

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION
IN SAUDI ARABIA
1928 - 1972

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ABSTRACT

The development of teacher education in Saudi Arabia had first to be related to the religious basis of society and to the developing social, economic and scholastic systems. Upon this basis the development of the education and recruitment of men and women teachers was considered in detail. Special stress has been laid upon organisation and control, content and methodology, and the social status of teachers. Against the social background of the seclusion of women, the difficulties and inducements of their recruitment are brought out. This is followed by an examination of the provision for in-service education for teachers and of its programmes.

Having thus traversed the ground, an interpretation and assessment are then offered of the achievements and limitations, covering organisation, content, methodology and the causes of wastage.

Finally, proposals for future development have been suggested. These are broad outlines of the basic requirements, leaving room for modification according to changing needs and circumstances. In particular, suggestions are made regarding the establishment of central bodies to bring about more systematic development in the fields of

curriculum, educational research and teacher education, the development of content and methodology, and the re-organisation of the provision of primary teacher education. These proposals are the natural outcome of the study itself, reinforced by personal experience and judgement.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTORY

"Nothing is more necessary to a country than a good education service; if it is to be good, it must be plentifully staffed with well qualified teachers; all the countries in the world are to some extent suffering from a shortage of teachers. On these three points all opinions and all figures are in agreement."¹

It is both difficult and misleading to examine the provision of teacher education in Saudi Arabia without reference to the provision of education as a whole; the teacher training service is a key component of the education system. Similarly, reference should be made to the relevant socio-economic factors affecting education for

"No system of education can be truly appreciated or criticized except against the background of the social order in which it operates. The reason for this is that education always serves a social purpose, even if both teachers and pupils are unaware of the fact and experience the educational contact as an entirely spontaneous undertaking."²

To treat these matters either comprehensively or in any details is beyond the scope of this work. This chapter,

1. Thomas, J., Teachers for the Schools of Tomorrow, Unesco, France, 1968, P.28.

2. Lowe, A., The Universities in Transformation, the Sheldon Press, London, 1940, P.2.

therefore, is intended as a general background and the issues that have to be considered here are; religious and other social factors relevant to social change and educational development, the discovery of oil and its social and economic impact, the introduction of a modern education system; its initial stages and subsequent developments, and the effect of educational expansion upon the supply of teachers.

Religious and Social Considerations:

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was founded in the course of the first three decades of the twentieth century. It comprises provinces which for long had been divided into a number of small states. Apart from Najd, the main provinces are; Hijaz, Asir, Ha il and Al-Ahsa. "The total area is 872,722 sq. mi."¹ It is mostly desert and sparsely populated. At present, "There are no verified figures of the exact population."²

Prior to 1932, when the economical exploitation of oil started, the country was very poor in resources. Its main source of income was the annual pilgrimage to the

1. Encyclopaedia Britannica, Encyclopaedia Britannica INC. William Benton, Publisher, 1970, Vol. 19, P.1091
2. Ibid, P.1092

Muslim holy land. The steady increase in the revenue from oil has not only provided the country with the financial means required for development but also has given new dimensions to the role to be played by Saudi Arabia in the Arab, Muslim and world affairs. In this respect, three considerations may be taken into account, namely; Saudi Arabia consists of the largest area in the Arabian Peninsula; the motherland of the Arabs, the existence of the Muslim holy land - on the west - and the oil fields on the east. Such spiritual and materialistic richness hardly exists elsewhere.

The more Saudi Arabia is called upon to play its natural role in world affairs the more apparent becomes the need for development from within. But development means change, and the association of the country with the cradle of Islam and the Wahhabi school of thought implies that the change required for development should be pursued in accord with the teachings of Islam, and in some aspects, as interpreted by this particular school of thought.

Here, it is necessary to refer to the fact that in the early centuries after the foundation of Islam, scholars "on the basis of the Koran, and the practice and pronouncements of Muhammad ... have constructed and elaborated a

whole system of conduct for the individual, the community and the state and their inter-relations."¹ Following that period of the establishment of the foundations of the theological, social and political system, Muslim theologians have been busy commenting and again commenting on the earlier studies, particularly on matters of ritual. These commentators are by training and vocation conservative. They naturally viewed modern Western thought and technology as contrary to Islam itself not merely to their own interpretation of it. This is precisely the difficulty in Saudi Arabia.

Whilst elsewhere in the Arab and Muslim world, Islam, by and large, has been confined to limited areas in the life of the individual and the conduct of the state, it is not so in Saudi Arabia. As has been remarked by Dr. A.L. Tibawi; "As a civilization Islam proved very receptive and adaptable. It absorbed and assimilated into its system much of the Greek, Persian and other heritages and succeeded

1. Tibawi, A.L. Islamic Education, Its Traditions and Modernization into the Arab National Systems, Luzac and Company Ltd., 1972, P.19

in retaining its essential character. The result of the cultural ferment, in which all nations shared, was an Arabic-Islamic civilization truly cosmopolitan."¹ So if it was possible in the past then why not now?

Within this context, the policy adopted by the Saudi authorities to bring about gradual change in a peaceful manner, is marked by an effort to find a suitable formula acceptable to the 'Ulema' and conducive to the introduction of social economic and educational development. Much patience and time are necessary to arrive at such a working system to reconcile tradition with the needs of development. To give an example, considerable time and effort had to be spent to convince certain elements in many areas to open primary schools for boys, let alone for girls and to include secular subjects in the curriculum.

Based on Islamic culture, and a largely pastoral and nomadic society, Saudi Arabia was until recently a developing country just emerging from a somewhat primitive life. Its provinces, though exhibiting a general homogeneity,

1. Ibid, P.21

differed in their stages of social, economic and educational development. However, since access to wealth, through the discovery of oil, the situation is changing. Levelling up social standards is a prerequisite for the development of the country as one solid entity. In this respect, a great deal has been done through urbanization, encouraging people to move from one area to another for work and settlement, and most of all through education; "More importantly, human welfare is what development is all about. And education is the means by which people enhance their capability to contribute to development, to participate in it, and to appreciate the significance of both these roles."¹

Urbanization usually brings in its train a set of social and educational problems. The former may be regarded as symptomatic of a culture conflict; "the economically undifferentiated, socially homogeneous, tradition-bound folk community, with its highly personal relationships is in conflict with the socially heterogeneous, economically differentiated urban way of life with its occupational specificity, its anonymity and its impersonal relationships."²

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1. The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Central Planning Organisation, Development Plan 1390 A.H., (1970), Al-Mutawa Press Co., Dammam, Saudi Arabia, English text, p.37
 2. Wheeler, D.K., "Educational Problems of Arab Countries", International Review of Education, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, Vol. 12, No. 3, 1966, P.306

Furthermore, "the effects of modern media such as radio and television are to carry the urban way of life beyond the confines of the towns themselves. As a result, Western technology and way of life can be seen side by side with the traditional."¹

Closely linked with this point is the fact that in the Arab as well as many other developing countries, education, for a variety of reasons, "is more readily available to those who live in the great cities and the towns or larger villages. Even so, the bright boys from rural areas who are trained to return to educate their fellows, are, by the end of their training, often unwilling to do so, for they wish to remain in the more populous areas where life is more comfortable and more exciting."² This situation is further complicated by the fact that the Beduins constitute a large section of the population and present the country and its education system with a different and well known set of social, economic and education problems.

Within this context, the education service is presented with the task of preserving the best that has

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1. Ibid, P.305
 2. Ibid, PP. 305-306

been inherited and reconciling the new with the traditional. Whilst this has to be observed, the country is in a great need for qualified manpower to render further social and economic development possible. "Rapid growth has brought with it a growing demand for manpower at all levels. This demand has inevitably out-paced the supply. As a result large numbers of foreign personnel are employed in many important areas of the economy, particularly those requiring high levels of education and training. Employment of foreign personnel provides only a partial solution to the manpower problems of the country."¹ The real solution lies in providing more education, and of good quality. Yet, the education system itself is greatly dependent upon expatriates.

Educational Background:

The educational facilities that existed in the different provinces before the First World War were a reflection of their respective administrative and social conditions. Hijaz and Najd, the largest of them, can be taken as an example. "Hijaz had, in addition to the traditional Muslim schools and specialized religious circles in the mosques of the two holy cities, a rudimen-

1. The Development Plan 1390 A.H., 1970 A.D., op. cit., P. 22.

tary school system introduced by the Turks during the last decades of their rule. According to official figures published in 1915 the province of Hijaz had 78 state primary schools. The independent Arab Kingdom of Hijaz inherited those of them that survived the war. They were, with the help of Syrian administrators, converted into Arab schools. A few new schools were also established as a nucleus of a modern system. 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. ...In Najd the educational facilities were governed by a more tribal and nomadic life as well as by the missionary fervour of the Wahhabi preachers who monopolized teaching. It is difficult to label their activities as an organised system before the introduction from the first decade of this century of a state plan to settle the beduins on the land to educate them in the Wahhabi tenets with a view to making them farmers and soldiers."¹

1. Tibawi, A.L., op. cit., PP. 178-179

The first serious step towards the organisation of education was taken in 1925 (1344 A.H.) when the General Directorate of Education was founded.¹ It operated in very difficult circumstances the least of which were the resistance to change by the extreme and most influential elements in the society, the vast area of the country with a very poor transport communications system, and most of all with a very small number of indigenous teachers. Nevertheless, some significant developments and profound educational changes took place in the period from 1925 till 1953 (1373 A.H.); the year in which the General Directorate was replaced by the Ministry of Education.² These developments included the provision of primary and secondary education, primary teacher training, a scholarship programme for tertiary education, and the establishment of the first two institutions of higher education in the country, namely; the Faculty of Shari'ah and the Teachers College.

1. Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Primary Education, Al-ta'lim Al-ibtidai Bayn Al-ams wa Al-yawm, (Primary Education Yesterday and Today), 1389 A.H.. 1969 A.D., Muassasat Manturah Liltiba'ah, Beirut, Lebanon, Arabic text, P.23.
2. Ibid, P.25

The number of primary schools increased from 4 in 1925 to 306 in 1952.¹ A primary education curriculum began to take shape and some secular subjects were introduced gradually. The duration of primary studies was extended in 1941-42 (1361 A.H.)² to involve a period of six years duration. These schools were mainly confined to towns and large villages. As for small villages, another system of elementary schooling was introduced (Al-madāris Al-quraw-iyah) to provide education in the three "R's". This dual system was abolished in 1954 (1373 A.H.) and the primary schooling has since become of six years duration in both urban and rural areas.³

1936 (1356 A.H.) witnessed the establishment of the first secondary school, in the modern sense, namely; Madrasat Taḥdīr al-Biṣāthāt (The School of the Preparation of Bursary Students), in Mecca. To achieve the main purpose of the school, as indicated by its name, the curriculum was worked out on the Egyptian model of the corresponding educational level. In this way, the leavers of the School

1. Ibid, P.24

2. Royal Decree No. 2802 dated 26.2.1361 A.H., 1941 A.D.

3. Primary Education Yesterday and Today, op. cit., P.43

could pursue their higher education at the Egyptian universities.

The provision of higher education started in 1927 (1346 A.H.) when the first educational mission of three members was sent to Egypt to join al-Azhar and the Faculty of Dār al-^ḤUlūm. The second mission, consisting of eight students, was sent in 1936 (1356 A.H.). As a result of the difficulties prevailing during the Second World War and financial hardship no further educational missions were sent till 1941 (1361 A.H.). Since then, however, Saudi students have been sent abroad regularly.¹

The small number of the leavers of the secondary level, the need for equipment, apparatus, libraries, and, above all, qualified lecturers rendered the idea of the establishment of a university rather unrealistic. Yet, a beginning was made in 1949-50 (1369 - 70 A.H.) when the Faculty of Shari^ḥ'ah (Islamic Jurisprudence) was founded in Mecca, and it was followed in 1952-53 (1372-73 A.H.) with the Teachers College.²

1. Cf. Hibshi, M., The Development of Higher Education in Saudi Arabia: 1945-1965, M. Phil Thesis, (London), 1967, unpublished, P.49

2. Ibid, pages 57 and 72.

Thus were the foundations laid for the emergence of the Ministry of Education, the recognition of the importance of education in bringing about desirable social changes and economic development in the face of increasing need for skilled manpower, the intense desire shown by the citizens for the education of their children and the expansion that followed.

As finally developed, the educational ladder consists of primary, intermediate and secondary education. Primary schooling consists of six years duration and leads to the intermediate level which is of three years duration. General secondary education is of three years duration after the completion of intermediate education, and the last two years of which are divided into two sections, namely; the literary and scientific sections. There is a complete separation between the academic and vocational education. Diversification of pupils among the different types of secondary schooling starts after the completion of intermediate education. Only the general, including religious, secondary schools lead to university education.

Tertiary education is provided at Riyadh and King Abdul·aziz universities, the Islamic University in Medina,

the College of Petroleum and Minerals in Dahrān,¹ the two colleges of Sharī'ah and Arabic in Riyadh,² and the College of Education for Girls in Riyadh.

Riyadh University was created by a decree in 1957 (1377 A.H.). It consists of the faculties of arts, science, commerce, pharmacy, agriculture, engineering, education and medicine.³ The number of students enrolled in 1971-72 (1391-92 A.H.) was 3782.⁴

King Abdulaziz University started in 1967-68 (1387-88 A.H.) as a private institution and became governmental in 1971, under the decision of the Council of Ministers No. 150 dated 4.2.1391 A.H., 31.3.1971 A.D. The faculties of Sharī'ah and Islamic Studies, and Education, in Mecca, were annexed to the University under the same decision.

1. It became the University of Petroleum and Minerals in 1975.

2. They became in 1974 the nucleus of a new university, namely; the Islamic University of Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud.

3. Saudi Arabia, University of Riyadh, Calendar: 1392 A.H. 1972 A.D., Matabi' Al-Ḳasīm, Riyadh, Arabic text, pp. 3-5.

4. Riyadh University, A'dād Al-ṭalabah Al MUḳayyadīn wa Al Kharrīdjīn Ḥasab Al-Kulliyāt Li'ām 1391-92 A.H., (the Number of the Students Enrolled and the Graduates According to Faculties), 1971-72, Arabic text, stencilled, P.1.

formerly they were controlled by the Ministry of Education. In addition to these two faculties, there are the faculties of Economics and Administration, Arts, and Science. The number of students enrolled in 1971-72 was 2080.¹

At this point, reference should be made to two other educational authorities controlling institutions relevant to this study, namely; the General Presidency of the Colleges and Religious Institutes,² and the General Presidency of the Education of Girls. The former controls a number of institutes of intermediate and secondary levels which are mainly concerned with religious and Arabic studies, the number of which in 1971-72 was 37 with an enrollment of 9,261 pupils.³ The institutes lead to the colleges of Sharī'ah and Arabic, in Riyadh, which are controlled by the same authority. The number of students at both colleges in 1971-72 was 1,475. The colleges play a role in training teachers of religion and Arabic for

1. As supplied by the University, letter No. 279/94 dated 4.11.1394 A.H., (1974), a type-script.

2. It was substituted in 1974 by the Islamic University of Al-Imam Muhammed Ibn Saud.

3. As supplied by the General Presidency of the Colleges and Religious Institutes.

the Religious Institutes as well as the intermediate and secondary schools of the Ministry of Education.

The education of girls started privately and on a very limited scale. It was in 1959 (1379 A.H.) that the education of women was recognized by the State and a special body was created to supervise it. The educational ladder is identical to that of the boys education system.

Parents and daughters alike have shown a great interest in education at all levels. At this point, it is sufficient to note that whereas in 1960 (1380 A.H.) there were about 15 primary schools for girls with an enrollment of 5,180 pupils, in 1971-72 there were 455 schools with an enrollment of 148,646 pupils.¹ The universities of Riyadh and King Abdulaziz, and the College of Education for Girls, in Riyadh, provide higher education for girls inside the country. Meanwhile, a number of girls pursue their higher education abroad. Some Saudi women have already returned home with the master and doctoral degrees.

The creation of these two educational bodies come within the framework of the general educational policy which does not seek "to relegate the traditional system

1. See Chapter three, table (14)

to an inferior position, or even to isolate its subject matter to a fixed position in a combined syllabus. There is, on the contrary a studied effort to cast the new system in an Islamic mould."¹

As far as education administration is concerned, with the exception of the universities, the educational system is highly centralized. The Ministry of Education lays down the regulations of the institutions which are under its control, prescribes curricula and textbooks, conducts the final examinations of each educational level, trains the primary teachers, and until recently also those of intermediate and secondary schools and controls their appointments; promotion and dismissal. The burden of administration is divided among different departments. Ad hoc committees are also set up to study and advise upon general educational, administrative and financial matters. In addition, the country is divided into a number of educational zones and the function of officers is more or less limited to the execution of policies laid by the central body. The same holds true regarding the General Presidency of the Education of Girls.

1. Tibawi, A.L., op. cit., P. 180

Centralization can be considered as an immediate result of the vast shortage of qualified academic and administrative personnel which has made it necessary, so it has been thought, to concentrate resources at central level. However, there are signs that centralization in the Ministry of Education is gradually giving way to decentralization particularly in administrative matters. This is likely to be speeded up as the number of qualified personnel grows.

Each of the universities of Riyadh and King Abdulaziz is an autonomus entity governed by a statute¹ and administrative regulations, including financial affairs. The Minister of Education is the 'Supreme Head' of the University and he is responsible for university affairs in the Council of Ministers. Each faculty enjoys its own autonomy within the rules and regulations of the University.

The Shortage of Indigenous Teachers:

Like in most developing countries, the education

1. The last statutes of King Abdulaziz and Riyadh universities were issued under the Royal Decrees No. M/5 and M/6 respectively, in 1392 A.H., 1972

system has been caught in the grip of the vicious circle of unprecedented demand and inadequate supply. As the following chapters will examine this issue in detail, it is sufficient to note in this chapter that in "1389-90 (1969-70) over 73 per cent of the teaching staff in the girls' education system was non-Saudi, and the proportion of Saudi teachers in boys' education was 55 per cent at the elementary level and less than 15 per cent at the general secondary schools and teacher training institutes."¹

The problem of the shortage of teachers is not only that of number but also of quality. It has been noted in the report of the Joint Unesco/FAO/ILO Mission (1961-62) that; "of all the teachers employed in primary schools, nearly half were foreigners, and more than one-third, to all intents and purposes, unqualified."² In respect of intermediate and secondary levels, Dr Akrawi and Dr Al-Bassam stated in their report to the Ministry of Education

1. The Development Plan, op. cit., P.96

2. Prospects of Educational Advance in Saudi Arabia; Report of the Joint Unesco/FAO/ILO Mission, 1961-62, September, 1962; English text, cyclostyled, P.5

(1964) that 'only 52 per cent of the total number of teachers employed in the intermediate and secondary schools were graduates and that only 5 out of 478 teachers were professionally qualified, i.e., 1 per cent'.¹

These considerations indicate the need for the examination of the issues of training and recruitment as a prerequisite for the development of a sound educational system; "So long as the country is largely dependent upon expatriates to staff the schools and colleges it is likely to suffer handicaps in the development of a truly national system of education. Education is much more than instruction."²

In the following four chapters an attempt has been made to give as clear a picture as possible of the developments hitherto achieved in the field of teacher education and to assess the various issues and factors involved.

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1. M. Akrawi and A.A. Al-Bassam, I'dād al-Mudarrisīn Lilmarhalatein al-Mutawassitah wa al-Thanawiyah wa dawr Kulliyat al-Tarbiyah bi Makkah al-Mukarramah fih, (The Training of Teachers for the Intermediate and Secondary Levels and the Role of The Faculty of Education in Mecca), 2.3.1384 A.H., 12.7.1964, Arabic text, stencilled, P.2.
 2. Lewis, L.J., Report on a Visit to Saudi Arabia, 21-30 March, 1969, cyclostyled, P.8

Proposals for future development have been put forward in the last chapter. The present study, however, is not concerned with teachers of physical and art education. Nor is it concerned with the training and recruitment of teachers for industrial, commercial and agricultural schools. The reason for this is that these fields of education have not gained roots in the national education system yet, and the data available are not sufficient to be taken as a starting-point for analysis.

CHAPTER TWO: THE PROVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION FOR MEN

It is a recognised fact that Saudi Arabia is facing ever-increasing demands for education. In the hustle of such unprecedented demands, one has to bear in mind that the validity of any education system is dependent upon the quality of teaching and the availability of competent teachers. "However enlightened the aims, however up to date and generous the equipment, however efficient the administration, the value to children is determined by the teachers. There is therefore no more important matter than that of securing a sufficient supply of the right kind of people to the profession, providing them with the best possible training, and ensuring to them a status and esteem commensurate with the importance and responsibility of their work. With the rapid expansion of schooling, both in numbers and extent all over the world, these problems have acquired a new importance and urgency."¹

1. G.Z.F. Bereday and J.A. Lauwerys, "Editors' Introduction", The Year Book of Education, 1963, Published in association with the University of London Institute of Education and Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, by Evans Brothers Limited, London. P. xii.

With these considerations in mind, the provision of teacher education will be analysed and examined. The issues involved are those essentially related to the expansion of educational opportunities as a factor determining present and future needs for teachers, the great dependence of the education system upon expatriates, and the developments achieved in the field of training indigenous teachers in terms of organization, content and methodology.

The Rate of Educational Expansion:

Opportunities for free formal education are available for all elements of society from the primary level through the university level. Furthermore, the pupils of certain types of education, such as those enrolled at the institutions of teacher education and the technical schools, are provided with grants-in-aid. The same holds true regarding those pursuing higher education. The following table shows the rate of educational expansion at primary, intermediate and secondary levels in fifteen years; 1957-58 till 1971-72.¹

1. As supplied by the Unit of Statistics, Research and Educational Documents, Ministry of Education, the letter No. 414, dated 18.11.1392 A.H., (23.12.1972).

Table (1):

Year	Primary Ed.		Intermediate Ed.		Secondary Ed.	
	<u>Schools</u>	<u>Pupils</u>	<u>Schools</u>	<u>Pupils</u>	<u>Schools</u>	<u>Pupils</u>
1957-58	547	91,787	20	3,976	16	1,198
1971-72	1,596	308,598	322	56,712	51	12,638

According to these official figures, the average yearly rate of increase in respect of the pupils of primary, intermediate and secondary general schools was approximately 16.8, 94.7 and 68.1 per cent respectively.

If the expansion of educational opportunities is to be perceived in clear perspective, the following considerations should be taken into account. First, there is a general recognition of the fact that "in spite of the relatively big strides made in the way of educational progress, primary education enrolment is still less than one-third of the corresponding age-group. Intermediate and secondary output falls short of supplying the country's need for staff to take up lower and intermediate level executive posts and of providing the necessary numbers which should receive higher education if the country's urgent need for highly trained personnel is to be filled in the not too distant future."¹

1. Request by the Government of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia to the United Nations Special Fund for Assistance in the Establishment of a Teacher Training College in Riyadh, English text, stencilled, P. 2. (n.d.)

Secondly, the traditional, though gradually diminishing, consideration of manual work as 'undignified' and not worthy socially. This has affected enrollment at technical education institutions and resulted in a preference for academic intermediate and secondary education. Industrial education, for example, started in 1949, but till now this type of education has not gained roots yet and enrollment is generally considered unsatisfactory. The Development Plan states that "Most of the students - approximately 94 per cent of the total - are enrolled in general academic programs, predominantly at the elementary level."¹ This state of affairs has resulted in great pressure on general secondary education and will continue to do so unless a new outlook is generated. "If society as a whole looks down on any form of manual labour, and if, as so often happens in state services, the starting salary for a young man with the most miserable degree is higher than the top rate for skilled craftsman or a competent technician, the individual is not entirely senseless who chooses the goal, however narrow, that society obviously values most highly."²

1. The Development Plan 1390 A.H., (1970), op. cit., P.95

2. Beeby, C.E., The Quality of Education in Developing Countries, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1966, P.32

The effect of this factor upon the recruitment of teachers can hardly be over-emphasised.

Thirdly, another pressure on general secondary education results from the fact that higher education leads to more promising jobs, and general secondary education is the only type of education that qualifies for admission. The secondary school final examination formally confers on successful candidates the right to enter university and other tertiary education institutions. This has affected enrollment at all other types of schooling including primary teacher-training institutions. Despite the payment of a monthly allowance for pupils studying at schools other than those of general intermediate and secondary education, there is ample evidence that strenuous efforts have been made by a good number of pupils enrolled at these institutions to sit, as external candidates, for the final examinations of the general certificate of intermediate and secondary levels in order to be able to pursue their higher studies. Similar efforts are made even by those who have already been in service.

The Staffing of Schools:

The demand for native and expatriate teachers to meet the needs of the education system has exerted and still exerts influence upon the appointment of teachers which

results in quantitative considerations being given precedence over qualitative considerations. The significance of this factor was made explicit in 1953 (1373 A.H.) when the Ministry of Education was founded. The policy adopted by the Ministry for the appointment of primary teachers has been described in the following terms:

"When the Ministry of Education in 1953 (1373 A.H.) assumed responsibility for education it realized the need for a great number of teachers as a result of the policy adopted regarding the establishment of schools, which aimed at the expansion of the education system and the augmentation of its means for all citizens wherever they might be. The recruitment of the required number of teachers for these schools from among the Saudis was impossible. The Ministry, therefore, resorted to the following procedure: (a) seeking the employment of all the Saudis who could read and write and wished to work in this field, irrespective of qualifications; and (b) the employment of some of the citizens of brother [Arab]¹ countries who had the secondary education certificate, or its equivalent, as a minimum qualification, with or without teaching experience."²

It was assumed that this procedure would be temporary. But, despite the efforts made to provide training for

1. My italics.

2. Primary Education Yesterday and Today, op. cit., P.67

indigenous teachers, the rate of educational expansion has made that temporary measure of much longer application than originally envisaged, though on a diminishing scale. The numbers of indigenous teachers at primary, intermediate and secondary levels have increased from 4,705 in 1963-64 (1383-84 A.H.) to 8,764 teachers in 1971-72 (1391-92 A.H.)¹. The proportion of the Saudi to non-Saudi teachers, however, varied from one educational level to another.

At the primary education level, the indigenous teachers in 1963-64 and 1971-72 constituted about 53.8 and 54.5 per cent respectively. At the intermediate level, while the percentage in 1963-64 was about 27.5 it increased to approximately 38 per cent in 1971-72. However, at the secondary level the situation is less satisfactory because the proportion has fallen from 20.16 in 1963-64 to approximately 16.8 in 1971-72. This can be attributed to the facts that the graduates of the tertiary level start their teaching careers at the intermediate education level, and "the loss of teachers to other government departments."²

1. Table (2).

2. International Conference on Public Education, XXXth Session, 1967, International Bureau of Education, Geneva, and Unesco, P. 117.

In view of the increasing demand for education, it is likely that, with the best of efforts, the country will have to depend upon expatriates for a considerable time to come. Teacher education takes time, and the options open for the Saudis with regard to fields of specialization and opportunities for work make it rather difficult for teacher education institutions and the teaching profession to attract and retain not only the required number but, more important, the right kind of people.

At this point, it is relevant to note that the employment of expatriate teachers has been carried out on the basis of one-year contracts which has resulted in a rapid turnover of staff. This state of affairs has contributed, among other factors, to the creation of a wide gulf between the school and the community it serves. This is manifested in the facts that whilst the short-term contract could hardly provide the expatriate teachers with any incentive to develop more than a passing interest in the cultural traditions and the folk-way of local people, there are certain communities that do not easily respond to initiatives taken by expatriate teachers, to promote an effective relationship, in the same way they may respond to similar initiatives taken by native teachers. Furthermore, "expatriate teachers, who come and go so quickly,

... cannot fully identify themselves with the country's needs, and are not able to establish that understanding of, and rapport with their pupils, which breeds confidence and stimulate zeal and effort on the part of the pupils."¹

Moreover, the expatriate teachers have been of multiple nationalities.² To assess the difficulties that could arise easily in the classroom in respect of communication between teachers and pupils, particularly in the first years of primary schooling, reference can be made to the fact that there are both the classical Arabic and vernacular forms with dialectical differences. The children are exposed to more than one dialect in the classroom because the classical Arabic has long been a literary language and, unfortunately, seldom used in teaching except by few teachers mostly those of religion and Arabic.

Table (2):

The number of Saudi and non-Saudi teachers from
1963-64 till 1971-72, (1383/84 - 1391/92 A.H.)

1. Lewis, L.J., Saudi Arabia: Education Today and Tomorrow. A Visitor's Impression, a public lecture delivered at King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, 29 March, 1969, cyclostyled. P. 4.
2. See Appendices 1, 11 and 111.

<u>Year</u>	<u>Ed. Level</u>	<u>Saudis</u>	<u>non-Saudis</u>	<u>Total</u>
1963-64	Primary	4,472	3,829	8,301
	Intermediate	158	415	573
	Secondary	75	297	372
1964-65	Primary	3,970	3,832	7,802
	Intermediate	189	490	679
	Secondary	83	273	356
1965-66	Primary	4,550	4,151	8,701
	Intermediate	274	617	891
	Secondary	85	336	421
1966-67	Primary	4,938	4,962	9,900
	Intermediate	410	886	1,296
	Secondary	113	424	537
1967-68	Primary	6,175	4,671	10,846
	Intermediate	496	1,179	1,675
	Secondary	117	526	643
1968-69	Primary	6,815	4,949	11,762
	Intermediate	616	1,496	2,112
	Secondary	101	630	731
1969-70	Primary	6,760	5,397	12,157
	Intermediate	775	1,870	2,645
	Secondary	66	411	477
1970-71	Primary	7,124	5,298	12,422
	Intermediate	910	1,616	2,526
	Secondary	119	491	610
1971-72	Primary	7,477	6,255	13,732
	Intermediate	1,141	1,854	2,995
	Secondary	146	655	801

1 As supplied by the Unit of Statistics, Research and Educational Documents, letter No. 414, Op. cit.

Teachers Qualifications:

The qualifications of primary education teachers have varied from those without any certificate to those with university degrees. Between these two extremes there were those possessing primary, intermediate or secondary education certificates. In addition, there were the holders of the certificates of training institutions of the intermediate and secondary levels. Appendix (iv) shows that the latter teachers constituted in 1971-72 the majority of teachers employed at the primary level, they were 8,990 out of 13,732 teaching force.

The same wide range of qualifications prevailed at the intermediate and secondary levels. However, the number of non-graduate teachers has decreased. In 1963-64, the number of graduate teachers engaged in intermediate education was 256 out of 573 teachers.¹ In 1971-72, there were 2219 graduates out of 2,995 teachers employed. Similarly, the number of graduate teachers at secondary education level rose from 244 in 1963-64, out of 372 teachers, to 651 in 1971-72, out of 801 teachers employed.²

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1. See Appendix (V)
 2. See Appendix (VI)

Political considerations are likely to exercise considerable influence upon the balance of graduate to non-graduate teachers so long as the country is largely dependent upon expatriate teachers. In the past, temporary breaks in diplomatic relations have resulted in the withdrawal of expatriates who provide a large proportion of the graduate component of the cadre.

However, the qualifications of teachers are considered here from the quantitative point of view; it is not suggested, for instance, that a university degree is all that matters in considering the quality of the teaching provided. A hasty comment on this issue is likely to lead to a misleading conclusion. The quality of education received by the teacher while in training, his dedication to his work and objective follow-up on the job are the essential ingredients of the process of the evaluation of teachers' performance. But, it seems safe to conclude from the consideration of the qualifications referred to, that, in the period with which we are concerned, the number of those teachers possessing degrees of tertiary level teacher-training institutions were very small. Furthermore, with the prevalence of such extreme levels of qualifications one expects different, and perhaps extreme, responses and

reactions whenever it comes to the consideration of adopting concepts concerning the process of education as a whole and the implications involved. It is doubtful if this situation will allow for any basic philosophy of education to develop at the school level.

