)

The Wahhabi movement began in the middle of the eighteenth century in the central part of the Arabian Peninsula (Najed). The movement was spearheaded by Mohammed

---

[6] M. Nakosteen, op. cit., p. 57.

[7] J.S. Szyliowicz, Education and Modernization in the Middle East (Ithaca: Cornell Univ. Press, 1973), p. 51.

Ibn Abdul-Wahhab and bears his name. This was a puritanical, reformist Muslim movement that basically originated in Syria, in which:

> . . .one of the earliest and strongest notes of protest against innovation was struck by a Syrian theologian in the fourteenth century. His battle cry was "Back to the Qur'an and Tradition!" He waged a relentless war against the speculative individualism of philosophers and mystics as well as against the compromises of the theologians in a supreme effort to re-establish formalism. His cause was ultimately taken up in the eighteenth century by the preacher Muhammed Ibn Abdul-Wahhab who hailed from Najed.[8]

The central part of the Arabian Peninsula (Najed), from a strictly religious point of view, was a battleground for sectarian animosities and feuds, which were one and all in opposition to the true spirit of Islam. Ibn Abdul-Wahhab, therefore, began to preach to the people to bring them back to the spirit of true and pure Islam, by rejecting all latter-day heresies and everything else contrary to the spirit of Islam. Meanwhile he enjoined upon the authorities enforcement of the Islamic penal code.[9]

The reform movement was not solely religious but contained social philosophy as well as political ideology. The movement's social aim was unity: "unity with God, and then unity of the people." Its political ideology was

---

[8]A. L. Tibawi, op. cit., p. 60.

[9]H. Wahbah, "Wahhabism in Arabia: Past and Present," Journal of the Central Asian Society, vol. 16, 1929, pp. 460-61. G. Rentz, "Wahhabism and Saudi Arabia," D. Hopwood (ed.), The Arabian Peninsula: Society and Politics (London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1972), pp. 54-66.

"obedience to the Iman."[10] The movement did not end with the death of its founder in 1792 but has been echoed by supporters and sympathizers of subsequent reformers, such as the House of Ibn Saud (the present ruling family of Saudi Arabia). The influence and the impact of this movement with its rigidity, strictness and simplicity is in evidence today.

The status of education in this period was very grim indeed. The founder instructed his followers not to send their children to any school other than the Qur'anic school. He was prone to repeat, "We, praise be to God, are followers, not innovators, in the school of Iman Ahmed b. Hanbal."[11] Saliba and Tomeh wrote:

> They insist that Muslims must stick to the Qur'an and. . .the prophet as the only source of valid knowledge; they prevent any scrutiny into the hidden meaning of the text and emphasize the duty of the Muslim to abide by the apparent meaning.[12]

As a result, the kuttabs which were in existence were reduced or restricted, when they were not abolished altogether. Moreover, the curriculum of the kuttab was screened to meet the basic principle of the movement's ideology. Therefore, instruction in the primary school was

---

[10]M. A. Zaid, "A Pragmatic Critique of Contemporary Arabian Civilization," Unpub. diss. (Norman: University of Oklahoma, 1972), p. 35.

[11]The founder of this school was Ahmad Ibn Hanbal (a Sunni) who became the champion of Islamic fundamentalism. He rejected consensus, analogy, private judgment, and , in fact, anything that was outside the letter of the Qur'an and hadith.

[12]D. Saliba, G.J. Tomeh, op. cit., p. 75.

limited to the memorizaton and recitation of the Qur'an hadith, figh (Islamic laws), and the performance of prayers and other religious rituals.

The Unification Period (1900-1953)

The ruling family of the present Kingdom has supported and encouraged the spread of the Wahhabi movement from its start in 1740. The alliance between the Saud family and leader of the movement, Ibn Abdul-Wahhab, was forged between victories and setbacks. In 1891 the Saud family was driven out of the central part of the Arabian Peninsula to the neighboring province of Kuwait as a result of their support of the Wahhabi movement. In exile, Ibn Saud reinforced himself with a handful of warriors and invaded the central part of the peninsula (Najed) which came under his rule in 1902. By the beginning of World War I, he invaded and conquered the eastern province. By 1925, he conquered the western province (Hijaz) or what was to become known as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.[13]

The Arabian Peninsula had the distinctive feature of two different societies before its unification in 1926: the tribal and nomadic life in the central and eastern provinces (Najed, Hasa) and the multicultural society in the western province (Hijaz), drawn from nearly all Muslim countries (in Africa, Asia, etc.). The latter group has lived primarily in the two holy cities of Mecca and Medina. Both societies

---

[13]A. Assah, Miracle of the Desert Kingdom (London: Johnson Publications Ltd., 1969) pp. 20-52.

have exhibited similar characteristics. Both have followed teachings of the Islamic faith. However, the former is more rigid and strict in beliefs than the latter, due to the influence of the Wahhabi movement.

The state of education in the two societies a decade before the Kingdom was formed has been described by Tibawi:

> Such educational facilities as existed in the two parts of the Kingdom before the First World War were a reflection of their respective administrative, religious and social conditions. Hijaz had, in addition to the traditional Muslim schools and the specialized religious circles in the mosques of the two holy cities, a rudimentary school system introduced by the Turks during the last decades of their rule. . .
>
> There were also a few private schools sponsored by individual benefactors such as al-Falah schools, or supported by the voluntary contributions of resident Muslim communities such as the Indians and Indonesians. These private and community schools, if only because they were in the cradle of Islam, stressed religion. Some of them added to their curriculum such modern subjects as history, geography, and mathematics.
>
> In Najed the educational facilities were governed by a more tribal and nomadic life as well as by the missionary fervor of the Wahhabi preachers who monopolized teaching.[14]

The existence of these schools in the western province not only contributed a great deal to overall education but also inspired widespread imitation throughout the Kingdom. This was the turning point from solely religious instruction to a secular-religious education.

The secular-religious system of education began in 1926 with the establishment of the General Directorate of

---

[14]A. L. Tibawi, op. cit., p. 178.

Education in the western province.[15] The General Directorate was solely responsible for opening schools, setting up a suitable curriculum and supervising these schools as stated in Article 23 of the 1926 Constitution of the Kingdom:

> Affairs of public instruction mean the diffusion of learning, skills, and art; the opening of schools (primary, and secondary); the scrupulous promotion of scientific (religious) institutions; and the special case to be accorded to the principles of true religion throughout the kingdom.[16]

With the power vested in him, the Director General began to establish new schools and attempted to incorporate changes into the predominantly religion-oriented curriculum. However, the role that the directorate had assumed at the time was conditioned in part by the Saudi environment and its long history. The directorate had to deal with a number of obstacles that have arisen since its establishment.

The first was opposition from the conservative clergy, who viewed the director General's effort to develop the curriculum not only as a threat in the form of transplanted Western ideas, values, and techniques within their own traditional Islamic social milieu, but also in their belief that instruction in modern science and its branches is against the teaching of Islam and should be

---

[15] K. G. Heath, Ministries of Education: Their Function and Organization (Washington D.C.: United States Printing Office, 1961), U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Bulletin No. 21, p. 525.

[16] Ibid., p. 525.

resisted.[17] This matter disturbed the educational leaders, and they took their case to the King for resolution. The Director General of Education, Hafiz Whabat, was quoted by Assah in regard to this matter:

> Early in June, 1927 there was a big stir among the Ulema (religious leaders) who met at Mecca in protest against the Directorate General. . .because it had included among its school programmes the teaching of Drawing, Foreign languages, and Geography. . . .They claimed that drawing is the making of pictures and pictures are absolutely forbidden. As for Foreign Languages, they constitute a mens of learning the beliefs of the infidels, and their corrupt science, which is dangerous to our beliefs and the morals of our children. Geography teaches that the earth is round and that it moves, and discusses the stars in the manner adopted by the Greek philosophers and condemned by our learned ancestors.[18]

The matter, however, was settled by the King when he rejected their opinion on the ground that they did not have any religious proof which could be relied on. The impact of such a conservative belief not only hampered the development of the educational system, but its influence has lingered in the 1950's, 60s and 70s, creating a wide gulf between Westernized and non-Westernized educated Saudi officials and the conservative element of the society.

This opposition toward science and related fields by the religious leader is not new. They certainly have no foundation between the finding of sciences and the apparent meaning of religious tests. Muslim theologians warned against this confusion and took a firm but interesting

---

[17]A. Assah, op. cit., p. 178

[18]Ibid., pp. 292-293.

position. This position was expressed by Al-Ghazzali in the eleventh century and Muhammad Abduh of modern time (died 1905). Al-Ghazzali wrote:

> As for mathematics, it includes arithmetic, geometry and cosmography, and nothing in them touches on religion neither by way of refutation nor verification; they are verifiable sciences that nobody can reject if he really understands them. . . .
> Those who think to support Islam by rejecting these sciences, are committing a great crime against religion, for religion does not deal with them, neither by way of refutation nor verification, nor is there anything in these sciences that touches on religion.[19]

About physical or natural sciences he wrote:

> As it is not required by religion to reject medicine, so it is none of its requirements to reject those sciences.[20]

Shaykh Muhammad Abduh, for instance wrote:

> The Koran mentions in a general way the signs of God in the universe just to raise morals, to remind of the benefits (bestowed on man), and to arouse thinking, but not to state the laws of nature or to impose a certain belief concerning the universe.[21]

The second problem was the economic condition of the country before World War II. Saudi Arabia was a poor, isolated desert kingdom held together by a personal allegiance of tribal and town leaders to the king. The

---

[19]Al-Ghazzali, Almungidh min Al-Dalal (Rescuer from Error or Confessions) (Damascus, 1939), pp. 90-92., B. Macdonald, Aspects of Islam (New York, 1911). p. 135.

[20]Ibid., p. 95.

[21]Muhammed Abduh, Al Islam wa Al-Nasraniyah (Islam and Christianity) (Cairo, 1938), p. 51.

national income, mostly from pilgrimage revenues, was small and the machinery of the state almost nonexistent.[22]

However, with the discovery of oil in the eastern province in the 1930s, the economic condition of the country grew strong, and modern elementary and secondary schools were established for secular-religious education. In 1939 the system of public education was defined by higher order No.14/1/1358 which outlined the duties and responsibilities of the teaching staff and defined the conditions of admission to various levels of education and the procedure for promotion of pupils. The order also made schooling free at all levels. Moreover, Royal Decree No. 2802 of 1942 laid down the broader lines of the elementary school curriculum. Royal Decree No. 12379 of 1945 outlined the organization and administration of rural schools.[23]

The first secondary school was established in 1939 in Mecca. It was based on the Egyptian educational system, which was of French origin. It was a special type of high school, "Tatheer Al-Bathat," designed to prepare its graduates for university study in Egypt. It catered to the few who were considered capable of availing themselves of the course of study. The duration of this type of school was five years--the first four years in general education

---

[22]W. Rugh, "Emergence of a New Middle Class in Saudi Arabia," The Middle East Journal (Washington D.C., 1973), vol. 27, p. 8.

[23]UNESCO, World Survey of Education II: Primary Education (Zurich: Berichthaus, 1958), p. 905.

and the fifth year one of specialization in science or literature. By 1953 there were ten secondary schools located in big cities around the country with an enrollment of 1,315 students. The curriculum consisted of the study of religion, Arabic language, elements of science, history, geography, mathematics and English language.[24]

In addition to the general secondary school, a vocational school was established in 1948. It was also staffed by Egyptians and adopted the Egyptian curriculum, which consisted mainly of theoretical and practical subjects to meet the needs of a growing demand for civil servants. In 1949, a college of Islamic law was established in Mecca for training judges and preachers. Moreover, as demand for native teachers and administrators increased, a teachers' college was established in 1953. It also was staffed by Egyptians and followed the line of the Egyptian curriculum.[25]

Until 1953 gradual progress in education reforms was taking place. Higher education, as well as education of girls, did not exist during this period. However, the achievement with regard to increased enrollment and better school facilities, in view of the existing problems at the time, is rather impressive. In 1953, even before the

---

[24]G. T. Trial and B. Winder, "Modern Education in Saudi Arabia," History of Education Journal, vol. 1, 1950, p. 125.

[25]UNESCO, World Survey of Education III: Secondary Education (Zurich: Berichthaus, 1961), p. 1012.

upgrading of the Directorate General to the Ministry of Education, total enrollment was 38,920 students in 316 schools taught by 2,604 mainly non-native teachers.[26]

The Modernization Period (1953 to the present)

Prior to the middle of the twentieth century, Saudi Arabia, as far as modern education is concerned, was in a rudimentary state. The Saudi Kingdom was like most developing countries driven by the compulsion to "catch up," while approaching the "challenge of development" with a faint acquaintance with methods of running a modern government. Peretz observed that, "when the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was formed in 1932, it lacked modern governmental institutions and centralized administration."[27] It is worth noting here, however, that this was a country not only still rooted in the tribal setting, but also hampered by the medieval spirit which prevailed among certain stereotyped influential elements, such as the Wahhabi sect, who believed that any development or innovation was heresy. Moreover, it was not until 1953 that a Council of Ministers was formed, and the number of college graduates did not exceed a handful.

However, with the booming economy which resulted from an increase in oil production during the 1950s and 60s,

---

[26] A. Thomas, Jr., Saudi Arabia, (U.S. World Education Series 1968), p. 40.

[27] D. Peretz, The Middle East Today (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1971), p. 407.

and with oil price hikes in the 1970's, the beginnings of a sound economic infrastructure (port facilities, electric power, telephone, radio and television service, and schools and universities, etc.) were established. The influx of wealth in the last two decades and the nation's thirst for better education have led to a massive expansion of the economy and rapid educational development. It is evident from the documents reviewed for this study and from firsthand observation, that the Saudi government and the educational leaders, in particular, were attempting to achieve in a short time what it took the industrialized world centuries to accomplish.

As a result of this amateurish, fad-conscious development--one not based on research, study or careful planning--there has been more borrowing and adoption of foreign educational systems. This inevitably produces more confusion, frustration and uncertainty over the control and future of the education system.[28] Coombs observed this type of development in the emerging nations, which is certainly compatible with the development of Saudi Arabian education when he wrote that:

> The main thrust of the simple expansionist strategy which rich or poor nations alike have followed in recent years has been to enlarge the educational establishment as rapidly as possible, with relatively little change in its structure, logistics, content and methods. The cardinal aim--certainly a laudable one--has been to boost the number and percentage of young people

---

[28] M. Akrawi and A. A. El-koussy, "Recent Trends in Arabic Education," International Review of Education (Paris, 1971), vol. 17, p. 181.

> attending educational institutions at all levels. Consistent with this aim, the principle measuring rods of progress have been the statistics of enrollment and participation rates and over-all educational expenditures.[29]

Public education is open and free at all levels, but is not yet compulsory. However, kindergarten and private schools charge a minimum fee and receive a subsidy from the Ministry of Education, on the condition that their curriculum conform to government requirements. Moreover, the Ministry of Education in 1954 reaffirmed the provision which has been the fundamental objective of the government since 1926. This provision aims at "the expansion of education throughout the country and at fighting illiteracy both in regard to the three R's, as well as intellectual illiteracy.[30]

The reaffirmation of this provision resulted partly from the perplexing problems that faced the Ministry when it took charge of education in 1953. The illiteracy rate was estimated at 95 to 99 percent among a populaton of approximately four million.[31] There was a great need for civil servants (teachers, administrators, and skilled workers); there were problems with obsolete curricula and

---

[29]P. H. Coombs, "The Need for a New Strategy of Educational Development," Comparative Education Review, vol. 14, 1, Feb 1979, p. 75.

[30]UNESCO, World Survey of Education: Handbook of Organization and Statistics (Zurich: Berichthaus, 1955), p. 552.

[31]UNESCO, Monographs on Fundamental Education (Zurich: Publication Buchdruckerei, 1957), p. 39.

instructional materials; inadequate administrative structure; and there was the absence of higher education, as well as girls' education. The fundamental resistance to change and retrogressive social trends were particularly difficult to combat. Concurrently, with limited efficiency and know-how, the educational authorities began their move toward reorganizing the Ministry's administrative structure, reorganizing the structure of the educational system, opening new schools at all levels, and developing the school curricula.

In the 1950's, the Ministry created a new department for general, vocational/technical, adult, and special education. The country was divided into districts (with a total of 23 today) headed by a Director General, who is responsible to the Minister of Education. The function of each educational district was the implementation of Ministry policy and supervision of the individual schools in their various districts.

Elementary education has, in the past, been conducted on two levels--rural or village education and urban education. In 1954, the Ministry abolished this dual approach, setting up a system under which children throughout the country received the same quality of education.[32] In 1958, the cultural agreement between the neighboring Arab countries Egypt, Syria and Jordan to

---

[32]Arab Information Center, Education in the Arab State (New York, 1966), p. 170.

reorganize their educational systems led the Saudi government to follow suit and to reorganize its own system to meet the country's urgent needs and keep up with the industrialized world, mainly the West.

The elementary school was to maintain the structure of six years of study; the secondary school was to be divided into two separate institutions--a three-year self-contained, intermediate stage and a three-year college preparatory academic high school, in which the first year was general education, and the last two years were divided into literary and scientific specializations. A vocational/technical course and a teacher training program for the intermediate and secondary schools were to be introduced as separate institutional systems. Furthermore, a four-to-five-year higher education system was established. This became the basic pattern (6-3-3-4) for the Saudi Arabian educational system of today.[33]

Educational Planning During the 1960's

In 1958, the Ministry of Education, along with other governmental agencies, made an attempt to set up two five-year plans to be implemented during the 1960's for developing the Saudi educational system. The target of the first plan (1960-65) was the construction of new schools as well as the improvement of existing school facilities;

---

[33]A. A. El-koussy, "Recent Trends and Development in Primary and Secondary Education in the Arab World," International Review of Education, vol. 13, 2, 1967, p. 202.

balance in terms of enrollment between the general secondary school, on the one hand, and vocational/technical education and teacher training on the other; and revision of the school curricula and teaching methods at all levels in order to meet the needs of the country.[34]

The chief merit of this effort was the translation into money, material and people of the educational approach envisioned by advisory bodies on education. This plan was not related to an overall plan of social and economic development of the country based on an economic analysis of revenues. Therefore, the plan never materialized and could not serve as a concrete program of action. Edens and Snavely explored the situation as follows:

> Serious development planning was virtually impossible in the early 1960's because of the dearth of reliable statistical information. Although a statistical agency, the Central Department of Statistics, was established within the Ministry of Finance in 1960, the first published compilation of economic and other statistics did not appear until 1965.
>
> Since, under the circumstances, the planning function could not be provided by the Board, ministerial programs suffered. Little sense of direction was provided. The question of the role of individual ministries in planning was not explicitly answered. Ministries often submitted project proposals to the Board for funding approval in an incomplete form. Little or no attempt was made at the ministerial or the Board level to rank proposals in terms of productivity or net benefits. It is probable that in some instances less desirable projects were funded instead of the more desirable alternatives. Furthermore, ministerial planning efforts were sometimes diluted by a lack of sufficient coordination between the staffs of the Secretariat and the ministries. The resulting confusion tended to neutralize the positive efforts of both sets of experts. The duplication of skills in such cases is

---

[34]UNESCO, World Survey of Education: Secondary Education, p. 1012.

wasteful in a society in which technicians are in relatively short supply.[35]

However, with those insufficient and unreliable studies and research the Ministry of Education went ahead with its ambitious expansion program.

The most significant mode of change in the history of the educational system was the massive effort in the development of higher education and the introduction of girls' education by opening the first public elementary school in 1960 as a separate institution from that of the boys. Girls' education became, during the decade of the 1960's, an integral part of the education system in the country. By opening the door to women, they were allowed to get the same education as men.

In the area of curriculum development, in general, and secondary education, in particular, the Ministry, in the 1950's and 1960's, attempted to depart from the heavy reliance on the Egyptian secondary school curriculum and to make it Saudi in flavor. However, the lack of continuity and positive direction in curriculum planning and policies had manifested itself in frequent shifts in emphasis from one aspect of development to the next. A particular course content or certain types of educational activities had been introduced one year, only to disappear the next. Moreover, a policy of innovation given in curriculum development, or

---

[35]D. G. Edens and W. P. Snavely, "Planning for Economic Development in Saudi Arabia," The Middle East Journal, vol. 24, 1979, p. 24.

even occasionally in an institution, had been established and discarded before any real evaluation of its usefulness had been possible.[36] Thus, the pattern of reform in the period indicated was one of adding, eliminating and shuffling subjects, or any other aspect of policies concerning the curriculum, without regard to the basic principle of the interests and of the learner.

Educational Planning During the 1970's

In 1965 the government, in cooperation with foreign consultants provided by the United Nations and the United States, endeavored to accelerate the social and economic development of the country by establishing the Central Planning Organization.[37] In this context, the decade of the seventies coincided with two five-year National Development Plans (1970-1975 and 1975-1980) in which the social service sector, including education, was given a higher priority. The third five-year plan for national development comes into effect in 1980.

During the first five year plan (1970-1975), $3 billion was allocated for education, and the remainder was alloted for general as well as vocational/technical education. The plan was aimed at a general overall increase in elementary level enrollment. Intermediate level facilities had to be expanded, especially in the rural

---

[36]UNESCO, Compulsory Education in the Arab State, pp. 33-34.

[37]Ibid., p. 37.

areas, in order to permit enrollment of all elementary graduates who desired admission. Enrollment at the secondary level was expected to increase, but the plan aimed at admitting only 50 percent of the intermediate level graduates into general secondary education and at channelling the other 50 percent, if possible, into teacher training and vocational/technical programs. Enrollment of girls, according to plan, was to increase considerably on all levels, notably by 95 percent at the elementary level by 1974.[38] (See appendix A).

The second five-year plan (1975-1980), included $15 billion for education. The existing projects of the first five-year plan were to continue, while the emphasis in the second plan was on curriculum reform at all levels. The plan was aimed at overall reduction of the incidence of repeating and dropouts, especially at the elementary level, by improving the promotion rates. At the secondary level, the planned target was the overhaul of the secondary school curriculum in order to meet the needs and interests of the learners. Furthermore, the plan called for the investigation and the applicability of a comprehensive secondary education in Saudi Arabia. With respect to girls' education, the plan aimed to bring diversity of qualitative

---

[38]Central Planning Organization, Saudi Arabia, Development Plan (1970-75), Ministry of Education, Report on the Five-Year Plan, 1969-74 (Damman: Al-Matawa Press) pp. 14-36.

advances to continually expanding programs at all levels.[39] (See appendix A).

It was essential to take a look at the sizable allocation in the state budget for education during the first and second plans and to note the expansion of enrollment in all types of schools. The budget allocation for education has risen from about SR 600 million = $170 million in 1969/70 to nearly SR 3,760 million = $1,074 million in 1974/75 to reach a total of SR 15,045 million = $4,298 million in 1977/78. Out of the total expenditure, the amount spent on education rose from 8 percent in 1974/75 to 13.5 percent in 1977/78.[40] (See table 1.)

The total enrollment for educational institutions of all types and levels reached 977,000 in 1974/75. This was an increase of more than three times the 1964/65 total of 300,000 students and a substantial increase over the more than 500,000 students enrolled at the start of the first five-year plan 1969/70[41] (see table 2). In 1977/78, enrollment in public schools (excluding K-6) was 185,000.

The growing student enrollment, therefore,

---

[39]Ministry of Planning, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Second Development Plan, (Jeddah: Dar Okaz Printing and Publishing Company, 1975), p. 254-287.

[40]Ministry of Education, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia: A Statistical Review, 1965-1977, (Riyadh: National Offset Printing Press, 1979), p. 109.; The General Presidency for Girls' Education (Jeddah Educational District), Education in Saudi Arabia: 1975-1980 (Jeddah: Dar Al-sfahan, 1979), pp. 78-87.

[41]Ibid., p. 10.

Table 1

Public Expenditure (budget allocation) on Education
1964/65 , 1969/70 , 1974/75 to 1977/78
(SR Million) $1≅ SR 3.5

Year	Total Gov. Budget	Total Allocation for Education	Percentage of Allocation for Education to the Gov. Budget
1964/65	3138	408	13.0
1968/70	5960	596	10.0
1974/75	45743	3760	8.2
1975/76	110935	12941	11.7
1976/77	119035	13977	12.6
1977/78	111400	15045	13.5

Source: Ministry of Education, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia: Statistical Review 1979; The General Presidency for Girls Education Education in Saudi Arabia; 1975-1980.P.

Table 2

Total Enrollment in Educational Institutions by Level and Type in 1964-65, 1969-70, 1974-75, and 1979/80 Projected Plan

Level	1964-65			1969-70			1974-75			1979-80 Projected		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Pre-First Level	-	13.7	13.7	14.2	26.5	40.7	83.3	55.7	139.0	-	-	-
First Level	179.3	452.0	2245.0	2774.0	1198.0	3972.0	4112.0	2233.0	6345.0	687.7	335.4	10411.0
Second Level	359.0	19.3	378.3	748.5	133.9	882.4	1450.0	533.0	1983.0	2425.0	1019.0	3444.0
General	240.0	12.2	252.2	691.0	67.9	758.9	1297.0	487.5	1784.5	2147.8	877.7	3025.5
Vocational	40.1	-	40.1	14.5	1.1	15.6	45.2	7.3	52.5	132.0	12.0	144.0
Teacher Training	78.9	7.1	86.0	43.2	65.0	108.2	108.3	38.4	146.7	145.0	130.0	275.0
Third Level	30.2	.66	30.86	65.0	4.34	69.34	16.2	29.0	191.0	358.0	72.0	430.0
Special	6.2	.30	6.5	11.0	1.5	12.5	15.5	2.5	18.0	-	-	44.16
Adult	327.0	-	327.0	423.0	-	423.0	750.0	246.0	996.0	1261.0	3938.0	5199.0
Others	-	-	-	27.3	21.0	29.4	106.0	.9	106.9	-	-	-
Total	2515.4	486.0	3001.4	4063.0	1366.0	5429.0	6679.0	3100.0	9779.0	1092.1	8383.0	19304.0

Sources: Ministry of Education, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia: Statistical Review 1979, and Ministry of Planning, Second Development Plan, 1975-80.