Teacher Education:

Prior to 1928 (1347 A.H.), when the first institution of teacher education for primary schools was founded, formal education, apart from that provided at the private schools especially al-Falah schools, did not exceed the primary education level. The number of primary schools in 1927 (1346 A.H.) was about eleven.¹ Moreover, religious and Arabic subjects constituted almost two thirds of the curriculum. As long as the teaching of these subjects could be trusted to renowned scholars, the provision of teacher education, one would have expected, did not have to be considered necessary, or at least urgent. In this context, and in accord with the traditional concept of the 'good teacher' as being the 'knowledgeable teacher', the mosques and al-Falah schools provided the country with the required number of teachers.

1. Primary Education Yesterday and Today, op. cit., P.24.

Since 1928, however, this traditional concept of the good teacher has gradually given way to a new concept essentially based on the recognition of the importance of the professional training. Thus, 1928 witnessed the establishment of the first institution of primary teacher education. The training of teachers at the tertiary level began in 1949-50 (1369-70 A.H.) with the foundation of the Faculty of Shari'ah in Mecca.

Primary Teacher Education:

In 1928 (1347 A.H.) the General Directorate of Education announced in the weekly official newspaper of 'Um Al-Kurā its intention to open an institution of teacher education for primary schools. The advertisement reads as follows: "The General Directorate of Education announces that it has decided, God willing, to open Al-Ma'had Al-'Ilmī (the Institute of Learning) in Mecca to provide education in subjects that will qualify the pupil in three years duration to become a teacher at the State schools. Every pupil will be paid a monthly allowance ... for encouragement and assistance. The number required is forty pupils. Applicants should; (i) have good knowledge in the ritual aspect of Islam; (ii) know the simple rules of Arabic grammar; and (iii) be of a good standard in

dictation, calligraphy and arithmetic up to the four rules."¹

Upon its establishment, the Institute was known as 'the Saudi Institute of Learning' and instead of providing a three-year course, as announced, it started by providing a course of four years duration the first year of which was considered as a preliminary year. The subjects taught in this year were religion, Arabic, history, geography, arithmetic, drawing and hygiene. In the remaining three years of the course, the subjects of geometry, book-keeping, algebra, and teaching practice were also included.²

Though the conditions for admission were stated in general terms, they remained, nevertheless, within the requirements of the primary level certificate. As for the decision to start with a preliminary year, it can be attributed either to the different educational standards of the pupils, as no specific certificate was required, or that their education level in general was lower than expected.

1 'Um Al-Ḳurā, Mecca, the issue No. 188, dated 10.2.1347 A.H., 27.7.1928 A.D.

2 Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, the Unit of Statistics, Research and Educational Documents, Research Section, Marāḥil I'ḍād al-Mu'allim fī al-Mamlakah al-'Arabiyyah al-Sāū-Diyyah, (The Stages of Teacher Preparation in Saudi Arabia), 1392 A.H., 1972 A.D., Arabic text, stencilled, P. 5.

The emphasis laid upon subjects relevant to general education, on the one hand, and the trifling consideration given to teaching practice, on the other hand, can be considered as the first step towards moving from the traditional concept of the teacher to the partial recognition of the importance of professional training.

The period from 1928 till 1945 (1365 A.H.) did not witness any significant change or development. In 1945-46 the duration of the course was increased to five years and was divided into two educational levels, namely; the preparatory level and the secondary level. The former consisted of the first three years of the course. Furthermore, only those who had the primary education certificate were admitted, and the pupils received a certificate upon the completion of each level of study.¹ This development may be said to have been generated by the establishment of the first secondary school, in 1936, as well as by the re-organisation of primary education in 1941 according to which the duration of primary studies was extended to involve a period of six years instead of four. The following table may help in identifying the major changes that took place towards the development of the curriculum.

1 Ibid, P.7

Table (3):

The subjects taught and the number of periods¹
devoted weekly to each subject, 1945 (1365 A.H.)

Subjects	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year	5th Year	Total Year
Religion	15	14	11	11	12	63
Arabic	10	10	11	10	12	53
History & Geography	4	4	4	3	3	18
Science	1	1	1	1	1	5
Arithmetic	3	3	2	-	-	8
Geometry	-	-	1	1	1	3
Drawing	1	1	1	1	1	5
English	3	3	3	3	3	15
Education & Psychology	-	-	-	3	3	6 ²

The table shows that the first three years were preserved for general education. In the whole course great emphasis was laid on subjects relevant to religion and the Arabic language and literature almost to the point of neglecting other disciplines, bearing in mind that the Institute was of the intermediate and secondary levels. Pedagogical studies were taught in the fourth and fifth years of the course concurrently with other subjects. It was the first time that the professional training included the provision of theoretical knowledge and was not limited

1 The period is generally of fifty minutes duration.

2 Ibid, P.7.

to teaching practice. The introduction of pedagogical studies, albeit came later than they should have done, can be considered, nevertheless, as an indicator that teacher education was gradually moving from the mere recognition of professional training to the second stage of development, namely; striking the balance between subjects relevant to general education and subjects relevant to professional training. The issues involved are in conflict almost everywhere; "programmes for the training of teachers everywhere attempt to strike a new balance between the general and the professional offerings."¹

The number of primary schools increased from 11 in 1928, when the first Saudi Institute of Learning was founded, to 111 schools in 1948². This gradual expansion of primary education was not accompanied by a corresponding planned expansion of the primary teacher training service. The Saudi Institute in Mecca remained from 1928 till late 1940s the only institution of training. It was then, however, that three other similar Saudi Institutes were gradually founded at Medina, Unaizah and Shaḡra.³ They

1 G.Z.F. Bereday and J.A. Lauwerys, op. cit., P. xiv.

2 Primary Education Yesterday & Today, op. cit., P. 24.

3 Abu Khaldun, Al-Husri, S., (Ed), Ḥawliyyat Al-Thaḡāfah Al-ʿArabiyyah, (Almanac of the Arab Culture), issued by the Cultural Department, the Arab League, Matbaʿat Ladjnat Al-Talif wa Al-Tardjamah wa Al-Nashr, Cairo, 1954, Arabic text, Vol. 4. 1952-53, P. 132

were considerably smaller in size and largely dependent upon the institute of Mecca. Sending their students, at some stages of their development, to Mecca to pursue their training in its institute was not uncommon. The Saudi Institute at Medina, for example, was established in 1948 (1368 A.H.) but till 1951 (1371 A.H.) those who passed the examination of the first year of the course in Medina were sent to Mecca to pursue their education in its institute. In 1951-52 (1371-72 A.H.) the institute at Medina started providing education for the pupils of the second year of the course, and then for those of the subsequent years.¹

This rather slow rate of expansion in the field of primary teacher education can be attributed mainly to the small number of the leavers of primary schools. The number of leavers as late as 1951 and 1952 for instance was 717 and 966 respectively.² Here, one has to bear in mind that it was not impossible for the holders of the primary education certificate to start their careers, and the effect of the establishment of the first secondary school in 1936. The school drew its students from the

1 As obtained from the Headmaster of the Primary Institute of Teachers at Medina.

2 Abu Khaldun, al-Husri, S., op. cit., P. 147

leavers of primary schools because at that time it comprised both the intermediate and secondary levels.

At this point, reference should be made to three main factors which affected the role intended for the Saudi Institutes, i.e. the training of future primary teachers. Firstly, the government started in 1936 sending some of the leavers of the Saudi Institute in Mecca to Egypt to pursue their higher education in Islamic and Arabic studies at al-Azhar, the Faculty of Dar al-Ulum and the Arabic departments of the faculties of arts.² This policy was further sustained by the development of the course provided by the Institutes, in 1945-46, to involve a period of five years duration instead of four. Moreover, when the Faculty of Sharī'ah and the Teachers College were created in Mecca, in 1949 and 1952 respectively, the holders of the certificate of the Saudi Institutes were allowed to join them. This situation had its bearing on the number of the leavers of the Institutes engaged in teaching at primary schools.

1 Hibshi, M., op. cit., P.49

Secondly, enrollment at the Saudi Institutes was affected by the general preference for academic intermediate and secondary schools. The significance of this can be inferred from a report submitted to the Ministry of Education in 1376 A.H., (1957) by Mr M. Abdulhadi, the then advisor to the Ministry. He observed that "as the curriculum of the first three years in the Institutes was almost identical to that of the intermediate schools, many pupils of the Institutes, with the concentration of efforts on English, sat for the examination of the general certificate of the intermediate level. Those who passed would request to be transferred to the secondary schools. This attitude was intensified to the extent that the headmasters of the Institutes requested the authorities concerned to issue the necessary regulation to prevent the pupils of the Institutes from enrollment at the secondary schools. Some of the pupils, acting on the assumption that this suggestion might be implemented, left the Institutes."¹

1 Abdulhadi, M., *Takrīr wa Muktrḥāt 'an Nizām al-Ta'lim Bilmamlakati Al-'Arabiyyati Al-Sa'ūdiyyati*, (A Report and Suggestions on the Education System in Saudi Arabia), 1376 A.H., (1957), Arabic text, stencilled, P. 30.

Thirdly, there had never been a commitment on the part of the pupils of the Saudi Institutes to work, after graduation, as teachers at primary schools. As early as 1931 (1350 A.H.) for instance, when the first batch of pupils was graduated from the Institute in Mecca, instructions were given to the authorities concerned to allow the leavers to choose the government departments that they would be interested to work for.¹ It has also to be added that we are not suggesting that such a commitment should have been considered but we are merely stating facts, because this point will be discussed later.

The Saudi Institutes of Learning were finally abolished in 1961 (1381 A.H.)² and towards their closure, students were allowed to sit as external candidates for the examination of the certificate of the Saudi Institutes. The curriculum was modified and teaching practice was abolished. One consideration that contributed to the

1 'Um al-Kurā, Mecca, op. cit., issue No. 341 dated 10.2.1350 A.H., 26.6.1931 A.D.

2 Hibshi, M., op. cit., P. 36. The termination of the Institutes started in 1953 (1373 A.H.) by the abolishment of the Institutes in Unaizah and Shakra, as informed by Dr M. Al-Shamikh, of Riyadh University.

closure probably was due to the high proportion of the leavers who went into civil service and higher education instead of entering the teaching profession; a phenomenon experienced in many other countries when there was a shortage of skilled manpower and teacher education provided educational opportunities parallel with inadequate general secondary education facilities. The other consideration is that the Ministry of Education established in 1953 (1373 A.H.) different institutions for training primary teachers, namely; Ma'āhid Al-Mu'allimīn Al-'Ibtidā'īyyah (the Primary Institutes of Teachers).

Qualitatively, the Saudi Institutes of Learning provided till the mid 1950s¹ studies of high standard in religion and Arabic. The syllabuses of these subjects were almost similar to those of the corresponding educational level of the religious institutes of al-Azhar. Had more consideration been given to other important disciplines and the professional training, the institutes could have become excellent models for subsequent development in the field of primary teacher training in the country.

1 Since then the curriculum was subjected to frequent changes and modifications.

Quantitatively, the above account given concerning the general preference for academic secondary education, joining tertiary education institutes and working for other government departments, on the one hand, and the figures given below, on the other hand, indicate that the institutes made little contribution towards the staffing of primary schools.

Table (4):

The number of the leavers of the Saudi Institutes of Learning, from 1950-51 till 1958-59.¹

<u>Year</u>	<u>Output</u>
1950 - 51	13
1951 - 52	29
1952 - 53	38
1953 - 54	49
1954 - 55	49
1955 - 56	46
1956 - 57	85
1957 - 58	80
1958 - 59	105

As stated earlier, the Ministry of Education started in 1953 a new course of primary teacher education. The circumstances in which the course was initiated can be summarised as follows. For almost twenty five years, 1928-1953, the Saudi Institutes of Learning could neither

1 As supplied by the Ministry of Education and the head-master of the teachers institute at Medina.

recruit the required number of teachers nor plan for future expansion to meet the needs of primary schools. Moreover, the institutes, intentionally or unintentionally, moved away from their original aim to serve other purposes. This situation seems to have been resulted from two main causes; firstly, the course they provided was the first experience the country ever had in the field of teacher education. Yet, this very experience had to be carried out amidst a vast shortage of teacher educators and educationists. Secondly, the absence of any plan of future educational expansion. An early estimate of needs for teachers to meet the requirements of a planned expansion of the education system might have brought pressure to bear regarding the proper emphasis on the role of the institutes in relation to primary education.

Furthermore, primary education has shown since 1936 (1355 A.H.) a faster rate of expansion; the number of schools rose from 23 to 306 in 1952 (1372 A.H.)¹. In 1953 the Ministry of Education was created and in the face of a commitment for further educational expansion it resorted not only to the employment of emergency teachers, as stated earlier, but also to the provision of an emergency course

1 Primary Education Yesterday and Today, op. cit., P. 24

of training primary teachers. This was manifested in the establishment of 'The Primary Institutes of Teachers'.

The institutes provided a three-year course after the completion of primary education. Their number increased from 3 in 1953-54 to 36 in 1961-62 (1381-82 A.H.) then they began to decrease in number till they were finally abolished in 1968-69 (1388-89 A.H.).¹ The following table shows the number of pupils and the output. Comparison with the general intermediate schools may be useful, accordingly the number of pupils enrolled at these schools has been added.

Table (5):

The number of the pupils of the Primary Institutes of Teachers and the intermediate schools, and the output of the former.

Year	Primary Institutes of Teachers		Intermediate Schools
	Enrollment	Output	Enrollment
1956-57 ²	399	44	4,200
1957-58	1,052	39	3,976

continued...

1 Ministry of Education, Circular No. 30/5/29/946/26 dated 8.11.1384 A.H., (10.3.1965 A.D.), Arabic text, stencilled. As for the number of institutes see the letter No. 414 from the Unit of Statistics, Research & Educational Documents, op. cit.

2 According to the same letter (414) the number of pupils prior to 1956 was not available.

1958-59	1,668	88	4,152
1959-60	2,687	413	4,728
1960-61	3,497	533	5,752
1961-62	4,395	935	7,395
1962-63	5,575	1,051	9,239
1963-64	6,876	1,066	11,555
1964-65	7,556	1,491	14,341
1965-66 ¹	4,795	1,455	18,730
1966-67	2,795	1,784	21,297
1967-68	832	564	29,556 ²
1968-69	148	116	32,561 ²

Total of Output: 9,599

The comparison of the number of pupils enrolled at the institutes with that of the intermediate schools in the period from 1956-57 till 1964-65; the year in which the institutes ceased to accept new pupils, shows that the percentage of the former may be considered satisfactory. The considerations here are; (a) intermediate education leads to secondary education which qualifies pupils for admission to higher education institutions. Accordingly, the pupils of the general intermediate schools are, by and large, the potential candidates for the numerous fields of specialization of higher education, (b) Some areas had Primary Institutes of Teachers long before having general intermediate schools, (c) Intending teachers had, and still have, the privilege of receiving

1 The year in which the decision of abolishment was taken.

2 Ibid.

a monthly allowance, (d) The general preference for academic intermediate and secondary schools has also to be taken into consideration.

Another conclusion that can be drawn from this table if compared with table 2 is the great difference between the output of the institutes and the number of indigenous teachers at primary educational level. The number of indigenous teachers in 1969-70 was 6,760. The output of the institutes till the end of 1968-69 was 9,599; well over 2,500 of the leavers were not at work as teachers. The wastage-rate has not received adequate consideration; only a brief reference has been made to the cause in a report issued by the Department of the Institutes of Teachers - Ministry of Education - in which it has been stated that 'some of the leavers are working for other government departments and others have pursued their secondary and higher education in order to improve their conditions of living and ameliorate their future.'¹

The curriculum was subjected to frequent modifications. Prior to 1957 (1377 A.H.), the subjects taught were identical to those of the general intermediate schools

¹ Ministry of Education, Department of the Institutes of Teachers, Taqrīr 'an Idād Al-Mu'allimīn wa Tadrībhim Khilāl 16 'Ām, 1373-89 A.H., (A report on the Preparation and Training of Teachers in 16 years, 1953-69 A.D.), Arabic Text, stencilled, P. 3.

with the exception of English. It was substituted by the subjects of education and psychology as well as teaching practice. In 1957, the subjects of drawing and hand-work were added. In addition, the second-year pupils had to spend one week in the schools for their continuous teaching practice. Two weeks were located in the third year of the course for the same purpose.¹

The curriculum of 1962 (1382 A.H.) included the subjects of religion, Arabic, history, geography, mathematics, principles of science, school health, drawing, hand-work, physical education, principles of education, educational psychology, teaching methods, as well as teaching practice. The emphasis varied from one area of study to another; religious and Arabic subjects, for example, occupied almost 50 percent of the periods given. The periods devoted to subjects relevant to the professional training constituted 25 per cent approximately. Furthermore, the content of the general education subjects fell short of the content of the curriculum of the intermediate

1 Ibid, P.2.

schools.¹

The basis on which the curriculum was worked out is indicative of a lack of a consistent and persistent policy; no consideration was given to the previous experience as manifested in the curriculum of the Saudi Institutes of Learning. Instead, the curriculum of general intermediate education was taken as a model and a choice was made from it as seemed, from one viewpoint or another, fit and proper.

However, with a view to improving the training of primary teachers, the Ministry of Education decided in 1965 to terminate the course and start a new one of three years duration after the intermediate level, instead of being after the completion of primary education. The reasons given reveal very clearly the inadequacy of the course. They have been stated in the following terms:

"1. The Primary Institutes of Teachers have failed in providing adequate training as inferred from the reports of the inspectors;

1 Cf. Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Manāhidj Ma'āhid Al-Mu'allimīn Al-'Ibtidā'iyah, 1382 A.H. (The Curriculum of the Primary Institutes of Teachers, 1962), Arabic text, Dar Al-'Ilm Lilmalayin, Beirut, P.4.

2. The pupils complete the course while they are still young, between eighteen and twenty years of age, and at this age they have proved to be neither capable of comprehending the importance of their future task as teachers, nor can they convey to their pupils the educational values and scientific facts included in the curriculum of primary education level because they themselves are unable to assimilate these values and facts;

3. In-service training has to be provided in order to re-prepare the leavers of these institutes to reach the standard required for teaching in primary schools. The more the number of leavers increases the more costly the programme will be;

4. The three-year duration course after the completion of primary education for training primary teachers exists nowhere but in Saudi Arabia. The continuation of this course makes the whole system of education in Saudi Arabia vulnerable to criticism by the international education circles; and,

5. The quality of education will generally be affected by the inadequate training of primary teachers."¹

The shortcomings of the course are essentially due

¹ Ministry of Education, circular No. 30/5/29/946/26, op. cit.

to the inescapable truth that the administrators, who have to make a system work, are constantly confronted with problems connected with the here-and-now situation. Unless they are supported by an academic body, their preoccupation with problems of this nature very often tends to obscure the importance of the qualitative aspects of education. This lack of an experienced and informed body of people capable of long-term evaluation and projection of primary education professional needs is a reflection of the historical facts, namely; the briefness of experience in modern formal primary education and the absence of an established professional know-how. In such circumstances it was almost inevitable that qualitative considerations should receive inadequate attention.

The new course which started in 1965-66 (1385-86 A.H.)¹ was initiated in circumstances similar to those in which the previous course had been initiated; the primary schools were largely dependent upon expatriate teachers and the country was still searching for a general policy of primary teacher education.

1 Ibid.

The course has been provided in institutions called Ma'āhid Al-Mu'allimīn Lilmarḥalah Al-'Ibtidā'īyyah (The Institutes of Teachers for the Primary Level). It is of three years duration after the intermediate level. The number of the institutes increased from 7 in 1965-66 to 14 in 1971-72.¹ The following table shows the number of the pupils enrolled and the output. The number of the pupils of secondary education schools has been added for comparison purposes.

Table (6):

The number of pupils enrolled at the Institutes of Teachers since their establishment, the output, and the number of the pupils of secondary schools in the same period.

Year	<u>Institutes of Teachers</u>		<u>Secondary Schools</u>
	<u>Enrollment</u>	<u>Output</u>	<u>Enrollment</u>
1965-66	288	-	3,837
1966-67	488	-	4,573
1967-68	1,163	137	5,834
1968-69	2,025	260	6,940

...continued

¹ The letter No. 414 from the Unit of Statistics, Research and Educational Documents, op. cit.

1969-70	3,131	612	8,243
1970-71	5,392	784	11,303
1971-72	6,421	1,348	12,638 ¹
<hr/>			
Total of Output:		3,141	
<hr/>			

According to these official figures, enrollment at the institutes can be considered quite satisfactory if compared with enrollment at the general secondary schools. The ratio of students: teachers to the pupils of secondary education was about 1:17 in 1965-66 and became approximately 1:2 in 1971-72, yet the pupils of the latter are, on the whole, the potential candidates for higher education fields of specialization. The reasons that we can think of for such a high rate of enrollment are; first, some pupils were not ready yet to leave their home village for other towns or large villages where the facilities of secondary education were more readily available. Thus some of the leavers of intermediate schools had no alternative but to join existing institutes of primary teacher education. Secondly, the payment of a monthly allowance.

1 Ibid.

The effect of this as a motive with regard to the poorer families cannot be underestimated. But, in many instances, it has proved to be a double-edged sword; pupils may be motivated to join the teacher training institutions but not necessarily stay in the teaching profession after graduation. Reference has already been made to the wastage-rate.

This issue can further be illustrated by comparing the total output of primary teacher education institutions with the total number of indigenous teachers in the primary schools. On the one hand, tables 5 and 6 show that the output of the abolished and the existing institutes of primary teacher education was, till 1971, about 11,392, and, on the other hand, table 2 shows that the total number of indigenous teachers employed at the primary schools in 1971-72 was 7,477 teachers including those with other qualifications. The difference between these two figures is alarming even if a reasonable proportion is allowed for drop-out and transfer to other jobs within the school system.

This situation implies that the relevant causes have to be investigated and seriously considered. The causes have been essentially relevant to ; (a) the attempt

made by some leavers to pursue their higher education 'in order to ameliorate their future life'; and (b) the consideration of the teaching profession as a bridge-occupation where teachers leave and join other professions for 'better conditions of service and living'. "If a profession universally recognised as serving so useful a purpose is no longer able to attract and retain a sufficient number of qualified persons, we are bound to conclude... that there is something wrong with the present situation of the teaching profession, either in the recruitment or in the conditions of employment, possibly in both at the same time."¹

The curriculum has been worked out on traditional patterns; compartmentalized and overloaded, with aims and objectives that have been very broadly, and sometimes unrealistically, stated. Unlike that of the abolished Primary Institutes of Teachers, it has not been changed since the course started. The subjects taught are; religion, Arabic, history, geography, society and social work, mathematics, science, the use of library and research methods, art education, physical education, and

1 Thomas, J., op. cit., pp. 28-30

English. The subjects relevant to the professional training include; education, psychology, curricula, principles of school administration and teaching methods.

The weekly periods devoted to general education have been almost evenly distributed among its subjects with no significant emphasis laid upon religious and Arabic subjects. The subjects relevant to teaching occupy about 28 per cent of the total number of periods, excluding the time allocated for teaching practice. Moreover, the subjects of curricula, principles of school administration, research methods and society and social work have been included for the first time in a curriculum of primary teacher institutions.¹

The syllabuses of the general education subjects fall considerably short of those of academic secondary schools whose curriculum has been taken as a model. This is due to the facts that the pupils of the institutes have to follow studies relevant to general education and professional

1 Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, "Manhadj I'dād al-Mu'allimīn Lilmarhalah al-Ibtidā'iyah, 1385 A.H., (The Curriculum of the Institutes of Teachers for the Primary Level, 1965), Arabic text, stencilled.

training concurrently, and that the pupils of general secondary schools are divided in the last two years of the course into scientific and literary sections, thus they have more time available for them than that available for the pupils of the institutes. This point could be of considerable significance if the authorities concerned think of general secondary education as being the minimum educational level required for primary teachers and that this goal can be achieved simply by taking the curriculum of secondary schools as a model. If so, the above account and comparison indicate the inadequacy of the policy. Teacher education should not be taken as a once and for all process, and a balance should be established between pre-service and in-service training.

As for the subjects relevant to the professional training, the objectives of the syllabuses are too ambitious. This implies that neither the educational level of the pupils nor the limitations of the time available have been observed. The following examples illustrate this point:

- "1. To clarify the meaning of education, its effects and adaptability to change and development;
2. The pupil should be well acquainted with the

principles of modern education and its various trends, and to be able to choose whatever suitable for his pupils, the environment and the society, and to form a sound approach to solve the problems that may arise in any learning situation inside and outside the school;

3. To be acquainted with the general and special teaching methods and to be provided with the opportunity of using them practically to gain the necessary skills and experience for teaching at the primary level;

4. To understand the nature of child development and the characteristics of the different stages of growth especially those corresponding to the age-groups of the pupils of primary education as to be able to provide his pupils with sound guidance and opportunities for the overall development of their personalities;

5. To gain the knowledge and experience that are relevant to primary education in terms of aims, curriculum, the objectives of the subjects taught and the means of achieving them. He is also to be acquainted with the problems of primary education level, and its development in general and in Saudi Arabia in particular;

6. To develop in the pupil the ability to read, observe and carry out research work in the various aspects of knowledge and particularly in the field of education

so that he may be in a position to develop himself; be able to act in the right way and make creative contribution to his profession." ¹

The suitability of these objectives for pupils who are studying in institutions that are, more or less, of the intermediate and secondary levels is open to question. It is precisely because of these rather ambitious objectives and the hope to achieve them that too much emphasis has been placed on the historical and theoretical aspects of education. The situation has been further complicated by the facts that the methods of teaching are traditional and teaching is limited to chalk and talk, with the pupils as passive recipient and that memorization plays a large role. Moreover, there is ample evidence that library and laboratory facilities need radical improvement.

As the institutes provide a three-year course after the completion of intermediate education, and that general and professional education and training are provided concurrently, it might have been more appropriate to set more practical and limited objectives so that emphasis could have been shifted to the practical aspects

¹ Cf. Ibid, P. 51

of teaching and whatever theory as taught should have been related as much as possible to the more common classroom problems. Much of the theoretical knowledge provided for in the curriculum as stands at present would be more meaningful for those who have already spent some years in teaching. This is not stated to propagate unreflective pragmatists but rather to plan a course with the realities of the situation in mind. These are; the educational level of the institutes, the standards of entrants, the time factor, and, most of all, the consideration of teacher education as an on-going process involving both pre-service and in-service training.

As for the teaching methods, the syllabuses of certain subjects provide, in principle, excellent opportunities for the encouragement of student teachers to participate in the process of education and find out for themselves instead of being completely dependent upon teachers, textbooks and memory. To give an example, in the syllabuses of education, society and social work, reference is made to the development and problems of the education system in Saudi Arabia, as well as to the developments hitherto achieved in the fields of health services, agriculture, light industry and social

welfare. The students could better be trained by collecting local data and writing short papers instead of memorizing a few facts from textbooks or from notes dictated by their teachers.

If departure from old concepts and practices which are profoundly impending any progress to be made towards the improvement of the quality of education is sought, then teacher education institutions have to take the lead in respect of curriculum development. "Reform of the curriculum of teacher education is seen as the key to the preparation of adaptable and imaginative teachers who will transform those educational systems currently dominated by rote-learning and formalized instructions."¹ The creation of the proper machinery for planning and executing the curriculum is the prerequisite for the achievement of this goal. Dependence upon ad hoc committees has very often turned out to be a mere waste of time, energy and money.

Teacher Education at the Tertiary Level:

In 1961-62 (1381-82 A.H.) the Ministry of Education

1 Dodd, W.A., Teacher Education in the Developing Countries of the Commonwealth: A Survey of Recent Trends, Commonwealth Secretariat, London, cyclostyled, P. 3.

established "Ma'āhid al-Mu'allimīn al-Thānawīyah", (The Secondary Institutes of Teachers) to train teachers for service at the intermediate schools. The course was of four years duration after the completion of intermediate education. General studies were provided in the first two years and in the third and fourth years of the course the pupils were divided into five sections of specialization, namely; Arabic, English, Social Studies, Mathematics and Science, and Art Education.¹

The course was abolished in 1965 (1385 A.H.), on the ground that "the Ministry began to wonder whether this training was really adequate for intermediate schools. It came to the conclusion that teachers holding diplomas from these institutes should teach in higher primary school classes and that it would be better to train intermediate and secondary schools teachers in university faculties of education."²

1 Cf. A Report on the Preparation and Training of Teachers in 16 Years, op. cit., P. 3.

2 The report of the Ministry of Education on the educational development in 1965-66, presented to the International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, 1966, International Yearbook of Education, Vol. XXVIII, 1966, International Bureau of Education and Unesco, P. 305.

Apart from this experience, the education of the intermediate and secondary schools teachers has been undertaken by institutions of tertiary education level, namely; the Faculty of Shari'ah, the Teachers College and the Faculty of Education, in Mecca. In Riyadh, there are the two colleges of Shari'ah and Arabic, and the Faculty of Education. They all provide courses of four years duration after the completion of secondary education or its equivalent. Concurrence is the main organising principle of these courses.

The institutions have been under the control of different education authorities. The Faculty of Shari'ah and the Teachers College were established in Mecca in 1949-50 (1369 A.H.) and 1952-53 (1372 A.H.) respectively, by the General Directorate of Education, and in 1953 (1373 A.H.) they became under the control of the Ministry of Education. The two colleges of Shari'ah and Arabic, in Riyadh, were founded in 1953 (1373 A.H.) and 1954 (1374 A.H.) respectively, by the General Presidency of the Colleges and Religious Institutes. The Faculty of Education, in Mecca, was founded in 1962 (1382 A.H.) by the Ministry of Education. The Faculty of Education, in Riyadh, was created in 1966 (1386 A.H.) as a joint project of Saudi Arabia, acting through the Ministry of Education, and the United Nations Special Fund, acting

through Unesco.¹ The Faculty was attached in 1967 to Riyadh University. In 1971-72 (1391-92 A.H.) the faculties of Shari'ah and Education, in Mecca, were attached to King Abdulaziz University.²

Furthermore, the students of these institutions are of different educational backgrounds. The Faculty of Shari'ah and certain departments of the Faculty of Education, in Mecca, accept the holders of the certificates of Dar al-Tawhid.³ Both faculties accept, as well, the leavers of secondary education. The colleges of Shari'ah and Arabic, in Riyadh, draw their students from the holders of the certificate of the Religious Institutes, controlled by the same authority. The Riyadh University Faculty of Education accepts the holders of the certificate of secondary education.

1 Unesco, Directory of Teacher-Training Colleges Assisted by UNDP (Special Fund) and Unesco, Unesco, 1970, P. 66.

2 Under the decision of the Council of Ministers, No. 150, dated 4.2.1391 A.H., 31.3.1971 A.D.

3 It was founded in 1944 (1364 A.H.) in Ta'if, by the General Directorate of Education. It is concerned with religious and Arabic studies. Prior to 1961-62 the course provided was of five years' duration after the completion of primary education. Since then, however, it has been of six years duration.

The absence, in the period with which we are concerned, of a national policy of teacher education, coupled with the lack of co-ordination of efforts and opportunity for exchange of experience, has resulted in the prevalence of different approaches in terms of organisation and content. According to the approaches adopted, these institutions can be divided into three categories, namely; the faculties of Sharī'ah and Education, in Mecca, the Colleges of Sharī'ah and Arabic, in Riyadh, and the Faculty of Education of Riyadh University.

The First Approach:

As a result of the religious position of the country, the emphasis laid upon religious and Arabic studies, and the availability of expatriate lecturers in these fields of specialization, higher education started by providing studies in religion and Arabic. The same holds true regarding teacher education at the tertiary level. The original aim of the Faculty of Sharī'ah in Mecca was the training of future judges. The education of teachers was subsidiary and limited to teaching religion in the intermediate and secondary schools.