Table 3

Distribution of Pupils in Elementary, Intermediate and Secondary Schools by Level and Age 1394-95 AH* (1974-75 AD)

Age	Elementary Stage			Intermediate Stage			Secondary Stage		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
6+	50649	17064	67713	-	-	-	-	-	-
7+	56151	25111	81262	-	-	-	-	-	-
8+	55582	28432	84014	-	-	-	-	-	-
9+	55206	29384	84590	-	-	-	-	-	-
10+	51447	28360	79807	-	-	-	-	-	-
11+	44458	25409	69867	1859	-	1859	-	-	-
12+	34350	22395	56745	6058	1983	8041	-	-	-
13+	22758	16927	39685	11543	4617	16160	-	-	-
14+	14850	12173	27023	14973	6540	21513	556	405	961
15+	8914	7887	16801	15678	7158	22836	1888	971	2859
16+	14392	4487	18879	13345	6134	19479	4237	1601	5838
17+	3761	5626	9387	9075	4308	13383	5036	1843	6879
18+	-	-	-	5765	2844	8609	5058	1690	6748
19+	-	-	-	3181	1812	4993	3978	1310	5288
20+	-	-	-	1446	1133	2579	2570	937	3507
21+	-	-	-	691	680	1371	1495	618	2113
22+	-	-	-	589	883	1472	849	333	1182
23+	-	-	-	-	-	-	1170	498	1668
All Ages	412518	223255	635773	84203	38092	122295	26837	10206	37043

Source: Ministry of Education. Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia: A Statistical Review, 1979.
*A. H. (After Hegrah). It is the year (622 AD) (of the Migration of the Prophet Mohammed from Mecca to Medina) and the founding of the Muslim community, the first year of the Islamic Era.
AH - $\frac{3AH}{100}$ + 622 = AD.

required an increased number of educational facilities. The number of public schools was 3,053 in 1969/70 and by 1974/75 the figure had risen to 5,598 schools. A large number of these are rented houses and temporary quarters that hardly warrant the name "school."[42]

The meaning of such astonishing and rapid expansion of education in terms of human minds and material resources cannot be evaluated without some comment on the educational problems that have been created. These perplexing problems include: disparity in quality between urban and rural schools; tendency for children who have reached a high standard of education (usually from upper-class families) to pursue a university preparatory program while the offspring of the "poor" families enroll in religious, vocational, or teacher-training programs; disparity in the quality of school buildings and instructional materials between the urban and rural areas; and disparity in the level of qualifications of teachers in various areas of the country (the qualifications of teachers in the rural areas and particularly in the southern province are low).

Additional problems of great concern include the lack of continuity; inadequately trained teachers; a native teacher shortage at all levels of schooling; continuing high rate of illiteracy due to the nonexistence of a compulsory attendance requirement; low quality of text material; and

---

[42]Ibid., p. 109.

the high rate of repeaters and dropouts. American observers declared recently that:

> . . .despite recent rapid growth in the number of schools and pupils, there are probably more children 6-12 years old who are not in school than attending school. The educational participation rate gets progressively lower at the intermediate, secondary and post-secondary level." They added that, ". . .in the backward areas such as the south west, school attendance is limited. It has been estimated that in this region only 36% of the boys of elementary school age are enrolled. Corresponding figures for intermediate and secondary schools are strikingly lower. . . . The problem of access takes on an even more serious dimension at the intermediate and secondary levels where participation rates, as pointed out, become even lower. To augment to about 80% the percentage participation rate of elementary school graduates who go to the next (intermediate) level (from the current rate of 50%) requires: a) the expansion of the supply places; b) inducement to increase demand for intermediate and secondary level schools; and c) improved educational methods and practices.[43]

No one, however, denies that fact that the two plans have specified certain impressive goals to be achieved, such as increased enrollment, increased school facilities, training of teachers and technocrats, and revision of the curricula at all levels. But to the dismay of this writer, as well as the observer of the first and second five-year plan documents, one notices that the documents contain section after section of specifics with no extra step relating details of the broader priorities or time allocation recommendations for each goal or objective. One observer wrote that:

---

[43]R. Egbert and A. Khan, "Education in Saudi Arabia: Findings, Recommendations and Proposed Projects," Report of the Education Team's Visit to Saudi Arabia, November 8-27, 1974, (Washington DC: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1975), pp. 4-6.

> The plan document does not at any point indicate the duration of the plan or specify its initial and its last year. But it was understood that it is a five-year plan from 1971 to 1975. This silence in the document on this matter is deliberate: it is meant to allow for flexibilities in implementation. However, it causes embarassment. . . .The presentation is fragmented and the approach more "common sense" that rigorous. . . . There is no indication of the priorities, and it would seem to the observer that the first objective should come last, considering the high rate of growth already achieved and the grave urgency of human resource development and of diversification. However, it is obvious in the rest of the plan document that manpower development is given high priority and that the implicit strategy of development starts with manpower resources and their better education and training.[44]

Lest the reader be disillusioned by this enumeration of problems, several factors must be mentioned. Saudi Arabia has been endowed with perhaps the worst possible combination of handicaps which are characteristic of almost every developing nation. The handicaps include illiteracy, the provision against women holding jobs, the clergy's resistence to any development, red-tape and highly centralized educational agencies, and administrative corruption that permeates all sectors of education.

However, in the years since 1970, with the launching of the two five-year plans, significant educational advances have been made in spite of these adversities. In the last decade, the illiteracy rate has dropped, the quality of schools and school facilities has improved somewhat, the educational policies have become less rigid, the system of examination has been improved at certain levels of

---

[44]Y. A. Sayigh, The Economics of the Arab World: Developments Since 1945 (New York: St Martin's Press, 1978), pp. 177-178.

education, and the trend toward establishing a new curriculum to serve the needs and interests of the learner is visible. If these dynamic changes could occur, in spite of the persistence of some of these problems, there is every reason to foresee further positive developments in the educational system of the country.

Educational Influence of Foreign Practices

Saudi Arabia was once isolated, poor, and unknown to the rest of the world except as the birthplace of Islam, a region of deserts and nomad tents that today has become the most prominent nation in the Third World because of its influx of petro-dollars and rapid development. Its ties with not only the neighboring Arab countries but also the West have become apparent and the impact of these ties is evident in the trends of its social, economic, and educational development. The Saudi Arabian educational system has been and remains in turmoil; it is struggling for its independence from a number of distinguishable schools of thought, such as the French via the Egyptian, the British, the American, and last but not least, the Western-educated Saudi. The freedom in instruction, the choice of educational material to be used, and the right of any group to establish an educational institution were recognized and encouraged as early as the time of the rise of the Islamic faith, and especially in the period of the Golden Age. The Directorate General of Education in the 1930's and 1940's, to some extent, adopted such principles with regard to the freedom

of choice of education and the aim of continuing decentralization.[45] But the number of Egyptian advisors and teachers increased and their involvement dominated the decision-making process of the educational system in the 1940's and 1950's. The centralized administrative structure of the Egyptian government prevailed not only over education but also over the other branches of the government. Some observers regarded this influence "as the reflection of a deliberate Egyptian policy to infiltrate the Saudi educational system and to influence its development along lines acceptable to official Egyptian circles."[46]

The adoption of the Egyptian system of education was necessitated by the increased demand for skilled manpower and educated civil servants. It is accurate, somewhat, to state that it was not until after 1953, that a council of ministers was formed and then the number of college graduates exceeded only a handful. The former Deputy Minister of Education wrote:

> . . .our educational policy has related for a long time to some Arab countries. It followed their curriculum, planning, and also tended to use their textbooks. It was necessary for us to do that in order to facilitate the way for secondary school students to join their universities. At times there were no universities in our country as there are now. On the one hand it was a happy solution for educational problems; on the other hand it was very bad, because of the problems related to the continual changes occurring in their educational planning and policy which we followed. Thus, this made

---

[45] A. Zaid, op. cit., p. 91.

[46] G. A. Lipsky, Saudi Arabia: Its People, Its Society, Its Culture (New Haven: Hraf Press, 1959), p. 280.

us look for our own long-range educational policy, to define it especially for elementary and secondary education.[47]

However, with increased criticism of the Egyptian system of education and the increased number of Western-trained Saudi educators, along with American advisors to the Ministry of Education, the Egyptian system began to give way to the British system in the area of vocational/technical education and to the American system in academic secondary and higher education. Although the American system of education began to gain ground in the 1970's, the root of the Egyptian system with its nightmarish difficulties remained alive.

The basis of American influence of Saudi educational development lies in the discovery of oil in the eastern province in the 1930's.[48] ARAMCO (Arabian-American Oil Company) influence came on the heels of the company's need for native skilled labor. ARAMCO soon began opening vocational schools for its employees. Saudi Arabian governmental policy forbade any Saudi under the age of fifteen from attending any Western school, and this policy limited the spread of such influence to the rest of the country.[49] However, the relaxation of government policy

---

[47]A. Abdul-Wassie, Education in Saudi Arabia (Beirut: Der Alketub Al Arabi, 1970), p. 56.

[48]R. Lebkicher, "The Training of Saudi Arabian Employees: Arabian American Oil Company," Yearbook of Education (London: Evans Brothers Ltd., 1954), pp. 515-535, H. R. Snyder, p. 24.

[49]G.T. Trail and B. Winder, op. cit., p. 123.

toward the West, and especially toward the United States, in the early 1960's and 1970's allowed high school graduates to go to Europe and the United States to study. According to the Saudi Educational Mission in the United States, there were 11,000 Saudis attending American universities and colleges in 1979.

Today the impact of American influence is seen in all major forms of development in the country and educational development is by no means neglected. This influence is seen in two forms. One is the indirect influence of young Saudis who obtained their higher education in the West, mainly in the United States. These young people go home with different degrees (B.S., M.A., Ph.D., etc.) and different specializations. They return full of ambition and new educational ideas. Naturally, these ideas stem from the American educational philosophy and ideology. The second influence is a direct one where American educators work as consultants to the Ministry of Education and other governmental agencies to aid in its development program.

The American influence has been felt in higher education with respect to curriculum structure and examination systems, the introduction of the idea of the junior college, the idea of the comprehensive high school, which is today under experimentation, and recently, in the area of secondary school curriculum development. In addition, an American team which visited Saudi Arabia in

1974/75 has introduced to the Ministry of Education a list of recommendations and proposals to aid in its developmental programs. Stress is placed on large-scale invitations to American university scholars and researchers and the extension of exchange programs with American colleges and universities.[50]

It is ironic, however, that a system of education based philosophically on democratic principle will be adopted in a centralized and authoritarian form of government. Moreover, there is a great chasm between an ideology of the separation of state and religion as a form of government and one that sees religion as the basic principle that governs the country and as a way of life for its inhabitants. Conroy wrote:

> Saudi Arabia is also concerned with obtaining U.S. aid in improving elementary and secondary education. This is a very complex, difficult and unusual working set-up for Westerners because of the strong religious influence in Saudi Arabia, because of the segregation of the sexes, the lack of attention in the Saudi curriculum to the development of motor skills, and the extremely structured nature of the present education system. At the moment, Saudi Arabia is looking for U.S. experts to go to Saudi Arabia to give advice and assistance in developing the educational system.[51]

It is debatable, however, whether borrowing the American system of education will definitely work. Although

---

[50] R. Egbert and A. Khan, Education in Saudi Arabia: Findings, Recommendations and Proposed Projects, pp. 35-40.

[51] E. L. Conway, The Process of Development in the Middle East: Goals and Achievements (Washington DC, 1976), paper presented at the 30th Annual Conference of the Middle East Institute, October 15-16, 1976, p. 42.

our Minister of Education claims that he:

> [thinks] that the Kingdom is the only country which can declare that the democracy of education is completely applied. The door is wide open for everybody who aspires to education, and he is freely permitted to choose the direction he wants, is thriftily paid in the form of remunerations; even in some stages of higher education, the education is free, one hundred percent.[52]

The real problem is not whether the American system of education (model) or other systems of education will work in Saudi Arabia or not; it is an issue of ways and means to such systems. The Arab world in general has lived during the first half of the twentieth century under the influence of the West in all aspects of its major development and continues to do so. Therefore, the question to be asked is: where are we now? It is certain that Saudi Arabia lags far behind in terms of educational development and remains dependent on the West. There is no doubt that this is a major Arab problem, since according to Dr. El-koussy, "French models of education which are being abolished in France still remain in the Arab world." He goes on to state that, "neither the old nor the new French models, or for that matter, the English or the American is suitable."[53]

Educational models, such as curricula and methods of teaching, can be imported, but education cannot. Development in general and curriculum development in

---

[52]Ibid.

[53]A. A. El-koussy, "Some Problems of Educational Planning in the Arab World," cited in D. K. Wheeler, Educational Problems of Arab Countries, p. 313.

particular must stem from the actual conditions, environment and available potential of the country. It is essential, however, to note that no one human being, nor one family, nor one community, nor one country can live and flourish aloof from all others. The need for international cooperation and relations is recognized, but the extension of this idea to include the approach that the so-called developed countries have employed when coming to the "rescue" of the "underdeveloped countries" is questionable. Beeby described the potentials of those who come to the aid of the underdeveloped country in this manner, "A few countries," he asserted,

> . . .notably Britain and France, had over the years developed great skill in helping the steady growth of educational systems in colonial territories, but no one knew much about handling the explosive demand for education in newly independent states that has been one of the dominant features of the past decade. . .countries and individuals with little or no experience in helping emergent peoples were drawn into this field, and "experts" come to maturity over night. The gap between the education systems they knew and the ones they were aiding was often so wide as to put one in mind of the problems that a butterfly would face in teaching the chrysalis how to fly.[54]

Within this context, it is premature at this time to assess the success or failure of the American system of education that has been grafted onto the old Saudi system.

---

[54]C. E. Beeby, "Stages in the Growth of Primary Education System," Comparative Education Review, pp. 124.

CHAPTER IV

THE ORGANIZATION AND THE CURRICULUM OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE AND CONTROL

Today, education is gradually coming to be a public concern. However, its goals, scope and economic bounds are still maintained by the central government represented by various centralized educational agencies according to the types and levels of education. Prior to the 1960's, the first and sole government education agency since its establishment in 1926 was the General Directorate of Education. The name was changed in 1953 to the Ministry of Education.

During the last two decades, the organizational structure of the Ministry of Education has become larger and more complex, especially when expanded to include higher education in 1957, girls' education in 1960, and when separate religious secondary schools and universities were established. Education, therefore, according to the central government, could no longer be administered by one centralized agency. A division of authority over education was the result.

Male education below the university level (elementary and secondary schools, vocational/technical

education, teacher training, adult and special education) is to remain under the authority and control of the Ministry of Education. Female education at all levels (K - 12, including teacher training and college of education for women) is to be controlled by the General Presidency of Girls' Education, which is headed by a clergyman who is responsible to the Council of Ministers. Religious education (secondary, colleges, and universities) is under the auspices of the General Directorate of Religious institutions.

Despite the fact that higher education was autonomous since its creation in 1957, it fell in 1975 under the authority of the newly esablished Ministry of Higher Education. Thus, there is government support and supervision over three parallel, but wholly separate educational systems, in addition to the systems of higher education and private education.

In this chapter, the administrative structure of the different agencies will be discussed briefly, with more emphasis on the structure of the Ministry of Education, in order to serve as a base for the discussion of the remainder of this chapter and the next.

The Ministry of Education

As indicated above, boys' education (K - 12) is administered by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry is the largest and most highly regarded educational agency. In 1976/1977, 58 percent of the student population fell under

its jurisdiction.[1] Furthermore, it has an important supervisory function, via levels of examination and curricula, over the students supervised by other authorities, and because of its longer experience, it has a special influence over the development of girls' education.

The Ministry of Education is headed by a Minister, who is a member of the Council of Ministers and appointed by the ruling King. The Minister is at the top of the Ministry's structural hierarchy and has assumed the administrative as well as the academic authority with respect to the decision-making process pertaining to public education. The Minister is responsible to the Council of Ministers, but his discretionary powers are recognized.[2]

Under the Minister are two undersecretaries, one for education and administrative affairs and the other for technical affairs. The function of the undersecretaries is to assist the Minister in directing and coordinating all the different divisions within the Ministry. Moreover, there are three assistant undersecretaries for general education, administrative affairs and cultural affairs. A number of general directors are appointed to assist the undersecretaries depending on the different needs and functions[3] (see fig. 3).

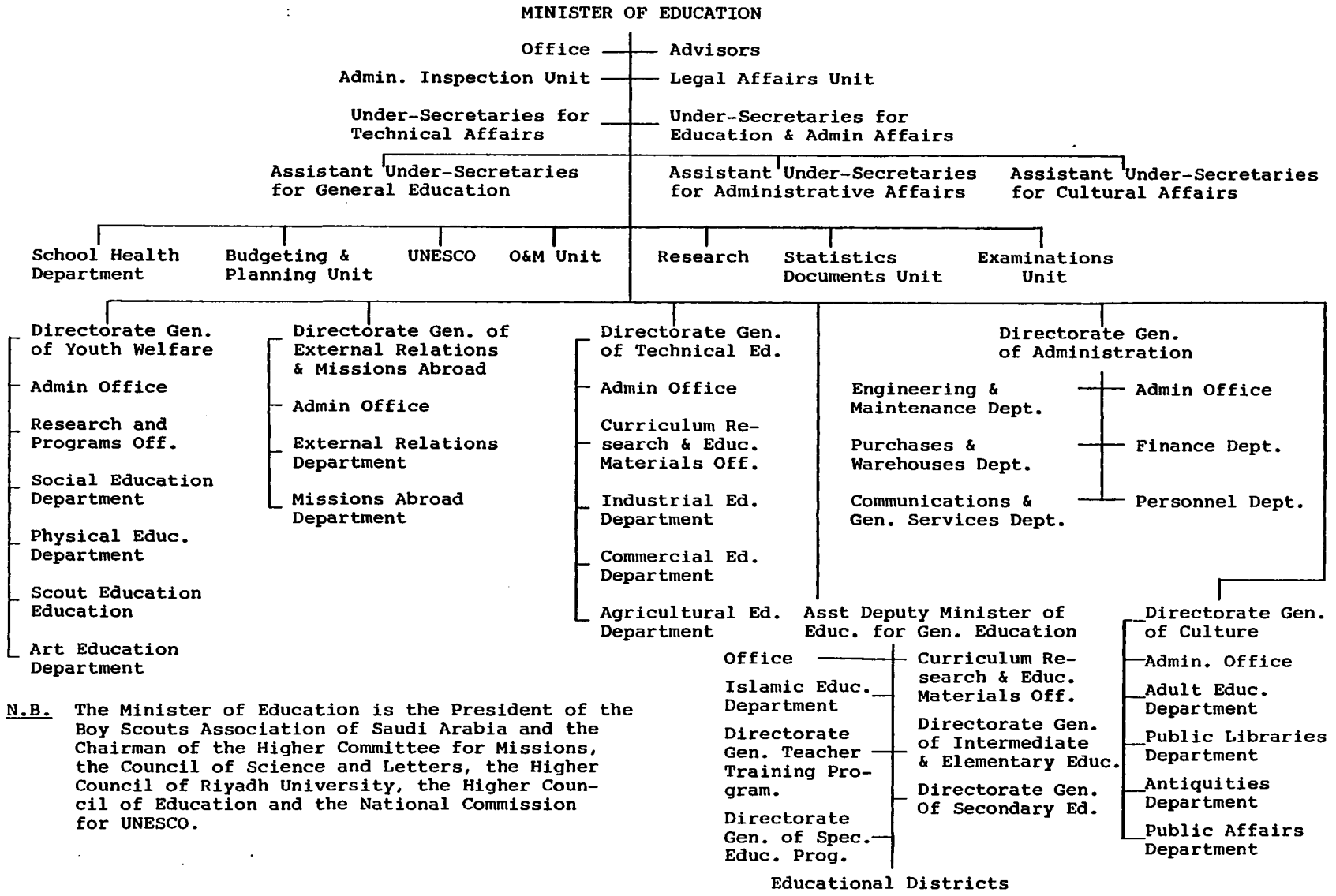
---

[1] Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia, op. cit., pp. 168-175.

[2] Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Manual for the Ministry of Education: Objectives, Functions, and Administrative Organization (Riyadh, 1970), p. 7.

Figure 3

Administrative Chart of the Ministry of Education - 1978



N.B. The Minister of Education is the President of the Boy Scouts Association of Saudi Arabia and the Chairman of the Higher Committee for Missions, the Council of Science and Letters, the Higher Council of Riyadh University, the Higher Council of Education and the National Commission for UNESCO.

Source based on: Manual for the Ministry of Education 1970; Report on progress Achieved in Curriculum Development in Saudi Arabia 1979.

The Ministry is charged with the responsibility to plan, formulate and supervise the implementation of educational policies for the boys' public education system (i.e., elementary and secondary education, vocational and technical education, special education, and adult education). Furthermore, it issues the curriculum for the various levels and types of public education along with detailed instructions on the teaching methods to be used, the time schedules for classes, and the prescribed textbooks and syllabus to be covered. In similar fashion, it trains, recruits, promotes, transfers, dismisses, and retires school administrators and teachers. It rents, constructs, and maintains school buildings and provides the individual school with the educational facilities and health services needed. It administers a nationwide uniform public examination and issues certificates.[4]

The issue here is certainly not centralization versus decentralization,[5] but it is inconceivable that an agency such as the Ministry of Education with an unquestioned deficiency of highly qualified personnel

---

[3]Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Report on Progress Achieved in Curriculum Development in Saudi Arabia (Riyadh: Department of Research, Curriculum and Material, 1979), p. 2.

[4]Manual for the Ministry of Education, op. cit., pp. 10-88.

[5]Although the issue of centralization vs decentralization is not discussed, the importance of participation by administrators, teachers, parents, and students in the decision-making process relative to eduction will be emphasized as appropriate.

could be effective and efficient in handling all the aspects of learning that are related to the education of the younger generation. One observer wrote:

> If these Ministries were staffed by able and competent administrators then the high degree of centralization might be beneficial. Unfortunately, this is not the case. Overall, the quality of personnel is not very high and the administrative process in all fields is characterized by absolute concepts and procedures that have led to a marked degree of inefficiency and substantial wastage.[6]

The realization of the complexity of the educational system, due to the expansion of the boys' public school system, necessitated a rapid adjustment of the administrative machinery of education throughout the country. Furthermore, the isolation of some populated areas through lack of an adequate mass communication system and the long-range plan toward decentralization led the Ministry to increase and upgrade its educational districts.

Today, there are twenty-three educational districts, each headed by a Director General who is responsible to the Minister of Education.[7] The primary function of each district is to supervise the daily activities of the individual schools in their localities. The size and importance of each district differs according to the number

---

[6]J. Szyliowicz, op. cit., pp. 300-301.

[7]According to a recent report by the Ministry of Education, a new reorganization has been established for the various districts with only three Director Generals for the Central Region (Riyadh), the Western Region (Jeddah) and the Eastern Region (Dammam). These three districts will be responsible to the Ministry of Education, while the remaining eighteen will be responsible to one of these districts in their localities.

of schools and the total enrollment in its region. However, there is no definite limitation or boundary existing between one district and another[8] (see fig. 4).

All educational districts have a definite organizational structure consisting of numerous divisions, (i.e., science, religion, Arabic language and social sciences) staffed by supervisors and headed by an administrator (see fig. 5). All staff in the district have only administrative and supervisory duties. Therefore, much of the liaison work between the individual school and the district is carried out by the supervisors. In the same vein, much of the coordination between the individual school and the Ministry of Education is carried out by the district's Director General. It is essential to note here that the structure and mode of operation of each district is a replica of its founder, the Ministry of Education. "In practice," Szyliowicz observes:

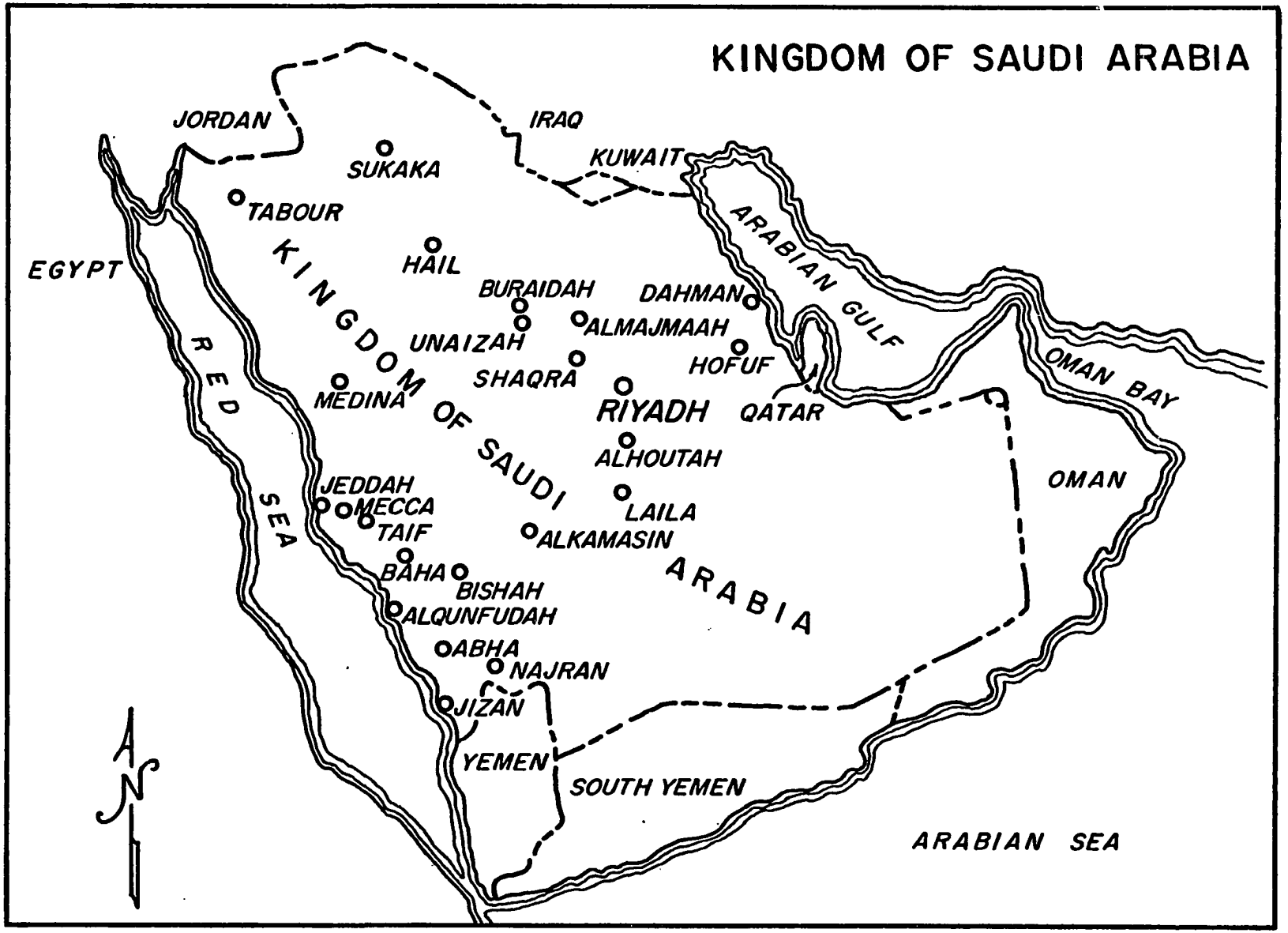
> . . .local bodies exhibit similar behavioral characteristics; they tend to concentrate authority in their hands and to blindly carry out orders and directives issued by the Ministry of Education. They seldom display any intiative in meeting local needs, in adapting national policy to local exigencies, or involving the local populace in the educational process.[9]

---

[8]A. Towagry, "Organization Analysis and Proposed Reorganization of the Ministry of Education of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia," (unpublished dissertation, University of Arkansas, 1973), p. 9.

[9]J. Szyliowicz, op. cit., p. 301.

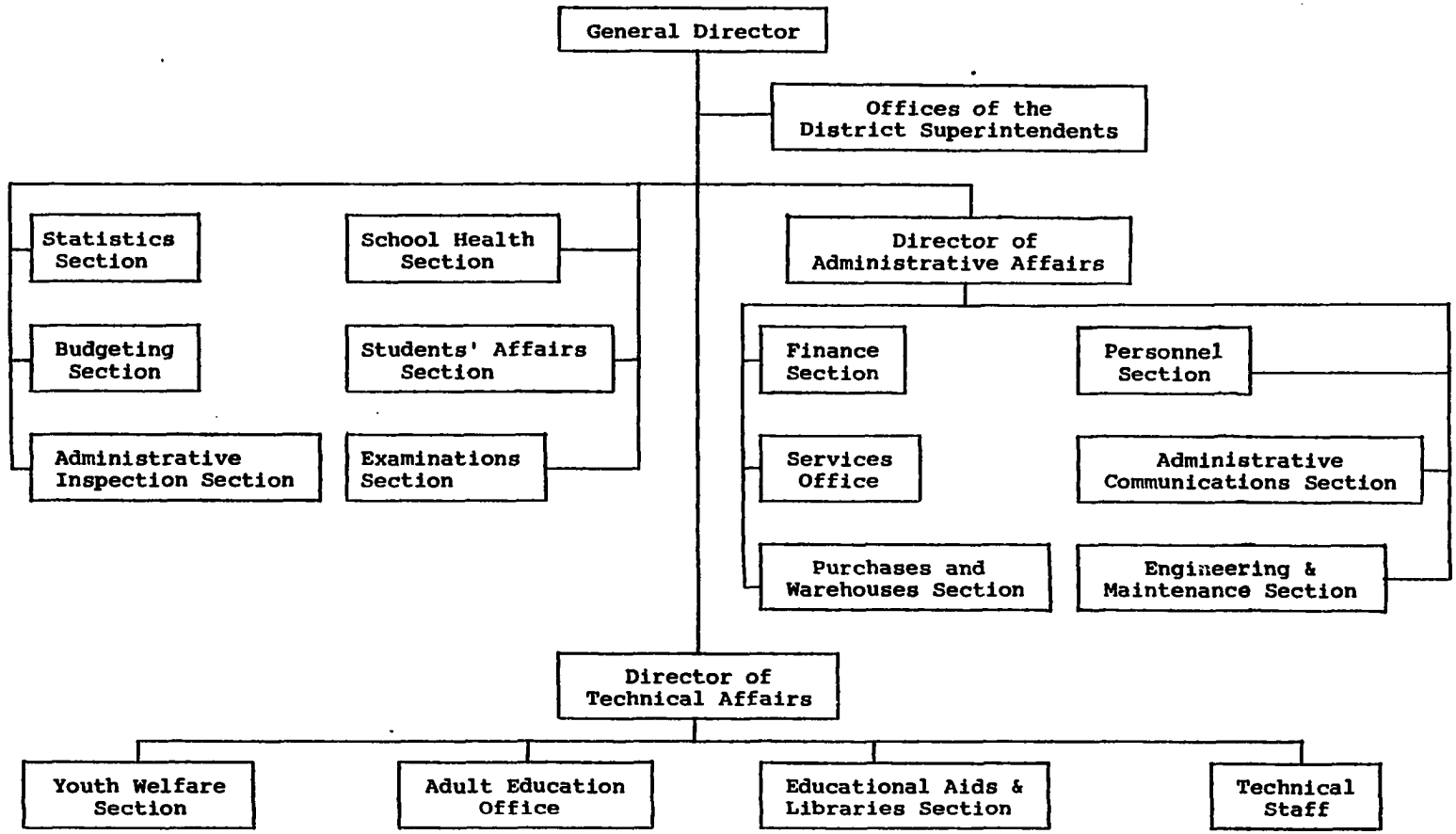
Figure 4



Location of the Educational District in Saudi Arabia

Figure 5

Administrative Chart of the Educational
District Office in Saudi Arabia



Source: H. Al-Salloom, "The Study of the Relationship of School District size and Administrative practices in school in Saudi Arabia", (Unpublished Dissertation, University of Oklahoma 1974) P. 18.

The General Presidency for Girls' Education

The Presidency was established in 1960, when the government authorized the first budgetary allocation for girls' education. The Presidency is in charge of education of girls at all levels. Although it is controlled by the Presidency and by religious authority, its organizational structure (i.e., administrative pattern, the educational districts, the mode of operation) is parallel to that of the Ministry of Education.[10] It is interesting to note here, that since the segregation of the sexes exists, the supervision over girls' schools (elementary and secondary) is carried out by a Saudi woman supervisor. Her communication with the director of her local district (male) is carried out through a male clerk or by telephone. The offices are located either in the school or in undisclosed locations.

Religious Colleges and Universities

Under the authority of the Grand Mufti (religious leader), religious colleges and universities have a closed system of control with special instruction in their own institutions. It begins at the intermediate level and continues through two years of secondary education to one of three higher levels of religious education.

---

[10] *Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia*, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

Ministry of Higher Education

This Ministry was created in 1975. It controls and coordinates higher education by means of a higher council for universities. The University of Petroleum and Minerals is under the control of the Ministry of Petroleum and Minerals.

Other Authorities

The Ministry of Defense runs its own schools for its personnel and their children. The schools, however, must meet the minimum standards set by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Health maintains and controls nursing schools for women and health institutions for men. The Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs maintains institutions of social guidance, community development and social service centers.

Private education is controlled by private bodies and foreign dignitaries. However, this type of institution is decreasing in importance, whereas before 1960, it was, by far, the most important educational institution. As indicated earlier, the private school's curriculum must have the approval of the Ministry of Education in order to get financial assistance.

Curriculum Affairs

Traditionally, the school is the place which is most concerned with the transmission of basic knowledge to the child through basic drill and memorization as a means of

teaching. This view, now widely considered a thing of the past, is still evidenced in actual daily practice in Saudi schools. Within this context, curriculum in its broad meaning, has not yet been fully understood or properly developed. An American team visiting Saudi Arabian schools observed that:

> The curriculum at all levels is devoted to verbal ability first, and to writing ability second. Other skills are emphasized on a descending scale. Manipulation, perception, motor, and kinaesthetic skills are woefully underemphasized. All subjects are considered separate. We saw no interdisciplinary learning. Students are not encouraged or even able to exercise creativity either in motor-sensory skills or in literacy skills. Imagination seems to be valued lightly. As a result, teaching and learning in the average classroom tends to be stale, automatic, and fully prescribed.[11]

There was no precise definition of the "curriculum" as it is perceived by western educators (i.e., all the experience the child will gain under the auspices of the school). In Saudi Arabia, curriculum is narrowly defined and commonly understood as simply "content of subject matter." (i.e., certain subjects to be taught in the school) It is mainly confined to prescribed academic content, coupled with a detailed description of how it is to be taught. This prescription is given to the individual school by the top authority of the Ministry of Education.

---

[11] "Report of the American Team's Visit to Saudi Arabia," op. cit., p. 24.

Curriculum Affairs at the Ministry Level[12]

There is no doubt that education in Saudi Arabia is a national affair, as likewise the school curriculum. Therefore, the curriculum decision-making process is within the authority of the government, represented by a High Council of Ministers among whom is the Minister of Education. The High Council of Ministers, meets periodically to look into the present status of public education and to review any educational reforms that might have been suggested by the Minister of Education. The Council is assisted by both an advisory body of experts in curriculum affairs and by the Department of Curriculum, Research, and Materials of the Ministry of Education.

The general procedure in curriculum reform (i.e., conducting research, experimentation and suggesting change) is the function of the Department of Research, Curriculum, and Materials. Some of the delegated functions of this department are as follows:

> Directs and supervises all educational research of general education including pilot studies of curriculum or program changes. This includes the curricula for the elementary, intermediate and secondary stages of education and for the teacher training institutes and the special education programs, and contributes to curricula research and development carried out by the teacher training college and Sharia College in Mecca, and by the General Directorate of Technical Education if asked to.

---

[12]Since there is no official document stating the procedure for curriculum reform, the source of the following pages was drawn from discussions with officials in the Department of Research, Curriculum and Materials, unless otherwise stated.

> Receives from the departments and General Directorates reporting to the Deputy Minister suggestions forchanges in the curricula and related support materials and books for review and recommendations prior to implementation of any changes.
>
> Maintains contact in coordination with the Ministry's Research, Statistics, and Educational Documents Unit with the development of curricula and research in other countries and determines the applicability of such developments to the educational programs of the Kingdom. Maintains a library of related educational research information.[13]

Within this context, the Department, according to one Ministry official, in most cases, plays the role of the supervisor and never initiates a change or conducts research with respect to curriculum development. In fact, he added, a kind of suggestive reform to Saudi school curriculum, in general, and the high school, in particular, occurs when an outside agency such as UNESCO or western educational agencies, especially from the United States, presses for change. When the universities seek improvements so that high school graduates may meet admission requirements, or when criticism is carried by local newspapers demanding the improvement of the quality of education or pushing for results, change does occur.

The task of developing a curriculum certainly is no easy matter, especially when it involves something more than adding or subtracting information to be learned not to mention the fact that the educational policy of the country represents the ground on which the curriculum reform is to be based. Beeby explained this task when he indicated that:

---

[13]Manual for the Ministry of Education, op. cit., pp. 44-45.

> Even in the developed countries, the task of changing the curriculum to meet these new conditions is not proving simple. With the help of university specialists, marked advances have been made over the past decade under the auspices of such bodies as Educational Services Incorporated in America, and the School Councils and the Nuffied Foundation in Britian. But there are still many problems to solve, and a few countries would claim to have gone far in adapting school curricula to the needs of the modern world and the changing nature of knowledge.
>
> In developing countries, the leap to be made to new practices is longer and the difficulties correspondingly greater. . . .[14]

The general procedure of curriculum reform is changeable and dependent upon the nature of the subject and whether a change is possible at the time. As an illustrative example of curriculum change, this author traced one procedure that is commonly used. Whenever a problem arises for curriculum change, an ad hoc committee is formed. The committee is composed chiefly of subject experts, usually university professors, a team from the Department of Research, Curriculum and Materials, and a member of the Advisory Committee to the Ministry. Through long discussion and debate in a number of meetings, a recommendation for change will be drafted and submitted to the Minister for his approval. Upon the approval of the reform, a center for research and curriculum studies would

---

[14] E. Beeby, "Curriculum Planning," in G. Howson (Ed.), Developing a New Curriculum, published for the Center for Curriculum Renewal and Educational Development Overseas (London: Heineman, 1970), pp. 40-41.

be chosen to set up a suitable syllabus for that particular subject to be changed.[15]

The second stage is for the selected center to present its suggested syllabus to the Ministry for review. The same committee would convene again to review the proposed syllabus. The committee would revise the syllabus, if need be, and submit it to the Minister with its recommendation. The Minister would take the case to the High Council of Ministers for their approval. Usually, the High Council of Ministers does not object since the proposed syllabus is recommended by the ad hoc committee. The only time they would object is when they feared that such a change might create a conflict between the Ministry and the conservative element of the society (i.e., the religious leaders).

The third stage is the return of the proposed syllabus to the center for the writing of a sample textbook. Before mass production of the text takes place, the sample text would travel the same line of authorities as did the syllabus. Upon approval, the text would be tried in a chosen high school as a site for experimentation prior to its wider implementation. Furthermore, in-service training would be given to the teacher via the center or the college of education to guarantee that teachers would be familiar with the new concepts at the time of its implementation.

---

[15] In this case, the Ministry official selected the Educational Center for Science and Mathematics, American University of Beirut (AUB), Beirut, Lebanon.

To this end, an announcement of such change would appear in the Ministry's monthly publication. The Ministry would update its prescribed high school manual which usually contains the aim, the prescribed syllabus, the method of teaching to be used, and the time schedule allotments for each subject. The manual would be sent to the respective schools via the educational district offices to be followed to the letter.

Curriculum Affairs at the District Level

The educational districts are the bridge used by the Ministry to transmit its rules and regulations to the individual schools in their localities. The main task of the district in curriculum reform is to supervise and direct their respective schools in the correct way of implementing the new reform. Each supervisor is expected to pay a visit to each school once or twice annually. In most cases, the school will be given notice of such a visit. In turn, the school personnel, especially the teachers, will try to do their best to impress the supervisor in order to win a favorable evaluation of themselves and their school. In most cases, however, the inspector's visit is marked by fear, hatred, and mistrust from the school personnel.

Curriculum Affairs at the School Level

The school becomes the battleground in this process of curriculum change. Although school personnel have not been involved in the decision-making process, they are

expected to implement the new program change with no regard to their readiness. Therefore, each school has to struggle to abide by the new rules and regulations handed to them from the top to maintain the accepted and expected pattern of conformity and standardization.

The principal is the top man in his school and his function in curriculum affairs is limited. He is responsible to the supervisor with regard to the prescribed curriculum to be followed to the letter. Therefore, the main task of the principal is to watch over the teachers in their daily classroom activities. One principal indicated that:

> . . .besides my job as a clerk, I always have to be prepared to defend the new material that comes without previous notice, "sudden," "sudden." But I always try to make my point clear to our officials in the educational district when I feel that our teachers as well as our students are not happy with these new materials, but the gap is so great between us and esepecially with those at the Ministry.[16]

The role of the teacher in curriculum affairs is to teach the prescribed syllabus to the learner. The teacher is required at all times to have a plan book. The plan of each lesson is made in advance and a record of it kept in the planbook. The teacher's planbook is his was to insure the satisfaction of the principal and the supervisor whenever either visits the classroom. Furthermore, it is expected that the teacher will not use any method of teaching except the prescribed one and that he will not

---

[16]The name of the principal and his school are being kept confidential at his request. The author takes full responsibility for the content of this quotation.

introduce or suggest any other outside reading material to the learner beyond the prescribed textbook. The whole "drama" of this process of curriculum change ends when the learner learns. Evaluation of the newly prescribed material would be measured by the rate of success or failure of the learners on the prescribed standard examination.

This approach to curriculum development is carried out in "extemporaneous-fashion," according to one Ministry official. It is reflected in all matters related to educational policies, including financing, examination, evaluation and staffing. Furthermore, the absence of studies and research to rely on when reform in curriculum takes place and, the non-involvement of school personnel and the community is reflect in the standards of education at all levels. The chief results of these practices are the dampening of local interest, initiative and the denial to local schools of much-needed flexibility.

The style of curriculum development that the Ministry of Education has employed is by no means rewarding. Within this context, the procedure that has been used for new changes in the curriculum by the organizing authorities, undoubtedly has several disadvantages. One of the major disadvantages is lack of contact with the current daily activities or practices in the secondary school. The authorities may know clearly which ideas and materials are in vogue and should be included in the curriculum, but undoubtedly, they are lacking in knowledge of the conditions

and the circumstances of the school environments where they are directing the change. As to the center that furnishes the textbook, the language is by no means always compatible with the culture and the environment of the country (i.e., the examples that are used, style of writing, and vocabulary). The language of writing should not only stem from the surrounding environment of the learner, but also be compatible to his educational level. One supervisor complains about a mathematics textbook that was written at the Center of Research and Curriculum Studies in Beirut:

> The language of this particular textbook is not suitable and not written to this particular age group (the secondary school). We have requested revision of the textbook. We are able to do that here. But we never got a reply from the Ministry. Our request, I'm sure, is in the waste-basket where it always ends.[17]

The second major disadvantage is that the approach employed does not reflect upon the use of modern concepts of curriculum development (i.e., no specification of aims or objectives and the choice of suitable subject matter to coincide with those criteria; no pilot testing of new curriculum, nor any substantive or formative evaluation). Taba's concern about confusion in curriculum development, which is certainly characteristic of reform in Saudi Arabia, is expressed when she writes that:

> . . .confusion is the main characteristic of curriculum theory. The basis used in selecting curriculum experiences are manifold: some subjects are included because of tradition, others because of legislative pressure, and still others, rather vaguely, because of

---

[17]Again, the name of the individual is withheld. The author is responsible for the content of the quotation.

> the needs of children and adolescents. There is little clarity about organization. Highly specialized courses and units stand side by side with courses or subjects drawn from many disciplines. The sequence of subjects and course follow no clear-cut principles, and some are placed where they are mainly for convenience.[18]

Furthermore, Taba feels that emphasis on the elements of curriculum, the methodology, and the order in which decisions are made would avert confusion in curriculum development. "All criteria," she said:

> . . .no matter what their particular design, are composed of certain elements. A curriculum usually contains a statement of aims and specific objectives, it indicates some selection and organization of content, it either implies or manifests certain patterns of learning and teaching, whether because the objectives demand them or because the content organization requires them. Finally, it requires a programme of evaluation of outcomes.[19]

The third major disadvantage is the absence of the main components in curriculum development: the teachers, the principals, the parents and the students. Today, most of the literature on the development of the curriculum stresses the need for participation and the role of many contributors in the efforts. Ahrens asserted that:

> . . .curricula that are planned and developed without full participation of all concerned teachers, parents and students are usually ineffective. . . .changes in approaches, content and methods take place only when there are changes in the thinking of those who are concerned.[20]

---

[18]Helda Taba, Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and Jovanovich, 1962), p. 7.

[19]Ibid., p. 10.

[20] Maurice Ahrens, "Parents and Staff Cooperation in System-Wide Development," Education Leadership, 11, (March 1954), p. 338.

However, the emphasis on the importance of the classroom teacher's participation is great, since it has been recognized that the teacher knows more about the learner than anyone else in the school organization. The decision he makes about his pupils more accurately reflects the learner's experience, needs and interests. Furthermore, teacher involvement in the decision-making process, if ever given the chance, will result in high morale, maintenance of interest, and willingness to change.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Saudi Arabia has a diverse and complex system of public education. It begins with a six-year elementary cycle, followed by a general (academic) and religious secondary cycle, comprised of a three-year intermediate and a three-year academic high school vocational/technical education and teacher training[21] at the secondary level, and terminating in formal education at colleges and universities. In addition, there are various forms of alternative schooling, pre-school, child welfare centers, special education, private schools, and an extensive, but flexible system of adult education. Each of these forms represents an entity with its own aims and social role(s).

---

[21] During the early part of the 1970's, vocational/technical and and teacher training at the intermediate level was abolished. The only information available is that these have been upgraded to the secondary level due to the low enrollment at the intermediate level.

Any candidate is able to move from one grade to the next by passing the so-called promotion examination, and no candidate is eligible for admission from one cycle to the next in the public education ladder except by successfully passing the national standardized test (i.e., at the end of the 6th grade, at the end of the 9th grade, and at the end of the 12th grade) (see fig. 6). Public schooling is free of charge, nonco-educational, and noncompulsory. However, kindergarten and most private schools are co-educational and charge a minimum fee.

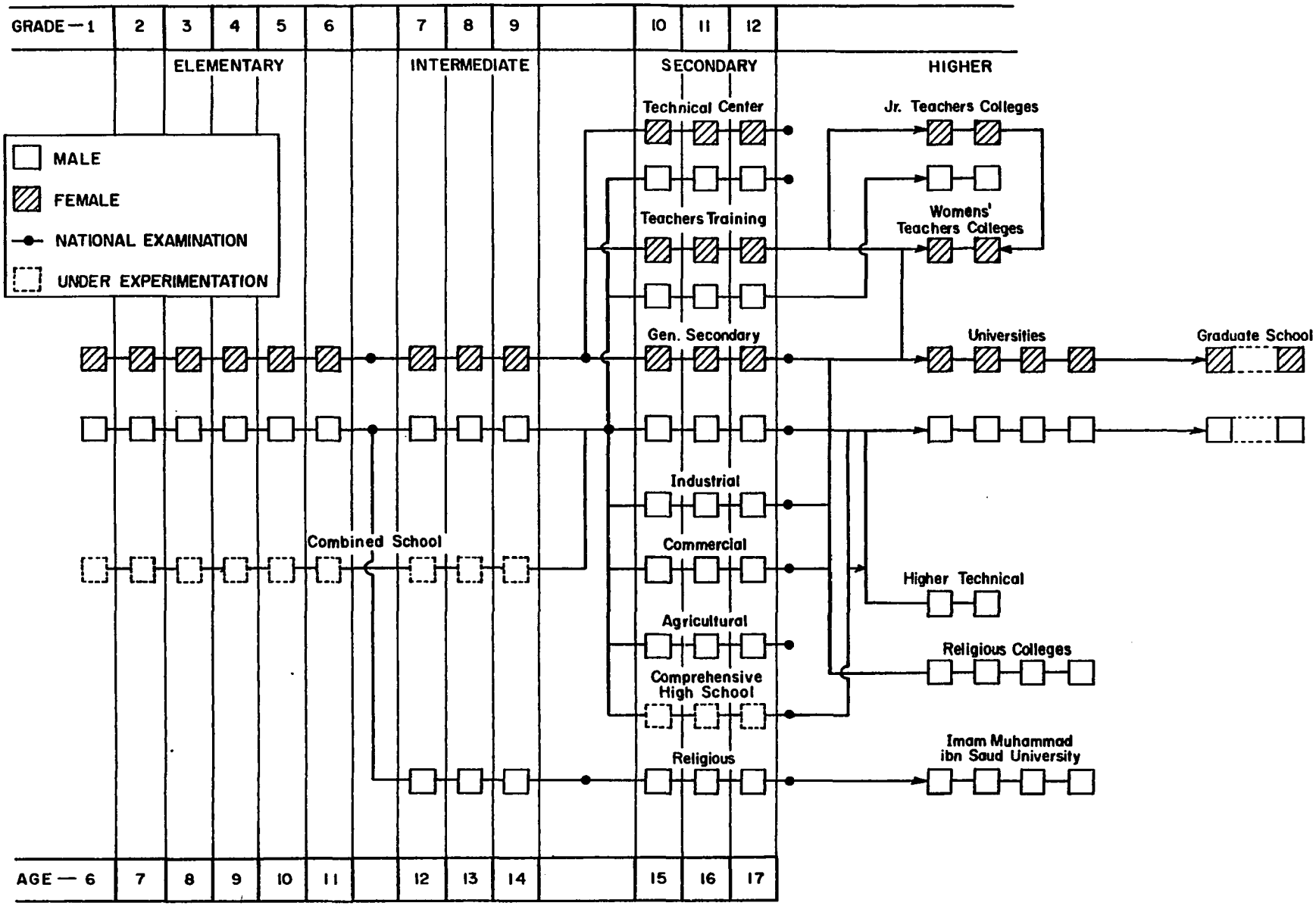
Kindergarten

Traditionally, the responsibility for upbringing, supervision, and the care of children rests chiefly with the home. Prior to the last decade, kindergarten was not considered a part of the public education system. However, changes in the family structure, living conditions, and the open-door policy for women to work (even though it is limited at present to teaching, medical, and nursing professions) or to pursue education has brought an increased demand to assist parents with the care of their children. The idea, therefore, of child care centers, and kindergartens, are gradually gaining acceptance. They are increasingly seen as essential educational institution in the Saudi educational system.