The consideration of teacher education as a subsidiary aim, on the one hand, and the effect of the

traditional concept of the teacher as being the one who knows his subject, irrespective of teaching techniques, on the other hand, have resulted in the curriculum of the Faculty of Shari'ah being devoid till 1954 of subjects relevant to the teaching profession. In 1954-55 (1374-75 A.H.) the subjects of education and educational psychology were included in the curriculum to be taught in the third and fourth years of the course.¹ Teaching practice was introduced two years later. The trifling consideration given to professional training was a starting point that was followed by a number of frequent changes of policies and curricula. This situation did not only affect the training of the teachers of religion but also that of the teachers of other disciplines. Yet, the Faculty is still lacking clear aims and a sound basis for curriculum development. In 1961, the Supreme Board of Education, existing at that time in the Ministry of Education, set up a committee of some of its members 'to advise on the development of the Faculty of Shari'ah. The committee suggested the transformation of the Faculty into a faculty of teacher training and to be called the Faculty

1 Two lectures were devoted weekly to education and educational psychology in the third year of the course, and four lectures in the fourth year. The total number of lectures per week was 24.

of Shari'ah and Education. Its aim was to be the education of the teachers of all subjects taught at the intermediate and secondary schools starting with the departments of Shari'ah, and Arabic¹, and social studies. As the students would be of different educational background, a general course would be provided in the first year and specialization was to start from the second year.² These recommendations were endorsed by the Supreme Board of Education in 1961.³

1 Arabic Language and Literature was the discipline considered of second importance in the realm of teacher education at the tertiary level. Thus, the second institution of higher education to be established in the country after the Faculty of Shari'ah was the Teachers College. It was founded in 1952 to train the future teachers of Arabic. Instead of being developed to train the teachers of all other subjects, the College was abolished in 1959-60 upon a decision taken in 1957 (1377 A.H.) and the reason given was that more students should be directed to the then newly founded University of Riyadh; (Cf. the letter No. 9651/3 dated 9.6.1377 A.H., 1957, from the Department Minister of Education to the Director of Education in Mecca. And the letter No. 832/1 dated 4.4.1377, 1977, from the Director of Education in Mecca to the Director of the Teachers College. See also, Hibshi, M., op. cit., pp. 72-77.

2 Cf. the minutes of the meeting, dated 19.5.1380 A.H., (1960), a type-script, Arabic text.

3 Decision No. 15, dated 4.9.1380 A.H. (19.2.1961)

The new role was short-lived. In 1962 (1382 A.H.), a ministerial decision was taken according to which the Faculty retained its old name but became, once more, concerned with the education of the teachers of religion only.¹ Under the same decision, the Faculty of Education was founded, in Mecca, for training the teachers of other subjects starting with the Departments of Arabic, Social Studies (history and geography) and English. These frequent changes prevented the development of a teacher education curriculum.

The last development took place in 1965 (1385 A.H.). The Ministry of Education invited a number of scholars from neighbouring Arab states to advise on the development of the Faculty of Shari'ah. Having met in Mecca in the period from 23.12.1384 A.H., till 1.1.1385 A.H., (one week in the early 1965), the committee suggested that; (a) the Faculty was to be called 'the Faculty of Shaṛī'ah and Islamic Studies'; (b) the Department of History and that of Arabic should be transferred from the Faculty of Education to the Faculty of Shaṛī'ah and Islamic Studies; and (c) proper emphasis should be placed on Islamic history, therefore the Department of History should be called

1 Ministry of Education, decision No. 572, dated 11.4.1382 A.H., (10.9.1962), a type-script, Arabic text.

'the Department of History and Islamic Civilization'. The recommendations were implemented in 1965-66 (1385-86 A.H.)¹.

In the same year, the regulations of the two faculties were issued by the Ministry of Education. They included reference to the aims and objectives to be achieved, the subjects to be taught in each department, and academic and administrative organisation. The general aims of the faculties have been stated in the following terms:

1. The training of competent teachers for service at the intermediate and secondary schools;
2. The provision of in-service education for teachers, inspectors, headmasters, and other key personnel serving the education system;
3. To provide studies leading to the master and doctoral degrees;
4. To become centres for research in their respective fields.²

1 Saudi Arabia, King Abdulaziz University, Mecca, Dalīl Kullīyat al-Sharī'ah wa al-Dirāsāt al-Islāmiyyah Bi-Makkah al-Mukarramah, (The Guide of the Faculty of Sharī'ah and Islamic Studies in Mecca), Arabic text, stencilled (n.d.) P.3.

2 Cf., Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, (a) Lā'ihāt Kullīyat al-Sharī'ah wa al-Dirāsāt al-Islāmiyyah Bi-Makkah al-Mukarramah, (The Regulation of the Faculty of Sharī'ah and Islamic Studies in Mecca), 1386 A.H., (1966). (b) Lā'ihāt Kullīyat al-Tarbiyah, (The Regulation of the Faculty of Education), (n.d.), Arabic text, stencilled.

In the period with which we are concerned, the two faculties have made no contribution to research and in-service education. A department of advanced studies was founded in 1968-69 (1388-89 A.H.), in the Faculty of Shari'ah, to provide studies leading to a Master degree in Islamic fields of specialization as such. Whatever the reasons may be, the short-comings of both faculties with regard to research work and in-service education cannot be justified. These two issues will be taken up later, at this point, however, it is sufficient to note that; (a) research is the life-blood of any institution of tertiary education. In the field of teacher education, "The training of teachers is more likely to be alive and effective if it is carried on in an atmosphere of fresh inquiry."¹ (b) "The days when a teacher could be deemed to have acquired a bank of knowledge which he would find adequate to sustain him through his professional life have gone for ever. New knowledge is bursting on the three consciousness of the world at an unprecedented rate, and to keep pace with this new growth is, as never before, an

1 Jeffreys, M.V.C., Revolution in teacher-training, London: Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons Ltd., 1961, P. 15

undeniable challenge to the teacher."¹

As far as the organisation of content is concerned, Article (vi) of the Regulation of the Faculty of Shari'ah and Islamic Studies, and Article (iv) of the Regulation of the Faculty of Education refer to three main areas of study to be covered in the curriculum. These are; general education, the field of specialization, and subjects relevant to the professional training. No clear guide lines have been indicated regarding what is meant by 'general education' or the proportion of the time that should be allocated to its subjects. This is probably the reason that different concepts have been adopted by the departments of the two faculties.

Furthermore, there is an apparent lack of criteria serving as a background for decisions taken regarding what can be considered relevant to the field of specialization in the context of training future teachers for service in the intermediate and secondary schools. This is particularly true in respect of the departments of Shari'ah, History and Islamic Civilization, and Education and Psychology.

1 Johnston, D.J., Teachers' In-Service Education, Pergamon Press Ltd., 1971, pp. 9-10.

As far as the Department of Shari'ah is concerned, the following table shows the subjects taught, other than those related to the professional training, and the number of weekly lectures devoted to each subject.¹

Table (7):

Subjects	No. of Lectures per week			
	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
The Institution of Islam	3	-	-	-
Theology	-	3	2	-
Religions, Sects, and Contemporary Ideologies	-	-	-	2
Interpretation of the Koran, and the Sciences of the Koran	3	2	3	2
Tradition and the Sciences of Tradition	3	2	3	3
Jurisprudence	3	3	3	3
Legacy (in Islam)	-	1	1	-
Comparitive Jurisprudence	-	-	3	-
Principles of Jurisprudence	-	2	2	2
History of Jurisprudence, and Legislation	-	-	-	2
Contemporary Muslim World	2	-	-	-
Sociology, and Contemporary Muslim Society	-	-	-	2
Economics, and Recent Economic Schools of Thought	-	2	-	-
Arabic	5	4	-	-
History and Islamic Civilization	1	1	1	-
English	2	2	2	2

¹ Cf. The Regulation of the Faculty of Shari'ah, op. cit., Article 7, P. 3.

To shed light on this combination of subjects, it may be useful to refer to the policy adopted by Al-Azhar as far as the provision of Islamic studies is concerned. Religious studies there are undertaken by two faculties, namely; the Faculty of Shari'ah and the Faculty of 'Uṣūl Al-Dīn (the Foundations of the Religion). The former is concerned with the training of future judges and specialists in Islamic jurisprudence, and the related disciplines. The latter is mainly concerned with disciplines related to the Koran, Tradition and Theology. Moreover, each faculty trains, under separate curricula, the future teachers of its respective field. This division of religious studies, and rather narrow specialization, have resulted in the training of highly specialized teachers and specialists in Islamic fields.

The approach adopted by the Department of Shari'ah in Mecca, as indicated in the above table, aims at the recruitment of the teacher of all the religious subjects taught in the intermediate and secondary schools, and the provision of Islamic studies as such, all in one curriculum. Within this context, the following observations may be made.

First, the subjects taught in the intermediate and secondary schools are organised under four headings,

namely; the Koran, Tradition, theology and jurisprudence. In the light of this organisation of content, the curriculum of the Department of Shari'ah can be considered overloaded and too compartmentalized. The provision of subjects irrelevant to future teachers may result in their training being unsatisfactory. Similarly, a meagre training in Islamic studies, as such, is indefensible.

Secondly, the sub-divisions of some subjects seem to be rather artificial; e.g., jurisprudence, the history of jurisprudence, comparative jurisprudence and the principles of jurisprudence. This division may be justified in a curriculum aiming at training future judges and specialists in jurisprudence as such. The future teacher of religion needs to concentrate on the aspects of religion and religious jurisprudence which touch most directly on the daily life of the individual and the community and should provide the basic values by which social and moral relations should be guided.

Thirdly, there is the overlapping of certain subjects such as; the contemporary Muslim world, sociology and contemporary Muslim society. Furthermore, the four lectures devoted to both subjects in the whole course are insufficient for studying one Muslim country let alone the whole Muslim world. Yet, the course is provided at an

institution of higher education.

Fourthly, some subjects lack clarity of purpose. These are; the institution of Islam, economics and recent schools of economic thought; and religious, sects and contemporary ideologies.

The shortcomings of the curriculum are due to a number of factors. The Department, or perhaps the Faculty itself, has tried to achieve two different goals - the education of specialists in Islamic studies and the training of future teachers of religion - while applying one curriculum only. The result has been a meagre training in both fields. Unless a clear conception is made of what is relevant to each goal, the Department of Shari'ah may fail to establish its distinguished character among institutions of tertiary education.

Furthermore, the studies preceded the change of policy and practice that took place in 1965-66 (1385-86 A.H.) and were implemented in rather a short period of time, lack some of the depth that should characterise the development of an institution of higher education. The major role was played by the committee that met for one week in the early 1965. The situation was further complicated by the fact that the members of the committee were

scholars in Islamic and Arabic studies as such; yet the institution is to be mainly concerned with the education of future teachers. The participation of well-experienced teacher educators could have resulted in more consideration being given to relating the content to the fulfilment of the first aim of the Faculty.

Closely linked with these factors is the fact that, like the curricula of other institutions of teacher education, the curriculum of the Department has been affected by the consideration of teacher education as a once and for all process. Thus, it has been conceived that every thing can, or must, be taught in four years.

It is true that Mecca, the Holy Capital of Islam, should become once again a great centre of Islamic studies. But, it is equally important to educate the competent teacher of religion. To be competent, the teacher must know his subject well and be able to teach it effectively. Both objectives; the provision of specialised studies in Islam and the training of the competent teacher of religion, should, therefore, be treated on equal footing and that the relevant curricula have to be carefully worked out. With these considerations in mind, the above review indicates that much is left to

be desired towards the development of the curriculum of the Department of Shari'ah.

The ambiguity of aims and objectives has also affected the organization of content in the Department of History and Islamic Civilization. This is probably due to the transformation of the Department from the Faculty of Education to the Faculty of Shari'ah with the intention of placing the emphasis on Islamic history and civilization. Thus, the Department has found itself in circumstances not dissimilar of that of the Department of Shari'ah. The following table can be taken as a starting-point in the analysis of the composition of subjects.

Table (8):

The subjects relevant to general education and field of specialization in the Department of History and Islamic Civilization, and the number of weekly lectures.¹

1 Ibid., P. 5.

Subjects	No. of Lectures per Week			
	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
The Institution of Islam	2	-	-	-
The History of the Arabs before Islam	3	-	-	-
Ancient Eastern Civilization	3	-	-	-
Greek & Roman Civilization	2	-	-	-
The Contemporary Islamic World	2	-	-	-
The History of the Prophets of Prophecy	2	-	-	-
Geography (Asia & Europe)	2	-	-	-
The Institution of Islam and the Principles of Civilization in the Koran and Tradition	-	2	-	-
Al-Sirah al-Nabawiyah	-	3	-	-
Islamic History (the age of the Califs and Omayyads)	-	3	-	-
The History of the Spread of Islam	-	2	-	-
Medieval Europe	-	2	-	-
The Analysis of Historical Extracts	-	1	-	-
Human Civilization	-	1	-	-
Geography (Africa & Austra- lia)	-	2	-	-
Islamic History (The Abba- sydes)	-	-	3	-
The Andalus and the Maghrib	-	-	2	-
The History of Islamic Sects	-	-	2	-
The History of Islamic Civilization	-	-	2	-
The History of Europe (the Renaissance)	-	-	3	-
The Methods of Research in History and its Sources	-	-	2	-
Geography (America)	-	-	2	-
Economic & Political Geography	-	-	2	-
Economic and Recent Economic Schools of Thought	-	-	2	-

continued...

The Contemporary Arab World	-	-	-	2
The History of Saudi Arabia	-	-	-	1
The History of Islamic Kingdoms in Asia, Europe and Africa	-	-	-	3
The History of Islamic thought	-	-	-	2
Modern History of Europe	-	-	-	2
Sociology and Contemporary Islamic Society	-	-	-	2
The Geography of the Muslim World	-	-	-	2
The Geography of the Arab World	-	-	-	2
Historical Extracts (English)	-	-	-	2
Arabic	3	3	-	-
English	3	3	-	-
Seminar and the Use of Library	-	-	-	1

The author is not a historian by training, nevertheless, he would like to express his doubt regarding the efficiency of this programme. This is done against the background that; (a) the first aim of the Department is to train the future teachers of history for the intermediate and secondary schools; (b) apart from the subjects relevant to the professional training, the course should contain subjects relevant to general education and the field of specialization; (c) the Department is in an institution of higher education which rewards the degree of B.A. The course should, therefore, satisfy the requirements of the first university degree; and (d) the pupils of the intermediate and secondary schools are required to study history in general with no significant emphasis on

Islamic history and Islamic civilization. With these considerations in mind, the following observations can be made.

First, the subjects of the first year of the course have not been organised in a way as to cover a reasonable period of time in history. The student, whilst concentrating on ancient history, is required to study, simultaneously, the history of the Arabs before Islam as well as the contemporary Muslim world. The organisation of knowledge and historical facts in chronological order helps the student to consider the history of the Arabs and the Muslim world in the proper context and through the concepts he may form regarding the interaction of events he will be in a better position to understand and appreciate the role played by Islam as a civilization. The isolation of Islamic history from the main course of history means the study of Islamic civilization in a vacuum. Furthermore, the student of history cannot develop a logical process of historical thinking unless he is educated and trained in a way as to enable him to achieve this goal by following a systematically organised content.

Secondly, the curriculum is so compartmentalised to the extent that the subdivision of subjects seems very often meaningless. To give an example, reference can be

made to these subjects: the institution of Islam, the institution of Islam and the foundations of civilization in the Koran and Tradition, the history of Islamic civilization, the history of Islamic thought, the history of the spread of Islam, the human civilization, and sociology and contemporary Muslim society. These are some of the essential ingredients of one topic, namely; the Islamic civilization. It seems that a clear definition of what is meant by 'civilization' and 'Islamic civilization' is lacking. The term 'civilization' is very complicated and involves a very wide range of issues which unless thoroughly treated, many aspects will be distorted by oversimplification; in the second year, a subject is taught under the title 'human civilization' and only one lecture per week is provided in the whole course.

Thirdly, the fact that the curriculum is overloaded with subjects and sub-divisions of subjects has resulted in the lectures being almost evenly distributed with no distinction between what is more important and what is less important. This in turn has resulted in the superficial coverage of a wide range of disciplines without in fact satisfying the requirement of a course of tertiary education. This rather confused set of subjects can serve no useful purpose.

Lack of clearly and objectively stated aims, and the need for radical re-organisation of content are also manifested in the Department of Education and Psychology in the Faculty of Education. The Department provides a course of four years duration and the subjects taught can be divided into two categories only, namely; education and psychology, as the main field of specialization, and subjects relevant to general education. The former category includes: the foundations of education; the development of educational thought; general, educational and developmental psychology; comparative education; sociology of education; philosophy of education; primary and post-primary education; Islamic education; school inspection; education in the Arab world; mental health; curricula of teacher education; educational statistics; and teaching methods. The subjects of the latter category are: Islamic culture; Arabic; English; general science; geography of the Islamic world; the history of the Saudi Arabia; physiology and hygiene; mathematics¹ or geography²; sociology; social work; the history of human civilization; economics and recent economic schools of thought.³ The

1 To be studied by the leavers of the literary section of secondary education.

2 To be studied by the leavers of the scientific section of secondary education.

3 Cf. The Regulation of the Faculty of Education, op. cit. p.2.

following table shows the number of lectures devoted to each category weekly:

Table (9):

<u>Area of Study</u>	<u>1st Year</u>	<u>2nd Year</u>	<u>3rd Year</u>	<u>4th Year</u>
Field of Specialization	6	8	18	18
General Education	18	16	6	7 ¹

Although education and psychology are supposed to be the main field of specialization, there is no significant difference between this field and general education in respect of the proportion of time allotted to each category. The number of weekly lectures in the four years of the course is 50 and 47 respectively. This factor, on the one hand, and the wide range of subjects, on the other hand, imply that the likely concept that is to be served by this approach is 'teaching something of everything'.

The adopted approach can be examined further in the light of the fields of work undertaken by the graduates of the Department in the school system. They usually start their careers as teachers in the institutions of primary teacher education, teaching psychology and sociology in the secondary schools, and the headmastership at the

1 Ibid.

primary level.

Their appointment as headmasters of primary schools without adequate teaching experience can hardly be justified. Similarly, the appointment of new graduates as teachers at the primary teacher training institutions means that they have been considered qualified enough, immediately after graduation, to become teacher educators. The fact that they lack previous and adequate experience in teaching and that their knowledge in education and psychology is rather limited and theoretical in character can hardly qualify them for the job. One has to bear in mind that even a good teacher is not automatically a good teacher educator. "There are now skills and new areas of knowledge required for training, with the additional difficulty that the trainer is dealing with young adults not with children."¹ As the quality of teacher education programmes depends largely on the qualifications and experience of the teacher educator, the course provided at the Department of Education cannot be considered adequate.

With regard to the appointment of the graduates of

1 Lightbody, T.P., "Needs, Problems & Trends in Primary Teacher Training in the Arabic-Speaking Member States", A Working Paper Presented for the Regional Workshop on Pre-Service and In-Service Primary Teacher Training in the Arabic-Speaking Member States of Unesco, Beirut, 7-12 July 1969, Final Report, Appendix 11, Unesco, Paris, 1969, P.16

the Department as teachers of psychology and sociology at the secondary level, some of the excellent graduates who have shown genuine interest in psychology while in training may be able to teach the subject at the secondary schools. The syllabus is rather simple and it is not considered as a major area of study. On the other hand, it is doubtful that the graduates can teach sociology effectively because their knowledge in the field is very limited; only two lectures per week are given on both sociology and social work in the third year. Moreover, there is no provision for practical work in sociology and social work.

These considerations and the fact that Education and Psychology in an institution of this level have to be conceived as means by which the future teacher will be in a better position to understand his pupils and to teach his subject more effectively, necessitate the re-organisation of the Department of Education and Psychology. There needs to be provided an interpretative introduction to relate the main principles and principal findings to the learning-teaching situation in the classroom.

As for the professional training in both faculties, the following table shows the subjects taught and the number of lectures devoted to each subject weekly:

Table (10) :

<u>Subjects</u>	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>1st Year</u>	<u>2nd Year</u>	<u>3rd Year</u>	<u>4th Year</u>
The foundations of education and the development of educational thought	Shari'ah Education	2	-	-	-
		2	-	-	-
Developmental Psychology	Shari'ah Education	-	1	-	-
		-	2	-	-
Secondary Education and school administration	Shari'ah Education	-	1	-	-
		-	2	-	-
Educational Psychology	Shari'ah Education	-	-	2	-
		-	-	2	-
General Teaching Methods and Practical Teaching	Shari'ah Education	-	-	2	-
		-	-	4	-
Special Teaching Methods and Practical Teaching	Shari'ah Education	-	-	-	2
		-	-	-	4

The time allocated for subjects relevant to the professional training varied from one faculty to the other. At the Faculty of Shari'ah and Islamic Studies, the percentage of lectures on these subjects to the total of weekly lectures is about 8.5 in the first and second years, and 17 per cent in each of the third and fourth years of the course. At the Faculty of Education, it is about 8.3 in the first year, 17 per cent in the second

1 Cf. The Regulations of these two faculties, op. cit.

year and 25 per cent in the third and fourth years of the course. No criteria could be detected as to justify this difference, bearing in mind that both curricula have been worked out by the same educational authority. This phenomenon clearly indicates the need for the establishment of an overall policy of teacher education in which the different components of the curriculum are identified with the proper consideration of each area of study.

The Second Approach:

This approach is manifested in the work of the two colleges of Shari'ah and Arabic, in Riyadh.

The College of Shari'ah consists of one department only, namely; the Department of Shari'ah (Islamic jurisprudence). The main aim of the College has been the training of future judges. The education of the teachers of religion has been considered subsidiary. The subjects, studied by both future judges and intending teachers, can be divided into four areas of study; religious studies, Arabic, history and sociology, and; education, teaching methods and psychology. The proportion of time allotted to these areas in the four years of the course, on a weekly basis, is approximately 73, 21, 2.5 and 3.5 per cent respectively. The emphasis, as far as the religious

subjects are concerned, has been placed on jurisprudence and the related sciences.¹

The College of Arabic started, in 1954, with the Department of Arabic, and in 1970-71 (1390-91 A.H.) the Department of Social Studies (history and geography) was created. The former department provides studies in Arabic languages and literature - and the emphasis is laid on Arabic grammar and Rhetoric - religion, history, sociology, and; education, teaching methods and psychology. The proportion of lectures devoted to each field of study, on a weekly basis is approximately 68, 22, 5.5 and 5.4 per cent respectively.²

At the Department of Social Studies a general course is provided in the first year, and specialization, either in history or geography, starts in the second year of the course. The curriculum has been developed on the same pattern as that of the Department of Arabic with the

1 Cf. Saudi Arabia, The General Presidency of the Colleges and Religious Institutes, Nash'at Kulliyat al-Sharī'ah Bil-Riyadh, (The Foundation of the College of Sharī'ah in Riyadh), Arabic text, stencilled, n.d., but it contains statistics till the end of 1392-93 A.H., 1972-73 A.D.

2 Cf. Saudi Arabia, The General Presidency of the Colleges and Religious Institutes, Kulliyat al-Lughah al-Ārabiyyah Bil-Riyadh, (The College of Arabic in Riyadh), Arabic text, stencilled, n.d., but it contains statistics till the end of 1392-93 A.H., 1972-73 A.D.

emphasis on the field of specialization. With regard to history, the emphasis is placed on Islamic history.¹

In spite of the fact that these colleges supply the Ministry of Education with almost 75 per cent of its teachers of religion and 40 per cent of the teachers of Arabic, and that they also supply the Religious Institutes, controlled by the same authority, with the teachers of these two disciplines, teacher education is still considered subsidiary and only trifling consideration has been given to professional training. This is partially due to the absence of a national policy of teacher education, and partially to the fact that the colleges represent a more traditional approach to education and thus have been greatly affected by the traditional concept of 'the teacher'.

Furthermore, whereas the faculties of Shari'ah and Education, in Mecca, have been subjected to frequent changes of policy and content, the curricula of these two colleges have not been significantly developed since their establishment. The curricula have been affected by this state of affairs almost to the point of being static. Yet, religious education and Arabic as taught at

1 Ibid.

the schools of primary, intermediate and secondary levels come on top in the list of subjects requiring hard thinking and careful experimentation so that the content and methodology may be radically improved. The fact that this phenomenon is not peculiar to Saudi Arabia and no single individual or institution can undertake the responsibility of bringing about the required improvement, the co-ordination of efforts and exchange of experience are indispensable both at a national level as well as a regional level.

Both colleges, therefore, have to realise the importance of their role in providing Islamic and Arabic studies, as such, and training future teachers. Each goal has to have its own curriculum. The need is also apparent for the establishment of the proper machinery to bring about systematic co-ordination of efforts with similar institutions inside as well as outside the country.

The Third Approach:

This approach has been adopted by the University of Riyadh Faculty of Education and it is the major-minor system of study.

As stated earlier, the Faculty was founded in 1967 as a joint project of the Saudi government and the United Nations Special Fund, and it was attached to Riyadh University in 1968. "The main aim of the College is the training of teachers for secondary and intermediate schools. Supplementary activities include the organisation of seminars, evening and holiday courses for school supervisors, educational administrators and teachers already in service; and the conduct of research and experimentation, especially in educational methodology."¹

Till the end of 1971-72 the Faculty made no contribution to research work or in-service training. This may be justified on the ground that the Faculty was still in the initial stage of its development.

As far as the organisation of the programme is concerned, the leavers of the literary section of secondary education have the choice of the following areas of studies:

<u>Major</u>	<u>Minor</u>
Arabic	Education and Psychology
	...continued

1 Unesco, Directory of Teacher-Training Colleges Assisted by UNDP (Special Fund) and Unesco, op. cit., P. 66.

Education/Psychology	Arabic
English	Social Studies
History/Civics	Geography
Geography	History/Civics

The options open for the leavers of the scientific section are:

Physics	Mathematics
Mathematics	Physics
Biology	Chemistry
Chemistry	Biology ¹

A general course is provided in the first year and consists of subjects studied by all students and subjects taught to the students of each section alone. The former include; Islamic culture, Arabic, English, use of library, principles of education and psychology. The subjects taught in the literary section are educational statistics, history, geography, sociology and general science. The

1 Saudi Arabia, Riyadh University, Faculty of Education, Al-Khutāt Al-Dirāsiyyah Al-Tafṣīliyyah Lilmadjmū 'āt Al-Dirāsiyyah Bilkulliyah, (the Detailed Plans of Studies in the Faculty), as approved by the University Council in its 11th meeting, held on 8.4.1970, 1.2.1390 A.H., and the 17th meeting, held on 10.5.1970, 4.3.1390 A.H., Arabic text, stencilled.

subjects of the scientific section are science, mathematics and geology.

The subjects taught in the remaining years of the course can be divided into four categories; the major and minor fields of study, general education; including Islamic culture, Arabic and English, and subjects relevant to the professional training. This division prevails in all groups of specialization except where Arabic and education are taken as a major or a minor field of study. There is a slight difference among the groups of studies as far as the proportion of time allotted to each area of study is concerned. On the average, however, the percentage of lectures devoted to each of the four areas is approximately; 42, 25, 8 and 25 per cent respectively.¹

As referred to earlier, the faculty provides for Arabic as a major field of study and education and psychology as a minor field of study, and vice-versa. The subjects taught can be organised under three headings, namely; the major field of study, the minor field of study, and general education.² The following table shows the

1 Ibid.

2 It includes Islamic culture, Arabic and English.

number of lectures devoted to each category:

<u>i. Arabic/Education</u>	<u>2nd Year</u>	<u>3rd Year</u>	<u>4th Year</u>
Major field	12	12	12
Minor field	9	12	14
General Education	7	3	1
 <u>ii. Education/Arabic</u>			
Major field	13	16	18
Minor field	8	8	8
General Education	7	3	1

In spite of the fact that, unlike the Faculty of Education in Mecca, the Faculty of Education in Riyadh provides a special field of study to be taken as a minor when education is taken as a major field of study, the author would like to stress the opinion, discussed earlier, that education at this level of study should not be provided as a major course. It is more appropriate if it is considered as a means enabling the teacher to achieve a better teaching performance. Specialization in education, and the related subjects, can be provided at a more advanced level.

It is still somewhat early to make a full assessment of the value of the course. Nevertheless, the programme

1 Ibid.

seems to be more balanced than those provided by the institutions discussed earlier. On the other hand, it contributes to the divorce between science and the humanities. Further development has to be based on regular and objective evaluation of the present experience in the light of (a) the educational standards of entrants; (b) the progress made by each individual student; and (c) the teaching performance of the graduates.

The General Diploma Course:

The University of Riyadh started in 1966-67 (1386-87 A.H.) a one-year course leading to the award of a general diploma in education. It has been attended by both new graduates of the faculties of arts and science who would like to work as teachers, and graduates who have already been in service as teachers. Till 1969 the course was provided at the Faculty of Arts. Since then, however, it has been provided by the Faculty of Education. Attendance is not compulsory by all the graduates who will be engaged in teaching.¹ The subjects taught are as follows:

1 University of Riyadh, The University Council, The Minute of the first meeting, held on 10.8.1386 A.H., 23.11.1966, Arabic text, stencilled.

Table (11):

The subjects taught at the General Diploma Course
and the lectures devoted to each subject per week.

<u>Subjects</u>	<u>No. of Lectures</u>
General Principles of Education	3
Principles of Curricula, Teaching Methods and Audio-Visual Methods and Materials	3
Educational Psychology	3
Child Psychology, Adolescent Psycho- logy and Mental Health	2
History of Education	1
Comparitive Education	1
Special Methods of Teaching	2
School Hygiene and Sanitary Education	1
Educational Set-Up in the Saudi Arabian Kingdom and all other Arab Countries	2
Total:	<hr/> 18

1

The course attempts a superficial coverage of a wide range of subjects and topics within the subject. To illustrate this point, reference may be made to the subject of history of education and that of comparative education.

As far as the history of education is concerned, the following topics have to be covered by providing only

1 University of Riyadh, Faculty of Arts, Department of Higher Education, General Diploma in Education, 1387 A.H., 1967 A.D., English text.

one lecture per week: Introduction, education in primitive societies, education in ancient oriental societies, education of the Greeks, education of the Romans, education in the Middle Ages, Islamic education, education in the Renaissance period, education in the modern times: Democracy of education, Jean Jacque Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Frobel, Herbert and Dewey, and Contemporary educational trends.¹ With regard to comparative education, the students have to study these topics: Definition of comparative education, its origin and development - aims and field of work, means and aids, factors affecting educational settings in the world, comparative studies in the best-known countries, comparative model studies of U.S.A.; U.S.S.R., England, France, Germany, Switzerland and Belgium, comparative studies of educational aims, problems, plans, and stages in certain developing countries in Latin America, Asia and Africa.²

The course lacks the establishment of priority as far as the organisation of content is concerned and whatever subjects are taught should be related to the needs of the new teachers and to be pursued in a greater depth

1 Ibid, P. 12

2 Ibid, P. 13

bearing in mind that the course is of a post-graduate level. The theoretical nature of the course can also be illustrated by the fact that a period ranging between two and three weeks only is allocated to the continuous teaching practice, compared with 10 weeks in a nine-month post-graduate course in England.

To conclude this chapter, reference should be made to two important points, namely; teaching practice and the problem of staffing the teachers institutions.

Teaching Practice:

It has been hoped by some institutions of teacher education to establish their own model schools for demonstration and practical teaching purposes.¹ However, this has not been achieved yet, and the standard pattern of organisation is one in which each institution makes its own arrangements with the schools, and very often this is accomplished through the local education authorities.

The provision of teaching practice differs from one group of institution to the other. At the primary teacher-

1 Cf. (i) the Ministry of Education, the Regulation of the Institutes of Teachers for the Primary Level, op. cit., Article 7, P. 2. (ii) Faculty of Education, University of Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, Demonstration Intermediate and Secondary School: Introduction and Brief, Ref: Unesco/RAC/1, 12th May, 1969, English text, stencilled.

training institutions, four periods per week, in each of the second and third years of the course, are allocated for observation, acquainting the pupils with the school work and practical teaching.¹ In addition, one week in the second year and two weeks in the third year of the course are allotted for continuous teaching practice.²

In respect of the faculties of Shari'ah and Education, in Mecca, the students of the third and fourth years of the course spend one day at school every week "to acquaint the students with the work at school in the administration field and the classroom; for participation in extra curricula activities and the examinations affairs; observation of lessons given by the competent teachers, and for giving a few lessons under the supervision of the schools teachers and the tutors."³ Moreover, a month is

1 The Ministry of Education, (i) the Curricula of the Primary Institutes of Teachers, 1379 A.H. (1959) and 1382 A.H., (1962) op.cit, (ii) the Curriculum of the Institutes of Teachers for the Primary Level, 1388 A.H. (1968), op. cit.

2 The Regulation of the Institutes of Teachers for the Primary Level, op. cit., Article 10, P. 3.

3 A letter dated 18.12.1973 from the Dean of the Faculty of Education in Mecca to the author, a type=script.

allocated, towards the end of the year, in the fourth year of the course for continuous teaching practice. The students are supervised by their tutors and the school's teachers. The assessment of their work is marked out of 100; 25% of which is reserved for the school teacher and 75% for the tutor. Both observation and teaching practice are carried out in the schools of the intermediate and secondary levels and the institutes of primary teacher training.¹

The colleges of Shari'ah and Arabic, in Riyadh, have made no provision for practical teaching except that the students of the fourth year of the course go to some schools and religious institutes only twice towards the end of the course. In the first visit, they observe other teachers at work and in the second visit they themselves teach and this is considered as their examination in teaching practice.

The students of the third and fourth years at the Faculty of Education, Riyadh University, spend one day a week at schools of intermediate and secondary education for observation, acquaintance with the school work and

1 Ibid.

some practical teaching.¹ "There is no provision for continuous teaching practice in the present plan of study. However, the Department of Education has expressed its viewpoint regarding the re-consideration of this issue because of the importance of teaching practice."²

The above account indicates that the provision of teaching practice has been affected by the absence of a national policy of teacher education. There is an apparent need not only for striking the balance between subjects relevant to general education, field of specialization and pedagogical learning, but also that a proper consideration should be given to practical training at schools which constitutes an essential element in courses of teacher education. "... learning to be a teacher and on-the-job experience are inseparable aspects of theory and practice."³

The Staffing of Teacher Education Institutions:

Like the schools, the institutions of teacher educa-

1 As supplied by the Faculty of Education in Riyadh, through the Dean of the Faculty of Education in Mecca. The letter No. 95/2/94 dated 27.2.1394 A.H., (1974) from the Dean to the author.

2 Ibid.

3 King, E.J., The Education of Teachers: a comparative analysis, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, London. New York. Sydney. Toronto., 1970, P. 106

tion have been largely dependent upon expatriates. The following table shows the number of the teachers of the Institute of Teachers for the Primary Level in 1971-72.

Table (12):

The number of teachers at the Institutes of Teachers for the Primary Level according to nationalities (i.e. Saudi and non-Saudis) and according to qualifications in 1971-72 (1391-92 A.H.).¹

Qualifications	No. of Teachers
The certificate of secondary education	1
The certificate of the abolished Primary Institutes of Teachers	2
The certificate of the abolished Secondary Institutes of Teachers	1
Dūr Mu'allimīn ² (Other institutions of teacher training)	9
Physical Education	26
Art Education	45
Qualified Graduate Teachers	159
Unqualified Graduate Teachers	186
Master Degree	15
Total:	444
Saudis:	67
Non-Saudis:	377

Here again we find that the problems of staffing is

1 As supplied by the General Director of the Programmes of Teacher Education, a letter dated 8.1.1394 A.H. (1974), Arabic text, a type-script.

2 They are very likely below the tertiary level.

not only that of number but also of qualifications and experience. Moreover, in the period with which we are concerned, no special programme has been developed to meet the needs of the institutions of primary teacher training.

The situation at the tertiary level institutions is similar to that of the institutes of primary teacher education in respect of their dependence upon expatriates. This can be inferred from the following table.

Table (13):

The number of the teaching staff at the tertiary level institutions of teacher education in 1971-72.¹

<u>Institution</u>	<u>Saudis</u>	<u>Non-Saudis</u>	<u>Total</u>
The Faculty of Shari'ah in Mecca	6	22	28
The Faculty of Education in Mecca	6	22	28
The College of Shari'ah in Riyadh	18	27	45
The College of Arabic in Riyadh	7	36	43

¹ Source: (a) Figures regarding the two faculties in Mecca have been supplied by them directly, Arabic text, a type-script. (b) The Foundation of the College of Shari'ah in Riyadh, op. cit., P.7. The College of Arabic in Riyadh, op. cit., P.8.

Accurate figures about the Faculty of Education in Riyadh could not be obtained.

The qualifications ranged from the first university degree to the doctoral degree in the different fields of studies provided. Previous experience in teaching or in the field of teacher education was not required.

The development of a sound teacher education system is likely to suffer serious handicaps unless adequate planning is made to provide the institutions of teacher education with competent teacher educators. Admittedly, it is not an easy task to accomplish, but, nevertheless, it has to be seriously considered. "If, as is generally accepted, the teacher is the executive instrument in the school, and it is thought necessary to provide special programmes for his general and professional education, how much more is this necessary for the teacher educator. Yet we have not attempted seriously to specify the knowledge and skills required of the teacher educator. The kinds of knowledge and methodology appropriate to a scholar, as a humanist, or a scientist, are not necessarily the kinds of knowledge and methodology appropriate to the teacher educator. There can be no doubt, in view of the changing role expected of the teacher, that the role of the teacher educator deserves comprehensive examination

and review."¹

The above analysis indicates that the training of men teachers has undergone certain changes and development but it has still a long way to go before it can hope to meet the challenges of an expanding system of education in terms of both quality and quantity. As for the training of women teachers, this will be analysed and examined in the following chapter.

1 Lewis, L.J., Teacher Education in Changing Societies, a type-script, 1972, PP. 16-17

CHAPTER THREE: THE PROVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN

The special features characterizing the education of women in Saudi Arabia demand that an attempt should be made to give as clear a picture as possible about the education system in relation to the training and recruitment of women teachers. The issues to be considered here are; firstly, the factors that delayed the development of formal education of girls till 1959-60 (1379-80 A.H.). Any critique is bound to be affected by the brevity of period for the initiation and development of an education system for women. Secondly, attention must be paid to the rate of educational expansion since 1960. For the significance of this is particularly due to the facts that co-education is prohibited, the schools have to be staffed by women, the great dependence upon expatriate women teachers from neighbouring Arab countries and the shortage of women teachers in the Arab world in comparison with men teachers. Thirdly, adequate consideration must be given to the relevant socio-cultural factors affecting the women's education system as a whole and the education and employment of women teachers in particular.

Introduction:

Islam does not consider sex a bar to the acquisition of knowledge. It is stated in Tradition that "quest of

learning is a duty incumbent upon every Muslim; male and female." Considerable numbers of Muslim women in the early centuries of Islam seized every opportunity and "took part in every branch of the culture of that time".¹ It is recorded in Tradition that a group of women met the Prophet and complained that all his time was devoted to men only and asked him to appoint particular days for teaching them. The Prophet responded and met them regularly to teach and exhort them.² As we proceed in time, a large number of women gained recognition as notable figures among traditionalists, jurists, poets and literary critics and received mention by Muslim historians.

For a variety of reasons, however, the serious participation of women in the intellectual and social life of Muslim societies came to a halt and the history of Arab and Muslim women became associated with illiteracy and the harem system.

The recent attempts labelled 'women emancipation movements' were initiated outside the religious circles. This has resulted in a rather conflicting situation. The

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1. Shalabi, A., History of Muslim Education, Dar al-Kashshaf, Beirut, Lebanon, 1954, p.190.
 2. Cf. Ibn Hajar, 'Fat-h al-Bari', the commentary of Ibn Hajar on Sahih al-Bukhary, Cairo 1939, Arabic text, Vol.1, p.159.

enlightened religious leaders, instead of leading such movements and thus implementing the real teachings of Islam in this respect, adopted a negative attitude, while the more conservative severely rejected and attacked such movements.¹ These paradoxes and obvious uncertainty towards the education of woman and her role in life, outside her home, have led to the prevalence of two extreme attitudes. Firstly, 'women have to stay at home and concern themselves with domestic affairs. Their education, accordingly, need not go beyond the learning of the very principle of the three "R's" and reciting some verses of the Koran to say their prayers'. Secondly, 'women should take part in all social activities. Hence, there should be no limitation on their education'. Those who hold the latter view point are more concerned with the changing female role in different societies particularly as an aspect of rapid social change to be seen everywhere in the twentieth century.

Saudi Arabia, naturally, has been affected by the above considerations in the shadow of which the relevant teachings of Islam have been obscured. The religious position of the country, the influence of the conservative

1, Cf. Hibshi, M., op.cit., pp.164-172.

elements in the society, and the policy adopted by the government of bringing about desirable social changes in a peaceful and gradual manner have made it impossible for the education of women but to start privately and on a very limited scale. 'Prior to 1380 A.H. (1960) there was no governing body responsible for its organization and control. Education for women was provided at private schools and the Kuttab. Some of these schools followed the curricula of the Ministry of Education while others developed their own curricula. The citizens who wanted to educate their daughters suffered either from the insufficient number of schools or their non-existence in many parts of the country as well as the high tuition fees. Moreover, there were those who did not believe in girls' education and considered it conducive to the degradation and immorality of woman and her revolt against traditions. On the other hand, there were those who sought every possible means to educate their daughters inside and outside the country'.¹

In the period from the late 1950's till mid 1960's the Ministry of Education allowed girls to sit for the

1. Cf. Saudi Arabia, the General Presidency of the Schools of Girls, Statistics Department, Al-Dalīl Al-'Iḥṣā'i Lita'līm Al-Fatah Al-Sa'ūdiyyah Khilāl Sab'at A'wām (The Statistical Guide to the Education of the Saudi Girl in seven Years), 1380/81 - 1386/87 A.H., 1960/61 - 1966/67 A.D., Dār Lubnān Liltibā'ah Wannashr, Beirut, Lebanon, n.d. Arabic text, P.11.

final examinations of primary, intermediate and secondary levels as external candidates. This step led to the final official recognition of girls' education in 1959 (1379 A.H.). In addition, some of the holders of the secondary education certificate enrolled as external students at the faculties of arts and commerce of Riyadh University, and the Faculty of Sharī'ah and certain departments of the Faculty of Education in Mecca. Others have pursued their education abroad.

Girls' Education; 1960-1972:

In 1959 (1379 A.H.) a royal speech was delivered stating that it had been decided, upon the wish of the Ulema, to open schools for girls under the control of a committee of religious leaders to be responsible to the Mufti.¹ In 1960 (1380 A.H.) this committee was replaced by the 'General Presidency of the Schools of Girls'. which has been known since 1968 (1388 A.H.) as 'the General Presidency of the Education of Girls'; this is to include the education of girls at the tertiary level.

It seems that the organization of the provision of the education of women in this way aimed at the achievement of two goals. First, to gain the confidence of the

1, 'Um al-Ḳurā, Mecca, issue No.1780 dated 21.4.1379 A.H., 23.10.1959 A.D.

conservative elements so that they would accommodate themselves to the new circumstances regarding the education of women and, consequently, their employment in certain fields. Secondly, to ensure from the very beginning that, as a policy, the education of women would be provided by separate institutions and would not be controlled by the Ministry of Education. This point was emphasised in 1970 when the Educational Policy was issued. The Policy states that "Co-education is prohibited in all stages of education with the exception of nurseries and kindergarten."¹

The positive response of the conservatives and those who had some doubt regarding the significance of education for women, coupled with the already encouraging attitude of the others, have resulted in increasing demands for education, probably greater than had been envisaged.

According to table (14) the average yearly rate of increase at primary education level in respect of schools and pupils enrolled was 266.6 and 252 per cent respectively. Moreover, comparison between the numbers of boys

1. The Educational Policy in the Saudi Arabian Kingdom, 1390 A.H., 1970 A.D., issued under the decision of the Council of Ministers No. 779 dated $\frac{16}{17}/9/1389$ A.H., 25.11.1969 A.D., no bibliographical authentication, n.d., Article 155 P. 29 the English text.

and girls insofar as the intake is concerned has revealed that whereas the percentage of girls to boys in 1960-61 was about 8.3, it increased to approximately 51.5 per cent in 1971-72.¹ With regard to the output of primary education, the number of leavers rose from 163 in 1960-61 to 10,972 in 1971-72.²

The impact of educational expansion at the primary level on both the intermediate and secondary levels is already apparent, despite the fact that the government schools at these educational levels started as recently as 1963-64 (1383-84 A.H.). At the intermediate level, whereas the number of schools in 1963-64 was 3 with an enrolment of 235 pupils, it became in 1971-72, 55 schools with an enrolment of 12,706 pupils. Within this span of time, the percentage of girls to boys rose from about 2 per cent to approximately 22.2 per cent.³ At the secondary level, the number of pupils increased from 21 in 1963-64 to 1,863 in 1971-72.

At this point, reference should be made to the future

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1. 'Statistical Guide to the Education of the Saudi Girl in Seven Years', op.cit., p.26. The figures concerning boys' education, as supplied by the Unit of Statistics, Research and Educational Documents, Ministry of Education, letter No.414, dated 18.11.1392 (23.12.1972).
 2. Saudi Arabia, the General Presidency of Girls' Education, Department of Examinations, 'the Results of the examinations of the general certificates', 1971-72 (1391-92 A.H.), stencilled, Arabic text, p.30.
 3. Letter No.414 dated 23.12.1972 is the source of figures concerning boys.

educational expansion as envisaged in the 'Development Plan' (1970-71 till 1974-75). "Enrolment in public elementary schools for girls is to increase ... to 224,500 in the last year of the plan, a gain of approximately 95 per cent. At this point girls will account for about 35 per cent of the total number of children enrolled in elementary school."¹ "General intermediate enrolment is projected to increase ... to 23,500 students in the final year of the plan."² "A sizable expansion of general secondary education is planned in anticipation of larger numbers of general intermediate school graduates and broader and more numerous opportunities for girls who complete general secondary education. ... The projected development of the general secondary school enrolment looks to 4,900 students in school in the last year of the plan."³

As stated above, the private schools have played a significant role in girls' education. Here, it is sufficient to note that the government, acting through the General Presidency of the Education of Girls, provide these schools with grants-in-aid and the textbooks are provided

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1. 'Development Plan' 1390 A.H. (1970), op.cit., p.111.
 2. Ibid., p.111.
 3. Ibid., p.111.

Table (14):

(Number of Schools, and pupils, at the primary, intermediate and secondary levels; 1960/61 - 1971/72). 1

Year	Ed. level	Schools	Pupils
1960-61	Primary	15	5,180
1961-62	Primary	31	11,812
1962-63	Primary	60	18,880
1963-64	Primary	124	31,984
	Intermediate	3	235
	Secondary	1	21
1964-65	Primary	135	40,896
	Intermediate	4	544
	Secondary	1	32
1965-66	Primary	160	50,870
	Intermediate	9	775
	Secondary	1	81
1966-67	Primary	201	67,953
	Intermediate	12	1,252
	Secondary	1	129

continued..

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1. Saudi Arabia, the General Presidency of the Education of Girls, Department of Statistics, (a) Al-Dalil Al-'Iḥṣā'i Lita'līm Al-Fatāh (The Statistical Guide to Girl's Education) 1388-89 A.H., 1968-69 A.D., Dar Lubnan Liltiba'ah Wannashr, Beirut, Lebanon, 1969, Arabic text, PP.16 and 20.
 (b) Iḥṣā'iyah 'An Al-Ta'līm Al-Ibtida'i (Statistics on Primary Education), 1389-90 A.H., 1969-70 A.D., Arabic text, stencilled, P.1.
 (c) Iḥṣā'iyah 'An Al-Ta'lim Al-Mutawassit Waththānawi Wariyād Al-Aṭfal, (Statistics on Intermediate and Secondary Education and the Kindergartens), 1389-90 A.H., 1969-70 A.D., Arabic text, stencilled, P.4.

Table (14):

(Number of Schools, and pupils, at the primary, intermediate and secondary levels; 1960/61 - 1971/72). 1

Year	Ed. level	Schools	Pupils
1967-68	Primary	233	81,067
	Intermediate	12	1,989
	Secondary	1	212
1968-69	Primary	286	96,824
	Intermediate	12	3,181
	Secondary	1	254
1969-70	Primary	347	114,775
	Intermediate	13	4,525
	Secondary	1	438
1970-71	Primary	357	127,131
	Intermediate	17	7,861
	Secondary	1	550
1971-72	Primary	455	148,646
	Intermediate	55	12,706
	Secondary	10	1,863

1. Saudi Arabia, the General Presidency of the Education of Girls, Department of Statistics, (d) Al-Nashrah Al-Ihsā' iyyah Al-'āmmah 'An Ta'līm Al-Banāt Al-Hukūmī Walahlī, (The General Statistical Bulletin on Girls' Education: Governmental and Private), 1390-91 A.H., 1970-71 A.D., Arabic text, stencilled, PP.8, 62 and 65.

(e) Al-Nashrah Al-Ihsā' iyyah Al-'āmmah 'An Ta'līm Al-Banāt Al-Hukūmī Walahlī, (The General Statistical Bulletin on Girls' Education: Governmental and Private), 1391-92 A.H., 1971-72 A.D., Arabic text, stencilled, PP.8, 80 and 91.

free. The number of pupils enrolled in 1971-72 at the primary, intermediate and secondary levels was 4287, 604 and 965 respectively.¹ They follow the curriculum of the General Presidency and their pupils sit for its examinations as external candidates.

To shed light on the provision of education for women and its expansion, reference should be made to the following socio-cultural considerations which also have their bearings upon the education and recruitment of women teachers. The difficulties in drawing conclusions in this respect, however, arise from the absence of previous studies and the shortage of data. Furthermore, there is little room for speculation because any major change in the present policy of girls' education has to be based on religious grounds and justifications; "This kind of education is conducted in an atmosphere of dignity and honour complying in all its forms with the provisions of Islam."² Decisions, therefore, are usually taken upon the consultation of the Ulema. As an example, one of the issues involved is whether girls' schools will ever be staffed by men as well as women teachers and administrators.

1. The general Statistical Bulletin of Girls' Education, 1971-72 op.cit., PP.39, 81 & 93.

2. The Educational Policy in the Saudi Arabian Kingdom, op.cit., Article 156. P.29.

Nevertheless, the following observations can be made.

The focal point is that the recognition of the importance of education for women is gathering momentum. Opinions, nevertheless, differ when it comes to the question of the types of education to be provided or the educational level to be attained. The official policy may serve as a starting-point in this analysis.

It has been for long held that, apart from the natural role of women as wives and mothers, teaching and the medical profession are the most suitable fields of work for them. This was officially adopted in 1970. It has been stated that "The object of the education of women 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 as teaching, nursing and medicine".¹ In other words, the main concern of an educated woman, outside her home, should be almost confined to these fields in which she serves other women. Within this context, women can go up the educational ladder as far as they can or want to.

In addition to those who consider this policy as

1. The Educational Policy in the Saudi Arabian Kingdom, op.cit., Article 153, p.28.

being quite satisfactory for the present state of development, or perhaps take it as a permanent policy, there are those who see in the limitations imposed on the opportunities for work as being a source of conflict when it comes to the consideration of personal interest and aptitude. This may explain the joining of departments of higher education, both inside and outside the country, which are not directly concerned with training for either of the professions stated above. In 1971-72 there were 135 students enrolled at the Department of Business Administration of King Abdulaziz University, among whom there were 50 female students.¹ Women have been allowed to register as external students at the faculties of arts and commerce of the University of Riyadh; the number of women students registered in 1971-72 in the first, second, third and fourth years of the course at the Faculty of Commerce was 72, 5, 4, and 3 respectively.²

Those who join such departments may get personal satisfaction from pursuing studies of their own choice but their ambition with regard to working in the fields of their specialization is likely to remain unfulfilled for a considerable time to come. Even though some of the

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1. As supplied by King Abdulaziz University, a type-script.
 2. University of Riyadh, The distribution of students according to classes and faculties in 1391-92 A.H., 1971-72 A.D., stencilled, Arabic text.

graduates of these and other similar departments have come to terms with reality and joined the teaching profession, the effect of this attitude, in the long-run, on the teaching profession remains to be seen.

On the other hand, there are the advocates of girls' education being limited to primary education level. They argue that by the end of this educational level girls would reach adolescence and, thus, sufficient time must be allowed for receiving adequate training in domestic affairs in preparation for marriage. Satisfaction with primary education attainment is likely to be enhanced when this level is compared with the simple instruction provided in the kuttab, in some cases, or with complete illiteracy, in other cases.

This viewpoint is gradually diminishing; increasing interest in post-primary education has been indicated in the above table, albeit mainly in towns and cities. Moving from small villages to towns where more facilities of intermediate and secondary education are available, the increasing number of educated men in the family, the effect of educated girls on illiterate women, the apparent preference of educated men for educated — and sometimes highly educated — wives, the gradually rising age of marriage and the effect of the mass media all are factors contributing to the increasing interest in post-primary education.

At this point, however, reference should be made to the fact that the 'kuttab' is still the only place available for learning in many villages. "The General Presidency of the Education of Girls pays attention to the 'katatib' (pl. of kuttab) existing in villages where neither government nor private schools have yet been established. The Presidency provides them with financial support to enable them to continue providing general education and contributing to combating illiteracy. They are the nucleus of future government schools."¹

The priority given to towns, cities and large villages in the provision of girls' education can be attributed to a variety of reasons two of which are noteworthy. First, time is needed for the social climate in small villages to be prepared for the introduction of formal education. Secondly, with the absence of indigenous women teachers, the schools will have to depend on expatriate women teachers, but the difficult conditions of living and the need for quick and complete adaptation to the way of life and the traditions of villagers make it impossible to attract the required number of expatriates, which in turn constitutes

1. Cf. 'The Statistical Guide to Girls' Education, 1388-89 A.H., 1968-69 A.D., op.cit., p.111.

a serious hindrance to rapid expansion of opportunities for education in rural areas.

Closely linked with this point is the consideration of the fact that, unlike boy students and pupils, the girls have to pursue their education where their families live. This is applicable to all educational levels. A few may leave to receive their education in another village or a town if they have close relatives living there, but this cannot be taken as a general practice at present. The same holds true with regard to those who have pursued their higher education abroad.

This situation implies that, in order to meet the ever increasing demands for education, girls' schools, and indeed their institutions of higher learning, have to be established over a wider area in a period of time considerably shorter than that experienced with boys' education.¹ Whereas the percentage of girls' primary schools to those

1, Reference has already been made in the first and second chapters to the 'Saudi Institute of Learning' and the school of 'Preparing Bursary Students' which were established in Mecca in 1928 and 1936 respectively. They remained for years the only government institutions of secondary education and attended by pupils from all over the country. Full board accommodation used to be provided for those from outside Mecca. The possibility of grouping pupils and students from different parts of the Kingdom has always made it possible for the authorities responsible for boys' education to start a new level or kind of institutions on a very limited scale and thus allowed for gradual expansion.

of boys' was 2.1 in 1960-61 it increased to 28.5 in 1971-72.¹ The number of intermediate schools increased from 17 in 1970-71 to 55 in 1971-72. Similarly, there was one government school of secondary education level in 1970-71 but the number increased to ten in the following year, to cover ten cities and large villages simultaneously. At the tertiary level, although Riyadh University and King Abdulaziz University provide higher education for women, the General Presidency of the Education of Girls established in 1970-71 (1390-91 A.H.) the College of Education for Girls, in Riyadh.² As far as future developments are concerned, "Colleges for women are established inasmuch as possible to meet the country's needs for their fields of specialization and in line with Islamic law."³ The higher the educational level is the more acute the problem of staffing becomes, bearing in mind that women's educational institutions have to be staffed by women teachers and administrators.

It is against this socio-cultural and educational background that the provision of teacher education for women has to be analysed and examined.

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1. Saudi Arabia, the Presidency of Girls' Education, Department of Statistics, 'Comparative Statistics between the boys' and girls' schools of primary education', stencilled, Arabic text, p.4.
 2. A similar college is due to start in Jeddah in 1974-75.
 3. The Educational Policy in the Saudi Arabian Kingdom, op. cit., Article 149, p.27.

The Education and Recruitment of Women Teachers:

The period with which we are concerned is characterized by the facts that the General Presidency of the Education of Girls has followed the example of the Ministry of Education in respect of the recruitment of expatriate teachers to meet the urgent needs of the school system, and the provision of an emergency course for primary teacher education. Intermediate and secondary teacher education has not been initiated by the General Presidency and what exists is still rudimentary.

Table (15) indicates that the percentage of indigenous teachers has varied from year to year and from one educational level to another. At the primary level, the situation looks more promising, considered merely from the quantitative point of view. The number of the Saudi teachers increased from 130 in 1963-64 to 2,482 in 1971-72. Their percentage to the total number of teachers employed at the primary level thus rose from 11.1 to 47.7 per cent approximately.

The intermediate and secondary schools have been increasingly dependent upon expatriates, despite the fact that, as an emergency measure, a few elderly male teachers (mostly blind) have been appointed to teach religion and Arabic. The indigenous teachers, including male teachers, constituted in 1971-72 about 10 per cent at the intermediate level and

Table (15):

The numbers of Saudi and non-Saudi teachers at primary, intermediate and secondary levels.

Year	Ed. level	Male	Saudis Female	non-Saudis Female	Total	
1963-64	Primary	-	130	1036	1166	1
1964-65	Primary	-	152	1335	1487	
1965-66	Primary	-	230	1702	1932	
	Intermediate	-	2	24	26	2
1966-67	Primary	-	297	2088	2385	
	Intermediate	4	-	38	42	
1967-68	Primary	-	509	2493	3002	
	Intermediate	15	1	112	128	
1968-69	Primary	-	782	2659	3441	
	Intermediate	19	4	148	171	
1969-70	Primary	-	1107	2844	3951	
	Intermediate	26	5	167	198	
	Secondary	1	-	14	15	3
1970-71	Primary	-	1692	2661	4353	
	Intermediate	33	19	332	384	
	Secondary	-	-	33	33	
1971-72	Primary	-	2482	2718	5200	
	Intermediate	41	22	573	636	
	Secondary	3	1	69	73	

Sources: (a) 'The Statistical Guide to Girl's Education, 1968-69 (1388-89 A.H.) op.cit., pp.57 and 76.

(b) 'Statistics on Intermediate and Secondary Education, 1969-70 (1389-90 A.H.), op.cit., p.9.

(c) 'The General Statistical Bulletin on Girls' Education, Governmental and Private, 1970-71 (1390-91 A.H.), op.cit., pp.33, 64 and 65.

(d) 'The General Statistical Bulletin on Girls' Education, Governmental and Private, 1971-72 (1391-92 A.H.), op.cit., pp.42, 83 and 92.

1. Figures of previous years are not available.
2. Figures of previous years are not available.
3. In the previous years pupils were taught by the teachers of intermediate schools.

approximately 5.4 per cent at the secondary level. The situation seems critical and the employment of men teachers on a larger scale, if it is decided, will not solve the problem of the shortage of indigenous teachers because the schools for boys are not in a significantly better position.

Reference has been made in the second chapter to the educational shortcomings of the great dependence upon expatriate teachers. They are essentially related to the rapid turnover of staff and that no truly national system of education can be developed unless it is adequately staffed by well qualified indigenous teachers and educationalists. These shortcomings are equally applicable to women's education system.

Primary Teacher Education:

It has been stated that 'the General Presidency of Girls' Education had realised upon its creation that the recruitment of the qualified teacher would be one of the main obstacles affecting the expansion of girls' education system. Accordingly, the General Presidency started the course of primary teacher education in the first year of its establishment; 1960 (1380 A.H.)'.¹ The course, of three years duration after the completion of primary

1. Cf. 'The Statistical Guide to the Education of the Saudi Girl in Seven Years; 1960/61-1966/67', op.cit., p.41.

education, has been provided in institutions called 'The Intermediate Institutes of Women Teachers'.

Here again we find that the attempt to train indigenous teachers, in the face of increasing demands for teachers and the mounting dependence upon expatriates, has been characterized by quantitative considerations being given precedence over qualitative considerations. A three-year course after the primary level can hardly produce "a qualified teacher". Reference has been made in the second chapter to the educational and professional shortcomings of a similar course experienced by the Ministry of Education. There is every reason to believe that they are applicable to the course for women. While appreciating the circumstances in which the course was initiated, a better result, nevertheless, might have been achieved had the course been properly considered as an emergency one and a supplementary programme of continuous in-service education been planned from the very beginning as an integral part of professional education of women teachers.

As far as the quantitative aspect is concerned, table 16 indicates that whilst there was one institute in 1960/61 with an enrolment of 21 pupils, the number increased to 28 institutes in 1971-72 with an enrolment of 5,419 pupils.

The output rose from 21 in 1962-63 to 2,195 in 1971-72. To shed light on this aspect, the following considerations may be worth mentioning.

Enrolment in the early years of the establishment of the institutes was affected by the brevity of period for the establishment and development of primary education system. The government primary schools started in 1960-61. As the first batch of pupils graduated in 1966, the institutes had to draw their pupils from among those who took the primary education certificate as external candidates. The number of leavers in 1960-61 was 163 girls.¹

Apart from the consideration of the number of primary education leavers, the fact remains that, as stated earlier, girls receive their education where their families live. A wide area, therefore, should be covered by the institutes of woman teacher education, in the shortest possible time, to ensure an overall satisfactory enrolment. This implies a heavy burden in terms of both cost and staffing; the Saudi teachers of the institutes, including emergency men teachers, constituted in 1971-72 only about 10 per cent of the teachers employed.² Furthermore, it also explains the

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1. 'The Results of the Examinations of the General Certificates, 1971-72 (1391-92 A.H.)', op.cit., p.30.
 2. 'The General Statistical Bulletin on Girls' Education; Governmental and Private, 1971-72 (1391-92 A.H.)'. op.cit., pp.96-97.

great difference between one institute and another in respect of enrolment; the number of pupils enrolled in all the three years of the course varied in 1971-72 from 43 (at the Institute of Bishah) to 859 (at the Institute of Riyadh)¹.

Another factor affecting the whole issue of the expansion of woman teacher education system is related to the fact that, like the student teacher, the trained women teachers have to work where their respective families live. Those who wish to work in other towns or villages have to have close relatives living there or that each one has to be accompanied by a male adult of her close relatives (the mahram). This cannot be easily maintained.

Accordingly, while it is possible for the Ministry of Education to direct men teachers to any educational zone as necessitated by the school needs, the General Presidency has to appoint every woman teacher where her family lives. The movement of the family, or the husband in the case of marriage, from one area to another implies moving the woman teacher as well. The effect of this factor at present is not profound but a rather complicated situation is likely to occur as social mobility increases and a satisfactory

1, Ibid. pp.102-3

percentage of indigenous teachers is achieved. In respect of planning, therefore, it is true that the needs of the school system as a whole should be taken into account, but it is equally essential for each institute of woman teacher education to be developed in accordance with the needs of the schools of the community it serves. This task, to be carried out satisfactorily, requires the existence of competent machinery for planning, drawing long as well as short term plans and that sufficient data must be collected and analysed in advance. The relevant socio-cultural considerations have to be taken into account as well.

The fact that the General Presidency of the Education of Girls has been established only recently, co-ordination of efforts, therefore, with the Ministry of Education, the faculties of education and other bodies concerned becomes indispensable.