Kindergarten and child care centers accept children from the age of three to the age of six. These schooling forms are found mainly in the big cities and cater to

Figure 6

The Structure of Public School System



SOURCE BASED ON AREA HAND BOOK FOR SAUDI ARABIA, 1977; REPORT ON PROGRESS ACHIEVED IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN SAUDI ARABIA, 1979

children from all segments of the society who can afford their cost. These institutions are mainly provided and operated by bodies such as local women's organizations, foreign dignitaries, or companies and their dependents. Table 21 in the appendix B gives the number of students, schools, and teachers in the kindergarten from 1969 to 1977.

The curriculum of the kindergarten is developed and implemented by the school personnel (director of the school, teachers, and members of respected organizations). Major attention is paid to games, counting, drawing and singing. Children also learn the Arabic and English alphabets and religious practices. Recently, according to a member of a local women's organization, some of these institutions began employing the Piagetian approach to learning.

Elementary Education

Prior to the middle of the twentieth century, elementary schools were the only major institutions that existed in the country. The curriculum was basic, religiously oriented, and catered to a limited segment of the society, the "elite." Aside from the urban area, rudimentary education in rural areas and villages was conducted in the mosque or kuttab, these hardly warranted being called an elementary school. Not until 1954 did the Ministry of Education abolish this dual system of elementary education and set up a standard uniform curriculum for the entire country.

The public elementary schools in the 1950's were never open to girls, but the kuttab was. However, not too many parents took advantage of the opportunity to educate their daughters because of the social tradition and taboo that "the woman's place is in the home." This point of view has been expressed in the late 1960's, when the educational policy was issued stating that:

> The objectives of a girl's education is to bring her up in a sound Islamic way so that she can fulfil her role in life as a successful housewife, ideal wife and good mother, and to prepare her for other activities that suit her nature such a teaching, nursing, and medical profession.[22]

This certainly implies that the Saudi educational system is designed to produce men as human beings, fully qualified to interact with others and to pursue a trade, vocation or profession, but produce women who's roles are chiefly confined to that of a housewife.

The decade of the 1960's, however, brought with it a most colorful evolution in education--the introduction of the public school system for girls throughout the country. The isolated cases of opposition to it at the time (1960) led the government to delegate the implementation of this sensitive social change to a conservative element of the society, the "religious leaders." This meant that girls should be taught separately from the boys. Control of girls' education was in the hands of a commission headed by a clergyman. Fortunately, there was no opposition to the

---

[22]The Educational Policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1970, article 153, p. 28.

curriculum being organized on much the same lines as that of the boys'. The first official governmental elementary school was established in 1960. Table 22 in the appendix B gives the number of schools, publics, and teachers of both sexes in the governmental elementary school from 1969 to 1977.

Elementary education (grades 1 - 6) caters generally to children between the ages of 6 and 11. However, it is not unusual to have children who range from ages 6 through 14. Although there is no law governing this range, children may be older than 14 and still be in the elementary school (repeaters)(see table 3). The American team visited Saudi Arabia observed a "sizable age spread of children in the 4th, 5th, and 6th grades. There is even more of a spread in the rural schools than in the urban schools."[23]

The curriculum of the elementary school consists of seven areas--religion, Arabic language, social sciences, arithmetic, hygiene, art, and physical education. The emphasis on religion and Arabic studies is certainly apparent when it involves 60-65% (for both sexes) of the total class time (see tables 4 & 5). The method of instruction is based on rote learning and memorization, rather than on developing the child's critical thinking and creative abilities. Furthermore, textbooks are poor in quality and do not provide enough stimulation to the child.

---

[23] op. cit., p. 6.

Table 4

Curriculum for the Elementary cycle (Boys)
Grades I, II, to VI

Subject of Studies	Number of weekly class periods						Total Period	Percent
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI		
Qur'an	8	8	8	7	3	4	38	
Intonaton of Qur'an	-	-	-	1	1	-	2	
Unity of God	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	
Jurisprudence	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	
The prophet's saying	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	
Total	10	10	10	12	9	9	66	32.2%
Rudimentory Reading	7	7	-	-	-	-	14	
Reading Story	-	-	3	2	2	2	9	
Singing and Recitation	2	2	2	2	1	1	10	
Dictation	-	-	3	2	2	2	9	
Penmanship	-	-	1	1	1	1	4	
Compostion	-	-	2	2	1	1	6	
Grammar	-	-	-	1	2	2	5	
Total	9	9	11	10	9	9	57	27.80%
Geography	-	-	-	1	1.5	1.5	4	
History	-	-	-	1	1.5	1.5	4	
Arithmetic	4	4	6	5	6	5	30	
Elementary Geometry	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	
Science and Hygiene	2	2	2	2	3	4	15	
Total	6	6	8	10	13	13	56	27.32%
Drawing and Handicrafts	3	3	2	2	2	2	14	
Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	
Total	5	5	4	4	4	4	36	12.68%
Sum Total	32	32	35	35	35	35	205	100%

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education Report on Education in Saudi Arabia (Riyadh); Riyadh press 1972
P.21

Table 5

Curriculum for the Elementary cycle
(Girls) Grades I - II to VI

Subject of Study	Number of weekly class periods						Total Period	Per-Cent
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI		
Quar'an	10	10	9	6	4	3	42	
Explanation of Qur'an	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	
Intonation of Qur'an	-	-	-	1	1	-	2	
Jurisprudence	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	
Unity of God	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	
The prophet's saying(Hadith)	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	
Total	14	14	13	11	10	9	71	35.86%
Reading and Writing	4	3	3	2	2	2	19	
Dictation	-	3	3	2	2	2	12	
Penmanship	-	1	1	1	1	1	5	
Singing and recitation	1	1	1	1	1	1	6	
Composition	-	-	2	2	2	1	7	
Grammar	-	-	-	1	2	2	5	
Total	5	9	11	10	10	9	54	27.27%
Social Science	-	-	-	2	2	2	6	
Science and Hygiene	2	2	2	2	2	2	12	
Arithmetic	5	4	5	4	4	4	26	
Elementary Geometry	-	-	-	-	1	1	2	
Total	7	6	7	8	9	9	46	23.2%
Home Art	2	3	3	3	3	3	17	
Home Economic	-	-	-	3	3	4	10	
Total	2	3	3	6	6	7	27	13.64%
Total	28	32	34	35	34	35	198	100%

Source: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, The General Presidency for Girls Education: Girls Education in Seventeen Years (Riyadh: Al-jazirah Press, 1977).

The curriculum of the elementary school did not change much in substance in the last two decades, except in changing subject matter from one level to the next, injecting new material into the old, and changing the number of hours assigned to each subject. However, the Second Five-Year Plan (1975-80) did include and emphasize the need for reform in the elementary school curriculum. Consequently, a recent unpublished report by the Ministry of Education indicated that:

> The recent years have witnessed a new move in the development of science, mathematics, social subjects, Arabic language, religious sciences, sports and artistic education. Each one of these subjects has been affected by that move. Some have changed completely, such as sciences, mathematics, and social subjects for the elementary cycle. The others have been proportionally changed according to conditions and circumstances.[24]

According to the same report, the adoption of these new courses (especially science and mathematics) will be done graudally and their implementation in all schools will be completed within the year (1980-81).[25]

Secondary Education

The aim of the Saudi Arabian secondary school is to provide sudents with general education, laying special emphasis upon preparing them for further studies (higher education) and upon the development of national morality. Secondary education begins with a three-year, self-contained

---

[24]"Report on progress achieved in curriculum development in Saudi Arabia," op. cit., p.5

[25]Ibid., p. 7.

stage of intermediate education. It follows with three avenues open to the intermediate school graduate: (a) a three-year academic high school leading to college and university studies; (b) vocational/technical education in preparation for employment in technical positions; and (c) teaching training institutes. The student and his family decide which avenue of secondary education to pursue. However, according to the Second Five Year Plan (1975-1980), the government has attempted to restrict this decision insofar as limiting the number of students entering the academic high school by encouraging attendance at both vocational/technical schools and teacher training.[26]

The Intermediate Stage: Grades 7, 8, & 9

The origin of the intermediate school goes back to 1958. Since then, its growth has been similar to that of the elementary school expanding greatly from one year to the next. Qualification for entrance into this stage required graduating successfully from the six-year elementary school. The intermediate school is regarded as a preparatory stage for the higher grades. Its curriculum is an extension of the elementary stage. Furthermore, neither the curriculum, being mainly theoretical and verbal, nor the teaching method differs from that of the elementary stage. In most cases the intermediate school may exist as a separate school in

---

[26]The academic secondary school program of studies, the examination system, the teaching methods and other related topics are the subject of Chapter 5.

the large city, but sometimes it is housed with the elementary or the secondary high school. Table 23 in the appendix B gives the number of schools, teachers, and pupils of both sexes in the intermediate school from 1969 to 1977.

The General (Academic) High School[27]

As indicated in the previous chapter, secondary education was established in 1939. It catered to a few, the "elite." Its general aim was to prepare for university study abroad. Its curriculum was geared to the model of the Egyptian high school, and its duration was five years. This concept, name tahtheer al-pathat (preparation for scholarship abroad), was modified slightly in the 1950's to make possible the academic high school (duration three years).

General high school, covering three years, grades 10-12, falls into two cycles. The first, grade 10, is general study and includes all pupils. During the second two years, grades 11-12, the specialization cycle is subdivided into literate and scientific components with certain general required subjects common to either specialization. Successful completion of the full program entitles the student to the secondary certificate, a requirement for admission to higher education at home or abroad.

---

[27] The Second Development Plan (1975-80), op.cit., p. 288.

Table 6 indicates the growth in the specialized tracks of the general (academic) high school. It reflects the spectacular growth in the general high school, particularly in female enrollment. This table also reflects the increasing preference for the scientific track as opposed to that of liturature. The preference is explainable in that the science track tends to channel students into popular college fields such as science, engineering and medicine.[28] Furthermore, table 24 in the appendix B gives the number of students, schools and teachers of both sexes in the academic high school from 1969 to 1977.

Table 6

Distribution of Pupils in Arts and Science Groups, 1969-70 and 1974-75

Sex and group of study	Number		Percent	
	1969-70	1974-75	1969-70	1974-75
Boys	6,364	16,900	100.0	100.0
Arts	3,469	8,065	54.4	47.7
Science	2,895	8,835	45.5	52.3
Girls	706	4,698	100.0	100.0
Arts	457	2,559	64.7	54.5
Science	249	2,139	35.3	45.5

Source: Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia, 1979, p. 7

[28]Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia, op. cit., p. 25.

Vocational/Technical Education

Vocational/technical education is a new concept in the Saudi Arabian educational system. Its needs and importance were never felt until the massive influx if foreign workers altered the nation's social, traditional and economic values. Traditionally, vocational/technical education dealing with manual labor has been percieved as undignified and unworthy, socially. This view has not only been shared by the Saudi society, but also by the Arabs of the Middle East as a whole. Qubain stated that:

> Very strong factors inhibited the development of vocational education. For untold generations a strong prejudice has existed throughout the Middle East against hand work. It was reqarded as undignified, degrading, and menial. As a result, trade schools, when they existed usually attracted those with no other alternative--orphans and children of the poor and lowly. Most of these schools, whether public or private, were in the nature of charitable institutions. With the gradual rise of industry, the disdainful attitude toward vocational training and manual labor has begun to wane, but it is still very much in evidence.[29]

Consequently, vocational/technical training as another alternative for academic secondary education was hardly welcomed by parents and students alike. Moreover, it has been recognized that the academic high school is the main gate to higher education which leads to a better and easy government job with chances of frequent promotion.

The year 1949 coincides with the introduction of vocational/technical education into the Saudi educational system. It was designed to cater to those pupils who held

---

[29]F. Qubain, Education and Science in the Arab World (Baltimore: The John Hopkins University Press, 1966), p. 25.

only an elementary school certificate. It was started as a system of three-year programs to be changed in 1955 to five years, and then in 1962 to be changed again to a four-year program.[30]

In 1960, secondary vocational/technical education was introduced. The prerequisites for enrollment in this type of schooling is the intermediate school certificate. It is a system of three-year programs. Thus in the 1960's there existed intermediate and secondary vocational/technical levels of schooling. These two stages comprise three types of schooling industrial, commercial, and agricultural. For unexplained reasons, enrollment at both levels and types of school dropped by the early 1970's to one-fifth of their 1964-65 level. Furthermore, according to a Ministry report, in the early 1970's all intermediate levels had been upgraded to the secondary level, due to a low level of enrollment.[31]

Tables (7, 8, and 9) show the secondary vocational/technical curriculum and class time allocation for the branhces of industrial, commercial, and agricultural schooling. It is worth noting here that there is great emphasis on both the English and Arabic languages in these schools. Furthermore, the agriculture curriculum is more of

---

[30]A. Alaki, "Industrial-Vocational Education in Saudi Arabia: Problems and Prospects," unpublished dissertation, the University of Arizona, 1972, p. 151.

[31]Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia, 1979, op. cit., pp. 89-90.

Table 7

Curriculum Content and Weekly Time Periods of Industrial Education Distributed by Grade Level

Department	Mechanic			Electricity			Automotives			Radio and TV			Civil Engineering					
Section	General Mech. Fine Mech. Metal Working (Steel Cons.)			Electrical installation Electro-mechanic			Car - Mech. Electro- Diesel Diesel Mech.			Radio and TV			Technical Supervisors			Architect Draftsman		
Subjects / Grade*	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Workshop Technology (machinery)	4	4	8	4	8	10	4	6	10	6	8	12	4	4	8	4	4	8
Workshop Technology (material)	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-
Technical Mathematics	4	4	6	4	4	6	4	4	6	4	4	6	4	4	6	4	4	6
Technical Drawing	6	8	8	6	4	5	6	6	6	4	4	4	6	8	8	16	18	18
Industrial Economy	-	-	4	-	-	4	-	-	4	-	-	4	-	-	4	-	-	4
General Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Physics	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-
Chemistry	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-
Arabic & Religion	4	2	-	4	2	-	4	2	-	4	2	-	4	2	-	4	2	-
English Language	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
Physical Training	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-
Total	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	40	50	50	50

Source: General Department of Technical Education

* Grade 1 Equivalent to 10th Grade in U.S. Educational System
Grade 2 Equivalent to 11th Grade in U.S. Educational System
Grade 3 Equivalent to 12th Grade in U.S. Educational System

Table 8

CURRICULUM CONTENT AND WEEKLY TIME PERIODS OF COMMERCIAL SECONDARY SCHOOL DISTRIBUTED BY GRADE LEVEL

Subjects	GRADE* 1	2	3	Total
Arabic	6	4	4	14
Religion	2	2	2	6
English Language	6	6	6	18
Geography & Economy	3	-	-	3
Physical Training	1	1	1	3
Bookkeeping	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 & English)	6	6	6	18
Total	35	36	36	107

Source: General Department of Technical Education

* Grade 1 Equivalent to 10th Grade in U. S. Educational System
Grade 2 Equivalent to 11th Grade in U. S. Educational System
Grade 3 Equivalent to 12th Grade in U. S. Educational System

Table 9

CURRICULUM CONTENT AND WEEKLY TIME PERIODS OF MODEL TECHNICAL AGRICULTURE INSTITUTE DISTRIBUTED BY GRADE LEVEL

Subjects	GRADE* 1	2	3	Total
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

* Grade 1 Equivalent to 10th Grade in U. S. Educational System
  Grade 2 Equivalent to 11th Grade in U. S. Educational System
  Grade 3 Equivalent to 12th Grade in U. S. Educational System

a general education than that of agricultural specialization.

The present five year plan, however, speaks to the need to expand the existing facilities to meet anticipated economic needs for skilled workers and semi-skilled workers (see appendix A). In part, the Ministry intends to work with private estabishments to train more Saudi workers in the 1980's. New vocational/technical secondary schools are to open in various localities to meet local needs in commercial and agricultural training. In addition, the existing vocational/technical schools are to be modernized and expanded. Table 26 in the appendix B shows the number of students, teachers and schools of both sexes in technical education from 1969 to 1977.

For all practical purposes, vocational/technical education, since its establishment in 1949 has never gained momentum and has made only token progress as compared to the emergent needs of the country. This is partly due to the inconsistency of educational policy, aims and objectives of this type of schooling. Furthermore, one factor handicapping the expansion of vocational/technical education is the shortage of local Arabic speaking instructors. Therefore, the establishment of a local vocational instructors' training institutes is seen as critical to future development.

Higher Education

Higher education is a recent development in Saudi Arabia, dating back to 1949. Reflecting the Islamic outlook of the country, the first institution was the Sharia College in Mecca, established by the government in 1949 for the purpose of training religious and Arabic teachers for secondary schools. In 1953, the College of Islamic Laws was opened in Riyadh. Unlike the Sharia College (in Mecca) which was run by the Ministry of Education, the latter came under the Grand Mufti's control.[32]

The University of Riyadh was opened in 1957 under its independent authority which, however, was linked with the Ministry of Higher Education in 1975. The first faculty was Arts, which now offers a four-year course with specializations in Arabic, English, History and Geography. The Sciences faculty began in 1958 and offers a four-year course with specializations in physics, mathematics, chemistry, biology and zoology. In 1959, the faculties for Pharmacy (5-year course) and Commerce (four-year course) were added, followed by the faculties for Engineering (five-year course) in 1962, Agriculture (general four-year course) in 1965, Education (four-year course) in 1967, and Medicine (five-year course) in 1966.

The Islamic University in Medina was opened in 1961 with two faculties: Ad-Dawa and Sharia. Intended as a

---

[32]R. F. Nyrop, Area Handbook for Saudi Arabia (Washington DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977), p. 99.

major learning center of the Islamic world, about 80% of its student body is non-Saudi. It is under the authority of the Grand Mufti.

To help meet the rising demand for secondary school teachers, the Ministry of Education established the Institute of Education in Mecca in 1962, and Ibha, in the south, in 1977. Specializations are offered in both institutions in social studies, sciences, mathematics and modern languages.

A second "secular" university was established in 1967, on independent,rather than government, initiative, to fill the need for non-government skilled personnel, a need most accutely felt in the Hejaz. Accordingly, the elected establishing body of the proposed King Abdul Aziz University (Jeddah) decided to first open a College of Economics and Administration. In 1968, it was expanded to include faculties for English Language and Sociology. Probably, due to financial difficulties, it was placed under the authority of the Minister of Education in 1971/72, and in 1975, under the authority and control of the Ministry of Higher Education. During the 1970's, colleges for accounting and science were added to its programs.

The demand for skilled technical personnel in the petroleum industry led to the establishment of the College of Petroleum and Minerals in 1964 by the Ministry of Petroleum, in coordination with the Petromin and the High Coordinating Committees. Its direct goals were to train

engineers and technicians; however, the emphasis was on general science skills and knowledge to make the student more flexible in later employment. Its academic program as well as its structural system, is similar to that of any U.S. university.

King Faisel University was established in 1975 in Al-Hasa in the eastern province. The Colleges of Medicine and Education were the first to be inaugurated. More colleges are expected to be added to its structure in the 1980's.

Enrollment for girls is well below that of boys, due in part to the late start of government education of girls, but also to the traditional view that the girl's place is in the home. Furthermore, job opportunities are limited; presently, almost the only opportunity lies in teaching. As noted earlier, a considerable proportion of girls enter teacher training by the time they reach the secondary level. Also, an increasing number of girls are now attending general secondary schools. To meet the increasing acute need for secondary level teachers, the General Presidency for Girls' Education established three Girls' Teachers Colleges in large cities in the early 1970's.

Aside from these colleges, higher education is open for girls only as an external student in some faculties such as the College of Medicine and Colleges of Arts and Sciences. Students sit in specially designed lecture halls equipped with close-circuit television. The telephone is

the only means of communication between the student and their instructors. Thus, communication is limited in these lecture halls. Table 10 summarizes data concerning various colleges and universities as of 1974/75.

Adult Education

Adult education and anti-illiteracy programs are an important aspect of the educational system in Saudi Arabia where illiteracy was estimated to be as high as 75 percent among men and substantially higher among women in 1975.

In 1954, the Ministry of Education started several programs to grant elementary certificates, the minimum academic requirement needed for general employment. In 1958, an independent body, the Directorate of Popular Culture, was established and the programs increased to include intermediate and secondary night school programs. Since 1962, the body's sole concern was been illiteracy. In 1973, the Directorate's regular classes had an enrollment of 54,222 of which 1,400 were women (see table 11).

The Ministry's program aims basically at both rural and urban dwellers, particularly those in poorer quarters of urban areas. The literacy programs connected with public service and community development centers. The Ministry, in cooperation with other government agencies, also runs three-month summer literacy campaigns among the bedouin; however, they are not very extensive.[33]

---

[33] Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia, op. cit., p. 105.

Table (10) Summary Data of Various Colleges and Universities 1974/1975

University/Colleges	Year of Founding	Student Enrollment Men	(Total)	Women	Faculty Native	Non-Native	Budget (SR) millions	Language of Instruction
Riyadh University (Riyudh)	1957	5026	(6710)	818**	163	482	371.7	Arabic/English
King Abdul Aziz University (Jeddah)	1967	3946	(5761)	1175	151	275	191.9	Arabic/English
University of Petroleum & Mineral (Damam)	1964	1745	1745	-	125	162	84.6	English
King Fasil University	1975	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Religions University								
Imam Muhammed Ibn Saud University (Riyadh)	1974	1990	(3370)	54	74	130	112.4	Arabic
Islamic University	1961	902	(902)	-	11	31	40.2	Arabic
Colleges								
Girls College of Education	1970	-	577	577	10	-	-	Arabic
Riyadh	1974	-	298	298	4	-	-	Arabic
Jeddah								

Source: Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia

** External Student

The primary emphasis is to insure that those taught do not lapse back into illiteracy rather than exposing larger numbers for short periods of time. The course is designed to lead up to the primary certificate after four years (32 months) of evening school insturuction.[34] Follow-up courses at the intermediate and secondary levels are being expanded. However, since available day school facilities and staff are used, the extent of expansion depends on the capacities of these facilities.

Women, therefore have been excluded because night school programs are unfeasible. The Ministry of Education and the general Presidency for Girls' education developed instruction by television. Furthermore, a pilot project in several communities aims at promoting public awareness and as well as teaching basic skills. Table 27 in the appendix B gives the number of students, teachers and publics in the government adult education program from 1969 to 1977.

A new literacy program, of two years duration and with a follow-up phase of two years, has been in operation recently. Its objectives stated are as follows:

1. To develop Islamic awareness, and essential linguistic and arithmetic skills for everyday use.
2. To prepare learners for a better understanding in matters of health, home economics, nutritian and child care.
3. To improve productivity and provide qualified labor.

---

[34]Ibid., p. 106.

4. To give women a better understanding of civics and of the environment in which they live.[35]

Table 11 below shows the extent of the expansion of the elementary level program.

Table 11

Adult Education: Schools and Learners

Item	1964-65		1967-70		1974-75	
	MF	F	MF	F	MF	F
Number of centers	393	.	607	.	1425	350
Number of classes	1172	.	1633	.	4252	1109
Number of learners	32739	.	42314	.	99673	24622
Preliminary stage	.	.	26612	.	73037	22689
Follow-up stage	.	.	15702	.	26636	1933
Teachers	.	.	.	.	5953	1118

Source: Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia, 1979, p. 105.

Special Education

Children suffering from ailments are referred to special schools. Such schools provide for the mentally deficient, the deaf, and the blind. The first school for the blind was established in 1960 in Riyadh. Today there are eight institutions for the deaf and dumb located in large cities. They offer special education for boys and girls with free board and free housing (see table 12).

[35] M. Kedah, "The Education of Women in the Arab World: Case of Saudi Arabia," Literacy Discussion, vol. 6, No. 4, (Winter 1975-76), p. 29.

The Ministry of Education is involved in improving the system of special education in regard to the educational program, curricula, textbooks and methods. These institutions provide two different types of education: general education which is similar to public education, with slight modifications to meet the needs and interests of these pupils, and a six-year vocational education. Table 12

Table 12

Special Education: Institutes, Enrollment and Teaching Staffs, 1964-65, 1969-70, and 1974-75

Category of institutes, enrollment & teachers	1964-65		1969-70		1974-75	
	MF	F	MF	F	MF	F
Institutes for the blind						
Number	5	1	8	1	8	1
Students	625	30	1061	55	978	56
Teachers	77	10	186	21	364	28
Institutes for the deaf and dumb						
Number	1	-	2	1	5	2
Students	27	-	187	96	592	148
Teachers	7	-	37	22	114	54
Institutes for the mentally retarded						
Number	-	-	-	-	2	1
Students	-	-	-	-	214	30

Source: Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia, 1979, p. 103.

gives separate information as to the type and number of institutions, enrollment and teachers devoted to special education.

Alternative Education

While the author was gathering information for this study in Saudi Arabia in 1978-79, his attention was attracted to a predetermined sweeping innovation that might affect and change the structure of the present educational system in the near future. It is premature to make an evaluation or first judgment at this tentative stage, but since this new and sudden reform is a concern of this study, it is beneficial to cite whatever information is available and to shed light on its feasibility and applicability to the SaudiArabian educational system at this time.

The main observation that anyobserver can psoclaim about the pragmatic approach to the problems of the stsuctureOis certainlythe clear failure of cestain aims and objectives in the fisst and second five year plans that concern educational development. As indmcated earlier in bsief, and specificallyOin appendix A, several provisions were made in these two plans for the achievement of reform in the curriculum of both cycles (elementary and secondary education). Among them are the upgrading of in-service training for teachers and the reducing of the dropout and repeater rates, etc. These provisions, among many others, are progressing slowly, with some success. However, the

main challenge to educators and planners is the pressing need for manpower development (i.e., skilled workers and qualified civil servants). Here planners have attempted to channel 50 percent of the intermediate school graduates to the stream of vocational/technical education and teacher training institutes. According to the 1974 statistics, only 1,420 out of 16,385 intermediate school graduates attended vocational/technical schools. Furthermore, it appeared recently that the main problem is the shortage of native, skilled manpower and civil servants. Attempts have been made in the past decade to attract the youth to the profession of manual work, but they have failed. Indications are that these efforts will continue.

The new trends in the structure of the system of education which is under experimentation, according to an unpublished report by the Ministry of Education, is as follows: the 6-3-3 school system is to be reformed into a 9-3 school system indicating that the intermediate school (grades 7-8-9) is to be abolished gradually and incorporated into a nine year "combined" elementary school; the academic high school (grades 10-11-12) and the vocational/technical secondary school are to be housed in a single school that will form a type of "comprehensive high school"; finally, there will be a "full day school" in which the school day is to be extended to seven periods rather than six periods.[36]

---

[36] "Report on Progress Achieved in Curriculum Development in Saudi Arabia," op. cit., p. 20.

The "combined school," the report explained, accomodates six-year-old students and they may continue in this school until the intermediate stage if they choose. The aims of this type of school, according to the report are to: (1) Combine the activities of kindergarten and the elementary school; (2) Concentrate on religious studies and Arabic language. (3) Allow the student to choose from physical practice, drawing, theoretical study, scientific experiments, and vocational training; and (4) Gradually diversify the responsibility of the teacher toward the student to help him gain knowledge and increase his participation.

This type of school was started in 1977/78 and according to the report, ". . .if proven to be successful. . .will be used in a wider range."[37]

The "comprehensive secondary school" was introduced in 1976/1977 and its most prominent traits according to the report are as follows:

> 1. Accommodates every student who completed the intermediate school if they or their patrons choose to join this kind of school. That is to mean that joining is not compulsory.
> 2. Duration of a term is 16 weeks with a fixed period of 50 hours per week.
> 3. There are four courses, general compulsory subjects, special compulsory subjects, optional subjects, and additional activities.
> 4. There are six terms and with total hours at 120. This type of school will give the same subjects as the regular secondary school in addition to the additional activities. The graduate of this school is expected to be able to do his duty in his career satisfactorily. He is also expected to continue his education.[38]

---

[37]Ibid., p. 21. [38]Ibid., p. 20.

The present mode of reorganizing the educational system or providing and alternative school to the existing one, although it may or may not prove to be successful, is certainly ill-advised. The real problem at the present is not so much the question of comprehensive versus non-comprehensive schooling, or the form 6-3-3 against the form 9-3 or 4-4-4, etc. The issue here should be looked at from the point of view of "readiness" to host and incorporate the concept of the comprehensive school with its available course offerings and its superstructure.

Certainly, the concept of the comprehensive high school has been tried and proven successful in countries of the industrialized world. However, the aims and circumstances that bring about this type of schooling differ substantially from one country to the next. In the United States, for instance, the comprehensive school idea was based on the hope that it would offer a better education for youngsters in slums and urban centers and reduce tension within separated areas in the big cities. England has also become increasingly concerned with the educational provisions for its working-class youth, its immigrant children and its non-whites.[39] Conant, an American educator and advocate of the comprehensive high school, stated that, ". . .if this idea had been overriding in all states and all communities centuries ago, there would have been no

---

[39]H. Passow, "Comprehensive Versus Selective Education, The New Equity," International Review of Education, vol. 17, no. 1, 1971, p. 23.

segregation."[40] Furthermore, Conant stated that this type of schooling was designed to provide, ". . .a general education for all future citizens on the basis of a common democratic understanding, and it seeks to provide in its elective offerings excellent instruction in an academic field and rewarding first class instruction.[41] In addition, Conant set forth a number of recommendations for the American comprehensive high school. Among these recommendations are the following: (a) balance and depth in the curriculum; (b) individualized instruction; (c) functional learning; and (d) full time counselor ratio of 1:250-300, etc.[42]

It is doubtful whether at this time Saudi Arabia could meet such criteria and host this type of schooling, especially at a time when its major effort should be directed toward making the secondary school curriculum more relevant to the needs and interests of the learner; replacing the rented houses and temporary refabricated school by a more suitable and appealing ones, and improving the teaching methods, instructional material, and examination system, in order to reduce the number of repeaters and dropouts. Further, the Ministry of Education report did not mention whether girls' education which is

---

[40]J. Conant, The Comprehensive High School (New York: McGraw Hill, 1967), p. 8.

[41]Ibid., p. 4.

[42]Ibid., pp. 25-63.

separate but parallel to that of boys', would be effected by this change or not. What are the specific goals and objective of such innovation? What preparation and potentiality, if any, are at the disposal of the ministry, especially with respect to the implementation of the idea of the comprehensive high school, such as school buildings, and their sites, teachers and their qualifications, educational materials and the number of enrollments required, etc.?

Within this context, Saudi Arabian educators, and especially those who are concerned with planning, should learn from past experience that the basic principle of successful planning is to share and involve the public with the new development prior to its implementation. It is to the dismay of the principal, teachers, parents and students that they are the last persons to know about these projects. The best example that the author may present is the controversy over the implementation of the extension of the school day to seven periods instead of six.

The Ministry of Education chose Riyadh District as the site for its experiment. The trial, according to the Ministry official, was successful and should be implemented. The time of implementation was met by criticism from the press and resistance from school personnel and parents. The resistance that prevailed against this move was not so much against the innovation as against the way it was presented; most felt that this idea was "shoved down the throat of the public." Mr. Zade, the Directorate General of the western

province, speaking in defense of this innovation, claimed that "the idea was discussed in detail, but it has suffered injustice from many people."[43] He added:

> All this fuss has happened beacause of one class period, which was wanted for outside classrooms and incentive activities in order to enable the students to learn in a better way. There is no doubt that such activities and training students on research and other good actions deepen the understanding of scientific facts. And this is a good educational principle and all educational experts believe in it and call for it because it is of useful result for the students. We don't like to weary anybody--neither the society, the students or the teachers. We also consider all potentials available. Therefore the topic was misunderstood and many critics did not bother themselves to inquire about the idea from its origin and they ignored the cause and attacked as if it is a new attitude or a change in the Ministry of Education's system or a change in the social system. . .Buildings, the teachers, the curriculum and the books. . .and specialized staffs are available.[44]

The opinion of A. Al-Yihya, Director General of Labor, and father of one of the students, was cited in the same newspaper about adjusted day school. Al-Yihya indicated that:

> . . .in fact I heard about the procedures being carried out to apply the idea of the complete day. I believe that this resolution is developed because it is applied in the most developed countries--Europe and America--but the question is, did we arrive at their social and family awareness and realization concerning their system? And does the family's situation and its readiness accept this system? This is a thing which I hoped that the Ministry of Education would study in detail.
>
> I believe that every new idea begins with a new experiment, and there is no disgrace in beginning this attempt. The mistake would occur if we don't get use of this experiment's wrongs and corrections as much as

---

[43]Al-Madena Al-Monaura (local daily newspaper), No. 4838, July 1, 1980, p. 4.

[44]Ibid., p. 4.

possible. If we possess such an outlook, I don't think there will be a problem. Therefore, we should have the courage to change the resolution if it is proved to be wrong and then we should retreat from its application, if it is not suitable, and this is possible as long as there is willingness to improve.[45]

A principal of the school, M. Khallaf, voiced his opinion in this manner:

> Although the adjusted day is considered an important educational concept in the student's life, current schools are not fully equipped. Moreover, there is a lack of administrators, as the headmaster works as a clerk, editor, following student affairs, among other things. . .to enable the idea to succeed, we should reduce the teacher periods from 28 periods to 20 periods per week, and avail the optimum educational climate and recruit more employees to satisfy the needs of the schools.[46]

Within this context, until the Saudi Arabian education system reaches the stage where it can make educational facilities accessible to every community and city (rural as well as urban areas), then innovation and diversity will certainly tend toward failure. Certainly, the fault in not reaching this goal is not the form of the education system itself, but the way in which it is operated. The reflections here from both parents and school personnel indicate they are certainly not against innovation in the school system, but against implementation procedures.

---

[46]Ibid., p. 4.

CHAPTER V

DEVELOPMENT OF THE CURRICULUM IN THE PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL

In developed societies and to a lesser extent in the underdeveloped nations "what to teach" and "how to teach it" have been the major concerns of educators, in general, and curriculum developers in particular. New learning theories and several methods of teaching have been developed and suggested for classroom use, such as team teaching, flexible scheduling, program learning, teaching machines, small class size, non-graded schools, etc. The evolution of curriculum innovations and of teaching methods which educators, curriculum developers and psychologists, especially in the West, took decades to develop has been widely accepted there and practiced in all levels of schooling.

The Arab world in general and Saudi Arabia in particular have not been affected by this evolution. This can be attributed mainly to the narrow purposes for which the educational system of the country was designed and developed during the last century, when teaching methods where defined as "memory work."

There is no doubt that the Saudi Ministry of Education has made noticeable changes in the secondary school curriculum, but these have been neither profound nor

effectively implemented. The fact is that the impact of these reforms, which amounted to merely adding or omitting subject matter from one level to the next, never included the methods of teaching, examination and evaluation.

The first and second five-year plans (1970-1980) did emphasize the need for a drastic change in these areas, along with the development of the new course offerings. But the nature of the subject matter, the teaching methods, and other aspects of the school system remain dormant and do not differ significantly from those of two decades ago.

In this chapter an attempt is made to trace the changes that have occurred in the public secondary school curriculum (i.e., content, teaching methods, examination system, etc.) since the establishment of the secondary school in 1939.

Curriculum Reforms

It has been widely recognized that decisions on curriculum should be based on the aims and objectives of education, established criteria or principles guiding the selection and arrangement of the content, techniques or criteria of activities to be used in the school, and a follow-up method of evaluation. As was mentioned previously, however, the Saudi curriculum is narrowly defined as "a sequence of orderly description of subject matter." The curriculum and methodology of the secondary school program from the time of its establishment have shown several characteristics: the narrowness of range of content

and method, inflexibility, and conservatism, especially in terms of aims and objectives.

During the life span of the secondary school (1938 to 1978) curricula and the time allocated for each subject were changed at least nine times. This was no doubt in part due to the rapidly changing socioeconomic condition of the country, as well as the desire to push ahead along the road of development and reform. It was also due to the fact that during this period the reformers had no real practical educational experience. Ministry officials were much too busily occupied with the material side of educational reconstruction and expansion to pay due attention to the real question of curriculum development. The result was that many of these changes were made with little idea in the minds of Ministry officials of the immense issues involved and with only the vaguest notions of how best to implement them.

The first secondary school program of study published in 1939 provided for a five-year course. The course of study was originally constructed out of borrowings from foreign school practices, among which the Egyptian was the most influential. The syllabus was basically a study of religion, Arabic and English, with some abstract unintegrated subjects to enable graduates to meet requirements for advanced study abroad[1] (see table 13).

---

[1]Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education,"Report on the Development of the Examination

Table 13

The Secondary School Program of Studies 1939

Subjects	Periods per Week				
	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	5th year
Religion	9	10	8	2	2
Arabic	6	6	6	3	3
English	6	6	6	7	6
Arithmetic	3	2	2	1	1
Algebra	2	2	2	3	2
Geometry	2	2	2	3	2
Physics	2	2	2	3	3
Chemistry	-	-	-	3	3
Natural History	-	-	1	2	2
History	2	2	2	-	-
Geography	2	2	2	-	-
Mechanics	-	-	-	2	2
Drawing	-	-	-	3	3
Moral Ed.	-	-	1	-	-
Total	34	34	34	34	34

Source: The General Directorate of Education of Saudi Arabia, General Secondary School Curricula of 1939 (memographed pamphlet).

Prior to the lengthening of the secondary school program to six years in two stages, a temporary intermediate stage was established in 1945, and a change was introduced for the upper two years in a revised program[2] (see table 14). Winder examined the secondary course of study at the time and wrote:

> The course as laid down in the government is certainly a marked advance over any previously available facilities; however, the curriculum still leaves something to be desired. One can readily see that there is no flexibility of any sort in the schedules, that there is no provision for physical education or recreation, and that more time is spent on the study of religion than on all natural science. Furthermore, a concentration of almost thirty percent of the student's time on a foreign language, English, is probably more than is necessary.[3]

In 1953, the structure of the secondary school was reorganized by lengthening it to a six-year program, and a new revision in the course of study was introduced. The sixth year permitted either a literary or scientific emphasis, by permitting four types of specialization: literature, social studies, science, and mathematics. The aim of this revision was to provide some scientific and practical subjects to meet the needs of the country in its efforts to develop. However, the revision was not a massive

---

System and Program of Studies for all Levels of Education in Saudi Arabia from 1927 to 1971," (Riyadh, 1971), p. 109; Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, General Directorate of Education, "General Secondary School Curricula of 1939," (Mecca, 1939).

[2]Ibid., p. 110; Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, General Directorate of Education, "Bulletin of the Secondary School Program of 1945," (Mecca, 1945).

[3]G. T. Trial and B. Winder, op. cit., p. 125.

Table 14

The Secondary School Program of Studies, 1945 Revision

Subject	Periods per Week				
	Intermediate			Preparatory	
	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	5th year
Religion	7	6	5	3	3
Arabic	7	7	7	5	5
English	12	12	12	9	8
History	2	3	3	2	2
Geography	2	2	2	1	1
Science	-	1	1	-	-
Physics	-	-	-	4	4
Hygiene	1	-	-	-	-
Chemistry	-	-	-	2	2
Biology	-	-	-	-	3
Geometry	-	-	-	4	4
Arithmetic	4	4	3	-	-
Algebra	-	-	-	5	3
Drawing	1	1	2	1	1
Total	36	36	36	36	36

Source: The General Directorate of Education of Saudi Arabia, General Secondary School Curriculum of 1945.

change in the syllabus but was merely an addition to the existing program of study consisting of subjects French, psychology, chemistry and pure mathematics[4] (table 15).

A major reorganization of the structure of the secondary schools was undertaken in 1958, and its new program of study was revised in 1959. The secondary school was divided into two separate institutions: a three-year self-contained intermediate stage, and a three-year college preparatory academic high school in which the first year provides general education and the last two years are divided into literary and scientific specializations. This was a departure from the earlier four types of specialization, in that the literary section emphasizes Arabic language studies and social studies (history, geography, psychology, and sociology) as the major subjects, while the scientific section stresses science and mathematics. The revision of the program of study in 1959 did not affect the content of the subjects; it dealt with reorganizing the program in terms of the time allotted to each subject and added to its existing program new courses, such as sociology and physical education[5] (table 16).

---

[4]Report on the development of the examination system and program of studies, op. cit., p. 112; Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, "Bulletin of the Secondary School Program of 1953," (Riyadh, 1953).

[5]Ibid., p. 113; Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, "Bulletin of the Secondary School Program, 1959," (Riyadh, 1959).

Table 15

The Secondary School program of Studies, 1953 Revision

	Periods per Week						
	Intermediate				Preparatory		
	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	5th year	6th year Literate	6th year Scientific
Religion	7	6	5	4	4	-	-
Arabic	7	7	7	6	6	6	6
English	12	12	12	8	8	9	8
French	-	-	-	3	3	6	3
History	2	3	3	2	2	5	-
Geography	2	2	2	1	1	5	
Psychology	-	-	-	-	-	5	
Physics	-	-	-	3	2	-	4
Chemistry	-	-	-	2	2	-	6
Biology	-	-	-	-	3	-	5
Pure Math	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Algebra	-	-	-	3	-	-	-
Geometry	-	-	-	3	-	-	-
Arithmetic	4	1	2	-	-	-	-
Drawing	1	1	2	1	1	-	-
Total	35	32	33	36	36	36	36

Source: Ministry of Education of Saudi Arabia, General Secondary School Curricula 1953

Table 16

The Secondary School Program of Studies, 1959 Revision

	Subject	Periods per Week: Intermediate 1st Year	Intermediate 2d Year	Intermediate 3rd Year	High School 4th Year	High School 5th Year Literate	High School 5th Year Scientific	High School 6th Year Literate	High School 6th Year Scientific	Total Periods per Week	%-age
Religious Studies	Explanation of the Qur'an	3	3	3	-	-	-	-	-		
	Unity of God	2	2	2	2	2	2	-	-		
	The Prophet's Sayings	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1		
	Jurisprudence	2	2	2	1	1	1	-	-		
	Total	9	9	9	4	4	4	1	1	32	12.8
Arabic Language	Reading	1	1	-	2	2	1	2	1		
	Composition	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		
	Literature	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	2		
	Grammar	2	2	2	1	-	-	-	-		
	Criticism and Rhetoric	2	2	2	0	2	1	2	1		
	Total	7	7	6	6	7	5	8	5	45	17.9
Social Studies	History	2	2	2	2	2	-	2	-		
	Geography	2	2	2	2	2	-	2	-		
	Psychology	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	-		
	Sociology	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	-		
	Total	4	4	4	4	8	-	8	-	32	12.8
Science	Science and Hygiene	2	3	3	-	-	-	-	-		
	Physics	-	-	-	2	-	3	-	3		
	Chemistry	-	-	-	2	-	3	-	3		
	Biology	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	3		
	Total	2	3	3	4	-	9	-	9	18	7.0
	Mathematics (including mechanics)	4	4	5	4	-	7	-	7	31	12.3
	English	8	8	8	8	8	5	8	5	58	23.0
	French	-	-	-	-	3	3	3	3	12	4.8
	Physical Education	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8	3.0
	Drawing	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	4	1.6
	Additional Studies	-	-	-	-	3	3	3	3	12	4.8
	Total	36	37	37	32	34	37	32	34	252	100.0

Source: Ministry of Education of Saudi Arabia, General Secondary School Curriculum of 1959

A sequence of revisions was introduced in 1964, 1970, and 1974. Again these revisions dealt mainly with adjustment of the time table for adding geology to the program in 1964, the elimination of the French language studies from the secondary system in 1970, and the elimination of drawing in 1974[6] (table 17). The elimination of French from the curriculum has stirred many questions with respect to relations between France and Saudi Arabia. However, according to one official, the curriculum was so overloaded with courses that something had to be eliminate, and French happened to be the one.

By far the most important reform introduced was during the second five-year plan. First, the school year was divided into two semesters, the autumn semester and the spring semester. Each semester was to be four months in length. The program of studies was divided between the two semesters accordingly, i.e., the content of a subject was been divided equally between the two semesters. Second, the new trend attempted a departure from the earlier separate subject matter to an integrated course of study: i.e., the various science courses were to be integrated into a general science; the various mathematics courses were to become a general mathematics; and the separate social studies courses were to be eliminated and replaced by an integrated course

---

[6]Ibid., p. 114; Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, "Bulletin of the Secondary School Program, 1974," (Riyadh, 1974).

Table 17

The Secondary School Program of Studies, 1974 Revision

	Subject	Periods per Week: Intermediate 1st Year	Intermediate 2d Year	Intermediate 3rd Year	High School 4th Year	High School 5th Year Literate	High School 5th Year Scientific	High School 6th Year Literate	High School 6th Year Scientific	Total Periods per Week	Percent of the Total
Religious Studies	Explanation of the Qur'an	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		
	The Qur'an	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-		
	Unity of God	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1		
	The Prophet's Sayings	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1		
	Jurisprudence	2	2	2	1	1	1	-	-		
	Total	8	8	8	4	4	4	3	3	42	15.4%
Arabic Language	Criticism and Rhetoric	2	2	2	1	2	-	2	-		
	Composition	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	-		
	Literature	1	1	1	3	3	1	3	1		
	Grammar	2	2	2	3	3	2	3	2		
	Reading	1	1	-	1	2	-	2	-		
	Total	7	7	6	9	11	4	11	3	58	20.8%
Social Studies	History	2	2	2	2	3	-	3	-		
	Geography	2	2	2	2	3	-	3	-		
	Psychology	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-		
	Sociology	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-		
	Total	4	4	4	4	8	-	8	-	32	11.5%
	Mathematics	4	4	5	4	-	7	-	7	31	11.1%
Science	Physics	-	-	-	2	-	4	-	4		
	Chemistry	-	-	-	2	-	4	-	4		
	Biology	-	-	-	2	-	3	-	3		
	Geology	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1		
	Science & Hygiene	2	3	3	-	-	-	-	-		
	Total	2	3	3	6	-	12	-	12	38	13.6%
	Physical Education	1+	1+	1+	1+	1+	1+	1+	1+	8	2.8%
	Home Art	1*	1*	1*	1*	1*	1*	-	-	6	2.2%
	Home Economics	1*	1*	1*	1*	1*	1*	-	-	6	2.2%
	English	8	8	8	6	6	6	6	6	54	19.4%
	Drawing	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	3	1.1%
	Total Boys	35	36	36	34	30	34	29	31	278	100.0%
	Total Girls	36	37	37	35	31	35	28	30		

\+ Boys only * Girls only

Source: Ministry of Education of Saudi Arabia, General Secondary School Curriculum (boys) 1974; The General Presidency for Girls' Education, Education of Girls in Seventeenth year, 1977.

called social studies.[7] This certainly implied an attempt to redevelop the content of the subject matter. Furthermore, mathematics and science study groups have been established recently by the Ministry to take charge of these developments. These groups, according to their specializations, are composed of Ministry of Education officials and university staff. This effort represents a departure from the traditional curriculum, where there was a lumping together of separate courses, to a new and more meaningful integrated education. A word of caution, however, the only subject matter that is integrated today is mathematics; the development of the other subjects remains to be complete in the near future.

The guiding principle for the new phase of reform in publicschools curriculum are stated in a recent unpublished report by the Ministry in which the following was written:

> Directing knowledge and sciences in all kinds and resources and methods, authorship and training in an Islamic direction in dealing with issues, theories, and the way to their utilization to ensure its evolution from Islam and in harmony with the apposite Islamic thinking.
>
> Coordination in harmony with science, applicable methods and application in their capacity as among the most important means in the cultural, social, economic and sanitary development for raising the standard of our nation and performing our role in world cultural progress.
>
> The enlightened reaction with world civilization development in the fields of science, literature and culture, its following up, participating with and

---

[7]Report on progress achieved in curriculum development in Saudi Arabia, op. cit., pp. 5, 7, & 15.

directing in a way that benefits the society and humanity.

The close connection with the history of our nation and the civilization of our Islamic religion and benefitting from our ancestors vitae to guide our way at present and in future.[8]

Most educators would agree that these are notable purposes, but as guidelines for curriculum development they are not all that useful. For example, they are stated in general terms; there is no indication of the priority to be given to the various goals.

Program of Studies

It is beyond the scope of this dissertation to treat each subject in the curriculum and to trace its origin and development. Therefore, the program of studies will be discussed under the headings of (a) Religious and Moral Instruction; (b) Languages; (c) Mathematics; (d) Science; (e) Social Science; and (f) Physical Education and Extra Curricular Activities.

Religious and Moral Instruction

Perhaps no aspect of education received as much careful consideration at the hands of the education officials as that which aims at inculcating religious and moral values. For one thing, religious and moral instruction were and still are considered to be one of the basic elements in all school instruction, since they encompass social, ethical, moral, and spiritual values.

---

[8]Ibid., pp. 5-6.

They are compulsory subjects from the first grade of the elementary school to and beyond secondary education. However, the time alloted for these subjects is reduced as the learner advances from the first grade to the twelfth grade. The aim underlining the teaching of religion and moral values was formulated by the Ministry of Education as follows:

> 1. Propagate good belief in the learners.
> 2. Acquaint them with the sharia doctrines which correct their worship and make it acceptable to God.
> 3. Accustom them to adopt the religious virtues and morals taught by God in order to improve the condition of individuals and groups and to open their eyes to evil and bad morals shunned by human nature.[9]

The means to attain these aims is the study of these virtues and morals and their application. Religious and moral instruction is confined to four subjects: the Quran and Tafsir, the Hadith, theology (Al-Tawhid), and the Figh.

The Quran and Tafsir: The Quran is regarded as the directly revealed word of God. It is also regarded as the highest example of Arabic literary style--so high as to be beyond successful human imitation. Knowledge of the Quran involves not only knowledge of its content but also reading and explanation (Tafsir) with memorizing and reciting of one part.

The Hadith: Whereas the Quran is the direct revealed word of God, Hadith is indirect revelation. It is a record of

---

[9]A. Thomas, The Educational Renaissance of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Tempe: Arizona State Univ, 1965), vol. 2, chapts. 5-6, pp. 4-5, pp. 11-13. "Bulletin of the Secondary School Program of Studies of 1974," op. cit., pp. 17-20.

the sayings and doings of the prophet Mohammed, along with his advice and recommendations. Through Hadith, the Muslim arrives at his view of temporal and spiritual life. It has evolved as a main source of moral guidance. The student is obligated to learn by heart, through memorization and to comprehend the eternal meaning of the prophet's sayings.

Theology (Al-Tawhid): This subject involves teaching about the Unity of God as manifested in all his creation and the necessity to worship him alone, as well as to believe in the prophets, the angels, the Sacred Books and the day of Judgment. It also concerns rewards and punishments.

Figh: Muslim law (jurisprudence) is a divine, not a man-made institution. Its purpose is not simply to govern the relation of the individual to society or to another individual, but rather to lay down a set of directions for governing every aspect of bodily and spiritual life. The Five Pillars of Islam--the Shahada (or creed) prayer, fasting, almsgiving, and pilgrimage are all governed by the law.