Compared with the intermediate schools, enrolment at the institutes of teachers cannot be considered satisfactory. Comparison between table 14 and table 16 indicates that in the period from 1963-64 till 1971-72 the number of pupils increased at the intermediate schools from 235 to 12,706 and at the institutes of teachers from 443 to 5,419. The significance of this is to be seen in the context of (a) the institutes started three years earlier than the intermediate

schools and they cover a wider area; in 1970-71 there were 26 institutes and 17 intermediate schools; (b) the country's urgent need for teachers; and (c) the pupils of the institutes have the privilege of receiving a monthly allowance.

This phenomenon, whilst it can be considered as an indicator of a general preference for the academic intermediate and secondary schools - a reflection of a general attitude in the society - it may also undermine an important aspect of the 'Educational Policy', namely; the training of women for rather limited fields of work as stated earlier. If this is true, and until other fields of work are agreed upon and provided for in the education system, the teacher profession may be considered merely as 'unavoidable' by many of those who join it while having different aptitudes and preferences. The consequences of this state of affairs are not, certainly, in the interest of the teaching profession or the institutes training for it.

Another matter that is noteworthy is related to the great difference between the output and the number of indigenous teachers at work in 1972-73. The output of the institutes till the end of 1971-72 was 6,202 and the number of the Saudi Teachers at the primary level in 1972-73 was

3,414 including those with other qualifications. This means (a) at least 2,788 of the institutes' leavers (i.e. about 45 per cent of the output) were not at work as teachers at the primary level; and (b) instead of constituting a high percentage of the primary schools' teachers' cadre, the indigenous teachers only provided about 50 per cent of the total number of teachers employed at this educational level.

This phenomenon has not been studied by the authorities concerned, hence no specific reasons can be given. Nevertheless, as the teaching profession cannot be considered, in the context of the present policy of women's employment, as a bridge-occupation, leaving the service, therefore, can be attributed to two main reasons; first, some might have pursued their education at the academic intermediate and secondary schools. Secondly, the effect of marriage and raising families. As far as the latter is concerned, it is true that lack of data does not allow for accurate figures to be given or conclusions to be drawn, the effect of marriage and having children on termination of study or leaving the job cannot be ignored or even underestimated in the Saudi cultural setting.

As far as the content of the education provided is

Table (16):

The number of institutes and pupils enrolled from 1960-61 till 1971-72 (1380-81 till 1391-92 A.H.)

<u>Year</u>	<u>Number of Institutes</u>	<u>Number of Pupils</u>
1960-61	1	21
1961-62	6	102
1962-63	7	260
1963-64	8	443
1964-65	13	710
1965-66	15	1094
1966-67	17	1718
1967-68	21	2589
1968-69	26	3892
1969-70	26	5480
1970-71	26	5805
1971-72	28	5419
Total of intake:		10,525
Total of output from 1962-63 till 1971-72:		6,202

Sources: (a) 'Statistical Guide to Girls' Education, 1968-69' op.cit., p.87.

(b) 'Statistics on Intermediate and Secondary Education and Kindergarten, 1969-70', op.cit., p.17.

(c) 'The General Statistical Bulletin on Girls' Education, Governmental and Private, 1970-71', op.cit., pp.66-67.

(d) 'The General Statistical Bulletin on Girls' Education, Governmental and Private, 1971-72', op.cit., pp.96-97.

(e) 'The Results of the Examinations of the General Certificates, 1971-72', p.42.

concerned, two curricula have been introduced, the first of which was followed till 1970-71. Both curricula, however, have been affected by the consideration of teacher education as a once and for all process and characterized by broadly and very often vaguely stated aims and objectives. The general aims of the second curriculum, for instance, have been stated in the following terms:

I. To prepare the Saudi woman teacher who will educate our offspring in a way that springs from and complies with the very essence of Islam; cherishes its values, its magnanimous goals and its distinguishing traits, and helps creating the home which is based on the principles of Islam and our noble traditions;

II. To enable the pupils to study the civilization of our nation both in the past and present, to acquaint them with the culture of the country and its place in the Muslim world, to aspire to the fulfillment by this country of the inheritable mission concerning the preservation of Islam and the observance of its teachings, and working towards making life on this peninsula the most ideal example of Muslim life;

III. To provide the pupils of these institutes with the general knowledge necessary for the Muslim girl in the

activities that are related to her life, especially those concerning motherhood, child upbringing and other domestic affairs which make her a good housewife;

IV. To provide them with adequate knowledge in the subjects taught and modern educational methods in order to share the responsibility of educating their fellow women citizens and help the country to meet its need for teachers;

V. To enable the leavers to pursue their education at higher levels. This will satisfy their ambition regarding the acquisition of more knowledge and in the mean time provide the country with those qualified for teaching at the intermediate and secondary education levels or working in other fields which are considered suitable for a Muslim woman.¹

The absence of a properly and logically established basis on which decisions are usually made concerning what should be included and what could be omitted, and because the decisions are sometimes emotionally based, the timetable and the syllabuses have become overcrowded and unbalanced. Furthermore, no clear decision has been taken

1. Saudi Arabia, the General Presidency of Girls' Education, 'The Curriculum of the Intermediate Level of the Institutes of Women Teachers Education', Dar al-Asfahany, Jeddah, the first edition, 1971 (1391 A.H.), Arabic text, p.5.

in respect of whether to train 'the subject teacher' or 'the class teacher'. Although it is hard to conceive how an institution of intermediate education level can train a class teacher, a clear stand, nevertheless, could have served as a background against which the composition of the curriculum might have been considered and analysed.

The subjects taught in the first curriculum were those of religion, Arabic, history, geography, mathematics, hygiene, science, art education, domestic education, education, teaching methods and teaching practice.¹ The number of weekly periods devoted to the subjects relevant to the teaching profession in the first, second and third years of the course was 2, 5 and 7 respectively.² The syllabus of these subjects was identical to that of the abolished primary institutes of the Ministry of Education.³

Even though the second curriculum was introduced ten years after the establishment of the first institute of

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1. Saudi Arabia, the General Presidency of the Schools of Girls, 'the Curriculum of primary teachers education', Matba'at al-Ensha'a, Damascus, 1385-86 A.H. (1965-66 A.D.), Arabic text.
 2. The total weekly periods in the first, second and third years of the course were 36, 38, 38 respectively. Ibid., p.3.
 3. Cf. Ibid., pp.89-91, and; Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, 'The Curriculum of the Primary Institutes of Teachers', Matba'at Nahdat Misr, Cairo, 1379 A.H. (1959), pp.79-81.

woman teacher education, it is apparent that ten years experience has not made any significant contribution towards developing a curriculum that would genuinely serve the purpose of an institution of primary teacher education for women. The curriculum has rather been developed on the lines of that of the intermediate schools.

The following table shows the subjects taught and the number of periods devoted weekly for each subject according to the curricula of both the intermediate schools and the institutes of primary teachers:

Table (17):

Subjects	Institutes of teachers			Intermediate schools			
	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	
Religion	8	7	7	8	8	8	
Arabic	6	5	5	6	5	5	
History and Geography	3	3	3	4	4	4	
Science and Hygiene	4	4	4	4	4	4	
Mathematics	4	4	4	5	5	5	
Art education	3	3	3	2	2	2	
Domestic affairs	3	2	2	2	2	2	
English	5	5	5	5	6	6	
Education, Teaching methods and Training practice	2	4	5	-	-	-	
Totals:	38	38	38	36	36	36	1

1. Sources: (a) 'The Curriculum of the Intermediate Level of the Institutes of Women Teachers' Education, 1971', op.cit., p.8.

(b) Saudi Arabia, The General Presidency of Girls' Education, 'The Curriculum of the Intermediate Level of Girls', Dar al-Asfahani, Jeddah, first edition, 1391 A.H., 1971 A.D., Arabic text, p.3.

Comparison of the syllabuses has revealed that, apart from the subjects relevant to the teaching profession, there is no significant difference and the syllabuses are in fact identical except for a very minor difference in respect of the subjects of science, dictation and English. Applying the syllabuses of the intermediate schools to the institutes of primary teacher education in this way could be attributed to (a) the consideration of the subject matter provided at the intermediate level as the minimum requirement for primary education teachers as far as general education is concerned; (b) the fulfilment of the fifth aim of the curriculum namely that of enabling the leavers to pursue their education at higher levels. Thus, by adopting the syllabuses of the intermediate schools, the leavers of the institutes of teachers can either easily take the final examination of the intermediate education certificate, or automatically join the academic secondary schools; and (c) no fundamental differences have been perceived with regard to the curriculum of the intermediate school and that of the institutes of teachers. This could have resulted from the absence of properly and logically established basis for curriculum development.

Raising the general standard of pupils of the institutes as to be equivalent to that of intermediate education

level was not accompanied by a similar attempt to raise their standard in subjects relevant to the teaching profession. In fact the number of periods devoted to these subjects has been decreased. The reasons for this could be either the consideration of these subjects as subsidiary or that the professional performance of the trained teachers has already been considered satisfactory by the authorities concerned.

The adoption of the syllabuses of the intermediate schools, on the one hand, and the trifling consideration given to subjects relevant to the teaching profession, on the other hand, have not left enough justification for the establishment of separate intermediate institutes for primary teacher education.

In addition to the 'Intermediate Institutes of Women Teachers', the General Presidency of Girls' Education started in 1968-69 (1388-89 A.H.) another course of primary teacher education. It is of two-years duration after the completion of the course of the 'Intermediate Institutes' and has been provided in institutions called 'The Secondary Institutes of Women Teachers'. The leavers can either teach in the primary schools or join the Girls College of Education.¹

1. Saudi Arabia, The General Presidency of Girls' Education, Intermediate Education, 'The Regulation of The Secondary Institutes of Women Teachers', issued under the administrative decision No.1644 dated, 2.11.1388 A.H., 1969, stencilled, Arabic text, Article 4.

According to the original plan, the pupils of the 'Secondary Institutes' would be divided into two sections namely; the scientific section and the literary section but only the latter section has been established. The following table shows the subjects taught and the number of periods devoted weekly to each subject.¹

Table (18):

Subjects	Number of periods per week	
	1st year	2nd year
Religion	3	3
Arabic	9	11
History & Geography	5	7
Educational subjects	8	6
Mathematics	2	2
Science	3	2
Art education & Domestic affairs	2	1
English	6	6
Total:	<u>38</u>	<u>38</u>

If compared with the course provided at the Intermediate Institutes, this course represents, by and large, a step forward in respect of training a better qualified primary education teacher. Apart from general education, more consideration has been given to subjects relevant to

1. Saudi Arabia, the General Presidency of Girls' Education, Intermediate Education, 'The Curriculum of the Secondary Institutes of Women Teachers', stencilled, Arabic text.

the teaching profession. They include; society and social work, education, psychology, curricula, teaching methods and teaching practice. The pupils of the second year of the course have to spend two weeks at schools for their continuous teaching practice.¹

It has been stated, however, that 'the course will be temporarily of two years duration'.² The next step will probably be to put article 172 of 'The Educational Policy' into effect. It reads: "Schooling period for elementary teachers' training shall not be less than the period needed to obtain the secondary certificate. The training of women teachers for this job is done gradually ..."³ It is very likely that the new course will be developed on the same lines as that provided by the Ministry of Education, i.e., of three years duration after the completion of intermediate education.

It might have been more appropriate if the Secondary Institutes of Women Teachers started by providing a three-year instead of a two-year course. The provision of the latter cannot be justified on the ground that the number

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1. 'The Regulation of the Secondary Institutes of Women Teachers', op.cit., Article 11.
 2. 'The Regulation of the Secondary Institutes of Women Teachers', op.cit., Article 3.
 3. 'The Educational Policy in the Saudi Arabian Kingdom', op.cit., Article 172, p.31.

of the leavers of intermediate education level was not sufficient. It has been already established that the number of girls studying at the intermediate schools has been rapidly increasing and the number of leavers rose from 372 in 1965-66 to 1875 in 1971-72.¹ The Secondary Institutes started with 56 pupils.²

Furthermore, the immediate provision of a three-year course would have meant that not only the course provided at the Intermediate Institutes would be gradually abolished, but also that the policy adopted implies that the intermediate course as well as the 'temporary' secondary course will have to be terminated when the new developments take place. Frequent termination and modification of courses are not in the interest of the process of teacher education and they are indicative of a lack of an appropriate policy for teacher education. It is very likely that an unsteady policy will develop an unfavourable reaction from the public regarding the teaching profession and the institutions preparing their children for it.

The future abolishment of the existing course, on the one hand, and the introduction of a new course, on the other

1. The Results of the Examinations of the General Certificates, 1971-72, op.cit., p.48.

2. Table vi.

Table (19):

The number of the Secondary Institutes of Women Teachers since their establishment, and the pupils enrolled.

Year	Institutes	Pupils
1968-69	2	56
1969-70	5	221
1970-71	8	481
1971-72	13	761
the output:		400

1. Sources: (a) 'The Statistical Guide to Girls' Education, 1388-89 A.H., 1968-69 A.D.', op.cit. p.95.
(b) 'Statistics on Intermediate and Secondary Education and the Kindergarten, 1389-90 A.H., 1969-70 A.D.', op.cit., p.29.
(c) 'The Statistical Bulletin on Girls' Education, Governmental and Private, 1390-91 A.H., 1970-71 A.D.', op.cit., p.68.
(d) 'The Statistical Bulletin on Girls' Education, Governmental and Private, 1391-92 A.H., 1971-72 A.D.', op.cit., p.99.
2. 'The Results of the General Certificates Examination, 1391-92 A.H., 1971-72 A.D.', op.cit., p.54.

hand, will mean that intensive in-service programmes have to be introduced not only to keep teachers already in service in touch with new developments in both general and professional education, but also to bridge the wide gap between different standards and qualifications. The more these programmes are postponed the more difficult and complicated the task will be. The problems facing the Ministry of Education in this respect, as referred to in the fourth chapter, can well be taken as a warning.

The Education of Women Teachers at the Tertiary Level:

The education of women teachers for intermediate and secondary schools has been provided by the faculties of Shari'ah and Education, in Mecca, and the Girls College of Education in Riyadh.

In 1968-69 (1388-89 A.H.) the Ministry of Education allowed women to register as external students at the Faculty of Shari'ah and the departments of education and psychology, geography and English in the Faculty of Education in Mecca. At a later stage, a few lectures on some subjects have been given, by women lecturers, but attendance has not been considered compulsory. Most of the students enrolled work for the General Presidency, either as teachers in the primary schools or as administrators. They are mainly from Mecca.

The provision of training future women teachers on the basis of external studentship, though by no means appropriate for intending teachers, was probably due to;

(a) The Ministry of Education has never been the responsible body for the training of women teachers. Nor has there been a special assignment, either on a long or a short term basis, to carry out this responsibility on behalf of the General Presidency of the Education of Girls; (b) the small number of the leavers of secondary education, as indicated above; (c) if the courses had been organized on a full-time basis it would have been attended by those living in Mecca only, and probably by some of those living in Jeddah who can afford to make a daily trip to Mecca; and (d) with the last two points in mind, it is reasonable to assume that not all the leavers of secondary education, in Mecca and Jeddah, would be interested in studies preparing for the teaching profession.

Whatever the reasons may be, this step has to be considered as an emergency measure. There are, in fact, signs indicating the gradual transformation of the course to a full-time one. In case the course remains to be provided by the two faculties, which have been attached

to King Abdulaziz University, then future developments may include the utilization of the university teaching staff, through the closed-circuit television,¹ and library and laboratory facilities.

Table (20):

The number of women students enrolled at the faculties of Shari'ah and Education in Mecca. 2

Year	Shari'ah	Arabic	History	Education	Geog.	English
1968-69	2	2	3	50	3	7
1969-70	3	11	7	71	5	17
1970-71	6	18	20	91	5	30
1971-72	36	36	31	121	7	40

The Girls' College of Education:

The college was established in 1970-71 (1390-91 A.H.) by the General Presidency of Girls' Education. It started with 81 students and in 1971-72 the intake was 113 students. The conditions for admission have been stated in the following terms: the candidate should (a) have the secondary education certificate or the certificate of the Secondary Institutes of Women Teachers; (b) sign a bond to work after graduation as a teacher in the schools controlled by the General Presidency of Girls' Education; (c) be physically fit; (d) follow her study as a full-time student.³

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1. It has already been in operation in the University in Jeddah.
 2. As supplied by the faculties concerned, a type-script.
 3. A bulletin issued by the College, stencilled, Arabic text, p.1.

Two conditions of these are worth consideration. First, allowing the holders of the Secondary Institutes of Women Teachers to join the College would imply that a special programme has to be introduced to raise their standards so as to become equivalent to that of the leavers of secondary education. The data available do not indicate that such a programme has been worked out. Secondly, the bond signed by a women student is not likely to be as effective as that signed by a male student. On religious grounds, the woman teacher can leave the service because of marriage, for instance, or having children.

The College has adopted the approach of the Faculty of Education of Riyadh University, namely the major-minor studies system. The subjects taught are divided into three categories; general education, major and minor fields of study, and subjects relevant to the teaching profession. The distribution of lectures varies from one year of study to another as shown in the following table:

Table (21):

	Number of Lectures per week			
	General Education	Subjects relevant to teaching	Major & Minor studies	Total
The first year	12	4	13	29
The second year	7	6	16	29
The third year	3	10	16	29
The fourth year	3	10	16	29

1, Ibid.

The brevity of period for the establishment and development of the College, on the one hand, and the scarcity of data available on the period with which we are concerned, on the other hand, do not allow for any further analysis and comment. Nevertheless, it seems safe to conclude that the academic and administrative difficulties¹ facing the College at present are likely to continue for some time to come, and imply that co-ordination of efforts with Riyadh University as well as the utilization of its facilities have to be established and maintained.

The above account clearly indicates that the provision of teacher education for women has a long way to go to meet the requirements of a rapidly expanding system of education. Here, two more factors have to be considered. First, the training institutions are greatly dependent upon expatriates. Whilst the College of Education for Women and the Secondary Institutes for Women Teachers have been entirely staffed by non-Saudis, the number of the Saudi staff in the Intermediate Institutes of Women Teachers in 1971-72 was 34 out of 327 teacher educators employed². Yet, no provision has been made to provide the training institutions with adequately trained indigenous teacher educators.

1. Resulting from the great shortage of staff.

2. The General Presidency of the Education of Girls, Statistical Bulletin, 1971-72, op.cit., p.100.

Secondly, apart from the difficulties shared with the education system for men in respect of teacher recruitment, the women education system has also its own difficulties which stem from its distinguishing character. The following account sheds light on the difficulties being experienced by the authorities responsible for women's education.

The shortage of women teachers in the Arab world is general and not confined to certain fields of specialization as it is the case with men teachers. This situation is further complicated by the fact that Saudi Arabia gets its women teachers from certain Arab states such as Egypt, Syria and Jordan, and the same states supply as well other Arab countries with women teachers. Competition, therefore, is inevitable.

Closely linked with this point is that, for religious and other socio-cultural considerations, in the Arab world it is easier for men than it is for women to leave their respective countries for work abroad. Hence, the availability of women teachers does not necessarily imply that the needs of the schools of girls can easily be met.

Moreover, for a variety of reasons, both religious and social, the expatriate woman teacher is not allowed to

come to the Kingdom without being accompanied by a male adult of her close relatives (the Mahram)¹. Experience has shown that in many cases, while a suitable candidate for a teaching post was found, a contract could not be signed because the candidate had no Mahram to accompany her. In other cases, the contract could not be finalized because the Mahram, for one reason or the other, was rejected. Difficulties also arise if the Mahram does not find a suitable job while staying in the country and thus might decide to return home.

1. This policy is also followed in other fields of work but with varying degrees of strictness.

CHAPTER FOUR: IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS

Basic Principles and Considerations:

This is an age of change. It requires new and rapid adjustment. Moreover, the accumulation of knowledge appears to be endless and will be accelerated as the years go by. Teachers, and the educational authorities as a whole, have to be aware of these facts if the instruction provided in the schools is to be maintained in quality and related to contemporary needs.

Within this context, pre-service education, however long it may be, is merely a starting-point in a life-long process of academic and professional growth. "It is self-evident that pre-service education and training ... can be no more than a foundation. In that initial period it is impossible to foresee, let alone to provide for, all the demands may fall on the teaching profession in future, or on individual members of it during their careers."¹

The provision of in-service education for teachers, and indeed for other key personnel in the education service, should therefore be considered as a matter of must and

1. Department of Education and Science, Teacher Education and Training, A Report by a Committee of Inquiry appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science, under the Chairmanship of Lord James of Rusholme, HMSO., London, 1972. Para.2.3,P.6.

thus to be planned as an integral part of pre-service education, albeit different in nature, content and methodology. Attendance has to be compulsory by all teachers; the mature and the beginner, the good and not-so-good. This implies the provision of a wide variety of programmes to meet different standards and serve multiple purposes. Naturally, the length of courses, their types, content and methodology are determined by a number of factors. Some of these are; the objectives to be achieved, the initial qualifications of trainees and their actual experience, the financial resources and the teaching staff available.

It therefore appears safe to conclude that co-ordination of efforts between institutions responsible for pre-service and in-service education, on the one hand, and the employers, on the other hand, has to be maintained. With these complications and requirements in mind, in-service training, to be carried out successfully, has to be highly organized. If based on ad hoc decisions or run by ad hoc committees, the programmes may turn out to be a mere waste of money, time and energy.

In the developing countries, the provision of adequate in-service education cannot be easily achieved. Most of these countries are almost entirely preoccupied with the

provision of pre-service education to meet the increasing needs of their systems of education. Furthermore, in-service education may constitute a heavy burden on an already exhausted educational system in terms of financial or man-power resources, or possibly both. This is further complicated by the fact that while in the developed countries "the tendency is to lengthen the period of pre-service training and to raise the minimum qualifications required of candidates for entering into the teaching profession",¹ the situation in the developing countries is quite different. Here, apart from the reasonably qualified teachers, there are; (a) the unqualified old teachers; "In a rapidly developing education system there is no more difficult problem than the educational background of the older teachers. Often through no fault of their own ... find themselves increasingly inadequate as the educational standards of their pupils overhaul theirs".² (b) There are the young emergency teachers who are likely to forget their already limited knowledge and simple skills if in-service education and training do not start immediately after their recruitment. In these cases, unless the priority is carefully

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1. Lewis, L.J., "Getting Good Teachers for Developing Countries", *International Review of Education*, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, Vol.XVI, No.4, 1970, p.397.
 2. Lucas, E., "The Faculty and Institute of Education in the University College of East Africa", *Teacher Education*, Vol.1, No.2, November 1960, Oxford University Press, p.51.

established the provision of in-service education for the unqualified teachers may be accomplished at the expense of the qualified.

All these considerations should provide a framework within which in-service education in Saudi Arabia may be analysed and examined. The issues involved are those essentially relevant to the consequences resulting from the employment of teachers with the very minimum of qualifications, as emergency teachers, in the primary schools; the recruitment of primary teachers with qualifications equivalent to the intermediate level certificate and the realization of the need to raise their standards to that of the leavers of the present institutions of primary teachers; the preoccupation of the Ministry of Education with the provision of in-service education for the unqualified teachers at the expense of the qualified teachers at both the intermediate and secondary levels; and that neither the tertiary level teacher-training institutions nor the General Presidency of the Education of Girls have made significant contribution in this field. Reference will also be made to the programmes hitherto provided.

In-service education, in the period with which we are concerned, has been the responsibility of the Ministry of

Education alone. The General Presidency of the Colleges and Religious Institutes, the Faculties of Education and Shari'ah, of King Abdulaziz and Riyadh universities, have not played any role in this field. Nor has there been any programme of in-service education for women teachers.

As far as the General Presidency of the Colleges and Religious Institutes is concerned, no reference has been made to in-service education as being one of the objectives of its colleges. This can be attributed to the fact that teacher education is still considered as a subsidiary objective, even though the colleges of Shari'ah and Arabic have played a significant role in the education of the teachers of the disciplines provided at the colleges.¹ Furthermore, it seems that the needs of the teachers of the Religious Institutes, controlled by the same authority, for continuous education and professional training have not been realised.

With regard to the above mentioned faculties of Riyadh and King Abdulaziz universities, it has been clearly stated in their regulations that in-service education, not only for teachers but also for schools inspectors and headmasters, and other key personnel, is one of their main objectives.

1. Cf. chapter 2.

For no apparent reason, however, this aim has not been fulfilled.

Moreover, in-service education has been provided almost exclusively for two groups of teachers; the teachers who were appointed in the early years after the establishment of the Ministry, irrespective of basic qualifications, to meet the needs of primary schools, and the holders of the certificate of the abolished 'Primary Institutes of Teachers'. It seems that the low standards of these two categories of teachers, on the one hand, and their numbers, on the other hand, have obscured the importance of in-service education and training of teachers with higher qualifications within primary education itself, notably those who have the certificate of the present institutions of teacher education for primary schools. This is likely to result in the deterioration of their academic and professional competence.

The preoccupation of the Ministry with the provision of in-service training for the unqualified teachers of primary schools, and the absence of the contribution of higher education in this field, have affected the qualified and unqualified teachers of intermediate and secondary education. Leaving for a while the former teachers, no programme of in-service education has been provided for

the unqualified teachers. It was in 1964 that al-Bassam and Akrawi first drew the attention to the fact that a high percentage of the teachers of intermediate and secondary schools was not graduate and 99% of the graduate teachers were unqualified. They stated in their report to the Ministry of Education that this state of affairs would affect the quality of education, and suggested that;

(a) the graduate teachers should attend summer courses in subjects relevant to the teaching profession; (b) the teachers who have the certificate of secondary education or its equivalent, and still young, should be encouraged to join the Faculty of Education in Mecca as full-time students; and, (c) those of the same category but whose responsibilities towards their families may prevent them from joining the faculty should attend summer courses over a number of years to raise their academic and professional standards.¹

To raise the standards of primary teachers who were appointed without having had any formal education, the Ministry adopted two of the traditionally knowntypes of in-service education, namely; the evening classes, known under the name of 'The Evening Institutes of Teachers',

1. Al-Bassam, A.A., and Akrawi, M., op.cit., pp.2 and 8.

and the summer vacation courses. As for the teachers who have the certificate of the abolished 'Primary Institutes of Teachers', their in-service training has been provided at two centres called 'The Centres of Supplementary Studies for Teachers'.

The Evening Institutes of Teachers:

Studies in these institutes started in 1955¹ (1375 A.H.). Each course lasted a period of three academic years. The objectives of the course were to increase the general knowledge of the emergency teachers, to acquaint them with the principles of education and child psychology, the behaviour problems of children and the methods of solving them.²

The introduction of the first curriculum, published in 1957 (1377 A.H.) indicates that prior to 1957 different curricula had been in use, and that 'because of the effective role of the evening studies in increasing the general knowledge of primary teachers already in service, improving their professional performance and making them better equipped to undertake the responsibilities of educating primary school children, the Ministry of Education has decided to

1. A Report on the Preparation and Training of Teachers in 16 years, op.cit., p.5.
2. Ibid., p.5.

take care of the 'Evening Institutes of Teachers',¹ and that their plans of study and curricula should be unified instead of being diversified".²

The reason for applying different curricula in the first two years of the establishment of the institutes could not be detected from the data available.³ This situation is further complicated by the facts that the education system itself is highly centralized and the schools of each educational level follow a unified curriculum, and that the result of the experience that took place in the first two years after the initiation of the evening courses has not been evaluated. However, speculation here does not serve a useful purpose and light, therefore, cannot be shed on those two years of development and their bearing upon subsequent stages of development.

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1. Ma^ʿāhid al-Mu^ʿallimīn al-Lailiyyah.
 2. Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Manāhidj Ma^ʿāhid al-Mu^ʿallimīn al-Lailiyyah, (The Curricula of the Evening Institutes of Teachers), first edition, 1377 A.H. (1957), Matābi^ʿ al-Riyāḍ, Arabic text, p.3.
 3. Only two documents could be obtained from the Ministry of Education that give reference to these institutes. These are; (a) A Report on the Preparation and Training of Teachers in 16 years, op.cit., and (b) The Stages of Teacher Preparation in Saudi Arabia, op.cit. The account given in both reports is very brief as more concentration has been made on the later stages of the development of in-service education. Nor has contact with official personnel resulted in any response.

The issue that seems to have played, and is still playing, a fundamental role in deciding one curriculum or the other, is whether to train and recruit the 'class teacher' or the 'subject teacher'. The curriculum of 1957 (1377 A.H.) emphasised the second approach but the target set for the curriculum of 1959 (1379 A.H.) was to train the class teacher.

The plan of study mentioned in the first curriculum shows that the trainees were divided into two sections; the section of religious and Arabic studies, and the section of mathematics, science and social studies.¹ Table (22) shows the names of subjects taught and the periods devoted to each.

The division of trainees into these two sections; religion and Arabic, on the one hand, and all other subjects, on the other hand, though unprecedented and rarely followed, can be interpreted as a reflection of a similar emphasis characterizing the curriculum of primary education. The curriculum of this educational level in the same period, 1956 (1376 A.H.) shows that the periods of religious and Arabic subjects constituted almost 71 per cent of the total periods given.²

1. These included history and geography only.

2. Cf. Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, *Manhadj al-Dirāsah al-Ibtidā'iyyah*, (The Curriculum of Primary Study), 1376 A.D. (1956), *Matābi' al-Bilād al-Sāūdiyyah*, Mecca, Arabic text.

Table (22):

The subjects taught at the Evening Institutes of Teachers, according to the curriculum of 1957 (1377 A.H.) and the weekly periods devoted to each subject weekly. 1

A. The Section of Religion and Arabic:

Subjects	No. of weekly periods		
	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
Arabic Cultural Studies	6	4	4
Religious Studies	2	1	1
Principles of Education and Psychology	2	2	2
Teaching methods of Arabic	-	2	2
Teaching methods of Religion	-	1	1
Total:	10	10	10

B. Sections of Maths. Science and Social Studies:

General Studies in mathematics and science	6	4	4
General Studies in social subjects	2	2	2
Principles of education and psychology	2	2	2
Teaching methods of mathematics and science	-	1	1
Teaching methods of social subjects	-	1	1
Total:	10	10	10

1, The Curriculum of the Evening Institutes of Teachers, 1957 (1377 A.H.) op.cit., p.5.

Training the 'subject teacher' was a short-lived policy. It was two years later, 1959, that another curriculum was issued, according to which the trainees were subjected to one programme of in-service education. The subjects were arranged under two main headings; namely, 'cultural studies', and 'educational and cultural studies'. The former included Arabic, religion, mathematics, principles of science and hygiene, history and geography, drawing and hand-work. They were taught in the first half of the year. The latter included Arabic and religion, principles of education and psychology, teaching methods and general discussion. They were provided in the second half of the year.¹ Table (23) shows the number of periods devoted to each subject weekly.

The training of the 'class teacher' remained as the goal of the evening institutes till they were abolished in 1964-65, (1384-85 A.H.).² The abolishment was justified on the ground that 'the institutes have achieved their task of training the emergency teachers'.³

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1. Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, The curriculum of the Evening Institutes of Teachers, 1379 A.H. (1959), Maṭbaʿat Nahḍat Maṣr, al-Fajjalah, Cairo, Arabic text.
 2. 'The report of the Department of teachers' institutes', and 'the stages of teachers' preparation in Saudi Arabia', op.cit., p.5 and p.18 respectively.
 3. Ibid., same pages.

Table (23):

The number of periods devoted to each subject weekly. 1

	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
<u>I. Cultural Studies:</u> ²			
Arabic and religion	3	3	3
Mathematics, principles of science and hygiene	3	3	3
Geography and history	2	2	2
Drawings and hand-work	2	2	2
Total:	10	10	10
<u>II. Educational and Cultural Studies:</u> ³			
Arabic and religion	2	1	-
Principles of education and psychology	2	3	3
Arabic and religion teaching methods	2	2	2
Mathematics and science teaching methods	1	1	1
Social studies teaching methods	1	1	1
Drawing and hand-work teaching methods	1	1	1
General discussion	1	1	2
Total:	10	10	10

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1. Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, Manāhidj Ma'āhid al-Mu'allimīn al-Lailiyyah, (The Curricula of the Evening Institutes of Teachers), 1379 A.H. (1959), Matha at Nahdat Misr, Cairo, Arabic text, p.4.
 2. Taught in the first half of the year.
 3. Taught in the second half of the academic year.

Neither curriculum was based on experimentation in the field of in-service education but rather on the curriculum of the abolished 'Primary Institutes of Teachers'.¹ This indicates the assumption that, with some modification, the curriculum of the pre-service training institutions could serve the purpose of in-service training. It also indicates that the educational standard of trainees was taken for granted as being equivalent to that of the entrants of the pre-service institutions. But there is no evidence that this starting-point was accompanied by a corresponding definition of the goal to be achieved or the standard to be attained by the end of the course. These considerations, coupled with the time factor, have resulted in an ad hoc choice of content as seemed fit and proper.

Comparative analysis of both curricula of the 'Evening Institutes', on the one hand, and in relation to the curriculum of the abolished 'Primary Institutes of Teachers' has led to the following observations. First, as a result of assigning different objectives for each of the curricula of the 'Evening Institutes', namely; the training of the subject teacher and the training of the class teacher, more

1. Cf. Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, the Curriculum of the Primary Institutes of Teachers, 1379 A.H., 1959 A.D., op.cit.

concentration on subject matter was allowed in the first curriculum. This came as a result of devoting more time for each subject than it was possible in the second curriculum, which had to cover a wider range of subjects. It is true that more knowledge could be provided in the first curriculum, as far as the field of specialization was concerned, but it is equally true that this could be achieved only at the expense of the overall education of the trainees.

Secondly, the general education that was provided for in the curricula of the Evening Institutes, by and large, fell short of that provided at the Primary Institutes of Teachers. This is manifested in; (a) the absence of some subjects such as the interpretation of the Koran, dictation, calligraphy and algebra; (b) the omission of some topics of the syllabuses; and (c) the omission of the whole syllabus of some subjects which were taught in the third year of the pre-service course, such as history and geography.

Thirdly, the content of the subjects of the principles of education, psychology and teaching methods remained essentially the same in all three curricula under review. This was maintained despite the fact that the number of periods devoted to them was considerably less in the curricula of the Evening Institutes. One result of providing

such overloaded syllabuses was the fact that the emphasis was laid on the theoretical aspects of the pedagogical studies to the extent of the neglect of practical training; "the plan of study and the curricula [of the Evening Institutes and the summer vacation courses - my italics_] are theoretically biased. There is, for example, a course on the audio-visual aids but the curricula are devoid of the subjects of drawing and hand-work without which the teacher cannot be able to produce the audio-visual aids needed for his work at school. The trainees also study the methods of Herbert, Froebel, Montessori and Dewey but no practical teaching under the supervision of the trainees' educators is required."¹

Fourthly, the curricula of the Evening Institutes were essentially compartmentalized in character. Nevertheless, an effort could be detected in the second curriculum, albeit very limited, to break away from this traditional feature of curriculum development in general. This attempt is particularly apparent in the syllabus of religious education. The organisation of its subjects under the heading of 'cultural studies' can be considered as a manifestation of this new approach. Some significant results might have been

1. Cf. Abdulhadi, M., op.cit., P.24.

achieved in this respect had the curriculum of the pre-service institutions not been taken as a model and a genuine attempt had been made to develop a curriculum for in-service training taking into account the actual weaknesses of trainees, their age-groups, their previous experience in teaching - however limited it might have been - the time factor and the subsequent courses of further in-service training. At this point, it is only fair to add that the establishment of the Evening Institutes represent the first experience in the field of in-service education and training, yet it had to be carried out amid a vast shortage of professionally qualified personnel.

As the Evening Institutes were limited in number and¹ existed mainly in some towns and large villages, attendance by all the teachers of the same standard was not compulsory. More significant perhaps is the fact that the completion of the course did not necessarily imply either professional or financial recognition. There is hardly, if at all, any reference to the certificate awarded upon the completion of the course among the qualifications of the teachers of primary education. On the other hand, failure to attend

1. Their number in 1956-57 was 8 institutes. Cf. The Arab League, the Cultural Department, *Halakt Iṣādād al-Muḥallim al-ʿAraby*, (A Symposium on the Preparation of the Arab Teacher) Beirut, August 1957, Maṭbaʿat Ladjnat al-Taʿlīm wa al-Tardjamah wa al-Nashr, 1958. Arabic text, p.63.

or pass the course did not mean the termination of service.

The Summer Vacation Courses:

These courses were started in 1954 (1374 A.H.) and were terminated in 1965 (1385 A.H.).¹ They were attended by primary education teachers who had no formal qualifications as well as those who had completed the course of the Evening Institutes. Both categories of teachers were subjected to one programme of in-service training. The duration of each course was one hundred days divided into two successive years. The trainees were nominated by their respective educational zones.

The objectives of these courses, like those of the Evening Institutes were stated in vague and rather broad terms if considered in the light of (a) the low educational standard of the trainees; and (b) the relatively short period of time decided for the completion of the courses.² The ambiguity of objectives affected the summer courses in two ways, namely; the frequent change of curriculum and uncertainty about whether to concentrate on the provision of general education or on the subjects relevant to professional education and training. This is illustrated by the following

1. A Report on the Preparation and Training of Teachers in 16 years, op.cit., pp.5 & 7.

2. The same as those of the Evening Institutes.

two tables.

Table (24):

The Plan of Study, Summer Vacation Courses:
the first approach. 1

Subjects	No. of periods per week	
	1st year	2nd year
Arabic, and the teaching methods of Arabic and religion	8	8
Science, hygiene, and school health and special teaching methods	4	4
Arithmetic, geometry, and special teaching methods	6	6
Geography, history and special teaching methods	5	5
Education and educational psychology	4	4
The primary school	1	1
Art education, and audio-visual aids	6	6
Reading, research, and discussion	2	2
Total:	36	36

1. The stages of the preparation of teachers in Saudi Arabia,
op.cit., p.14.

Table (25):

The Plan of Study, Summer Vacation Courses:
the second approach. 1

Subjects	No. of periods per week	
	the section of social studies	the section of maths. & sc.
Education and psychology	6	6
Teaching methods of Arabic	6	6
Teaching methods of religion	2	2
Teaching methods of social studies	3	-
Teaching methods of mathematics	-	2
Teaching methods of geography	4	-
Teaching methods of history	4	-
School health	2	2
Arabic grammar, reading, composition and dictation	9	9
Teaching methods of hygiene	-	1
Mathematics	-	5
Total:	36	36

Table 24 shows that in the early years of the initiation of the summer courses instruction covered subjects relevant to general education and the professional training. The former included religion, Arabic, social studies, science, hygiene, arithmetic, geometry, art education, and reading and discussion. The subjects relevant to professional training included; education, educational psychology, the primary

1, A Report on the Preparation and Training of Teachers in 16 years, op.cit., p.6.

school, audio-visual aids and teaching methods. This implies that the goal set for the courses was to train the class teacher.

The organization of subjects as indicated by Table (25) represents a different approach which was based on the division of trainees into two sections; the section of social subjects and the section of science and mathematics. The emphasis was placed on the theoretical aspect of education and psychology. For no apparent reason, no instruction was given in history, geography, science or even religion, but the trainees studied Arabic, and those of the section of mathematics and science, studied mathematics but not science. Bearing in mind that some of the trainees were from those who had no formal education, the exclusion of subjects relevant to general education seems indefensible.

It seems, however, that the summer courses achieved some important social aims as a result of being residential; "attendance by teachers from all over the country, with different customs and habits, made it possible to exchange ideas, make friends and acquaint the participant with the various local traditions."¹ But, whether the trainees

1 The Stages of the Preparation of Teachers in Saudi Arabia, op.cit., p.16.

were encouraged to exchange ideas and discuss the different educational problems facing them as individual teachers, and hence analyse the findings in the light of the theoretical knowledge, remains to be seen, bearing in mind the observations made by Mr M. Abdulhadi, which were referred to earlier.¹

The summer courses were terminated in 1965 and it has been estimated that the total number of trainees who participated in these courses was about 935.²

In the light of the above review, the following considerations may be worth mentioning. First, in-service education, like any other courses, should be preceded by the accumulation of relevant data and fundamental research work. The findings of research should provide the authorities concerned not only with clearly identified starting-points but also with realistically stated objectives to be fulfilled gradually in well defined stages of progress. And as such should provide a base for regular evaluation. The absence of research findings is at the root of the shortcomings of the programmes provided by the Evening Institutes and summer courses.

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1. See p.174.
 2. Ibid., p.16.

Secondly, it is true that the Evening Institutes and the summer courses represent the first experience in the field of in-service education, but it is equally true that the creation of the proper machinery for planning and implementing the courses could have brought about some better results. At this point, reference must be made to the noticeable absence of emphasis upon creating such a machinery in the major reports presented to the Ministry of Education in the 1950s and early 1960s, i.e., in the period during which the above mentioned courses were actually in existence. The reports are virtually those of the prominent Egyptian educationist the late Mr Ismā'īl Al- Qabbānī which was presented in 1955 (1375 A.H.), and the report of the then advisor of the Ministry, Mr M. Abdulhadi, presented in 1957 (1376 A.H.), and the report of the joint Unesco/FAO/ILO mission in 1962.

All these reports referred to the great shortage of teachers, the inadequacy of the qualifications of primary teachers and the consideration of the then existing Primary Institutes of Teachers as temporary or emergency institutions. In addition, they refer to the need for in-service training. The first report referred to the courses without comment, (p.17). The second report refers to the courses

and states that training was theoretical and little attention was given to practical work and carries recommendations regarding the modification of the plan of study, (p.24). The third report, though it does not refer to the courses but recommends, nevertheless, that "a vigorous and enlightened programme of in-service courses should be arranged", (pp.18-19). A relatively more comprehensive assessment of the above courses and the reference to the fact that the development of in-service programmes is a full-time job could have contributed to the creation of the appropriate machinery and consequently the improvement of in-service education programmes in terms of organization, content and methodology.

Thirdly, the above mentioned courses should have been supplemented by continuous on-the-job training. Experience has shown that a short course will not succeed unless it is followed by continuous efforts to keep the new standard alive in the teacher's daily work.

The Centres of Supplementary Studies for Teachers:¹

As referred to earlier, the main concern of the Evening Institutes of Teachers and the Summer Vacation

1, Marākiz al-Dirāsāt al-Takmīliyyah Lilmu^ʿallimīn.

Courses was to raise the standard of teachers possessing no formal qualifications. The course that followed has been concerned with the teachers who had the certificate of the abolished 'Primary Institutes of Teachers'. It has been provided in two institutions called 'The Centres of Supplementary Studies for Teachers'. They were established in 1965-66 (1385-86 A.H.) in Riyadh and Ṭā'if.¹ The decision to establish these two centres came as an immediate consequence of raising the minimum qualifications required for admission to primary teacher education institutions from the certificate of primary education to that of the intermediate level. Hence, the Ministry of Education decided to provide a full-time course so that the educational and professional standard of the leavers of the abolished 'Primary Institutes of Teachers' would become equivalent to that of the leavers of the present institutions, namely; 'The Institutes of Teachers for the Primary Level'. As an incentive, all the trainees were to receive their full salary. In addition, those trainees who lived outside Riyadh and Ṭā'if were to receive a further allowance of 50 per cent of their salary to meet the additional cost of living in Riyadh and

1. The Stages of the Preparation of Teachers in Saudi Arabia, op.cit., p.25.

Tā'if.¹

Prior to 1968-70 (1389-90 A.H.), the duration of study was twenty-two months intervened by a one-month vacation. The curriculum of the Institutes of Teachers for the Primary Level was taken as a model. The trainees had to study thirty subjects. Those who failed in the final examination of the course were not allowed to repeat the course but could go back to their schools and resume teaching. Their promotion in the scale of salary would be affected as priority would be given to those who completed the course successfully.²

The provision of in-service education, in general, and for teachers with the very minimum of qualifications, in particular, might be more effective if based on providing adequate facilities to ensure the trainees' gradual and continuous academic and professional growth. In fact, in-service training, in some cases, has to become individualized as far as possible. Accordingly, heavy reliance upon final examinations and over-emphasising the importance of their results in the assessment of the progress made by trainees may obscure the real significance behind the provision of in-service education and may result in their

1, A Report on the Preparation and Training of Teachers in
16 years, op.cit., p.10
2. Ibid., p.10

programmes being conceived as a challenging, once and for all process. Moreover, unnecessary failure may create unfavourable reaction by teachers towards in-service training.

Furthermore, allowing the unsuccessful candidates to go back to their respective schools and resume teaching is a policy that can hardly be justified. It may well be assumed that at least some of, if not all, those who resumed teaching might harbour ill-feelings that would certainly be damaging to their productivity and relationship with both colleagues and pupils. It would have been more appropriate if a re-orientation course, or courses, had been provided so that they might have been transferred to other fields of work.

It seems, however, that the shortcomings of the course in its initial stage of development were essentially due to working out the curriculum and deciding the time needed for the completion of the syllabuses before objectively assessing the standards of candidates. "It was noticed that the curriculum of the Centres was not suitable for the trainees. Their educational standard was low and they forgot much of what they had learnt in the abolished Primary Institutes of Teachers. This was what prompted the Ministry to set up

committees to modify the curriculum. The task was accomplished and the modified curriculum was put into effect in 1387-88 A.H., (1967-68 A.D.)."¹

With the view of improving the courses provided at the Centres, the Ministry of Education invited in 1968 Dr. Is'haq Farhan (a distinguished Jordanian educationist) to investigate the situation and advise upon the improvement of the work of the Centres. As a result of visiting the Centres, discussing the issues involved with all those concerned, examining the modified curriculum and holding a test for the trainees who had already spent the first eleven months at the Centre of Riyadh, Dr Farhan was able to produce a report and to draw up a number of recommendations.²

These can be summarized as follows:

i. There should be an immediate plan for re-organizing the course so that the trainees would take less subjects in a given period of time. This would involve the division of

1, Saudi Arabia, Ministry of Education, A general report on the Institutes of Teacher Education for the primary level, the Centres of the Supplementary Studies for the leavers of the abolished Primary Institutes of Teachers and what has been achieved in the field of teacher preparation in five years; 1384-88 A.H., (1964-68), prepared by the Director of the Department of Teachers Institutes, Arabic text, stencilled, p.4.

2. Farhan, I., Takrīr Hawla Tatwīr Al-Marākiz Al-Takmī-liyyah Li'idād Al-Mu'allimīn fi Al-Mamlakah Al-'Arabiyyah Al-Sa'udiyyah, (A Report on the Development of the Centres of the Supplementary Studies for Teachers in Saudi Arabia), 27.3.1388 A.H., 23.6.1968 A.D., Arabic text stencilled.

the twenty-two months of study into four terms. The subjects should be distributed among these terms so that the trainees would not study more than fifteen subjects, in the average, at each term instead of studying thirty subjects simultaneously;

ii. The examination rules should be eased. Instead of one final examination, each term would consist of three tests in addition to individual assignments; to include small pieces of research work and short papers. For a grading system, 15 per cent should be given to each of the first two tests, 10 per cent for assignments, and 60 per cent for the final test in each term. The trainees would be allowed to register in the next term only if passing the previous one or if they failed in no more than three subjects. Those who failed in more than three subjects would be dismissed;

iii. The trainees differed greatly in their educational standards. The percentage of those who benefited from previous programmes was around 30 per cent of the trainees attending. Candidates, therefore, should be carefully selected. To implement this, evening and summer courses should be provided all over the country, with the utilization of broadcasting and television services, for

prospective candidates. Those who joined these evening and summer courses should be interviewed by a special committee for the final selection for the Centres;

iv. Apart from these temporary measures, a substantial development should be planned for. This would include; (a) admission should be based on passing an examination at intermediate education level and the satisfaction of the interview committee. (b) A course should be provided to raise the academic standard of the leavers of the abolished Primary Institutes of teachers to qualify them for admission to the Centres. (c) The primary teachers who have the certificate of the intermediate education level should be allowed to join the Centres. (d) The course provided at the Centres should be lengthened to three academic years instead of twenty months. This would give the trainees ample time to assimilate new knowledge and skills. (e) The number of subjects should be reduced without affecting the standard required. This could be maintained by dividing each academic year into two terms;

v. Adequate attention should be given to the recruitment of qualified administrative, teaching and technical staff. The teaching methods also should be improved. Similarly, adequate library and laboratory facilities should

be provided.

Dr. Farhan also suggested a new plan of study including the subjects to be taught in the recommended three years of study. He referred to twelve million riyals having been spent on the Centres, but does not indicate whether this is the capital expenditure or the total amount including capital and recurrent expenditure up to the time of his investigation. In any event, the important point is his opinion that the level of training provided was too low in relation to the cost.¹

A special committee was set up in 1388 A.H., 1968 A.D., in the Ministry of Education to study the curriculum of the Centres in the light of the reports and observations made on the whole programme. The committee; "having considered the curriculum of these two centres, the report of Dr. Farhan and the investigation carried out by the Department of the Institutes of Teachers, has come to the conclusion that there are two main causes for the shortcomings of these two centres; first, the educational standard of the trainees, particularly in Arabic, mathematics and science, is so low that they are unable to pursue their studies according to the adopted

1 Ibid.

curriculum. Secondly, the duration of each term is too long; eleven months, and the numerous subjects provided for would not allow for concentration of efforts. Accordingly, the committee recommends that; first, a written test should be organised in the academic year 1389-90 A.H., (1969-70) in the subjects of Arabic, mathematics and science to choose the candidates who can follow the course provided at the Centres. Secondly, the provision of evening studies in all educational zones, especially in places where there is a large number of the leavers of the abolished Primary Institutes of Teachers, aiming at raising the standard of trainees in Arabic, mathematics and science. These evening courses should also prepare for admission to the Centres for the academic year 1390-91 A.H. (1970-71). Thirdly, the re-consideration of the duration of study in the Centres and the present curriculum so that the two-term system would be substituted by a three-term system with the duration of each term being seven and a half months."¹ The committee also submitted a project plan to implement its recommendations. These were finally endorsed by the Minister in 1389 A.H., (1969).

1. Cf. the Minute of the Meeting, No.34/26 dated 26.1.1389 A.H., (1969), Arabic text, stencilled.

The selection of candidates for the Centres for 1969-70 (1389-90 A.H.) was based on the result of a written examination set by the Ministry. It included the subjects of the Holy Koran, Arabic, mathematics and general science, at the level of the third year of the abolished Primary Institutes of Teachers. The number of successful candidates was 500 out of 1,148 teachers who sat for the examination.¹

Most of the plan recommended by the committee was adopted and acted upon. 1969-70 (1389-90 A.H.) witnessed the establishment of thirty local centres (Maḳar) to provide qualifying studies for the leavers of the abolished Primary Institutes of Teachers. Each programme is of seven months duration and provides a general revision in Arabic, mathematics and science at the level of the abolished institutes. An examination is set at the end of the programme for the final selection of candidates for the two centres. The number of those who took the examination in 1969-70 was 1,133. The number of successful trainees was 693 out of whom 500 were accepted at the two centres.²

The duration of the course provided at the Centres of Riyadh and Ta'if has become, since 1969-70, twenty-four

1. A Report on the Preparation and Training of Teachers in 16 years, op.cit., (see appendix 1, for 1969-70 (1389-90 A.H.)), p.3).

2. Ibid., p.4.

months divided into three terms, each of which is of seven and a half months duration excluding a few weeks for examination purpose and mid-term vacations. The examination rules have been modified as to include periodical as well as final examinations, but no credits are given to assignments as suggested by Dr. Farhan.¹

There is a considerable difference between the plan of study proposed by Dr Farhan and that adopted by the Ministry. This can be attributed to the fact that the former was based on the assumption that the duration of the course would be three academic years and each year would be of nine months duration. The academic year would be divided into two terms. The latter plan of study is traditional in character and the curriculum is virtually that of the present Institutes of Teachers for the Primary Level with some minor modifications. This has been justified on the ground that the aim of the course is to raise the standard of the trainees to become equivalent to that of the leavers of the present institutes. Table (26) shows the subjects taught.

The above account and the consideration of the curriculum lead to the following observations: first, had the

1. Ibid., pp.12-13.

course provided at the two Centres been preceded by relevant research work, collection of data and the evaluation of the past experience in the field of in-service training, most of the shortcomings of the course at its initial stage and subsequent developments would have been avoided. Nevertheless, unlike past experience, the course was evaluated at a reasonably early stage of its initiation. But, the studies that led to its assessment should not be considered as the only studies and investigation that the in-service programme needs. Nor will dependence upon ad hoc committees serve a useful purpose. New developments in the field of in-service training have to be considered and utilized. These developments and the accumulation of relevant knowledge and findings of research imply that a competent machinery has to be established.

Secondly, it is true that the establishment of the local centres has helped to solve the problem of selection for admission of trainees with different educational standards, and enabled the authorities to select only those who were likely to benefit from the course. But it is equally true that those who cannot be accepted at the Centres, either because of the shortage of places or because of their failure in the examinations of the local centres, are likely to

present the Ministry with another problem. Their number in 1969-70 was more than those who passed. The likely consequences are either to transfer them to administrative jobs or to provide a specially designed programme of in-service education suitable for their educational standards and abilities, and serving an aim different from that of preparing them for the Centres of Riyadh and Ta'if. Allowing them to go back to the classroom without this supplementary study is neither in their own interest nor is it in the interest of the pupils.

Thirdly, it is a wise decision to promote the teachers who complete the course of the Centres to the grade of their colleagues who have the certificate of the present institutes of teacher education.¹ However, the educational standard of both categories of teachers is likely to deteriorate unless continuous efforts are made to provide regular in-service education and training. The experience of the Ministry of Education with the leavers of the abolished Primary Institutes of Teachers - who forgot much of what they had learnt - may be taken as a warning.

Fourthly, in-service education of the teachers of the

1 Ibid., p.10.

intermediate and secondary schools as well as the women teachers of the schools of girls have to start as soon as possible. The longer it is postponed the more complicated it becomes to organise and operate.

"Teachers, whose profession is so demanding not only of personal qualities but also of knowledge and skill, must have access during their careers to a series of opportunities for in-service education and training."¹ The partial recognition of this fact by the Ministry of Education cannot be underestimated as a factor rendering future developments possible. But to be effective, a pattern of opportunities has to bring into a working relationship individuals, schools, bodies responsible for education below the tertiary level, educational zones, universities and faculties responsible for teacher education. This issue, however, will be discussed at length in a later chapter.

1. Lord James Report, op.cit., Para.2.5, p.6.

Table (26):

Subjects taught at the Centres and the number of periods weekly. 1

Subjects	Number of periods per week		
	1st term	2nd term	3rd term
Religious subjects ²	3	6	3
Arabic ³	6	5	5
Mathematics	4	4	3
General Science ⁴	4	4	4
Social Subjects ⁵	4	4	4
Use of library & research	1	1	1
Education, Psychology, and school administration	4	4	6
Curricula and special teaching methods	6	4	-
Teaching practice and criticism	-	-	6
English	3	3	3
Art education and audio-visual aids	3	3	3
Extra-curricula activites	2	2	-
Total:	40	40	38

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1. Source: A Report on the Preparation and Training of Teachers in 16 years, op.cit. p.12.
 2. They include; Koran, theology, Tradition, fiqh (jurisprudence), and the interpretation of the Koran.
 3. They include; reading, composition, grammar, literature, dictation and calligraphy.
 4. They include; biology, principles of agriculture, hygiene, physics and chemistry.
 5. They include; history, geography, society and social work.

Table (27):

The number of Trainees and the output of the Centres of the Supplementary Studies for Teachers, in Riyadh and Tā'if. 1

Year	No. of Trainees			Output
	1st term	2nd term	Total	
1967-68	500	488	988	305
1968-69	504	363	867	239
1969-70	497	416	913	379
1970-71	503	486	989	465
1971-72	495	489	991	488
Total of output:				1,876

1. Source: as supplied by the General Director of the Programmes of Teacher Education, Ministry of Education, a letter dated 8.1.1394 A.H., (1974), a type-script.

CHAPTER FIVE: INTERPRETATION AND ASSESSMENT

In this chapter, an attempt will be made to bring together the various issues raised in the previous chapters and to identify, as far as possible, the factors and considerations that have contributed to their existence. Unless adequate stock is taken of the realities of the situation, suggestions for future development may, to say the least, be totally irrelevant.

Teacher Education is a Recent Activity:

While in England and Wales, for example, "...the first systematic attempts to train teachers were made at the beginning of the nineteenth century¹...", the training of men teachers in Saudi Arabia was initiated in 1928 and the training of women teachers was first begun in 1960. Any critique therefore is bound to be affected by this brevity of period which can be attributed to a variety of reasons the most important of which are:

First, as a general phenomenon, "The remarkable thing in the modern history of education is that it took so long for the various countries to realize the importance of teacher-training - to realize, in fact, that schools

1. Jeffreys, M.V.C., op.cit., P.4

cannot be better than their teachers".¹

Secondly, the effect of the traditional concept of the teacher as being the one who knows his subject, irrespective of techniques. This concept is deeply rooted in Islamic educational tradition. "Muslim education was launched simultaneously with the preaching of Islam. Its purpose was to learn the precepts of the faith, and to gain God's favour by living according to His commands in this world, and by preparing for the everlasting life to come. Those who undertook the task of teaching the divine message to the believers quickly acquired a great prestige commensurate with their mission. Under the urge of religious fervour, members of the early Muslim community were either teaching or learning."² In such circumstances, the development of techniques was inevitably limited.

Thirdly, the brevity of period for the initiation and development of the whole education system itself. If the

1. Ibid., p.3.

2. Tibawi, A.L., 'Philosophy of Muslim Education', in: The Year Book of Education 1957, Education and Philosophy, joint eds. George Z.F. Bereday and Joseph A.L. Lauwerys. Published in association with the University of London Institute of Education and Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, by Evans Brothers Ltd., London, pp.81-82.

establishment of the General Directorate of Education is accepted as the first serious step towards the organisation and provision of formal education in the country, the time that elapsed between 1925; the year in which the General Directorate was created, and 1928; the year in which the first institution of primary teacher training was founded, is not therefore considerable. Similarly, formal primary education for girls and the training of women teachers for primary schools started in 1960.

As the private schools have played a significant role in the early years of the provision of education, a question may be raised regarding their participation in the field of teacher education. In fact, teacher education as an organized enterprise started, and has since remained, as a government undertaking. The private schools did not make special provision for teacher education but it is only fair to add that, within the framework of the above stated traditional concept of the 'teacher', they did provide the schools with teachers who were well versed in Islamic and Arabic studies and were so dedicated to teaching that they can be regarded as pioneers in the early efforts of providing educational opportunities.

Fourthly, the education system has greatly been in-

fluenced by the Egyptian education system. Here, we find that the training of teachers in the early years of the twentieth century was rather rudimentary and characterized by frequent changes and modification, in respect of both policy and structure. "Many policies succeeded one another since 1903 and 1904 when the elementary (Awali) schools of men and women teachers were established. The pupils of these schools were drawn from those who had completed their schooling either in the Kuttab or the elementary schools. The duration of study was two years increased later to involve three years of study. In 1927, the (Taḥḍirī) preparatory schools of men teachers and the primary (Raḳī yah) schools for women teachers were founded. The pupils admitted were from among those who had completed their elementary (Awali) education after being examined in half of the Holy Koran. They had to follow a two-year course leading to the certificate of ('Itmām al-Dirāsah al-Taḥḍiriyyah) the completion of the preliminary level for boys, or ('Itmām al-Dirāsah al-Awaliyyah al-Rāḳī yah) the completion of the higher elementary level for girls. In 1939-40, the preliminary schools were abolished allowing the schools of men teachers to return to the interview system as a basis for admission. The duration of study became six years. The schools of women

followed another pattern¹." Such a humble beginning could hardly provide Saudi Arabia with any real impetus, let alone sound guidance, to encourage it to embark upon teacher education earlier than it actually did.

The brevity of period for the initiation and development of teacher education has, among other factors, its bearings upon both organisation and content.

Organisation and Control:

The second and third chapters have shown that the education of primary teachers has been undertaken by institutions identified with the intermediate and secondary levels whilst the education of the teachers of the intermediate and secondary schools has been mainly the responsibility of institutions of the tertiary level. This pattern of organisation is not peculiar to Saudi Arabia. "The institutions responsible for the education of teachers are extremely varied in character. Between countries and within countries they are found to range from those which,

1. Cf. Radwan, M.M., "I'dād Al-Mu'allimīn wa Tadribuhum Lilta'lim Al-'ām fi Gomhūriyyat Miṣr Al-'arabiyyah", (The Preparation and Training of Teachers for Public Education in the Arab Republic of Egypt). A paper presented to the Conference of the Preparation and Training of the Arab Teacher (1972). See: The Arab League, The Arab Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, Department of Education, Mu'tamar 'I'dād wa Tadrib Al-Mu'llim Al-'arabi, Cairo, 8-17/1/1972, Maṭba'at Al-Takaddum, Arabic text, p.280.

at one end of the scale, may be closely identified with secondary schools and those, at the other, which are housed within or are manifestly equivalent to universities.¹"

The fact that teacher education has been launched almost simultaneously with the provision of formal education has greatly influenced the organisation of teachers' institutions. They could not but develop alongside the schools of intermediate and secondary levels and be largely dependent on the leavers of primary education. Similarly, the tertiary level institution of teacher education have been launched almost simultaneously with the provision of higher education.

Without underestimating this factor, there is also the fact that primary education has been considered, not only in Saudi Arabia but also in other developing countries, as being 'less important' than other educational levels. More consideration, therefore, has been given to post-primary levels and the training of their teachers than it has been the case with the primary level. Teaching in the latter, so the argument goes, can be carried out by

1. Yates, A., (Ed.), Current Problems of Teacher Education: Report of a Meeting of International Experts, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, 1970, pp.24-25.

persons with the very minimum of qualifications. Higher training is a 'luxury' that cannot be afforded.

In terms of organisation, this concept has meant gradualism in the process of raising the standard of the institutions of primary teachers starting from being associated almost with the last years of the primary course itself. The adoption of this policy has been maintained in spite of the fact that it has very often meant a rather slow pace of development and, more important, a discontinuity of policy; the course of three years duration after the completion of primary education was replaced with another one after the intermediate level with no relationship between them. This state of affairs, coupled with the absence of well organised in-service programmes, resulted in the prevalence of a very wide range of qualifications and standards among primary teachers.

The proper consideration of primary education and its importance in the educational pyramid is bound to affect the training of its teachers so that more consideration is given to quality and that the legitimate right of universities and institutions of the tertiary level in training primary teachers may be recognized. "It is general practice to differentiate between teachers engaged in primary and secondary education to the disadvantage

of the former. The differentials are based upon the facts that the former are usually recruited from people with lower initial qualifications and receive a different and usually shorter period of training and education. Considering the particularly onerous nature of the responsibilities of teaching the very young, and the permanent harm that can be caused by inadequacies in laying the foundations of learning, current policy is indefensible. If it is accepted that, provided the essential skills and attitudes of learning are established in the early years, the individual can then go on learning for himself, it would be reasonable to suggest that those responsible for the education of the very young should be as well, if not better equipped for their duties as those employed in the secondary and tertiary levels of education.¹"

In respect of the organisation of the tertiary level teacher training institutions, it has been observed that the institutions have been controlled by more than one educational authority with the absence of a central body to correlate their activities and bring about systematic

1. Lewis, L.J., "Getting Good Teachers for Developing Countries", International Review of Education, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, Vol.XVI, No. 4, 1970, p.402.

cooperation between them and the institutions of primary teacher education. Moreover, it has been observed that the universities have only recently begun to participate in the process of teacher education. This point imposes the question of the nature of the relationship between the universities and the tertiary level training institutions prior to their attachment to the universities.