Moral education is concerned with both religious and secular (civic) instruction. Moral instruction in the religious syllabus, however, plays a much larger part. Furthermore, moral content is part of all school practice and plays a predominant part in and out of school life. Stress is directed toward honesty and truthfulness, consideration for others, reverence for old age, kindness to

animals, compassion for the needy and suffering, and last but not least, the spirit of devotion, duty and sacrifice.[10]

These subjects are taught extensively and intensively in both secular-religious schools and exclusively in the religious secondary school. Religious programs are not subject to alteration in content. However, in the 1970's an attempt was being made to improve the method of instruction.

Language Instruction

In the early development of the secondary school program of studies the teaching of two languages, Arabic and English, was included. These two subjects no doubt consume the lion's share in terms of hours per week. In 1953 the French language was added to the program of the secondary school. It was offered only for the upper years of the secondary school (grades 10-12). In 1969 French was removed from the secondary school program, while Arabic and English have remained as major subjects.

Arabic Language

Arabic is the the language of instruction in all public schools. Like religious studies, Arabic language, studied in the elementary school, is continued throughout the secondary school in a more extensive and intensive manner. It consumes a fifth of the pupils' time in the

---

[10] Ibid., pp. 20-98. A. H. Kinany, "Muslim Educational Ideas," Yearbook of Education (London: Evans Brothers Ltd., 1949), pp. 415-416.

intermediate level and almost one-third in the secondary school, with special emphasis being given to literature. Arabic studies include reading, literature and its history, composition, grammar and etymology, and criticism and rhetoric.

The aim of teaching the Arabic language is to enable the learner to express correctly what he experiences in daily life, to train him to read constructive literature, and to encourage him to become acquainted with the treasures of the language and the vast library of science, art, and literature. Instruction in reading and literature is considered the most beneficial part of the Arabic studies, for it teaches the correct usage, develops literary taste, enriches the vocabulary, and develops the pupils' innate talent and the enjoyment of good style. There is much oral reading from a text (Selected Reading) on subjects including literature, social studies, and science. The pre-Islamic Age, the Islamic Age, the Ottoman modern periods and biographies of prominent men of these periods are studied.

The pupils study not less than two hundred verses of poetry and one hundred and fifty lines of prose. They memorize at least one hundred verses of poetry and fifty lines of prose each year.

Grammar, previously studied in the elementary and intermediate schools continues during the first year of high school. Oral as well as written composition is stressed with selected topics from current events of economic and

social significance. Each learner is required to write twelve compositions, eight of which are done outside the classroom and four in the classroom.[11]

English Language

With the elimination of the French language from the secondary school program of studies in the late 60's, English language began to enjoy higher status. It is perceived not only as a language of science and technology, but also as a popular language of communication between nations and for further advanced study at home and abroad. It is not astonishing, therefore, that more than one-fourth of the secondary-school schedule is devoted to the teaching of the English language. However, there exists today, as well as in the past, the sentiment that the study of foreign language should not be mandatory for all pupils, since the largest number of failures occur in this subject and a large segment of the student population does not pursue higher education. Nevertheless, educators at the Ministry of Education favor retaining the teaching of English as a core subject.

The teaching of English begins in the intermediate school (grades 7-9). The student is expected to learn the rudiments of the English language. The student is to be able to learn the alphabet, to comprehend spoken English, to

---

[11] The Educational Renaissance of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, chapts. 5-6, pp. 6-10, pp. 14-25. "Bulletin of the Secondary School Program of Studies of 1974," op. cit., pp. 99-156.

speak current English, to read with recognition the common words and structures of English and to write a few sentences about a simple subject or incident. Instruction, however, is verbal, with more emphasis on theoretical than on practical studies.

In the high school, instruction in English continues in depth and includes reading, oral conversation, composition, translation, and grammar and idiom. The aim underlying the study of the English language in the secondary school is to have the pupil attain a standard which will permit him to make ready use of desired materials in English and which will enable him to communicate satisfactorily, according to his needs in both spoken and written forms.[12]

Mathematics Instruction

Next to religious and language instruction, mathematics has been closely identified with the secondary school tradition. Traditionally, the branches of mathematics taught in secondary schools were algebra, geometry, trigonometry and mechanics. The contents of these subjects were taught separately and organized in an abstract manner, with no reference to the solution of quantitative problems arising in everyday life. The social value of these subjects is small for the prospective workman in commercial and industrial fields. Recently, criticism with

---

[12]Ibid., pp. 311-340.

regard to traditional math mounted, not only over its content, but also for the way it is taught, relying mainly on memorization of formulas and of certain facts. Dr. H. Fehr of Teacher's College at Columbia University visited Saudi Arabia as a UNESCO mathematics expert in 1974 and found:

> 1. A dire need to be in communication with the mathematical world beyond Saudi Arabia.
> 2. A dire need to increase the number of Saudis as teachers and professors of mathematics.
> 3. Need for a search to find ways of using the intellectual power that can be contributed by the woman of Saudi Arabia.
> 4. A need to find better procedures for maintaining prestige than by using a long list of mathematical courses (beyond reasonable expectation of assimilation and understanding by the student).
> 5. A necessity to find ways to improve the procedure for revising the mathematics program to one that is educationally scientific.
> 6. A dire need to get mathematics books to be used as textbooks translated from English into Arabic.
> 7. A need for more systematic and coordinated action among all the various departments, administrators and supervisors.
> 8. A pressing need for one (or more) full-time consultants on mathematical education who is (a) a mathematician, (b) an educator, (c) a scholar in all modern movements in mathematics education.[13]

As a result of this study and the persistent efforts of UNESCO since 1969 to develop the secondary school mathematics program, a revision of the math program became a reality in 1977. It replaced the traditional mathematics program with what is called New Math.

The new mathematics syllabus that was introduced to the secondary schools differs from the traditional math in

---

[13] H. Fehr, Report on Teaching Mathematics in Saudi Arabia (Paris: UNESCO, February-March 1974), pp. 3-4.

introducing sets and group language, the addition of statistics to algebra in the eleventh grade, in establishing integration and differeniation (elementary calculus) as independent study for the twelfth grade, and incoporating of mechanics into the science program.[14]

The new mathematics syllabus is certainly one of the first major departures in the secondary school program. However, if this change is not coupled with two fundamental aspects, developing the method of teaching and providing teachers that are competent in course content, then this innovation is eventually doomed to failure.

Science Instruction

In the development of the secondary school program of studies, science was not a popular course and was never given the attention it deserved. The science program was, to a certain extent, a replica of that offered in the West (Europe and the United States). It was remote from the local environment and needs of the learner. The learner studied plant, animals, and was exposed to instruments he had never seen before and which had never existed in the environmental background of the student. Textbooks used were translated from foreign science books and remained unchanged for decades. Furthermore, science instruction lacked competent teachers and laboratory facilities and

---

[14]"Report on Progress Achieved in Curriculum Development in Saudi Arabia," op. cit., p. 12.

equipment. A learner might graduate from secondary school without conducting one experiment by himself.

Although interest in science as a secondary school program began in the 1960's, the attempt to make the program relevant to the present did not occur until the late 1970's. Today the science program is very much emphasized in the secondary school program. It consists of subjects such as physics, chemistry, biology and geology. Pupils receive instruction in elementary science from grade 7 to grade 10 with most of the instruction occurring in the scientific sections of grades 11 and 12.

Physics includes the elementary principles of mechanics, sound, light, heat, magnetism and electricity, and electrodynamics, with emphasis on their qualitative, rather than quantitative aspects. The course in chemistry is narrow in content, but its aim is to give the pupil general notions of chemistry, to help him understand the nature of matter, as well as the importance of the changes that affect it and the scientific explanation of such changes. The course of study includes work with carbon, hydrochloric acid and chlorine, deals with laws of chemical combinations, such as sulfur and nitrogen, and examines air, water, and metals. It also covers the history and development of chemistry, modern atomic theory, periodic classification of elements and hydrocarbonate composites.

Biology and geology are less emphasized than the other subjects. Instruction in these sciences begins in

grades 11 and 12. Biology consists of a study of botany and zoology. Major topics studied are human and plant anatomy and physiology, with emphasis on mammals and certain parasite animals and on their effects on human life. In geology, students learn the structure of the earth and the characteristics of certain rocks and minerals.[15]

Social Studies Instruction

In the public school program, no major field of study other than science has created more controversial issues with regard to aim and content than social studies. From the eighteenth century up to the middle of the twentieth century, there existed an opposition to the social aim of education, which was reflected in the content of the curriculum. On the one hand, there are those who view the educational institution as a place for inculcating in the young religious and traditional values. On the other hand, there is a resistance to that point of view and a desire that secondary schools be more involved and recognize the importance of social, civic, and economic tasks faced by the modern world. The latter argument certainly seems more appealing. As a result, today a greater interest in the study of modern institutions and their problems is gradually increasing and social studies has become an accepted part of the public secondary school program.

---

[15] The Educational Renaissance of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, op. cit., chapts. 5-6, pp. 19-26, pp. 52-69. "Bulletin of the Secondary School Program of Studies of 1974," op. cit., pp. 244-299.

Many branches of social studies are new to the secondary school curriculum. History and geography, although quite limited in their content, were formerly the only subjects considered acceptable for the social studies program. Recently, not only has the field of social studies expanded to include the study of psychology and sociology, but the content of history and geography has been developed to cover a wider range.

The new trends in social studies and its teaching objectives are stated as follows:

> Teaching of social sciences no longer depends (only) on presentation of historical, geographical, economic or social information, separated from each other, but it connects these subjects together and to other school subjects. In this area it is important to rely on the student's personal abilities and skills to assimilate scientific facts and apply them clearly to develop his personality and maintain healthy relations with others as a good citizen.
>
> The sources of knowledge should be different in nature and great in number. Sources should be of the useful kind and the student should use the greatest possible number of them. These sources include actual sighting, reading of books and handwritten references, pictures, charts, maps, and movie or TV films, which can be very useful if they were well chosen.[16]

In this new outlook, the concept of social studies is still vague; the term "social studies" has not been actually adopted and assimilated into the system. Furthermore, the content of the social studies program is still fixed, and there is little provision for flexibility. Social studies, as previously mentioned, includes history, geography, psychology, and sociology.

---

[16] Report on progress achieved in curriculum development in Saudi Arabia, op. cit., p. 15.

The term "history" refers to ancient events, the Wahhabi movenment, the history of the Arabian peninsula, with emphasis on the accomplishments of the ruling family, especially during the unification period of 1900-54, by King Abdul-Aziz Ibn Saud, and to the life-style and contributions of the late King Feisal. These are the predominant topics covered from the seventh through the twelfth grades. Additional historical topics are included in the literature section (grades 11 and 12). These include the European Renaissance, the Industrial Revolution, Arab civilization before and after Islam, and the ancient and contemporary history of the Arab world.

In geography, the emphasis is on the study of the Arabian peninsula, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, and the Arab world in general--locations, topography and climate. In the literature section, emphases are on the above topics, with reference to economy, strategy, and nationalistic aspects.

Psychology and sociology become part of the program of studies of the eleventh and twelfth grades in the literature section. Combined, they take four periods per week, two periods for each subject. The major topics studied in psychology are integrated personality, stages of human growth, feelings and perceptions and habits. In sociology, the individual and society, types of societies, social systems, and social change are covered.[17]

---

[17]The Educational Renaissance of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, op. cit., chapt. 6, pp. 34-51. "Bulletin of

Physical Education and Extra-Curricular Activities

The popular sayings during the early period of Islamic education were "teach your children swimming, riding and shooting" and "a sane mind is found in a sound body." These constituted the objectives of physical education in this period. This was done, partly, to meet the need for able men to protect one's tribe, the country, and the religion from their enemies. Physical training, therefore, was a vital part of the learning process inside and outside educational institutions, for centuries.[18]

However, with the introduction of modern education in the 1930's, physical training as it was then perceived gave way to the new concept of physical education. The new physical education, therefore, became part of the elementary and secondary school program. The program since its introduction was and still is minimal in not only its content but also in the time alloted to it (one hour per week). The usual program for boys is largely a matter of Swedish and gymnastic exercises, soccer, volleyball and table tennis. Competitive sports exist in games such as soccer and volleyball between classes and sometimes between schools. Boy Scout activities have been introduced, but involvement is still limited.

---

the Secondary School Program of Studies of 1974," op. cit., pp. 156-210.

[18]A. Kh. Kinany, op. cit., pp. 415-416.

Physical education is under the auspices of the sports and physical education division of the Ministry of Education. The Ministry issues detailed instructions relating to the nature and implementation of the program. The aim, according to the Ministry Bulletin, is one course per week for the first, second, and third years of the intermediate stage, in order to maintain:

> 1. Physical fitness and good health of the pupils. Train them on good, sane, healthy habits such as good posture, straight walking, and sitting up straight.
> 2. Develop the pupils' athletic capacities.
> 3. Social, moral, and cultural training through propagating the true sportive spirit by means of classes of physical education, individual and group games, and the rules of games.
> 4. Mental maturity as stated, "A sane mind found in a sound body."
> 5. Good use of leisure time by encouraging the pupil to select a sport or hobby which he would perform by himself or with a colleague of his after he finishes school and moves to the following scholastic stage or to public life.[19]

As for the upper secondary, the bulletin prescribes one period per week for the seventh, eigth, and nineth years of both scientific and literature sections. The Ministry Bulletin further stated that:

> 1. Physical fitness is attained through exercise. It would make the individual become a well-built person and capable of defending himself. Therefore, a good selection of exercises is expected to be given, provided that they be in accordance with technical procedures.
> 2. Social formation by training the pupil to become a beneficial member of a correlated society. This is done by making him participate in group activities in which he is trained on self-denial and on the respect of others, as well as on cooperation and true leadership.

---

[19] The Educational Renaissance of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, op. cit., chapt. 5, pp. 33-34.

3. Good use of leisure time by encouraging the pupil to select a sport or hobby which he could perform by himself or with a colleague of his after he finishes school and moves over to the university stage or to public life. Such would be scouting, hiking, camping, travelling, horseback riding, cycling, shooting, wrestling, fencing, and tennis.[20]

In viewing these aims, one observes the traditional concept of "A sane mind found in a sound body." Although this is a vital statement, the real emphasis during the elementary and intermediate stages is on the "three R's," and minimal attention is given to the physical program. The value of physical fitness and its basic skills are not treated properly due to the lack of competent teachers. This certainly is to be attributed in part, at least, to a negative attitude on the part of the learner who has climbed the ladder to the secondary stage. Pupils leave the lower stages missing the joys of play, the skill of experimental learning and the process of give and take in the form of organized clubs, etc. Not having developed the basic interest and motivation during secondary schooling, the student tends to act indifferently and to create any excuse to avoid involvement in the physical education program. Almost no provisions exist for experimental learning and extra-curricular activities in the secondary school. The American team visiting Saudi Arabia observed that: "Art programs are minimal; there is no industrial arts program, a

---

[20]Ibid., Chap. 6, p. 72, "Bulletin of Secondary School Program of Studies of 1974," op. cit., pp. 299-311.

physical education program, and minimal provisions for field trips."[21]

Although the physical education program is narrow in its scope, the major obstacles to its development are the lack of physical facilities and the lack of trained teachers. Most public schools (elementary and secondary) are constructed with no previous planning or concern for the need for suitable physical facilities. Therefore, the majority of public schools lack minimal facilities, such as swimming pools, gyms, soccer fields, etc. This certainly is an essential area to be tackled in order to have a sound physical education program.

Teaching Methods

The methods of teaching in Saudi secondary schools are rigid and formal. There is little in the way of class discussion and almost no attempt to induce the pupils to reason. The teacher follows the direction of the prescribed book and starts from the first page on the first day of class and ends the textbook on the last day of class. The American Team visiting Saudi Arabia observed, "Teaching is almost entirely verbal with the teacher always in strict control. Learning, in short, is totally teacher-dependent. Teachers tend to give short lectures followed by factual,

---

[21]American Team Visit to Saudi Arabia, op. cit., p. 24.

convergent question/answer periods or give lectures interspersed wth questions requiring one-word answers."[22]

There is no such thing as individual differences and the learners are treated as if they were the same. The majority of teachers concern themselves with the average learner, thus neglecting the above- and below-average learner. The gifted students are not challenged to their full capacity, and they become bored and restless. The below-average students are not aided and helped to raise their achievement. This results in repeating grades and finally, dropping out.

Teachers, though restricted by many rules and regulations in conducting classroom activities, differ in qualifications, years of experience, method of presenting their instructional material, in creating motivation and the intellectual climate that promotes learning. The American Team observed that:

> There is a tremendous range in teacher sophistication and competence. Some teachers have minimal knowledge of subject matter and teach in a stilted, autocratic manner; other teachers may have minimal knowledge, but convey great excitement and interest. Still other teachers appear both well-informed and competent in the methods which they use.[23]

It is true that there exist two types of teachers in Saudi secondary schools. One who accepts the teaching profession as his career and does well in creating an environment stimulating to learning, is one to whom I refer

---

[22]Ibid., pp. 24-25.

[23]Ibid., p. 25.

as an "active teacher." The other has taken the teaching profession as the only alternative available to him at the time to make his living and therefore follows the written rules and regulations put before him, to whom I refer as a "passive teacher." The former type is rare to find in Saudi schools, while the latter is abundant.

Creating a suitable environment and an acceptable learning situation in Saudi schools (as in the case of the "active teacher") is an essential task that must be provided, for it has a profound effect upon the learners' behavior. Bloom regards this environment as providing a network of forces and factors which surround, engulf, and play on the individual. Although some individuals may resist this network, only extremely rare individuals can completely avoid or escape these forces. The environment, therefore, is a shaping and reinforcing force which acts on the individual. Today there is ample evidence to suggest that the schools fall short of creating an atmosphere which aids learners in their desire to utilize all human potentialities.

Thus it is evident that methods of teaching in a suitable learning environment play an important role in the total instructional process. Therefore, there is an urgent need for revitalizing methods of instruction, developing new techniques, and creating new learning environments, if the aim quality of education is to be achieved.

Teachers and Teacher Training

One of the unprecedented features of the Saudi-Arabian system that differs from the rest of the developing countries is that instruction at all levels of schooling and especially at the secondary level is largely carried out by non-native teachers. An observer indicated that:

> The country has depended heavily on foreign teachers everr since the 1920's; this dependence continued into the mid-1970's and would doubtless continue for many years. . . .First, the planned expansion of education far outstrips the country's ability to produce new teachers and,. . .the percentage of foreign teachers, at least at the secondary level, will probably rise.[24]

Non-Saudi teachers have been recruited over the years from the neighboring Arab countries, primarily Egypt, Syria, Jordan, Sudan and Palestine. A special commission from the Ministry of Education has toured the Arab countries yearly and contracted with teachers (male and female) for a period of two years, with chance of tenure. Moreover, instructors for English-language studies at the secondary and higher levels are recruited from England and the United States.

This certainly is an unhealthy situation; not only are they a burden on the economy with respect to costs (they receive higher salaries than Saudi teachers, a family round-trip ticket home every year, plus a stipend in allowance for leaving their own countries), but Saudi education cannot be regarded as truly national so long as it is imported by a

---

[24] Area Handbook for Saudi Arabia, 1977, op. cit., p. 100.

teacher coming from an environment different from that of the indigenous learner. The student is likely to meet in his daily school routine teachers from several different countries. For an example, the first class may be taught by an Egyptian, the second by an Englishman, the third by a Sudanese, etc. Thus the school is a very "cosmopolitan" institution.

Each teacher has a definite educational background, different training, and a different perception of how adolescents learn. The American team stated that the problem of teacher shortage has many facets:

> 1. The current stock and flow of teachers is totally inadequate.
> 2. The attrition rate is very high in the teaching profession.
> 3. Quality of teacher output is poor.
> 4. A high proportion of teachers are non-Saudi, with some question in regard to their motivation, interest and effectiveness.[25]

This definitely has a great effect upon the developmental behavior of the learner, and the result is likely to be a lack of interest and motivation, which leads to dropping out of school. The provision, therefore, of facilities for the training of qualified native teachers is crucial to provide the kind of education the country needs.

To remedy the situation the Ministry has set itself the target (the first and second five-year plans, 1970-1980) of channeling students into the teacher-training institutions and colleges of education. The Ministry has

---

[25]American Team Visit to Saudi Arabia, op. cit., p. 36.

established a new teacher-training institution, raised the educational standard of the existing institution, and established colleges of education during the 1970's. It has recently set up junior colleges. The Ministry provides good financial incentives for attending these institutions and there is constant review of teacher's salaries and other benefits, indicating the urgent need to supply secondary schools with well-trained teachers in the required numbers.

However, the Ministry of Education reported recently that despite the gradual increase in the number of native teachers at the intermediate and secondary levels (women and men), the proportion has declined from 32% in 1964/65 to 30% in 1969/70 to 28% in 1974/75. This decline indicates that the number of non-Saudi teachers has increased more rapidly, from 1,500 in 1964/65 to over 8,000 in 1974/75; the increase is twice as large as that of native teachers, whose numbers rose from 716 to over 3,137 during the same period[26] (see table 18).

All teacher-training institutes and colleges of education, in spite of the effort to raise their educational standards and environmental conditions, remain highly traditional in their orientation. The training methods used are still authoritarian in character. Rote learning and memorization for the competitive examination remain the outstanding features of these institutions, rather than

---

[26] Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia, op. cit., p. 15.

Table 18

Saudi and Non-Saudi Teachers by Level and Type of Educational Institutions 1384-85 to 1394-95 A.H. (1964-65 to 1974-75 A.D.)

Level of Education	Sex	1384-84A.H. (1964-65A.D.)			1389-90A.H. (1969-70A.D.)			1394-95A.H. (1974-75A.D.)		
		Total	Saudi	Non-Saudi	Total	Saudi	Non-Saudi	Total	Saudi	Non-Saudi
Grand Total	MF	12,474	5,061	7,413	22,762	9,751	13,011	43,820	22,362	21,458
	F	1,809	198	1,611	4,915	1,182	3,733	12,217	5,093	7,124
Kindergarten	MF	-	-	-	66	5	61	392	78	314
	F	-	-	-	66	5	61	383	76	307
Elementary	MF	9,985	4,262	5,723	17,181	8,055	9,126	29,756	18,147	11,609
	F	1,763	192	1,571	4,330	1,148	3,182	8,864	4,780	4,084
Intermediate	MF	1,095	401	694	3,308	1,096	2,212	7,418	2,340	5,078
	F	6	-	6	189	5	184	1,770	234	1,636
Secondary	MF	162	39	123	512	70	442	2,132	415	1,717
	F	-	-	-	14	-	14	449	20	429
Technical	MF	449	152	297	275	190	85	437	281	156
	F	-	-	-	-	-	-	43	-	43
Teacher Training	MF	524	124	400	626	86	540	1,070	180	890
	F	47	2	45	258	6	252	252	16	236
Higher Edu.	MF	231	54	177	573	159	414	1,741	538	1,203
	F	-	-	-	17	7	10	245	31	214
Special Edu.	MF	84	41	43	223	92	131	524	292	232
	F	10	4	6	43	13	30	99	16	83
Adult Edu.	MF	-	-	-	-	-	-	70	26	44
	F	-	-	-	-	-	-	31	13	18
Other	MF	-	-	-	-	-	-	280	65	215
	F	-	-	-	-	-	-	81	7	74

Source: Ministry of Education, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia: Statistical Review 1979

professional preparation. The American Team stated that:

> Intermediate school teachers are elementary school emigres. Secondary school teachers are generally products of the university or are emigres of secondary school systems in other nations. . .There is virtually no familiarity with technical aspects of education whether related to teaching, learning or measurement. The curriculum demands memory and feedback, and allows for or encourages almost no creativity. Teachers are trainers for mastery of material as the sole criterion of competence.[27]

Within this context, graduates of these institutions transmit what they have acquired into the public schools. This is not the kind of teacher who will inspire and stimulate the learner.

The undesirability of teaching as a profession approaches catastrophe in terms of the quality of education. This can be attributed to many factors, among them: popularity of the academic high school, which leads to higher education and/or a chance for study abroad; the low social status of the profession below the university level; the possibility of being sent to a distant or rural school; the limited upward mobility; and last but not least, the non-involvement of teachers in the decision-making process pertaining to educational development in general and curriculum development in particular. El-koussey writes that:

> The gravity of the situation has, in fact, been recognized in all the Arab countries. In answer to a questionnaire, all states admitted that teachers enjoyed parity with other professions only in the initial stages of their careers, their comparative salaries and chances

---

[27]American Team Visit to Saudi Arabia, op. cit., p. 22.

of promotion deteriorating continuously with time. The result is that many quit; those who do not, harbor feelings of injustice, damaging their productivity. While teacher qualifications clearly need to be reformed, so do status and working conditions.[28]

A native social science teacher wrote recently that:

If we disregard the financial side and accept what has been granted us, and look for the social side we will see that the teacher spends his whole life as a teacher, and if it happens that he is promoted to a higher position, he would be an assistant principal or a principal. Even after his promotion he will still feel unlucky. Meanwhile, he sees his colleagues, his childhood's companions and even his students occupy better positions in the government. If we disregard this to consider society's view of the teacher, we find it to be the lowest.[29]

Examination and Evaluation System

No element in the structure of the national educational system occupies (as the past) more public discussion and attention than the system of examination in general and the secondary school graduation certificate in particular. Although its effect on the educational system is regarded by many educators, parents, and students as deplorable, its importance as an evaluation system is recognized as the aim of education. The recent policy statement of the Ministry of Education is constructed as follows:

Examinations are conducted by educational authorities in all accuracy and honesty to determine the

---

[28] A. El-koussy, "Recent Trends and Developments in Primary and Secondary Education in the Arab World," International Review of Education, vol. 13, 2, 1967, p. 204.

[29] Al-Jazeerah, Daily Newspaper, No. 2721, January 11, 1980, p. 5.

level of information, experience, and skills attained by the students as set up in the program. A special law defines the method and means of examinations, as well as the plan of execution so that results are established accurately and safely.

Concerned authorities shall give interest to other testing models that measure the capacity, talent, inclinations, and capabilities of students in order to direct them toward the education and work that better suits their nature.

The education operation in all its aspects--programs, books, teachers, vocational orientation, etc. is based on the analysis of exam results and utilizes various means of correction.[30]

The system of examination and its bearing on education has been widely criticized by many educators around the world. Peterson, writing about curriculum and examination of the age group 16-19 in Western Europe, stated that "students study in such a way as to achieve maximum success in the examination and teachers teach in such a way to help them attain this end."[31] Chang, reporting on a survey carried out by the UNESCO Regional Center for Education in Asia, states:

> Examinations have become the main motivating force in all educational efforts. The unnatural emphasis placed on examinations has strangulating effects on teaching and learning. They dictate the curriculum instead of following it, prevent any experimentation and proper treatment of subjects, and create wrong values of education in the minds of teachers and pupils.[32]

---

[30]"Educational Policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia," 1970, op. cit., p. 34.

[31]A. D. Peterson, "The 16-19 Age Group: Curriculum and Examination in Europe," International Review of Education, vol. 21, 2, 1975, p. 169.

[32]P. Paul Chang, "Educational Trends in South East Asia With Special Reference to Problems of Improving the Quality of Education," International Review of Education, vol. 17, 2, 1971, p. 159.

The American Team observed that:

> Examinations or tests are centrally administered each year, thus reducing the supply at the end of the pipeline. Totally insufficient output of high-school graduates can be expected in the future if the inflow into the elementary level, the thru-flow between levels and outflow from the secondary level are not substantially expanded now.[33]

The system of examination is governed by the rules and regulations issued by the Ministry of Education from time-to-time. In the last two decades, the Ministry made several attempts to change its examination regulations in the hope that the system would be less rigid in its application and would give the local school some flexibility in its appraisal of its learners, thereby curbing the high rate of dropouts and repeaters.

Prior to 1976, the examination system in use was of French origin, inherited along with the educational system from Egypt. The system insisted that a student sit for an examination (the National Examination) before entering the higher grades of school, i.e., at the end of his/hers sixth grade, at the end of his/her ninth grade, and at the end of his/her twelth grade. The certificate of examination is standardized and final for the learner. It is given to all students all over the country at the same time. Thecertificate, therefore, is the passport to enable the learner to move from one cycle to the next. The system also emphasizes that a learner cannot be allowed to move

---

[33]American Team Visit to Saudi Arabia, op. cit., p. 6.

from one grade to the next in his/her school without passing the promotion examination given at the end of each year. The schools are expected to form their own assessment of the students by means of short quizzes, homework, and classroom performance. The teacher's assessment of the student, however, has little effect on the outcome of the final grade, but may be considered in rare cases. Thus the cumulative achievement of the learner during a given year is judged by his/her performance on the National or promotion exam, where a pass-fail grading grading scheme is used.

The National Examination is administered by the department of examination at the Ministry of Education while the promotion exam is conducted at the school level. The rules and regulations of the system of examination are drawn up by the same department. The basic rules are stated as follows:

> The student is considered "a success" in the examinations which have no second session provided he obtains the minimum marks in every subject or the minimum total marks of all subjects and provided that he also:
>
> a. Succeeds in all subjects.
>
> b. Succeeds in religion, Arabic and all the other subjects except one.
>
> c. Succeeds in religion, Arabic and all the other subjects expect two on condition that he obtains 25% of their maximum marks.[34]

It is worth noting here that religion and Arabic are compulsory and any student who fails in either of these subjects must repeat the same grade. In addition, a

---

[34] The Educational Renaissance of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, op. cit., Chapt. 3, p. 76.

student is deemed to have failed if he/she tries to use unfair means at the time of examination (is caught cheating, or is absent without a valid reason). Within this context, the Ministry of Education reported that in 1974/75 as many as 5,572 boys were successful at the secondary certificate examination. The number is nearly 7 times as large as the number of graduates in 1964/65. Nearly 62% of the graduates of 1974/75 were in the science track compared to 44% in 1969/70. The number of girls who passed the same examination in 1974/75 was 1,674, which is larger by more than 4.5 times the number of graduates in 1969/70. About 54% of the girl graduates were in the arts program[35] (see table 19). Table 20 shows, in general, the number of promotees and repeaters by level and grade in the public school system (boys) from 1969-70 to 1974-75.

In 1976, changes in the examination system occurred during the execution of the second five-year plan (1975-80). The plan emphasized the urgent need for decentralization, for quizzes, take-home exams, and objective testing. Furthermore, it emphasized dividing the academic year into terms--an autumn and a spring term. Course work was divided accordingly, so that the final grade for each subject was the cumulative grade for the two terms. Although there was no evidence as to the effect of decentralization, take-home testing, etc., certainly the grade system has shown the

---

[35]Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia, op. cit., p. 60.

Table 19

Result of Secondary Certificate Examination
from 1394-85 to 1394-95 A.H.
(1964-65 to 1974-75 A.D.)

Year	Candidates Appeared							Passed						
	Total	Literate			Science			Total	Literate			Science		
		Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls		Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
1964-65	1,586	-	626	-	-	960	-	813	-	353	-	460	460	-
1965-66	1,812	-	790	-	1,022	1,022	-	1,080	496	496	-	584	584	-
1966-67	1,929	-	854	-	1,075	1,075	-	1,198	606	606	-	592	592	-
1967-68	2,320	-	1,069	-	1,251	1,251	-	1,456	707	707	-	749	749	-
1968-69	2,806	-	1,053	234	1,519	1,414	103	2,007	908	738	170	1,099	1,012	87
1969-70	3,329	-	1,436	285	1,608	1,492	116	2,806	1,554	1,291	263	1,252	1,146	106
1970-71	3,558	1,771	1,505	266	1,787	1,636	151	2,916	1,594	1,344	250	1,322	1,187	135
1971-72	4,834	2,416	1,898	508	2,418	2,177	241	3,529	1,856	1,470	386	1,673	1,469	204
1972-73	5,983	2,880	2,208	672	3,103	2,789	314	5,198	2,588	2,000	588	2,610	2,350	260
1973-74	6,552	2,928	1,949	979	3,624	3,111	513	5,874	2,673	1,742	931	3,201	2,730	471
1974-75	8,134	3,469	2,433	1,036	4,665	3,850	815	7,246	3,022	2,111	911	4,224	3,461	736

Source: Ministry of Education, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia: A Statistical Review: 1979

Table 20

Number of Promotees and Repeaters by Level and Grade in Boys Schools under The Ministry of Education from 1389-90 to 1394-95 A.H. (1969-70 to 1974-75 A.D.)

Level and Grade	1389-90 (1969-70)				1390-91 (1970-71)				1391-92 (1971-72)			
	Total	Promotees	Repeaters	New entrants	Total	Promotees	Repeaters	New entrants	Total	Promotees	Repeaters	New entrants
Elementary:												
Total	267,529	151,743	71,879	43,907	284,612	163,852	71,990	48,770	308,598	180,628	69,749	58,221
Grade 1	63,981	-	20,074	43,907	68,406	-	19,636	48,770	75,683	-	17,462	58,221
Grade 2	50,241	39,442	10,799	-	51,256	40,106	11,150	-	55,730	45,877	9,853	-
Grade 3	46,929	37,103	9,826	-	48,340	37,675	10,665	-	51,337	40,810	10,527	-
Grade 4	44,677	31,376	13,301	-	49,712	35,190	14,522	-	53,203	37,199	16,004	-
Grade 5	33,285	23,905	9,380	-	36,982	28,159	8,823	-	40,487	31,156	9,331	-
Grade 6	28,416	19,917	8,499	-	29,916	22,722	7,194	-	32,158	25,586	6,572	-
Intermediate:												
Total	38,028	18,315	15,821	13,892	43,491	20,612	5,240	17,639	51,452	24,196	8,306	18,950
Grade 1	15,879	-	1,987	13,892	20,135	-	2,496	17,639	22,919	-	3.969	18,950
Grade 2	11,760	9,728	2,032	-	13,839	11,854	1,985	-	16,093	13,824	2,269	-
Grade 3	10,389	8,587	1,802	-	9,517	8,758	759	-	12,440	10,372	2,068	-
Secondary:												
Total	8,243	4,137	881	3,225	11,303	5,237	715	5,351	12,638	6,740	1,541	4,357
Grade 1	3,619	-	394	3,225	5,658	-	307	5,351	5,338	-	981	4,357
Grade 2	2,488	2,255	233	-	3,274	3,053	221	-	4,170	3,873	297	-
Grade 3	2,136	1,882	254	-	2,371	2,184	187	-	3,130	2,867	263	-

Source: Ministry of Education, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia: Statistical Review 1979

Table 20 (cont)

Number of Promotees and Repeaters by Level and Grade in Boys Schools under The Ministry of Education from 1389-90 to 1394-95 A.H. (1969-70 to 1974-75 A.D.)

Level and Grade	1392-93 (1972-73)				1393-94 (1973-74)				1394-95 (1974-75)			
	Total	Promotees	Repeaters	New entrants	Total	Promotees	Repeaters	New entrants	Total	Promotees	Repeaters	New entrants
Elementary:												
Total	330,955	196,718	71,344	62,893	363,258	222,890	73,259	67,109	391,677	247,476	69,494	74,707
Grade 1	81,134	-	18,241	62,893	86,294	-	19,185	67,109	93,087	-	18,380	74,707
Grade 2	62,787	52,217	10,570	-	68,214	57,585	10,629	-	73,453	62,637	10,816	-
Grade 3	54,702	44,055	10,647	-	61,943	51,928	10,015	-	66,807	56,267	10,540	-
Grade 4	56,008	39,490	16,518	-	61,917	44,939	16,978	-	67,802	50,791	17,011	-
Grade 5	42,201	32,970	9,231	-	46,185	36,953	9,232	-	50,573	42,175	8,398	-
Grade 6	34,123	27,986	6,137	-	38,705	31,485	7,220	-	39,955	35,606	4,349	-
Intermediate:												
Total	63,278	30,461	10,364	22,453	69,539	34,018	10,694	24,827	80,618	37,334	10,642	32,642
Grade 1	27,379	-	4,926	22,453	30,535	-	5,708	24,827	38,214	-	5,572	32,642
Grade 2	19,636	16,895	2,741	-	20,684	18,002	2,682	-	24,554	21,422	3,132	-
Grade 3	16,263	13,566	2,697	-	18,320	16,016	2,304	-	17,850	15,912	1,938	-
Secondary:												
Total	15,675	7,597	1,884	6,194	18,749	9,169	1,548	8,032	22,606	11,459	1,804	9,343
Grade 1	6,922	-	728	6,194	8,831	-	799	8,032	10,479	-	1,136	9,343
Grade 2	4,553	4,010	543	-	5,623	5,204	419	-	6,745	6,349	396	-
Grade 3	4,200	3,587	613	-	4,295	3,965	330	-	5,382	5,110	272	-

Source: Ministry of Education, Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia: Statistical Review 1979

following changes: Each course should be given 100 collective points. These 100 points should be distributed as follows: (a) 15 points for first semester work; (b) 35 points for final examination in the first semester; (c) 15 points for second semester work (i.e., assessment of the learner with respect to class conduct (discipline, homework, participation in class discussion, etc.); (d) 35 points for final examination in the second semester. For a student to pass a course he has to get 25 percent of the points that are allocated to the final examination of the second semester of the academic year (8.75 points).

The following score/evaluation scheme is used:

Excellent	90% and up
Very Good	75% to less than 90%
Good	60% to less than 75%
Acceptable	Passing grade to less than 60%

The passing grade is to be decided by the Minister of Education.[36]

The Ministry of Education stated that the percentages of the students who graduated since the new grading system went into effect were higher than that of the preceding years. However, it is worth adding here that the National Exam and promotion exam and their images remain unchanged.

---

[36]Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, The New Grading System (Riyadh: Department of General Examination Publications, 1975), p. 50.

Within this context, it is hardly conceivable to Saudi educators, as well as to parents, that an educational system can operate without some form of testing or examination at the end of the academic year. It is the belief that learning without the exam is like having no education at all. Examination, therefore, is the most dominant feature of the Saudi Arabian educational system. It is the means by which a line is drawn between those who will be rewarded for success and those unfortunates whose failure will be formidable and who will be semi-rejected by society.

The Effect of the Examination System on the School Environment

Saudi society in general and educators in particular have realized but never acted effectively upon the knowledge that however pleasant the setting of the school, however efficient the daily activities, however appealing the classroom environment, the hope of success and the fear of failure is always in the mind of the learner. There is no denying that the promotion examination in general and the National Examination in particular play significant roles in all aspects of school life. It has a national effect in terms of pressure and constraint in the life of the teachers, the student, the principal and the parents.

On the part of the Saudi teacher, it dictates the method of teaching and the subject matter to be taught. The teacher in this way becomes the slave of the textbook and in

turn has no incentive for innovation. The classroom teacher's main concern is to identify, summarize, and then dictate to the learner what he feels is the most important part of the daily subject that is to be a target for an examination question. Thus it is the teacher's mission in the classroom to prepare pupils for the examination. The result is that what the teacher accomplishes is the transmission of isolated socially non-relevant facts. "Judging from field response," the American Team declared, "The examinations are in large part responsible, either directly or indirectly, for what takes place in classrooms."[37]

The learner's future is at stake at the secondary level. He has climbed the ladder successfully by passing one exam after another during his last nine years. But he is concerned now with a giant step that he has to overcome. It is the determining factor in his life. It is his passport to higher education and a better life. More important, it is his fear of failure that jeopardizes his status and image in the eyes of his family, his community and, at last, his society. It is highly prestigious to be a successful candidate in the academic high school in Saudi Arabian society. This is what actually goes on in the mind of the Saudi student.

---

[37]American Team Visit to Saudi Arabia, op. cit., P. 25.

These thoughts are with the learner through his years of high school, and what frightens him the most is that the exam and its nightmares are not over yet. The nightmare is that what is coming is learning more basic facts, doing more homework, and facing more rigid and difficult examinations. Therefore, his struggle must continue, and the effort to beat the system of examination goes on. The fear, physical constraint and continuing struggle for success in secondary school certification has resulted in incidents like the one cancelling the examination results of eighteen students caught cheating in English. This incident was reported in the local newspaper as follows:

> After completion of a thorough investigation by concerned members of the Ministry of Education, a decision cancelling the exam results of 12 students from Abha secondary school, 2 from Khamis secondary school, and 4 from Khamis night secondary school has been issued; that was in the English language subject. The students were considered unsuccessful during the second session of 1398-1399 H. exams.
>
> His Excellency the Minister of Education issued a decision in which he asked to discount the payments of 15 days out of the salaries of six teachers in the secondaries of Abha and Khamis Mushait because of their negligence and carelessness in the performance of their duties during the examination time.[38]

Within this context, the principal is the chief executive of his own small institution. His main role is to abide by the rules and regulations of the Ministry and to keep his institution's discipline intact. He reviews the local exam questions drawn up by the teachers and supervises the

---

[38]Al-Jazeerah, Daily newspaper, No. 2764, February 23, 1980, p. 20

examinations to make sure that they are properly conducted. His main task at the time of the exam, aside from the prior hectic preparation, is to make sure that the teacher does not help his students and that students do not help each other. This frustrating and amateurish approach has resulted in the dissatisfaction of a number of principals. One put it this way:

> True, we have a somewhat better chance of evaluating the success or failure of the learner, but the principle objectives and the image of this 'evil examination' remain the same with regard to its secrecy, rigidty, and difficulty. What is most important, however, is that the certificate examination is still conducted by someone outside the secondary system.

He added:

> The new system has promised flexibility in all practices, but this has never occurred; our instructors teach the same way--our syllabus and textbooks remain the same. Students resort to memorization of facts, and some waste a lot of time trying to develop new ways of cheating and trying to out-smart the teachers for grades.[39]

Discipline

The concept of discipline is perceived as an extreme respect for the elder (parents, guests, teachers, principals) both inside and outside the school. This view of the traditional method of discipline is employed in the classrooms at all levels. A respect based essentially on fear of blame, fear of losing marks and, most of all, fear of severe punishment prevails. The learner's views and

---

[39]The name of the principal and his school are being kept confidential at his request. The author takes full responsibility for the content of this quotation.

feelings are not to be expressed in any way or at any time. Good discipline implies silence in the classroom and not opposing the teacher's views.

The dress code and cleanliness are the strictest rules the student must observe. Pupils should wear the school uniform and keep it clean and presentable. Boys should have their hair cut regularly. Students are strictly prohibited from smoking, writing on walls, attending organized meetings or petitioning against school discipline or school personnel. Girls have even stiffer regulations imposed on them. Moral instruction is what regulates discipline in the schools. However, school personnel are not trained to be disciplinarians. The most frequent infractions are truancy, negligence of studies, absence from boring classrooms, and revolt against restraint and control.

Instructional Material

Next the to shortage of native teachers, another serious handicap to good educational experience in the public schools is the almost total lack of instructional aids. The American team observed that: ". . .frequently, there has been a lack of furniture, material, textbooks, paper, and even water in the schools, making the process of education children far from easy."[40] In nearly every elementary school, the only teaching aids found are a blackboard, a few charts, maps and minimal equipment for

---

[40]American Team visit to Saudi Arabia, op. cit., p. 19.

simple scientific demonstrations. In the secondary schools the situation is not much different. The materials found in the secondary schools are grouped together in one room called the library. The library is where demonstrations are carried out by the teachers for such subjects as chemistry and physics. The pupils are rarely allowed to participate in the experiments. Their function is to observe how the experiment was conducted and record the results in their notebooks.

The textbook has been the single most popular instrument for instruction by Saudi educators. It has been over emphasized and visualized as an important instructional and teaching aid in most schools, from first grade through higher education. There is a continuing assumption that the success of classroom education is dependent upon the quality of the textbook. The former Deputy Minister of Education indicated that:

> The school textbook is considered one the essental instructional elements in our school. It is the source of knowledge and a means for creating skill. Although we are totally dependent on a single textbook per subject, we found that the single textbook represents the true detailed program of studies and every topic in the text is actually the prescribed curriculum. . . .
>
> The single textbook as a result becomes the only reference to the particular subject matter. Therefore, the teacher is required to teach the prescribed textbook from the beginning to the end and in turn the learner has to master the content of the text for its the textbook that determines the types of questions on the examination.[41]

---

[41]Abdul-Wassie, op. cit., p. 40.

A library in the real meaning of the word is rarely found in the public secondary school. The library that exists in most secondary schools is a small, single room with shelves mounted on the walls that are stacked with so-called reference books that are in no way relevant to what is being taught in the school. Valuable reference books, books of fiction, and attractive, illustrative textbooks do not exist. School personnel report that pupils are seldom seen making use of the reference library. The Ministry of Education reported recently that, ". . .of the total 1,477 rooms in the 48 secondary schools, 674 were used as classrooms and the remainder for other educational and administrative purposes. A complete library existed in only 13 high schools; 30 high schools had incomplete laboratories and five high schools had none."[42]

Textbooks and instructional materials are provided to the schools by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry supervises the preparation, production or purchase of the educational materials. These materials are distributed free of charge to each individual school. One of the problems, however, confronting the Saudi Arabian educational system is the lack of specialists who are able to prepare and write school textbooks, designers, illustrators, printers, and even printing machinery. Today, 50% of the school textbooks are printed outside of the country.

---

[42]Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia, op. cit., p. 81.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the development of the public secondary school curriculum in Saudi Arabia since its establishment in the late 1930's, with emphasis on the curriculum reform that occurred in the last decade. More specifically, the study was intended:

1. to explore and identify the major changes which affected secondary school organization, program of studies, methods of instruction, and systems of examinations;

2. to explore and analyze the factors which were aiding or hindering the development of the secondary school curriculum;

3. to explore and examine the impact of curriculum development in the context of local and national needs and the social ideals of the country.

The descriptive/historical methods of investigation were employed. Related available literature was reviewed in order to carry out the purpose of this investigation, and these included Ministry of Education documents, local newspapers, and reports published by UNESCO and the United States Educational Agencies of the Department of Health

Education and Welfare. Furthermore, periodicals and books in Arabic and English by Arab, European, and American scholars were reviewed. Personal observation was also used, as were informal discussions with various Ministry of Education, local educational district, and secondary school officials and personnel.

Findings

Although education in Saudi Arabia has been influenced by many foreign practices, it has maintained the main lines of its tradition and has remained true to its origins in Islamic principles. In the early part of the twentieth century, the development of education in general and curriculum in particular was based on the Egyptian system of education. Reforms in education thereafter began to shift gradually toward the main lines of the British, then the American educational systems. This latter trend has been mainly a matter of copying the ideas and practices of the American system of education, rather than adopting the ideals of the system and suiting them to Saudi practice.

The concepts of the comprehensive high school, the combined school, and the full-day work school have been introduced recently from the United States to provide an alternative education. The long-range aim of the comprehensive high school is to be a replacement for the academic and vocational/technical secondary school.

A mathematics study group, science and social studies group have been established recently, but their

numbers, resources, activities, and financial status are limited.

The traditional mathematics course (algebra, geometry, trigonometry) has been integrated and the syllabus has been changed to what is termed the "new mathematics."

The various courses of the secondary school program of studies have been in the initial stages of moving toward integration, encompassing science, social studies, language study, etc.

The rigid system of examinations has been changed from the traditional pass/fail grading to a more flexible one based on the American system of education.

The Ministry of Education has been gradually reorganizing its administrative structure, aiming at a long-range trial of decentralization. Gradually increasing autonomy has been granted to the educational districts.

Conclusion

The recent influence and advice from educational agencies, such as UNESCO and from the west (mainly the United States) has been perceived by many educators as a promising point of departure to move the traditional system to a one more flexible and relevant for education. However, the reinforcing of the traditional mores of the society and the persisting strict academic content of the program of study highlights more than anything else the fundamental problem facing education.

The curriculum, defined narrowly as the subject matter or program of studies reflects not only the aims and objectives of education but, also has influenced the development of the teaching methodology, the content of the courses and the examination system.

The program of study of the secondary school, as well as that of the other institutions, is without options or electives. It has been based on the assumption that all pupils are of equal ability and need the same kind of education.

The secondary school is considered merely a preparatory stage for higher education and not a viable educational stage by itself.

The method of instruction leans heavily toward classroom lectures, book-learning by rote, and memorization of facts, equations, and formulas, rather than toward developing the learner's critical and creative abilities by encouraging him to think for himself.

Textbooks are generally poor in quality and not adapted to the local needs. They are often too verbally orientated due to the lack of laboratory facilities and equipment.

The aim of passing examinations and getting promoted dominates the whole educational scene. The total effectiveness of the curriculum and the achievement of the learner in the public school system is evaluated by the examinations.

The problems of a shortage of native trained teachers, the lack of educational materials and teaching aids, and the need to provide modern, adequate school buildings to absorb the great increase in numbers of students into the educational system at all levels are serious.

Curriculum at all levels is decided by a committee at the Ministry of Education. The school curriculum is not adapted to current needs for economic and social development due to the non-involvement of those concerned (teachers, parents, and students) in the decision-making process.

Centralization is the most dominant characteristic of education agencies in Saudi Arabia. The national government delegates and the civil servants execute. Furthermore, communication between the decision-making body and the individual school is poor, and communication from the base of the hierarchial structure, the school, to the top of the pyramid, the Minister, is also ineffective.

The gap in theory and practice that exists between Saudi educators and the Western-Saudi educator has created greater uncertainty in what both the educational system in general and curriculum development in particular need to pursue.

Recommendation

Based on this study, the following recommendations for future educational development in the Saudi Arabian public school system are offered. It is recommended that:

1. Future curriculum development efforts be based on careful, extensive and intensive research.

2. Future curriculum development be equally implemented geographically and socially.

3. Foreign consultants be required to be familiar with Saudi Arabian culture before making recommendations.

4. That foreign consultants not be involved in the decision-making process once they have submitted recommendations.

5. Future efforts in improving the secondary education curriculum involve those who will be affected by the decisions.

6. On going in-service education be incorporated in any future plans to improve the curriculum.

7. A well financed, equipped and autonomous center for research and studies in curriculum development be established to assist the the newly esatblished national study groups. The center should be awarded full autonomy.

8. The national study groups be restructured to include a greater cross section of the Saudi Arabian society.

9. Efforts to decentralize the control and operation of secondary education be intensified primarily as a mechanism for improving communications between the Ministry and the schools.

10. The system of specialization in Saudi secondary schools be abolished and replaced by one based on a more

liberal concept of general education.

11. The examination system be reconstructed to include assessments in the effective psychomotor domains.

12. Course offerings and time allocations in physical education be expanded.

13. The improvement of teacher education becomes a top priority in any attempt to improve the secondary school program. Particular attention should be given to training in teaching methodology.

With respect to research, it is recommended:

1. That future research focus on the historical development of a particular subject or subject area.

2. That longitudinal studies of curriculum development during the implementation of the second five-year plan be completed.

3. That research effects focused on Saudi Arabian students in the United States be initiated to answer more definitely some of the questions related to educational quality suggested in this study.

4. That more doctoral students from Saudi Arabia be encouraged to complete studies related to curriculum development in Saudi Arabia.