To shed light on this issue, reference should be made first to the fact that this is a question of controversy in the world of university and the teacher training. On the whole, the attitudes of the universities towards teacher education may be said to range from warm welcome to apathy. More specifically, it has been noticed by a meeting of international experts (1970)¹ that the universities "contribution to the supply of adequately qualified people to teach in academic secondary schools has been recognised if not satisfactorily defined. Their relationship to the total system of preparing teachers for every kind of school and educational establishment remains obscure. In many countries there is now an uneasy confrontation between the universities and those responsible for teacher education which involves uncertainty, on both

1. Yates, A., op.cit.

sides, concerning the kind and degree of partnership that they should endeavour to develop".¹

Such an 'uneasiness' could not be detected with regard to the situation in Saudi Arabia. This can be attributed to a number of factors. First, teacher education at the tertiary level had started, whether as the main aim or as subsidiary, before the first university was created. The implications of this phenomenon are; (a) the Universities have no claim upon the initiation of educational studies or the development that took place in the field of teacher education prior to 1967-68; the year in which the University of Riyadh started playing a role in teacher training. Even this start cannot be considered significant because whilst the Faculty of Education in Riyadh was, at that time, in the initial stage of development, the faculties of Shari'ah and Education in Mecca, and the colleges of Shari'ah and Arabic in Riyadh, with their longer history and major responsibilities in teacher training, remained outside the University. The former institutions were attached to King Abdulaziz University only as recently as 1971-72, and the latter colleges are still controlled by a separate body. (b) The first attempt

1. Yates, A., (Ed.), op.cit., p.25

to establish higher education traditions was made by these institutions and not by university institutions. The universities, with their short history in the country, cannot be said to have made any radical departures from these early traditions except in the administrative field.

Secondly, the autonomy of the University as understood in Britain, for example, is not applicable to university institutions in Saudi Arabia. It is true that the latter are independent institutions, but the fact that the Minister of Education is the Supreme Head of the university, on the one hand, and that the Rector is responsible to him, on the other hand, clearly indicates the limitations of this independence, as distinct from autonomy. Under such a relationship between the Ministry of Education, represented by the Minister, and the universities, the transformation of the Faculties of Shari'ah and Education from the Ministry to the universities did not result in any constitutional difficulties.

This very special relationship between the Ministry of Education and the universities may raise the question of why then the University of Riyadh did not take part in teacher training immediately after its establishment at least by the attachment of the Faculties of Mecca to it, bearing in mind that these faculties were under the con-

trol of the Ministry. We are inclined to think that the main reason for this was that the Ministry conceived itself as the only legitimate body responsible for the training of the teachers of its schools. This inclination can be sustained by the fact that the Faculty of Education in Riyadh started as a joint project between the Saudi government acting through the Ministry of Education - not Riyadh University - and the United Nations Special Fund acting through Unesco.

Another reason that prevented the University from early participation, or full control of teacher-training institutions of the tertiary level, is due to socio-cultural considerations which have necessitated the establishment of two independent educational bodies namely; the General Presidency of the Colleges and Religious Institutes and the General Presidency of the Education of Girls. The former controls the Colleges of Shari^h and Arabic, in Riyadh, which play a role in the education of future teachers of religion and Arabic. The second education authority is responsible for the education of girls at all educational levels and the training of women teachers.

Thirdly, controversy over the issue of the role of the University in teacher training is due in part to the

philosophical background and traditions of older university institutions. At this point, it is sufficient to refer to some of these educational traditions; namely, the emphasis on pure knowledge, as distinct from professional training, and the universities pursuing a highly selective admission system as distinct from an open-door policy. With regard to the former point, "In most countries - the United States is an exception - university study emphasizes pure rather than applied or professional knowledge. An esoteric knowledge of one subject or perhaps two related subjects is the academic purpose. On the continent, to be sure, under-graduate lectures in education are offered as part of a broad, loosely organized spectrum of studies ... A fierce debate has been waged in the United States involving university academics who claim a more powerful voice in the determination of the content of teacher education ... They want students to study traditional subjects in greater depth and to pay less¹ attention to education courses".

This tradition of university education along with the other tradition of the University being highly selective

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1. Holmes, B., "Teacher Education in England and Wales: a Comparative View", In: Lomax, D.E., (Ed.), The Education of Teachers in Britain, John Wiley & Sons, 1973, p.20.

in respect of admissions can be further illustrated by the following argument by the Master of St. Catherine's College, Oxford, Sir Alan Bullock; "They (the British Universities) have come under attack from two different directions. The first criticism focusses attention on the broad social purpose of education. These critics demand that much larger numbers of young people should go on with their education after the age of 18. They argue that university education has until now been too selective, too subject-oriented and too intellectually demanding. They say this pattern has now got to be replaced, because it's out of date and élitist and socially divisive. They want it to be replaced by a pattern which is comprehensive, not selective; oriented towards the problems of our own time and society and carried out by teaching methods, and at intellectual levels, which are appropriate to these much larger numbers of students. That's one line of criticism.

The second line sees no objection to a university education on the ground that it's selective or élitist. But this second group of critics is equally inclined ... to agree that our university education is out of date, too academic, too much concerned with ideas and knowledge for their own sake, and too little concerned with the

practical application of knowledge."¹

Such arguments and traditions have, to a great extent, determined, and still determine, the dimension of the role to be played by universities in training for certain professions including the teaching profession. They have also contributed to the creation of two standards of higher education; one, the highest, is maintained by university institutions, and the other, not so high, by tertiary level institutions whether independent of universities or maintaining a special relationship with them. The latter are not selective and the required qualifications for entry are not as advanced as those required by the former institutions.

Teacher education, under these circumstances, has been affected. One manifestation of this is that "Throughout Europe teacher training is really two worlds; the world of the teachers' colleges where people are trained for primary and non-selective

1 The Observer, 30 December 1973, p.9

schools, and the world of the universities where people who subsequently teach in selective schools are educated and where they may or may not be trained for teaching. In Britain these worlds are more closely related than in most of Europe, not only through the Institutes but through the Departments of Education."¹

The analysis of the situation in Saudi Arabia in the light of these considerations reveals that university education is still in its infancy and university traditions have not yet been established. At present, however, the emphasis is laid upon training for jobs and professions, as distinct from pure knowledge. This is done almost to the extent of obscuring the intrinsic values of university education and the neglect of some fundamental aspects of university traditions such as research.

1 Koerner, J.D., Reform in Education: England and the United States, Weidenfeld and Nicolson, London 1968. P. 179.

Professor L.J. Lewis, while visiting the country in 1969, had to stress the importance of this aspect more than once. "Research is the life-blood of any university. It is of the first importance that research programmes however small", he urged, "be initiated at the very outset of the development of the University."¹ Furthermore, universities are not selective. It is true that certain faculties, such as those of medicine and engineering, require higher grades in the secondary education examination but those who cannot join them can easily join other faculties.

1 Lewis, L.J., Report on a Visit to Saudi Arabia: 21-30, March, 1969, op. cit., P. 3.

These characteristics of university education imply that there can be no reason for controversy over the issues of the role of universities in teacher training and the relationship between them and teacher training institutions. In Saudi Arabia the organisation of the latter outside the university had not implied inferiority of status, and their attachment to the universities was met neither with constitutional difficulties nor with well established, and different, traditions.

Future development in this respect will of course depend upon the development of university traditions themselves. At this point, however, it is significant to note that the involvement of universities in the education of the teachers of intermediate and secondary schools can be considered as the first step towards bringing to an end the isolation of the universities from the school system. Other steps have to follow. These are; curriculum development, improvement of textbooks and other educational materials, in-service training of teachers and other personnel serving the education system and more co-operation between the universities and the authorities responsible for schools in all aspects of educational activities. This will help to build a two-way traffic between institutions of teacher education and the schools which is

indispensable for the improvement of teacher training, and the improvement of the schools.

Furthermore, the interest of the universities in training primary teachers has to be promoted. The words of the McNair Report in this respect are applicable: "We ... reject the idea ... that the universities should concern themselves only with the education and training of older children. Such a proposal is both undesirable and impracticable. It is undesirable because the teachers of younger children need to be well educated and well trained, because the kind of education given in the primary schools profoundly affects the educational prospects of children when they reach the secondary schools, and because, particularly when the educational system is being unified, it would be doing a great disservice to education to take a step which divided the teaching profession."¹

It is also hoped that the attachment of teacher training institutions to the universities is not conceived merely as a constitutional arrangement. More important is that the segregation of intending teachers from other

1. Board of Education, Teachers and Youth Leaders; Report of the Committee appointed by the President of the Board of Education to Consider the Supply, Recruitment and Training of Teachers and Youth Leaders, London: HMSO, 1944, Para. 172, P. 50. (The McNair Report).

students should really be brought to an end. The student teachers of Riyadh and King Abdulaziz Universities should have the opportunities of mixing with students preparing themselves for other professions so that they may broaden their outlook and acquire some understanding of the other aspects of life which lay outside the teaching profession and the training for it.

However, the fundamental weakness of the present pattern of organization and control is that the institutions of teacher education are not related to one another in such a way as to produce a coherent training service. It is therefore imperative to establish a central body in order to bring about a more intimate and effective relationship between; (a) the authorities responsible for teacher education; (b) teachers' institutions including those in which teacher training is still considered subsidiary; and (c) the education authorities, the training institutions and the schools. Teacher education cannot be carried out in a vacuum, it "... must always be the subject of experiment. It is a growing point of education".¹ Systematic co-operation and consultation among the parties concerned is the pre-requisite for creating the right

1. The McNair Report, op.cit., Para. 202, p.64.

environment for such experimentation. Dependence upon ad hoc committees in this respect may prove to be a mere waste of time and effort.

The Shortage of Indigenous Teachers; Identification of Causes:

The shortage of teachers is a world-wide phenomenon if conceived in terms of quantity, or quality or both. "The research in comparative education on the shortage of primary schools teaching staff, carried out by the International Bureau of Education, gives an overall view of this problem. As is well known, the shortage of teachers affects various countries whatever their level of educational development. The serious thing for countries with a poorly developed educational system is that the leeway is far harder for them to make up than for other countries. Even if the world were not passing through a phase of general shortage, these countries would suffer from a specific shortage inherent in the heavy burden they are obliged to assume in order to provide schooling for their people." ¹ At the secondary level, the situation is more serious. For "... the shortage of secondary school

1. Comparative Study of Educational Developments in 1962-63, International Yearbook of Education, Vol. XXV, 1963, International Bureau of Education and Unesco, 1963, p. LVIII.

teaching staff is at once a problem of number, of specialization, and of pedagogic competence."¹

With regard to Saudi Arabia, it has been shown in the second and third chapters that the percentage of indigenous teachers in 1971-72 at the primary, intermediate and secondary levels was approximately 53.8, 38 and 16.8 per cent in the schools for boys, and 47.7, 10 and 5.4 per cent in the schools for girls. As the first step towards finding a remedy for the shortage is the identification of the causes underlying it, reference may be made to the following considerations and causes.

The absence of a competent planning machinery - due to the shortage of qualified personnel and relevant data - is at the root of the problem of the shortage of indigenous teachers. At the primary level, for instance, opportunities for teacher training have been overtaken by the rate of primary education expansion. Whilst only four small institutions of primary teacher education were

1. General Report on the Shortage of Secondary Schools' Teachers, presented by Mr S.O. Awokoya, Chairman-Rapporteur, International Conference on Public Education, XXXth Session, 1967, International Bureau of Education, Geneva, and Unesco, 1967, Published in Switzerland, P. 151

in existence in the period from 1928 till 1952 (i.e. The Saudi Institutes of Learning), the number of primary schools increased from 11 in 1928; the year in which the first Saudi institute was established, to 306 schools in 1952.¹ Furthermore, the number of the leavers of the Saudi institutes in 1953-54 was 49² while the total number of teachers employed at the primary level in the same year was 1,473.³

Apart from the relatively small number of the leavers of the Saudi Institutes, the majority of them did not go into teaching at the primary schools but either preferred other government departments or pursued their higher education outside and inside the country. It has been estimated that almost 70 percent of the students of the Faculty of Shari'ah, in Mecca, in the 1950s and all the students of the Teachers College were holders of the

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1. Primary Education Yesterday and Today, op. cit. P.24
 2. See Table 4, Chapter 2.
 3. Abu Khaldun, al-Husri, S., Op. cit., Vol. 5. P. 291.

certificate of the Saudi Institutes.

This situation was further complicated by the fact that the Ministry of Education, committed to a further expansion of primary education, had yet to start another course of primary teacher education (provided at the abolished Primary Institutes of Teachers). The first batch of students completed the course in 1956. The number of the leavers in 1956-57 was 44¹ while the total number of staff employed at the primary schools in the same year was 3,085.² From then onwards the leeway has become harder to make up. The same holds true with regard to the education of women teachers as the third chapter indicates.

As far as the inadequacy of the provision of teacher education at the tertiary level is concerned, for a variety of reasons, which have been identified earlier, teacher training at this level was characterized at the early years of its development by adopting unbalanced policy concerning the fields of specialization. This is especially true in the early years of development. For rather a long time, efforts had been concentrated on

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1. Cf. table 5, chapter 2.
 2. Primary Education Yesterday and Today, op.cit., p.40.

religious and Arabic studies almost to the extent of neglecting other disciplines. The significance of this is illustrated in appendix (VII) which can be summarised as follows:

The number of graduates of tertiary level teacher-training institutions referred to in the second chapter, according to the fields of specialization, from the establishment of these institutions till the end of 1972.

Specialization:	No. of Graduates:
Islamic studies	2,279
Arabic	1,040
Geography	150
Education & Psychology	79
History	70
Physics & Chemistry	37
English	33

The consequence of this unbalanced policy, coupled with the ambiguity of the main aims of some institutions and the unattractiveness of the teaching profession, are manifested in the facts that, even though the shortage of teachers is general, including religious and Arabic subjects, the country is suffering from a more acute shortage of staff in the fields of science, mathematics, English and the social sciences. The dimension of shortage, according to the subjects taught, is illustrated in the following table.

Table (28)†

The distribution of teachers in the intermediate and secondary schools according to nationalities (Saudis and non-Saudis) and the subjects taught, in 1971-72.¹

Subjects	Intermediate Schools		Secondary Schools	
	Saudi	Non-Saudi	Saudi	Non-Saudi
Religious subjects	448	91	39	36
Arabic	245	252	33	125
English	20	493	2	136
Social studies	171	177	32	83
Mathematics	15	322	6	93
Science	37	207	7	133
Physical education	69	69	16	24
Art education	87	107	1	10
Religion & Arabic	10	22	8	6
Mathematics & Science	1	78	2	9

The consideration of the number of the Saudi teachers of religion and Arabic, as indicated above, in the light of the total number of graduates in these fields, as shown earlier, reveals that only about one-quarter of the graduates were engaged in the teaching profession. This implies that the improper emphasis in the provision of Islamic and Arabic studies and the ambiguity of the aims of their institutions constitute a luxury that the country cannot afford while being in a desperate need for teachers. As for the acute shortage of the teaching staff with regard to other disciplines, it indicates that the tertiary level

1. As supplied by the Unit of Statistics, Research and Educational Documents, Ministry of Education, a letter dated 16.12.1973.

institutions are facing a great challenging responsibility for recruiting adequate numbers of teachers to meet present and future needs.

The situation has been described as challenging because of the following considerations; (a) More pupils are becoming interested in pursuing their intermediate and secondary education¹; (b) it is significant to note that the pupils enrolled in the scientific section of secondary education are exceeding those enrolled in the literary section. The number of the pupils of the former section in 1956-57 was 200 compared with 197 pupils enrolled in the latter section. In 1971-72 the number of pupils of each section increased to 4,443 and 2,851 respectively². This trend is likely to affect the teacher supply and demand as far as the scientific subjects are concerned. (c) It is in such fields as science, mathematics, foreign languages and the social sciences that the shortage of teachers is a world-wide problem. This state of affairs implies that the country may find it difficult to recruit the required number of expatriates to meet its expanding needs in these subjects.

1. Cf. table (1)

2. The letter No. 414 from the Unit of Statistics, Research and Educational Documents, op.cit.

Reference to the situation in the schools of girls has not been made because the shortage of teachers includes all the subjects taught in the intermediate and secondary levels and the proportion of indigenous women teachers is considerably lower than that of men teachers. Thus, tertiary level institutions of women teachers are facing an even more challenging responsibility. A special difficulty here stems from the fact that women teachers cannot leave their home towns or villages and work in other areas unless they are accompanied by close relatives (Mahram). As there are areas which can be described as educationally more developed than others, the shortage of teachers in the latter will be more acute and persistent, because teachers cannot be transferred from the former areas. Although the consequences of this limitation have not been felt in the period with which we are concerned, it will eventually present the authorities concerned not only with problems associated with the acute shortage of women teachers in the areas which are not so developed, but also with problems associated with redundancy in the other areas. The situation in 1971-72 can be illustrated by the following table.

Table (29):

The Saudi and Non-Saudi women teachers at the primary level according to educational zones, in 1971-72.

Educational Zone	Saudi	Non-Saudi
Mecca	590	22
Jeddah	463	35
Al-Wuṣṭā (Najd)	337	1121
Medina	323	105
al-Sharḳiyyah (Eastern)	280	400
Tā 'if	189	169
al-Ḳasīm	119	205
al-Aḥṣa	76	327
al-Shamāliyyah (Northern)	54	88
al-Djanūbiyyah (Southern)	51	246

Furthermore, the socio-cultural circumstances which require not only the segregation of pupils and students according to sex but also the teaching has to be carried out by members of the same sex, will involve many schools, and indeed the institutions of higher education, in a considerable duplication of staff and in certain circumstances lead to redundancies.²

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1. Statistical Summaries on the Education of Girls; Governmental and Private, 1971-72, op.cit., pp.39 and 44.
 2. In a recent interview with the President of the General Presidency of the Education of Girls, published while this chapter was being prepared, he has stated that in order to encourage the leavers of the Secondary Institutes of Women Teachers to work in other cities and villages, the General Presidency has obtained the approval of His Majesty to pay those who wish to work away from home extra allowances ranging from 60% to 100% of their salaries. (See al-Bilad, the daily newspaper, Jeddah, Issue No.4765 dated 7.10.1394 A.H., 22.10.1974 A.D.) Almost a month later, a writer in the same newspaper (issue No.4793) refers to a letter received from one of the leavers of the Women teachers institute in Medina, stating that she and 50 others of her colleagues "at a time when such generous allowances have been decided, they could not find jobs in Medina and yet could not leave for another area because of the failure to find mahrams to accompany them."

Another cause of the shortage of teachers is due to the wastage-rate which is more apparent at the primary level. Though it is difficult to establish the yearly average rate of wastage because of the absence of accurate statistics, it is important to note, however, that the wastage-rate has resulted in the percentage of native teachers at the primary level in 1971-72 being around 53.8% in respect of men teachers, and 47.7% in respect of women teachers instead of being considerably higher. This can be inferred from the following figures.

(a) Whilst the total number of the leavers of the abolished Primary Institutes of Teachers and the present Institutes of Teachers for the Primary Level till the end of 1971 was about 11,392, the number of indigenous men teachers in 1971-72 was 7,477 including those possessing other qualifications.¹ (b) The number of trained women teachers till the end of 1971-72 was 6,202 but the number of native women teachers at the primary level in 1972-73 was 3,414 including those with other qualifications.²

The main reasons for the wastage-rate have been; the preference of general intermediate and secondary schools because they lead to higher education which qualifies the

1. Cf. tables 2,5 and 6, chapter 2.
2. Cf. table 16, chapter 3.

students for more promising jobs and professions, the loss of teachers to other governmental departments and the private sector of the economy, and marriage and raising families in respect of women teachers.

Another possible reason is due to a qualitative consideration resulting from the prevalence of a very wide range of qualifications among teachers. "The spread of ability and adaptability within the teaching service of an emergent country may or may not be greater than in a developed one, but the dead-weight of the ill-educated and untrained teachers towards the bottom of the scale hangs heavy on the shoulder of the small proportion eager for the change. In a centralized system - as these usually are - curricula, textbooks, teaching methods, inspection system, and disciplinary regulations must all be adapted to the needs and the limited powers of the average and below-average teachers, and the very measures that are necessary to support and control these will constitute the main barrier to experiment by their livelier and more able colleagues."¹ In such working conditions, the latter group of teachers may find the teaching profession intellectually unrewarding and quit the service.

1. Beeby, C.E., *The Quality of Education in Developing Countries*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass. 1966, p.45

Increasing the rate of enrolment at the teachers' institutions may prove to be no answer to the problem of the shortage of teachers if the wastage-rate is not checked and the causes removed. We have already established that enrolment at the abolished and the present institutions of primary teachers, for instance, can be considered satisfactory if compared with enrolment at the intermediate and secondary schools. Nor have statements signed by intending teachers to remain in service as teachers, after graduation, for a certain period of time proved to be effective. For, here, not only is the need of the education system to be considered, but also the fact that teachers are persons in their own right, and their personal interests should be respected. "...few countries insist that people who have been put through training colleges at state expense commit themselves to a certain period of teaching in return. France requires a pledge of ten years' service, but does not enforce it; Britain used to require one but gave it up as inhumane. The whole matter is one of the anomalies of teacher training."¹

The crux of the matter is the provision of better training, the improvement of the service conditions and

1. Koerner, J.D., op.cit., p.157

the enhancement of the teaching profession. "It is admitted that education is an essential factor in development; it occupies a continually growing place in public affairs and life and, at the same time, the position of the teaching profession is not being improved but is rather tending to deteriorate. This shows that the great prime truths which have been proclaimed for the past twenty years are still confined to documents and speeches, have not been fully understood by public and authorities and have been listened to by theoretical economists, but not those responsible for public finances."1 Thus, a radical treatment of the issues of improving the service conditions and the enhancement of the teaching profession would involve the examination of both teachers' salaries and promotion, and the social status of the teaching profession.

As far as salaries and promotion are concerned, the Saudi teachers are members of the civil service whose salaries and terms of employment are based on the same salary-scale and regulations as apply to other government

1. Speech by the Representative of the Director-General of Unesco (Mr. Guiton, Director in Charge of Education Department, Unesco), International Conference on Public Education, XXXth Session, 1967. International Bureau of Education and Unesco, 1967, Published in Switzerland, p.43.

employees. There is no discrimination in this respect between men teachers and women teachers. Until 1971, the initial salaries of teachers were the same as that of other employees with similar basic qualifications. Since then, however, the position of the teachers has slightly been improved; their initial payment is done at a higher entry point. This measure is essentially a recognition of the great need for teachers and as a return for the professional training undertaken concurrently with general education and subject studies.

Promotion prospects are quite another matter. It is precisely here that the irony of the situation becomes apparent. Intending teachers receive grants-in-aid and after graduation their initial salaries are a step higher than that of other civil servants with similar qualifications, but the opportunities for promotion in the teaching profession are limited and irregular. In the course of time, teachers find themselves surpassed by other civil servants. This last phenomenon is shared by teachers in many other countries. "Education cannot be anything other than 'labour intensive', for it is a human service provided by people for people. Thus the cost of teachers' salaries must always loom large in

educational expenditure."¹

With regard to the examination of the issue of the social status of the teaching profession in Saudi Arabia, reference should be made to some relevant basic principles of Islamic educational traditions, otherwise such a vital issue cannot be adequately treated.

As observed by Dr. A.L. Tibawi, the basic principles of the philosophy of Muslim education in the formative period are; "(a) the pursuit and imparting of learning was ... a religious duty; (b) those engaged in this activity recognized only one aim, to gain favour with God, their activity being a spontaneous movement devoid of material aims and systematic organization. ... As to the first principle, concerning the nature of 'knowledge' or 'learning' let it be clearly understood that all that is meant by the term is religious knowledge and learning. If ... other subjects had to be mastered, they were considered auxiliary, facilitating the achievement of the main purpose. ... As soon as an auxiliary subject ceased to perform its function, or encroached on the domain of the sacred law, or tended to question absolute faith in

1. Gould, Sir Ronald, "The Teaching Profession", in Lomax, D.E., (Ed.), op.cit., p.59.

God, it was disposed of by the theologians. ...

The second principle was greatly modified, but always with authoritative sanction. Thus, those who, contrary to tradition, were compelled by circumstances to accept material reward for their teaching, searched for and found precedents and quoted chapter and verse in support of their action. Again when, late in the day, the state - partly driven by doctrinal rivalries and partly by the practical need to train its prospective civil servants - decided to establish formal educational institutions, it employed teachers with fixed salaries and attracted scholars by the provision of free living quarters and the payment of maintenance allowances, the innovation did not pass unchallenged. But it came to stay."¹

Saudi Arabia can be considered one of those Muslim countries in which the two principles of the philosophy of Muslim education in the formative period have survived till very recently. For well after the organisation of formal education started in 1925, education has been centered in the Holy Mosques of Mecca and Medina, a few other mosques scattered here and there, the houses of the

1. Tibawi, A.L., "Philosophy of Muslim Education", op. cit., pp. 82-83.

Ulema themselves and the private schools established by individual benefactors or by the contributions of resident Indian and Indonesian Muslim communities.

The following account has been given by a contemporary writer who himself attended the circles of some of the Ulema at the Holy Mosque of Mecca during the first thirty years of the present century. He wrote; "Teaching in the Holy Mosque followed no curriculum and every teacher (mudarris) taught the subjects in which he was well versed and in which he had obtained a qualifying certificate from the corps (Hay 'at) of the Ulema after being examined in the interpretation of the Koran, Tradition, fiq'h (Islamic jurisprudence) and Arabic grammar. The teacher neither received a salary from the government nor did he expect any charity, alms or assistance from his students. Imparting knowledge was for the sake of God. Thus, the majority of the Ulema of the Mosque died in poverty and left nothing but good remembrance."¹

Similarly, the private schools emphasised religious studies, and there again whenever 'other subjects had to

1. Abd Al-Jabbar, O., *Drūs Min Mādī Al-Ta'līm wa Hādirihi Bil-masdjid Al-Ḥarām*, (Lessons from past and present education at the Holy Mosque), first edition 1379 A.H., (1959), Dar Mamfis Liltiba'ah, Arabic text, p.16.

be mastered, they were considered auxiliary, facilitating the achievement of the main purpose'. Being privately financed, implies that their financial resources were rather limited. In such circumstances one hardly expects the question of material rewards for the teachers to amount to any significance. In fact, the schools were dependent upon their graduates for both administration and teaching. Furthermore, it was not uncommon that some teaching was undertaken by some of the Ulema of the Holy Mosque of Mecca, bearing in mind that, in many cases, the prominent graduates of some of these schools, such as 'al-Falāh' school of Mecca, had their circles in the Holy Mosque. Another point of importance is related to the fact that the schools did not differentiate between the primary and the post-primary levels. Teaching at all levels was undertaken by the same teachers who were well versed in Islamic and Arabic studies.¹

The above account indicates that teaching was, till very recently, concerned with religious studies and it was considered, to a great extent, a religious duty. The society respected its teachers in that era because of their piety, knowledge and dedication to teaching, and

1. The author witnessed this era when he was a pupil at 'al-Falāh' school in Mecca.

not because of their wealth.

Departure from these traditions was gradual. The first step, significant but by no means radical, started in 1928 with the establishment of the Saudi Institute of Learning, in Mecca. Three characteristics of its creation and function deserve consideration here. These are; (i) it was the first institution whose main intending objective was to train teachers; (ii) the payment of grants-in-aid to attract pupils; and (iii) primary education was the main area of its concern, as distinct from post-primary levels. The description of this step as not being radical is due to the facts that, the emphasis was still on religious studies, and that the other subjects taught were provided as 'auxiliary'; the number of pupils enrolled and that of the leavers were not so large as to have any considerable effect on the society; the education scene was still dominated by the Holy Mosques of Mecca and Medina, and the private schools, because they were more authoritative institutions in religious studies; and that the differentiation between primary and post-primary teachers just started.

The second step took place in 1936 when the first government secondary school was founded. Its foundation

meant that secular subjects were introduced as disciplines in their own right and no longer treated as 'auxiliary'. Here again, 'the innovation did not pass unchallenged. But it came to stay'.

The rapid expansion of the education system and the introduction of new disciplines have paved the way for a more radical departure from early traditions. As stated earlier, the Ministry of Education, followed later by the General Presidency of the Education of Girls, resorted to the recruitment of primary teachers who may be said to be one page ahead of their pupils. The graduate teachers, qualified or unqualified, have been largely reserved for intermediate and secondary schools and their number is still very small. Furthermore, teaching in the formal system is no longer a religious duty only, but has become a paid profession.

Closely linked with this measure, is the recruitment of an ever-increasing number of expatriate teachers whose number has far exceeded that of the indigenous teachers. More important, they have little incentive to develop anything more than a passing interest in the society because they have been employed on the basis of a one-year contract. This has also resulted in a rapid turnover

of staff.

The overall consequences have been; (a) more pupils have become interested in secular and social sciences than ever before; (b) religious studies have been pursued either as a field of specialization with the ultimate aim being 'earning one's living', i.e. a profession, or - by non-specialists - as 'another examination hurdle'; (c) the 'knowledgeable teacher' has largely been substituted by the ill-educated teachers, at the primary level, and semi-qualified teachers at post-primary levels, and their number is still very small. In addition to these two categories of teachers, there are the expatriate teachers, the great majority of whom have but little interest in the society and the folk-ways of the Saudi community; (d) under materialistic conditions, people may join or leave the profession on the basis of securing better material rewards. Thus the teaching profession has become a bridge-occupation. This phenomenon, coupled with the rapid turnover of expatriate staff, has resulted in "the relative immaturity and weakness of the profession as a legitimate pressure group."¹ Even more

1. Lewis, L.J., "The teacher in Developing Countries", in: W.A. Dodd, (Ed.), *The Teacher at Work*, London: Oxford University Press, 1970, p.1.

serious is "the consequent handicap in establishing values and attitudes, which are so dependent upon the confidence and understanding that grow from strong relations between teacher and pupils";¹ and (e) the schools are merely teaching institutions and the teacher's role in them has been very limited because, in a centralized system, educational and administrative decisions are made in the upper echelons of the educational hierarchy. In such conditions, "...the teacher's role is more that of a skilful executive than that of a responsible observer and experimenter."²

Accordingly, neither the teaching profession nor the teachers are in a position to exercise upon the more complicated society of today the same influence exercised upon the society of 'yesterday' by the mosques, the houses of the Ulema, the private schools, and most of all by the personal conduct of the Ulema themselves as individuals. The teacher has been left virtually with no source of authority to draw upon, not even the rod of the teacher of the Kuttab, which had been described in the old days as:

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1. Lewis, L.J., "The Teacher in Developing Countries", in: W.A. Dodd, (Ed.), *The Teacher at Work*, London: Oxford University Press, 1970, p.3.
 2. King, E.J., *The Education of Teachers: a comparative analysis*, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, London, New York, Sydney, Toronto, 1970, p.52.

'the rod of the teacher is from Paradise'. Furthermore, the teaching profession has been left with little justification to claim the respectability of the society at large because so little respectability has been extended to it by its own members. Wealth in this state of affairs serves no purpose. For societies do not usually extend social prestige to a profession merely on the ground of the wealth of its members.

The above analysis indicates the invalidity of the argument, so fashionable these days, that the question of the social status of the teachers and the teaching profession is essentially a question of remuneration and regular promotion. Whilst acknowledging the importance of material rewards as a factor, it has to be realized that there are, at the same time, other and more vital factors contributing to the enhancement of the teaching profession. The most important of these are; the provision of a qualitatively sound system of training, that only the adequately qualified and professionally dedicated people be admitted to and be retained by the teaching profession, and that teachers be constantly provided with opportunities for social, educational and professional growth.