5. That comparative studies of the Saudi Arabian and the United States educational systems be conducted.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

Abdul-Wassie A. Education in Saudi Arabia (Beirut: Der Alketub Al Arabi, 1970).

Abduh, Muhammed, Al Islam Wa Al-Nasraniyah (Islam and Christianity) (Cairo, 1938).

Al-Ghazzali, Almunqidh min Al-Dalal (Rescuer from Error or Confessions) (Damascus, 1939).

Al-Jahiz, Al-Bayan Wal-Tabyin 2 vols.

Arab Information Center, The Arab League: Its Origin, Purpose, Structure and Activities Information Page No. 1 (New York: 1955).

Arab Information Center, Education in the Arab State, (New York: 1966).

Assah, A. Miracle of the Desert Kingdom (London: Johnson, 1969).

Beeby, E. "Curriculum Planning" in G. Howson (ed.) "Developing a New Curriculum" published for the Center for Curriculum Renewal and Educational Development Overseas (London: Heineman, 1970).

Briffault, R. The Making of Humanity (New York: Macmillan, 1919).

Conant, J. The Comprehensive High School (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

Dodge, B. Muslim Education in Medieval Times, (Washington, D. C.: The Middle East Institute, 1962).

Heath, K. G., Ministry of Education: Their Function and Organization. (U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education. Bulletin No. 21, 1961, United States Printing Office).

Hitti, K. P., History of the Arabs (London: Macmillan, 1960).

Ibn Khadun, Al-Muqaddima, Translated from Arabic by F. Rosenthal (New York: Bollingen Foundation 1958) 3 vols.

Irving, W. Mohemet and His Successors, (Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press, 1970).

Lipsky, A. G., Saudi Arabia: Its People Its Society, Its Culture (New Haven: Hraf Press, 1964).

MacDonald, B., Aspects of Islam (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1911).

Nakosteen, M., History of Islamic Origins of Western Education (Colorado: University of Colorado Press, 1964).

Nyrop, F. R. Area Handbook for Saudi Arabia (Washington D.C.: U.S. Printing Office 1977).

Peretz, D., The Middle East Today, (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1971).

Gubain, F. Education and Science in the Arab World (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1966).

Rentz, G., "Wahhabism and Saudi Arabia" D. Hopw-od (ed.), The Arabian Peninsula: Society and Politics (London: George Allen & Unwin, 1972).

Sayigh, A. Y. The Economics of the Arab World: Development Since 1945 (New York: St. Marting's Press, 1978).

Szyliowicz, S. J. Education and Modernization in the Arab World. (Ithaca and London: Cornell University Press, 1973).

Taba, H. Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice (New York: Harcourt, Brace Jovanovich, 1962).

Thomas, A., Jr. Saudi Arabia: A Study of the Educational System of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and Guide to the Academic Placement of Students from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in United States Educational Institutions. (U.S.A.: World Education Series, 1968).

_____, The Education Renaissance of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Tempe: Arizona State University, 1965).

Tibawi, L. A. Islamic Education: Its Tradition and Modernization Into the Arab National System (New York: Crane, Russak and Company, Inc., 1972).

Totah, K. H. The Contribution of the Arab to Education (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926).

UNESCO, Compulsory Education in The Arab State: (Amsterdam: Drukkerij, Holland, N.Y., 1956).

_____, World Survey of Education II: Primary Education (Zurich: Berichthaus, 1958).

_____, World Survey of Education III: Secondary Education (Zurich: Berichthaus, 1961).

_____, World Survey of Education: Handbook of Organization and Statistics (Zurich: Berichthaus, 1955).

_____, Monographs on Fundamental Education, Zurich: Pub. Buchdruckerei, 1957).

Government Documents

Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia (Riyadh: 1979).

_____, Manual for the Ministry of Education: Objectives, Functions and Adminstrative Organization (Riyadh: 1970).

_____, Bulletin of the Secondary School Program of Study (Riyad: 1953).

_____, Bulletin of the Seondary School Program of Study (Riyadh, 1959).

_____, Bullein of the Secondary School Program of Study (Riyadh, 1974).

_____, Ministry of Planning, First Development Plan (Jeddah: Dar okag Printing and Publishing Co., 1969).

_____, Second Development Plan (Jeddah: Dar okag Printing and Publishing Co. 1975)

_____, The General Presidency for Girls Education Education in Saudi Arabia 1975-80 (Jeddah Dar Al-sfahan, 1979.

_____, Ministry of Higher Education, The Education Policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Riyadh: 1978).

_____, The Educational Policy in the Saudi Arabian Kingdom (Riydh 1970).

_____, Ministry of Education, Report on the Development of the Examination System and Program of Studies for all Level of Education in Saudi Arabia from 1927-71 (Riyadh: 1971)

The General Presidency for Girls Education Education of Girls in Seventeen Years (Riyahh 1977).

Articles

Ahrens, M. "Parents and Stuff Cooperation in System-Wide Improvement," Education Leadership, 11, (March 1954), pp. 337-342.

Akrawi, M. & El-koussy A. A., "Recent Trends in Arabic Education," International Review of Education, vol. 17, (Paris, 1971), pp. 181-194.

Beeby, E. C., "Stages in the Growth of Primary Education System," Comparative Education Review, vol. 6, no. 1, (June 1962), pp. 2-11.

Coombs, H. P., "The Need for a New Strategy of Educational Development," Comparative Education Review, vol. 14, no. 1, (Feb 1970), pp. 75-89.

Eden, G. D. & Snavely, P. W., "Planning for Economic Development in Saudi Arabia," The Middle East Journal, vol. 24, 1979, pp. 17-30

El-Koussy, A. A., "Recent Trends and Development in Primary and Secondary Education in the Arab World," International Review of Education, vol.13, no. 2, 1967, pp. 189-210.

Goldziher, I., "Muslim Education," Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics, vol. 5, pp. 198-207.

Kedah, M., "The Education of Women in the Arab World: Case of Saudi Arabia," Literary Discussion, vol. 6, no. 4, (Winter 1975-76), pp. 119-139.

Kinany, Kh. K., "Islamic School and University," Yearbook of Education, (London: Evans Brothers, 1957), pp. 333-343.

Passow, H. A., "Comprehensive Versus Selective Education: the New Equality," International Review of Education, vol. 17, no. 1, 1971, pp. 11-23.

Paul Chang, P., "Educational Trends in South East Asia with Special Reference to Problems of Improving the Quality of Education," International Review of Education, vol. 17, no. 2, 1971, pp. 150-163.

Peterson, D. A., "The 16-19 Age Group: Curriculum and Examination in Europe," International Review of Education, vol. 21, no. 2, 1975, pp. 165-176.

Rugb, W., "Emergence of a New Middle Class in Saudi Arabia,"

The Middle East Journal, vol. 27 (Washington D. C.: 1973), pp. 7-20.

Rugh, D.,"New Trends in Arab Education," Education. vol. 76, no. 10, 1956, pp. 595-600.

Saliba, D. & Tomeh, G., "Islam, The Great Tradition," Yearbook of Education: Education and Philosophy, (London: Evans Brothers, 1957), pp. 65-79.

Selin, M. S., "Recent Development in Arab Science Education," International Science Education, vol. 62, no. 1, 1978, pp. 119-124.

Trial, G. T. & Winder, B., "Modern Education in Saudi Arabia," History of Education Journal, vol. 1, 1950, pp. 121-133.

Wahhbah, H., "Wahhabism in Arabia: Past and Present," Journal of the Central Asian Society, vol. 16, 1929, pp. 458-467.

Wheeler, D., "Education Problems of Arab Countries," International Review of Education, vol.1, no. 3, 1966, pp. 300-315.

Reports

UNESCO, Report on the Educational Needs of the Arab State: Education in the Arab Region viewed from 1970 Marraksh Conference, Education Studies and Documents,1 (Paris: UNESCO, 1971)

UNESCO, Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Arab States held in Abu-Dhabi 7-14 November 1977. (Paris: UNESCO, 1978)

Ministry of Education of Saudi Arabia, Report on Progress Achieved in Curriculum Develop in Saudi Arabia, (Riyahh: Department of Research, Curiculum and Materials 1979)

Egbert, R. and Khan, R. A., "Education in Saudi Arabia: Findings, Recommendations and Proposed Projects, "Reports of the Education Team's Visit to Saudi Arabia, November 8-27, 1974," (Washington: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1975) (Mimeo.)

Conway, E. L. "The Process of Development in The Middle East: Goals and Achievements (Washington D.C. 1976), paper presented at the annual conference of the Middle East Institute, October 15-16, 1976

Fehr, H. Reports on Teaching Mathematics in Saudi Arabia (Paris: UNESCO, February-March 1974)

Unpublished Dissertations

Alaki, A. "Industrial-Vocational Education in Saudi Arabia: Problems and Prospects" (The University of Arizona, 1972).

Al-Salloom, H. I., The Study of the Relationship of School District size and Administrative Practices in Schools in Saudi Arabia (University of Oklahoma 1963).

Snyder, H. R. "Community College Education for Saudi Arabia" (Columbia University 1974).

Towagry, A. "Organization Analysis and Proposed Reorganiation of the Ministry of Education of the King of Saudi Arabia" (University of Arkansas, 1973).

Zaid, M. A., "A Pragmatic Critique of Contemporary Arabian Civilization" (Norman: University of Oklahoma, 1972).

Local Newspapers

Al-Jazeerah, No. 2764, February 23, 1980.

_____, No. 2721, January 11, 1980.

Al-Madena Al-Monaura, No. 4838, July 1, 1980.

APPENDIX A

Planning for National Development*

The First and Second Development Plans which cover the periods of 1390-1400A.H. (1970-1980) have been prepared by the Central Planning Organization, CPO, at Riyadh, in collaboration with the various ministries and agencies of the government. The principal objectives of the First Development Plan, 1390-1394 (1970-1974) were:

1. To preserve the Islamic values and the Islamic character of the country.

2. To strengthen the national defense and internal security of the country.

3. To achieve a high rate of economic growth, maximize revenue from petroleum, and preserve non-renewable natural resources.

4. To reduce the dependence of the national economy on petroleum exports.

5. To develop human resources, through education and training, and to raise the health standards of the population.

6. To increase the prosperity of all segments of society.

7. To develop the necessary intrastructure in order to achieve the goal of national development.

The objectives of the first and second plans are not very different from each other. Therefore, the objective

---

*Source: based on Second Development Plan, 1975-80.

and policies of the Second Five Year Plan 1395-1380 (1975-1980) for the planning of education will be stated here.

BOYS EDUCATION

Objectives and Policies

The following objectives and policies are in keeping with the announced intention to assure each Saudi boy a quality education throughout his school career. Education will be available for all boys who reach school-going age as well as opportunities for all to continue their education through the secondary level.

Pre-elementary Education

Review the current program of pre-elementary education to determine appropriate courses of action regarding continuation, expansion, and sponsorship.

Elementary Education

Enroll in 1395-96 all boys aged 7 and 8 in school and 90 percent of the boys aged 6. Increase the number of schools and classes, with emphasis on the rual areas. Inprove the promotion rates by reducing both the incidence of repeating and drop-outs in all grades. Eliminate overcrowding in all classes.

Intermediate Education

Maintain the capability of enrolling all elementary school graduates who would be expected to apply for admission (up to 95 percent of graduates by the end of the plan). Assure that opportunities for intermediate education are available in rural as well as urban areas. Improve the

promotion rates by reducing both the incidence of repeating and drop-out in all grades. Revise the curriculum to provide a broader base for further education or training. Evaluate the modern intermediate school experience in Saudi Arabia.

Secondary Education

Continue to enroll at least 50 percent of the intermediate school graduates as well as al other applicants with appropriate qualifications. Continue the program of opening schools at new locations (as well as in communities with schools) to expand the availability of secondary education. Raise the graduation rate to an average of 90 percent by the third year of the plan. Revise the curriculum in keeping with modern educational practices and objectives. Investigate the applicability of the comprehensive approach to the structure of secondary education.

Teacher Training

Enable the teacher training program to meet all requirements for elementary teachers through expansion of the secondary level institutes and the establishing of a junior college system for teacher training. Increase opportunities for specialized teacher training with emphasis on subjects of critical need. Provide continuing educational opportunities for assigned teachers.

Technical Education

Expand the industrial education program at the secondary level to achieve the capability of graduating at least 1,600 students annually by 1399-1400. Introduce new fields of study and specialization in keeping with the Kingdom's manpower requirements associated with industrial growth. Increase student participation in the Higher Industrial Institute. Expand the commercial education program at the secondary level to achieve the capability of graduating at least 900 students annually by 1399-1400. Continue to provide evening programs in commercial subjects. Establish a Higher Commercial Institute in 1395-96. Initiate a secondary-level program in agricultural education in 1396-97.

Special Education

Expand and improve educational services for the blind, the deaf, and the mentally retarded. Broaden public understanding of the limitations and potentials of the handicapped person.

Holy Qur'an Studies

Expand the elementary and intermediate level programs for studies of the Holy Qur'an. Introduce in 1395-96 a secondary level program of studies for the holy Qur'an.

Adult Education and Literacy

Expand opportunities for part-time education in the intermediate and secondary levels. Expand the ongoing literacy program to reach uneducated adults and elementary

school drop-outs in all areas of the Kingdom. Organize summer campaigns to provide literacy training to nomadic and rural groups. Initiate an incentive program to stimulate participation in literacy classes.

Services

Expand the school meal program at the elementary level and introduce the program on a pilot basis in selected intermediate schools. Develop the school transportation system to meet the needs of the rural school expansion program. Expand the health service program for students and staff. Develop a guidance program to assist students in their academic choices. Expand the youth development program of cultural, social, and athletic activities for boys.

Educational Technology

Establish a National Center for Educational Technology for the development, testing, production, and distribution of classroom teaching aids; curriculum research; and equipment and program testing. Initiate the pilot educational television project. Introduce a simplified language-laboratory system for English instruction at the secondary level. Develop experimental audio system for the Arabic language instruction in elementary schools. Design and introduce combined facilities classrooms (theory and practice) on a pilot basis at the secondary level. Establish experimental schools for testing innovations in educational approaches and equipment.

Utilize mobile and prefabricated classrooms in the school expansion program.

Educational Quality

Expand the teacher guidance and the inspector programs to improve teaching practices and ensure comprehensive coverage of the curricula. Provide opportunities to teachers and administrators for upgrading, refresher courses, and other forms of professional development. Publish and distribute a periodical covering research findings of relevance to the educational system the Kingdom. Review the examination system and its effectiveness as an instrument for student education. Encourage an atmosphere of mutual cooperation between the school teacher and the administrator in resolving educational problems. Ensure that all schools have the necessary classroom equipment, instructional aids, texts, and student supplies, and that buildings include all required utility services.

Administration and Operations

Modify the departmental organization of the Ministry to provide a more efficient structure for the management of educational affairs. Simplify administrative procedures and extend the delegation of responsibility. Decentralize control of school operations through the reorganization of the existing system of school districts. Develop a responsive information and retrieval system. Establish a functional internal accounting and bdgeting system.

Staffing

Increase the number of teachers to maintain average teacher:class ratios of 1.25:1 in elementary, 1.80:1 in intermediate, and 1.93:1 in secondary schools and 2.14:1 in secondary-level teacher training. Ratios in other programs will vary according to the name of the instruction, from 1.50:1 for elementary Qur'an to 2.66:1 for special teacher training programs. Provide schools with necessary administrative and clerical staff to relieve teachers from non-institutional assignments. Expand all staff sections and departments of the Ministry in keeping with the administration and technical support required by the educational development program. Increase the district office staffs in keeping with their responsibility for supervision of school programs.

Facilities

Complete construction of currently authorized school building projects with minimum delay. Initiate a comprehensive building program for additional schools at all levels to increase the proportion of government-owned school buildings to more than 59 percent by the end of the Plan. Undertake a program of surveys and studies to support the expanding school construction program. Construct administrative and technical office buildings and annexes for the Ministry to replace rented facilities and meet requirements for expansion. Replace rented space and provide additional offices for the district administration.

Build a system of health units to serve all educational districts. Construct facilities for the National Center of Educational Technology and the pilot educational television center. Build a system of scout centers, student hostels, and youth development instruction centers. Provide for the regular maintenance and repair of existing facilities--government-owned and rented--during the plan period.

GIRLS' EDUCATION

Objectives and Policies

From the sound foundation laid in the 1390-95 period, the plan for girls' education in the years 1395-1400 aims to bring diversity and qualitative advances to continually expanding programs at all levels. The specific objectives of the Plan are summarized below.

Elementary Education

Increase present (1394-95) elementary school enrollment by 64 percent by the end of the plan period. Provide school places for at least 50 percent of the Saudi girls aged between 6 and 12. Increase the number of communities with elementary schools for girls, putting emphasis on the rural areas. Improve the promotion rates by reducing the incidence of repeating and drop-out in all grades. Eliminate overcrowding in all classes.

Intermediate Education

Continue to enroll at least 50 percent of the elementary school graduates. Provide more opportunities for intermediate education in small communities and rural areas.

Improve the promotion rates by reducing the incidence of repeating and drop-out in all grades. Reduce the average number of students per class to 27 by the end of the Plan.

Secondary Education

Continue to enroll at least 50 percent of the intermediate school graduates. Continue the program of opening schools at new locations (as well as in communities with schools) to expand the availability of secondary education. Achieve passing rates of 90 percent in grade one and over 95 percent in higher grades by the end of the Plan. Reduce the average number of students per class to 23 by the end of the Plan.

Teacher Training

Expand the teacher training program at the secondary level to meet annual requirements for additional elementary teachers and also to begin replacing non-Saudi teachers by the end of the Plan. Extend the course of study in the secondary-level teacher training institute program from two to three years. Complete the phasing out of the intermediate-level teacher training institute program. Encourage participation in teacher training programs by students from rural areas through the provision of housing and special financial incentives. Develop a post-secondary school program for the training of intermediate school teachers.

Technical Education

Continue the operation of the technical training

centers at the present locations. Introduce new courses related to occupations appropriate for Saudi women. Extend the course of study from two to three years.

Literacy Program

Expand the ongoing literacy program to reach uneducated adults and elementary school drop-outs in all areas of the Kingdom. Make the syllabus more relevant to women. Utilize public information media to reinforce the program. Develop training programs to prepare teachers for adult literacy assignments.

Facilities

Complete with minimum delay school building projects already authorized. Initiate a comprehensive building program for additional schools at all levels to increase the proportion of government-owned school buildings to 42 percent by the end of the Plan. Construct student housing units at selected teacher training institutions. Construct office buildings for the general and regional administrative headquarters to replace existing make-shift facilities in modified villas. Build a system of health units to serve all educational districts.

Educational Quality

Provide regional and branch offices with sufficient support staff for continuing supervision of educational programs. Expand the educational guidance program to ensure comprehensive coverage of all instruction by qualified inspectors. Develop an upgrading program for elementary

teachers who do not hold secondary-level certificates. Insure that all schools have the necessary classroom equipment, instructional aids, texts, and student supplies, and that buildings include all required utility services.

Services

Initiate on a pilot basis a school-meals program in selected areas. Expand the health service program for students and school staff. Make housing available for students and staff at schools in isolated locations. Improve and expand the school transportation system.

Staffing

Increase the number of teachers to achieve lower teacher-pupil ratios at all levels by the end of the Plan. Increase the proportion of Saudi women teachers and administrators in schools to 59 percent of the total by the end of the Plan. Emphasize supervisory, technical, and educational posts in the expansion of the staff sections of the General Presidency for Girl's Education. Enlarge the school health service staff, both general and specialist.

APPENDIX B

Table 21

Kindergarten: Schools, Pupils, and Teachers
1976 - 77

School Year	Teachers			Children			Schools			
	Female	Male	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Co-ed	Girls	Boys	Total
1969/70	66	-	66	2689	1480	4169	1	32	12	45
1970/71	190	1	191	2332	3726	6058	37	-	12	49
1971/72	194	1	194	2400	4069	6469	34	-	12	46
1972/73	229	3	232	3132	5099	8231	38	10	17	65
1973/74	270	17	287	3831	6336	10167	52	-	13	65
1974/75	383	9	392	5573	8330	13903	76	-	12	88
1975/76	425	14	439	6763	9224	15987	103	-	-	103
1976/77	457	10	467	6883	9155	16038	104	-	-	104

Source: Ministry of Education, progress of Education in Saudi Arabia: Statistical Review 1979

Table 22

Elementary Stage: Schools, Pupils and Teachers 1969/70 - 1976/79

School Year	Teachers			Pupils			Schools		
	Female	Male	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total
1969/70	4330	12851	17181	119789	277364	397153	378	1446	1824
1970/71	4716	12719	17435	132277	295520	427797	390	1518	1908
1971/72	5466	14111	19577	153964	321043	475007	488	1666	2154
1972/73	6467	95663	22130	174194	346928	521122	587	1880	2467
1973/74	7653	18731	26384	197448	380186	577734	721	1990	1711
1974/75	8864	20892	29756	223304	411194	634498	881	2147	3028
1975/76	10575	65436	35139	246606	439502	686108	1008	2489	3497
1976/77	11910	26201	38121	266666	459637	726303	1148	2731	3879

Source: Ministry of Education, progress of Education in Saudi Arabia: Statistical Review 1979

Table 23

Intermediate Stage: Schools, Pupils and Teachers 1960/70-1976/77

School Year	Teachers			Pupils			Schools		
	Female	Male	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total
1969/70	189	3271	3460	5305	55271	60576	22	330	352
1970/71	348	2991	3339	8645	60283	68928	27	368	395
1971/72	669	3517	4186	13456	70135	83681	69	415	484
1972/73	1035	4227	5262	20518	78233	98751	95	462	557
1973/74	1388	4783	6171	29478	85872	115350	98	488	586
1974/75	1771	5647	7418	38544	98339	136883	117	530	647
1975/76	2377	7989	10366	47817	106671	154488	136	582	718
1976/77	3004	5615	10619	55505	122439	177944	164	660	824

Source: Ministry of Education, progress of Education in Saudi Arabia Statistical Review 1979

Table 24

Secondary Stage: Schools, Pupils and Teachers 1969/70 - 1976/77

School Year	Teachers			Pupils			Schools		
	Female	Male	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total
1969/70	14	498	512	1487	13798	15285	6	73	79
1970/71	21	629	650	1856	17903	19759	6	81	87
1971/72	127	817	944	2979	20053	23032	15	126	141
1972/73	190	1147	1337	4009	22767	26776	18	134	152
1973/74	294	1356	1650	6412	26774	33186	19	141	160
1974/75	449	1683	2132	10206	31333	41539	26	156	182
1975/76	661	2884	3509	13856	34970	48826	35	177	212
1976/77	988	2289	3277	17519	42415	59934	48	209	257

Source: Ministry of Education, progress of Education in Saudi Arabia Statistical Review 1979

Table 25

Teacher Training Institutes: Schools, Pupils, Teachers 1969/70 1976/77

School Year	Teachers			Pupils			Schools		
	Female	Male	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total
1969/70	228	261	489	5701	3131	8832	31	9	40
1970/71	359	323	682	6286	5392	11678	34	13	47
1971/72	333	476	809	6180	6421	12601	41	14	55
1972/73	324	514	838	5629	7116	12745	50	14	64
1973/74	285	557	842	4927	7582	12509	47	15	62
1974/75	252	673	925	3840	9133	12973	49	19	68
1975/76	288	868	1156	4064	10587	14651	32	30	62
1976/77	445	786	1231	5618	15343	15343	32	34	66

Source: Ministry of Education: Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia Statistical Review 1979

Table 26

Technical Education: Schools, Pupils and Teachers 1969/70 - 1976/77

School Year	Teachers			Pupils			Schools		
	Female	Male	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total
1969/70	-	275	275	-	840	840	-	7	7
1970/71	-	224	224	-	848	848	-	5	5
1971/72	-	257	257	-	899	899	-	7	7
1972/73	-	228	228	-	1356	1356	-	8	8
1973/74	-	301	301	-	2180	2180	-	8	8
1974/75	-	394	394	-	3408	3408	-	13	13
1975/76	-	660	660	-	4063	4063	-	21	21
1976/77	-	705	705	-	4548	4548	-	22	22

Source: Ministry of Education, progress of Education in Saudi Arabia Statistical Review 1979

Table 27

Special Education: Institutes, Pupils and Teachers 1976-77

School Year	Teachers			Pupils			Institutes		
	Female	Male	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total
1969/70	43	180	223	151	1097	1248	2	8	10
1970/71	36	214	250	109	1148	1257	2	8	10
1971/72	55	244	299	132	1155	1287	2	8	10
1972/73	61	306	367	229	1343	1572	4	10	14
1973/74	81	367	448	214	1511	1725	4	11	15
1974/75	99	425	524	234	1550	1784	4	11	15
1975/76	112	518	630	254	1550	1804	4	15	19
1976/77	607	142	749	307	1468	1775	6	14	20

Source: Ministry of Education: progress of Education in Saudi Arabia: Statistical Review 1979

Table 28

Adult Education: Centers, Pupils, Teachers 1969/70 - 1976/77

School Year	Teachers			Pupils			Schools		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
1969/70	-	-	-	-	42314	42314	-	607	607
1970/71	-	-	-	-	42677	42677	-	609	609
1971/72	-	-	-	-	46034	46034	-	624	624
1972/73	1	57	58	1412	52882	64234	6	743	749
1973/74	5	18	23	9414	61524	70938	52	852	904
1974/75	31	39	70	24622	75051	99673	350	1075	1425
1975/76	13	-	13	27259	68082	95341	471	1272	1743
1976/77	-	-	-	30348	69004	99352	628	1519	2147

Source: Ministry of Education: Progress of Education in Saudi Arabia Statistical Review 1979