According to this viewpoint, salaries and other

allowances, if considered as the sole factor contributing to the enhancement of the teaching profession and the attraction of more people to it, will, in the long-run, prove to be no more than artificial aids having no profound or lasting effect in this connection. "The life of teachers should be made more attractive, but not by artificial aids. The positive attractions which are added must arise from the peculiar needs of the profession."¹ And, "It would be a bad day for education if the chief attraction of the teaching profession ever became the money to be earned."²

It is within this context that the various elements of the argument concerning the social status of the teaching profession, the prestige of teachers, and their material rewards can be put in the right order, and it may run as follows: the competent, dedicated and socially sensitive teacher has the right to expect a social status commensurate with his role in the education system and society at large, and to receive a handsome initial salary, other appropriate allowances and prospects of regular promotion. The negative response from the society, in this case, would imply that it does not want

1. The McNair Report, op.cit., Para.98, p.28.
2. Ibid., Para.107, p.30.

to educate itself.

With these considerations in mind, it seems safe to conclude that the problem of shortage and supply can no longer be considered in quantitative terms only; the qualitative aspect of it has to be given the proper consideration. This runs contrary to the argument that has been, and still is, prevalent, which maintains that the issue at stake is to get teachers even with the 'minimum qualifications' and not 'adequately qualified' teachers. This is usually based on the assumptions that; (a) the rapid rate of education expansion imposes an urgent need for teachers; (b) any native teacher is better than none; (c) the shortcomings of the unqualified and semi-qualified native teachers are less harmful than the shortcomings resulting from the recruitment of a large number of expatriate teachers; and (d) in the course of time, enrolment at schools will increase so substantially as to allow the teacher training institutions to be more selective and hence give proper consideration to the quality of the education and training provided.

This argument is rejected on the grounds; first, the above analysis clearly indicates that only the competent and dedicated teachers will gain the recognition of status

by the society which will result in the enhancement of the teaching profession without which the numbers of teachers, as actually has been the case, will not substantially increase. The teaching profession is badly in need of such prestige in society in order to become a legitimately powerful profession and hence attract more people. Otherwise, it will remain a 'bridge-occupation'; losing more than gaining members. Secondly, the fallacy of the question of the 'semi-qualified' native teacher versus the 'qualified' expatriate teacher is obvious and it is one of those extreme approaches in education which do not stand any objective examination.

Thirdly, the argument ignores the fact that quality and quantity in education in the developing countries are intertwined. "As more has been learned about the educational problems of emergent countries, it has become increasingly obvious that quality and quantity in education are inextricably intertwined, and that the relation is a complex one. Sometimes ... the rapid expansion of school systems has been achieved by taking on less qualified teachers with a consequent drop in the quality of work in the schools. But it is by no means certain that the increase in the total number of pupils in the schools will result in a corresponding increase in the

number of useful graduates who will emerge from each level of the school system, because any fall in the quality of the work may be expected to increase the number of failures and dropouts."¹

Finally, it has been clearly stated in the Development Plan (1390 A.H., 1970 A.D.) that "implementation of this Plan will depend, to a high degree, on success in raising the productivity of national and foreign employees throughout the economy - by more and better training, by higher standards of management, and by improving legal and administrative procedures affecting the conduct of public and private business."² It does not make sense, therefore, to provide inadequate training of teachers or to recruit semi-qualified ones. The products of an education system cannot be better than the system itself and 'no school is better than its teachers'.

The need for establishing sound criteria in deciding incentives to attract sufficient people to join, and stay in, the teaching profession and the proper consideration of the problems of supply and shortage are urgent. Without underestimating the difficulties encountered by the

1. Beeby, C.E., op.cit., pp.14-15.

2. The Development Plan, 1390 A.H., 1970 A.D., op.cit., p.22.

authorities concerned in their endeavour to train and recruit teachers, the difficulties that lie ahead and future circumstances may be found even harder to operate in. At this point, reference may be made to the following considerations.

The 'simple society' and the 'simple way of life' are giving way to a more complex society in which different aspirations, ways of life and kinds of relationships will be prevailing. Some teachers of my generation of students never had radios of their own; now it is not uncommon to see a picture of a villager riding his donkey with a transistor radio in his lap. Walking from one end of the city to the other in the daily trip from home to school has been till very recently quite normal and practiced by the great majority of pupils and students; today the daily newspapers are seldom seen without an article, or complaints, that 'something should be done about those youngsters who are driving their cars in a suicidal way exposing the lives of others to real danger'. Leaving one's town or village to go to another area has been considered 'quite an adventure'; nowadays, sending pupils of the intermediate-school age-group to Britain in summer to study English is quite normal.

An important manifestation of social change is the diminishing traditional practice of handing down certain professions from one generation to another. Parents and offspring alike, whether in urban or rural areas, are becoming increasingly interested in professions that are socially and materially promising. The impact of this on teacher training institutions and the teaching profession cannot be overemphasised, and it is likely to be sustained by the following factors:

First, the growth resulting from oil revenue and the determined endeavour to diversify the economy of the country imply, among other things, a growing demand for manpower. In fact, the jobs available are more than can be filled by the existing qualified indigenous people. Whilst this has led to the employment of a large number of foreign personnel it also indicates that various options are open for the Saudis for work in both public and private sectors. In such circumstances, the teaching profession will be in a different position; it has to compete with other professions. "For reasons of 'vocation' and still more because of limited access to other professional possibilities, many young men and women in the past have been predestined to the teaching profession as the sole means of access to something better than a working-class

position. However, the situation is vastly different now."¹

Secondly, enrolment at the institutions of teacher training, in the period with which we are concerned, has greatly been affected by the facts that; (a) the abolished 'Primary Institutes of Teachers' had been established in many areas before the establishment of intermediate schools. The same holds true with regard to the equivalent institutions of women teachers. (b) Most tertiary level training institutions had been founded before any other type of higher education institutions was founded. This state of affairs has resulted in many pupils and students being enrolled at teachers' institutions because they had no alternative. Reference has already been made to intending teachers transferring to general intermediate and secondary schools whenever opportunities permitted. Moreover, it would be interesting to know how many students would have joined early institutions of the tertiary level had Riyadh and King Abdulaziz Universities, and the College of Petroleum and Minerals, for instance, been established earlier.

1. King, E.J., op.cit., p.88.

This situation is changing considerably. Intermediate and secondary schools are spreading all over the country. Different institutions of higher education are being established. In fact, educational opportunities are expanding at a faster rate to meet the needs of an expanding economy. "The development plan for education looks to continued expansion of opportunities for education at all levels, ... so that each level will have the capability of accepting all qualified graduates from subordinate levels who seek enrolment. ... The plan provides for more diversification in educational offerings, once the student has completed his basic general education."¹ Accordingly, teacher-training institutions will no longer be the 'only alternative' for pursuing one's education.

Thirdly, with a particular reference to women teachers, chapter three indicates that a decision has been taken concerning the choice of the medical and teaching professions as the most appropriate for women. On the other hand, women students have begun to show a growing interest in other fields of specialization and work. Future developments are likely to be either that a more flexible policy is adopted or that the present one will continue

1. The Development Plan, op.cit., p.24.

to prevail. Both policies will have their bearings on enrolment at the teacher training institutions and consequently on the teaching profession. Changing the present policy will imply that more girl students will choose other fields of studies than it has been the case until now. On the other hand, the continuation of the present policy will imply that many will join the training institutions as no other option is open for them. This again is not in the interest of education because the schools will be largely staffed by teachers whose real interests lie elsewhere.

Fourthly, there can be little argument about the fact that the social and professional life of the teachers affect the outlook of the younger generations on the teaching profession. The questions to be asked here are; can the teachers at present, or the great majority of them, be considered as good examples for younger generations in respect of both competency at work and dedication to the profession? Are the conditions of service so satisfactory as to persuade the teachers to encourage others to join the teaching profession? Where does the educational administrator stand if his advice is sought not only by parents but also by his own sons and daughters? Is the social status of the profession encouraging? Previous

analyses of the conditions of service, the quality of teachers and the social status of the teaching profession leave much to be desired in this connection.

"... many countries have to use propaganda methods in order to attract students into the teaching profession, because material benefits elsewhere are greater. But the best agents for teachers' recruitment are the teachers so dedicated to their profession that they command the respect and emulation of their pupils. This dedication does not mean that they must be under-fed or clothed in rags. It means they must be worthy of emulation in every respect. They must awaken in their pupils the feeling that teaching is a vocation that could be as materially rewarding as it is intellectually and socially satisfying."¹

Content and Methodology:

Teacher education, to be sound and meaningful, should rely upon some theory or philosophy which defines the aims and the objectives of training and states as far as possible the role that the teacher is expected to play at school as well as in society at large. "Indeed, no one can travel very far when one has embarked on an investiga-

1. General Report on the Shortage of Secondary School Teachers, op.cit., pp.153-154.

tion into the training of teachers without perceiving that, before suggesting a policy and programme for this work, one must formulate one's view on what the teacher is to be trained for; what should be his role and purpose as an educator. ... Thus, when we have decided what the end product is to be, we can propose the means whereby that end may be produced."¹ Such a philosophy cannot be transferred from one country to another, it has to be determined in the light of the particular aims of the education system in which the teacher is eventually going to serve, and the objectives of each educational level and type of schooling in that system. The more these essentials are objectively decided and clearly stated the more possible it becomes to decide the content of the curriculum of teacher-training institutions, the methods to be applied and the process of evaluation. This is not an easy task and cannot be accomplished overnight.

Saudi Arabia, in the period with which we are concerned, has not been in a position to provide such essentials, because the education system has been heavily dependent upon other education systems. This has resulted

1. Currey, P., Education and The Training of Teachers: A Plea for the Education of Teachers as Persons, Longmans, First published, 1963, Second impression, 1963, p.4.

from commitment to rapid education expansion and the provision of social and secular sciences as major fields of study for the first time as a result of the introduction of secondary education, in the modern sense. Whilst the education system has been grounded in Islamic and Arabic studies only, the provision of the new studies has implied, therefore, not only that the teachers of these new subjects had to be borrowed but also that the curricula and textbooks had initially to be sought from elsewhere. This explains why the first secondary school, established in 1936, was developed on the same line as the Egyptian secondary school. Furthermore, apart from a few primary textbooks and books on Islamic subjects, all other textbooks were, till the early 1950s, the Egyptian textbooks. Certainly, the consideration of education merely as instruction, and the schools merely as teaching places facilitated the process of transplantation.

Yet, the influence of other education systems is by no means confined to primary, intermediate and secondary education. It is also applicable to higher education, but with considerable differences from one institution to another. The following examples should suffice to shed light on the dimensions of this influence. (a) In 1960 (18-30/8/1379 A.H.) a committee met in Ryadh to consider

the draft of the statute of the Riyadh University. The committee consisted of Arab scholars mostly Egyptians.¹ The first Rector of the University was the prominent Egyptian scholar the late Dr. Abd Al-Wah-hab Az-zam.

(b) The Constituent Commission of King Abdulaziz University invited in 1966 some scholars to advise on the establishment and development of the University. They included Iraqi, American, Pakistani and British educators.²

(c) The College of Petroleum and Minerals has been developed, from the very start, on the American system model.

At this point, we hasten to add that in spite of this heavy dependence upon other systems, the education system has always preserved its own character in respect of religious and Arabic studies and its place in the curriculum.

Since the 1950s, however, the curricula of primary, intermediate and secondary education have been subjected to frequent changes and modifications with the ultimate

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1. Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, University of Riyadh, Calendar, 1392 A.H., 1972 A.D., Printed in Qassem Press, Riyadh, Arabic text, pp. 1-2.
 2. Report of the Advisory Committee to the Constituent Committee, King Abdul Aziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, February 25, 1966, (cyclostyled).

aim being laying more emphasis on national studies. History and geography have been the main subjects affected. Furthermore, some textbooks have been produced. These attempts are still rudimentary and the results, so far produced, indicate that curriculum development has been pursued on the same lines as pursued in other Arab countries; "Curricula in the Arab states are prescribed by government authority, and are uniform for each type of schools in any state, ... (they) are usually worked out by committees. ... The result is generally a compartmentalized and overloaded curriculum".¹

The shortcomings of these early attempts towards the adaptation of education have stemmed from two main reasons; first, they started before being preceded by the provision of a national policy of education which should have served as a background for establishing objectives, in the absence of which curriculum development may have very little meaning. "These educational objectives become the criteria by which materials are selected, content is outlined, instructional procedures are developed and tests and examinations are prepared. All aspects of the educational

1. Akrawi, M., and al-Koussy, A.A., "Recent Trends in the Arab Education", International Review of Education, Unesco Institute for Education, Hamburg, Vol.17, No.2, 1971, pp. 187-188.

program are really means to accomplish basic educational purposes. Hence if we are to study an educational program systematically and intelligently we must first be sure as to the educational objectives aimed at."¹

However, the first educational policy was issued under the decision of the Council of Ministers No. 779 in 1389 A.H., 1969 A.D. It is still 'a theory reflected in legislation'; many details have to be filled in as well as working out the means of putting them into effect. This process will take time.

Secondly, the difficult nature of the task itself if curriculum reform is conceived as something much more than the addition or abstraction of facts to be learned. "Even in 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 Schools Council and the Nuffield Foundation in Britain. But there are still many problems to solve, and few countries would claim to have gone very far in adapting

1. Tyler, R.W., Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction, Open University Set Book, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago and London, 1973, p.3.

school curricula to the needs of the modern world and the changing nature of knowledge.

In the developing countries, the leap to be made to new practices is longer and the difficulties correspondingly greater. The task has been made more difficult by the vast increase in the popular demand for education ... that new schools have had to be started when adequately trained teachers were not available and when resources have had to be spent on increasing the quantity of education, which educators would more gladly have spent on improving quality."¹ A difficult task of this kind has to be taken as a full-time job and not to be trusted to ad hoc committees or individuals working separately with no organizing professional central body. It is true that the shortage of qualified personnel has to be taken as a factor in this connection, but a simple and right start can always be made towards the establishment of the proper machinery. Unless this is created, continuous dependence upon ad hoc committees, ad hoc decisions, and the short visits of foreign scholars will always prove largely to

1. Beeby, C.E., "Curriculum Planning", in: Howson, G., (Ed.), *Developing a New Curriculum*, Published for the Centre for Curriculum Renewal and Educational Development Overseas, by Heinemann, London, First published 1970, Reprinted 1972, pp.40-41.

be a waste of time and efforts.

Closely linked with this point is the fact that teachers have had very little say in the process of curriculum development. This is usually based on the assumption that teachers with very modest qualifications and professional experience can hardly play any significant role in this process. Again, surely there are some competent teachers all the time. Those should suffice to make another 'simple but right' start so that teachers may gradually be brought to full participation in curriculum development. This, perhaps, is the only way to break through the vicious circle of: the absence of competent teachers had led to the exclusion of teachers from various activities concerning curriculum development; and the curriculum has been centrally worked out because there are no competent teachers to participate. "The teacher as the person most directly involved in the implementation of new proposals in the curriculum has a distinctive role to play in the identification of issues needing revision or development, the planning of investigations, experiment and demonstration, and the assessment of the results. The teacher very often is more aware of and sensitive to what is possible having regard to the maturity of the students and the resources necessary or available than the research

workers or administrators. What is lacking is effective consultation and communication. Too often, because of the modest educational and professional qualifications of teachers, it is assumed they have nothing to offer to the dialogue. The kinds of approach the teachers are expected to adopt towards pupils and teachers is denied the teachers themselves. Yet there is plenty of evidence from experience of the capacity of teachers to show imaginative and shrewd insights into new needs and new possibilities of relating the curriculum to the changing circumstances for which they must attempt to equip their pupils and students."¹

These general factors have had a two-fold effect on teacher-training courses; namely, the curricula have been developed on the same lines described above, and that the courses have been devoid of a solid background against which some important issues, relating to content and methodology, could have been based. Some of these issues are the clear definition of teachers' duties and the objective statement of the main aims of the curricula.

Here, we must turn to the consideration of the special

1. Lewis, L.J., Teacher Education in Changing Societies, 1972, a type-script, p.9.

factors that have affected the curricula of teacher training as an organised enterprise. The starting point is that concurrence has been the main organising principle of the training courses. The consecutive approach is manifested in the General Diploma course, and this has not exerted any real influence upon the training institutions or the principle of training they have adopted. The reason for this is probably due to the facts that the course has been provided on a voluntary basis, representing the first experience undertaken by the university in teacher training, and being attended simultaneously by new graduates and graduates who have already been in service as teachers for a varying number of years. It has not, therefore, established itself either as a pre-service or as an in-service effective programme.

The absence of relevant data and a national policy of teacher education makes it unrealistic to try to identify the reasons behind the prevalence of the concurrent, rather than the consecutive, approach. More important, however, is the fact that the training system has not been confronted with the concurrent/consecutive controversy which has affected the provision of teacher education in many other countries. In fact, controversy has risen from the adoption of the principle of concurrence

itself. This has been manifested in the diversity of opinions over the main components of the content of the curricula and the problem of striking the balance between these components.

It is true that controversy over these issues is a world-wide phenomenon but it deserves a special consideration here because it has been merely a manifestation of general opinions which have had no systematic studies or general policy behind them. The starting point simply has been extreme reaction to the traditional concept of the 'good teacher' as being the 'knowledgeable teacher'. There have been those who, at the one end, have considered it the ideal approach to be adopted in recruiting teachers. On the extreme opposite, there have been those who have claimed that 'technique' should be considered rather than knowledge; in their reaction they have been merely impressed by modern teaching methods and recent techniques originated elsewhere. Between these two extreme patterns of thinking, varying degrees of reaction have existed.

The consequences of these reactions have been manifested in; (a) there have been, at the one end, institutions which have considered teacher education as subsidiary, i.e., the colleges of Shari'ah and Arabic; (b)

there have been institutions which have considered teacher education their main concern with the emphasis laid upon professional training, i.e., the faculties of education of Riyadh and King Abdulaziz universities; and (c) there have been institutions which for rather a long time could not decide where to stand, i.e., the Faculty of Shari'ah, in Mecca, and the Saudi Institutes of Learning.

The situation has been complicated by the fact that curricula have been worked out by committees and individuals. Each group would naturally consider its discipline as 'the most important'. Eventually, 'committees' become indispensable, but the result has always been an 'overloaded curriculum'. If it is accepted that a well planned teacher education course is characterized by internal consistency and unity, then the methods used are not likely to bring about such characteristics. Furthermore, the very essence of the principle of concurrence may be obscured. "The argument for the concurrent form of higher education for teachers is this: that not only will education and training be carried on at the same time, but

that they will enrich and illuminate each other."¹

The situation calls for the establishment of some broad guidelines regarding the kind of teachers needed and the duties expected of them. It may be argued that this has always proved to be a difficult task and it takes time to be fully accomplished. Here again, the significance of the 'right start' no matter how simple it is, should not be underestimated. For such guidelines, among other considerations, will help to establish the main features of the content bearing in mind that we live in a world in which the ideal of the teacher and the roles of teachers are exposed to tremendous changes and consideration and each conception has its bearing on the training process. "The ideal of the teacher has unquestionably changed through the ages. Each society has no doubt conceived him in somewhat different terms. ... A major dichotomy is between the concept of the teacher, as on the one hand, a mediator or conserver, and, on the other hand, an agent of change in a dynamic society. Tradition accords him the former task. Yet in a world

1. Eason, T.W., and Croll, E.J., Staff and Student Attitudes in Colleges of Education, Part Two of 'Colleges of Education: Academic or Professional?', General Editor: Professor W.R. Niblet, Department of Higher Education University of London Institute of Education, Published by the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, 1971, pp.8-9.

which has in so many years altered so rapidly since 1939, and which is still in the process of rapid change, perhaps this role is no longer appropriate and new conceptions are needed. Certainly many assumptions on which teacher training is based need to be scrutinized most carefully."¹

Another attempt that should be made is to work out a general policy of teacher education which can be used as a background against which the main components of the content can be decided leaving only the details for each institution to work out. This will help establishing some priorities because not everything can possibly be given within the limited time of the courses. "Clearly, institutions of higher learning and teacher training colleges operate, as do all educational institutions, within an economy of time: time allocated to one end is not available for other purpose. The problem is not to put easy things first or traditional things first, it is rather to put first things first."² The following two quotations should suffice to shed light on the consequences of the absence of sound criteria against which the distribution of time

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1. Holmes, B., Teacher Education in a Changing World; General Introduction, The Year Book of Education, 1963, Edited by G.Z.F. Bereday and J.A. Lauwerys, Evan Brothers Ltd., London, p.3
 2. Hanson, J.W., "On General Education for the African Teacher", in: Teacher Education, Vol.3, No.3, February 1963, Oxford University Press, p.182.

could be considered.

First, when the late Mr. Ismā'īl Qabbani visited the country in 1375 A.H., (1955), he had this to say about the Teachers College in Mecca; "the teaching staff of the College observed that the syllabuses were generally overcrowded to the extent that the College found it necessary to cancel the time allocated for continuous teaching practice in the fourth year of the course so that the syllabuses could be covered."¹

Secondly, in respect of the present institutions of primary teachers, it has been stated by Mr. M. al-Mahdi, in a report to the Ministry of Education, in 1390 A.H., (1970), that "the time allocated for Arabic is insufficient. There is no reason why 5 periods per week have been decided for Arabic in the first year of the teachers' institutions while 6 periods have been decided in the first year of the secondary schools. The teachers and I wish to see that the periods allocated for Arabic in the teachers' institutions are increased considerably in all the years of the course. With regard to mathematics, the teachers state that the syllabus is too long and cannot

1. Cf., Ismā'īl al-Qabbāni, op.cit., p.44.

be assimilated within the allocated time."¹ But, the issue is not simply increasing or decreasing periods, it is that of the need for valid criteria worked out in the light of the objectives of the course. The problem cannot be solved by passing comments or isolated reports.

The content has also been affected by the discontinuity of policy. This has resulted in frequent changes and modifications accompanied very often with the abolishment of the course altogether; e.g., the establishment and abolishment of the Saudi Institutes of Learning, the creation and closure of the Primary Institutes of Teachers and the different roles assigned to the Faculty of Shari'ah in Mecca which have also affected the Faculty of Education there. Indications are already apparent that the same thing is likely to happen to the institutions of primary women teachers. The result has always been that the new courses did not have any connection whatsoever with the previous courses and each had to start afresh.

Instead of developing the curricula that would genuinely serve the purpose of primary teacher education

1. al-Mahdi, M., A Report on the Teachers' Institutions for Primary Education, the Supplementary Centres and the Evening Courses, 1390 A.H., 1970, Arabic text, stencilled p.5.

institutions, the curricula of the intermediate and secondary schools have been taken as a model and subjects and syllabuses have been chosen from them as seemed fit and proper. This has resulted in the content of general education in the training institutions being a distorted copy of the content of the curricula of these two educational levels. Yet, they themselves have been subjected to frequent changes with the ultimate aim of being improved.

At this point it is only fair to add that the tertiary level training institutions and those of primary teachers could have been greatly helped had the country had a well developed system of secondary and higher education. To realize the effect of such developments, one can recall the situation in England and Wales prior to the development of popular secondary education and the participation of universities in teacher training. "With the great development of secondary education during the present century, and with the spread of university education," argues R.W. Rich, "the problem of the training of the teachers has taken on quite a fresh aspect. In the last century the training college was bound to attempt academic as well as professional training. ... It is very easy to criticise ... the academic work of the early training

colleges, but it must be realized that they were embarking upon something quite new in English education. ... They were trying to do the work of the secondary school before such a school was contemplated, and working out a curriculum quite unlike that of any school or university of the time."¹

The shortcomings of the complete dependence of the institutions of primary teachers upon the curricula of intermediate and secondary schools have been perpetuated by the fact that the institutions have not established any working relationship with the schools. The only time they usually take interest in them is either when arrangements for teaching practice are made or during teaching practice. The leaver of the training institutions is considered a mature teacher as soon as he starts his or her career. From then onwards, he becomes the responsibility of the school, the educational zone and the concerned department in the central educational body, but not his own training institution. The same holds true regarding the tertiary level training institutions. A working relationship between teachers' institutions and

1. Rich, R.W., *The Training of Teachers in England and Wales during the Nineteenth Century*, Cambridge University Press, 1933, pp. 77-78.

schools will help the former to establish some criteria against which the process of the evaluation of content can be based instead of dependence upon vague ideas and suggestions originating from speculation.

Two more factors should be referred to because of their profound effect upon the content of teacher training courses; namely, the inadequacy of in-service education and the absence of research work.

Chapter four indicates that the in-service programmes hitherto provided have been inadequate. In-service education has been provided only for the ill-educated men teachers of the primary level. The curriculum has been subjected to frequent changes because the starting point of designing it has not been the actual standards and needs of trainees but rather the curricula of other institutions. Thus, it has been found that sometimes the chosen content has been above the ability of the trainees to assimilate or that the syllabuses have been too long and could not be covered within the limited time available. Furthermore, only conventional methods have been used.

The crux of the matter is that the initial education and in-service training of teachers have not been viewed as an on-going continuum. And that very often, teacher

education has been conceived as a once and for all process. This has resulted in the over-dependence upon initial training, as distinct from continued education and professional training. Inevitably, the training institutions' curricula attempted the superficial coverage of a wide range of subjects. In many cases, as the second and third chapters indicate, such studies had only remote association with the needs of intending teachers. In respect of professional training, emphasis has been placed on theoretical knowledge at the expense of adequate preparation for the immediate responsibilities of students in their first professional assignments.

This is not to suggest that teacher education is destined to be meagre but rather to strike the balance between what should be provided at the pre-service stage and what should be postponed till teaching commences. As stated in the Lord James Committee Report; "... no teacher can in a relatively short, or even in an unrealistically long, period at the beginning of his career, be equipped for all the responsibilities he is going to face. This familiar truth has been given a disturbing sharper edge in a world of rapidly developing social

and cultural change."¹

Finally, the curriculum pursued in teacher education has not been the result of research findings. Like in other countries, it "is largely the result of historical accident, and accumulation of bits and pieces of knowledge that at different times have been assumed to be of importance as part of the equipment of the teacher."² It is true that there is a growing body of valid knowledge that should form some aspects of the basis of a curriculum for teacher education, and that students need to be initiated into this if they are ever to attain the objectives which are crucial to a modern teaching profession, but research work should be initiated as to investigate those aspects peculiar to the situation in the country. The Saudi pupils and students have not in fact been studied yet and very often what is meant to be appropriate for pupils and students in different cultural setting has been taken for granted as being relevant to other students living in a completely different condition and having different socio-cultural background.

Intending teachers are very usually told that they

1. Lord James' Committee Report, op.cit., Para. 3.1,p.18.
2. Lewis, L.J., "Getting Good Teachers for Developing Countries", op.cit., p.399.

must be concerned with how their pupils can be motivated to become interested in the material they are studying, how they react to it and how they use it in their own patterns of development and growth. They study the project method and learning through activity. But, a great gulf exists between theory and practice. In the training institutions, teaching is limited to chalk and talk, and education has been largely a combination of listening to lecturers and reading textbooks or notes prepared by teachers. All these add up to obtaining education by being told by others, and memorisation of a limited set of facts is all that is needed.

The personal example of lecturers and teachers in the training institutions is an immensely powerful influence and teachers tend to teach as they were taught. "Substantial evidence has been accumulated which indicates that most teachers change their methods of teaching very little after initial patterns or habits are established unless they develop a genuine desire to change. This desire appears not to develop sufficiently unless the teacher becomes involved in some action or process that involves change."¹ Teacher training institutions them-

1. Moffitt, J.C., In-Service Education for Teachers, The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., New York, 1963, p.45.

selves should therefore take the lead in applying new teaching methods and techniques if a similar action is desired to prevail at schools.

The situation is further complicated by the fact that when trained teachers embark upon their first assignments in the schools they find that all that is required from them is to follow the chalk-and-talk approach. Thus they soon realize that what they were taught at the training institution was no more than 'another examination hurdle'. "As a rule, influenced by the positive correlation between textbooks, examinations and inspectors' attitudes, teachers tend to follow the textbooks to the exclusion of all other materials. ... Learning means listening to teachers, watching blackboards and memorizing statements to be reproduced in examinations."¹

Unless a mutual desire for change exists in both the schools and the training institutions and a more realistic approach to teaching methods is adopted, this situation will persist and the teacher training institutions will hardly have any claim regarding the importance of professional training and their role in bringing about any

1. El-Koussy, A.A.H., "Recent Trends and Developments in Primary and Secondary Education in the Arab World", International Review of Education, op.cit., p.208.

improvement in teaching methods in the schools.

At this point, reference should be made to the fact that whatever efforts are likely to be made towards the development of the provision of teacher education, they should be accompanied, if not preceded, by a similar endeavour to train the teacher's educator. Previous chapters indicate that the training institutions have been greatly dependent upon expatriates and the qualifications of the teaching staff have varied from those who have inadequate qualifications to those who are semi-qualified. The former constitute the majority, especially in the institutions of primary teachers. Yet, no programme has been initiated for the training of teacher educators. "Even if concerted efforts are made to establish the kind of teacher education curriculum and methodology relevant to the needs of tomorrow, they will still result in a low level of utility unless the teacher trainers themselves are trained to handle the new bodies of knowledge and the equipment and resources that go with them"¹

Whilst appreciating the efforts made to provide

1. Lewis, L.J., "Getting Good Teachers for Developing Countries", op.cit., p.403.

teacher training, the developments hitherto achieved and the difficulties confronted by the authorities concerned in their endeavours to build up an influential and attractive teaching profession, the difficulties that lie ahead to bring about constant development and, in some cases, radical change call for more individual and collective contribution. The following chapter is hoped to be an attempt in this direction.

CHAPTER SIX: PROPOSALS FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENT.

"There is a noticeable increase in the awareness that something is wrong with the training of teachers and that thorough reappraisal is needed. In the best, as well as in the least advanced countries, reforms, reorganisations, new experiments are appearing or are impending. There is an almost universal tendency to upgrade all teacher training institutions to university status."¹

Introduction:

The teacher training service in Saudi Arabia cannot but be developed gradually, and efforts at the first stage should be concentrated upon the provision of basic requirements essential for subsequent stages of development. This stems from a number of factors identified in the previous chapters. The most important of these are; firstly, teacher education is a key component of the education system and the provision of formal modern education in the Kingdom is in its initial stages of development. The major problems facing the educational authorities are essentially related to the adaptation of education to the country's socio-economic needs, and to curriculum development.

1. G.Z.F. Bereday and J.A. Lauwerys, "Editors' Introduction.", *The Year Book of Education*, 1963, op.cit., p.xiv.

Secondly, up to the present, innovations and changes that have been made in the field of teacher education have tended to be stop-gap in character, reflecting the ad hoc character of committee reviews and the limitations of isolated ideas which have temporarily gained some credence. The establishment of appropriate machineries which are capable of planning development, as distinct from change, is indispensable.

Thirdly, many details have been embarked upon before the establishment of basic criteria necessary for deciding aims and objectives. Ambiguity of aims has resulted in difficulties in deciding the different components of the curriculum, the apparent need for striking the balance between the different components as well as between theory and practice in the professional training, and the relating of aims and objectives to the immediate socio-economic circumstances.

The establishment and development of the required machinery and deciding basic criteria for aims and objectives cannot be accomplished overnight and this is especially true where deeply-rooted ineffective educational traditions are involved. Here, change has to be gradual; "Acceptance of the new will be more certain if minor con-

cepts and insights are introduced gradually. The greater the satisfaction with traditional methods, the more difficult it will be to move the group toward new goals. In other words, if meaningful dissatisfaction with existing ways can be parallel or precedes anticipated changes, it will be easier to accept and adopt new behavior."¹

Hence, the main concern in this chapter will be to put forward proposals which are related to the basic requirements necessary for the take-off stage of teacher education development. To put forward proposals relevant to details concerning subsequent stages would mean to produce a hotch-potch of ideas which tend to perpetuate, rather than diminish, the causes of the shortcomings of the teacher training service.

Professional Machinery; An Immediate Need:

Teacher education is a key component of the education system. In this respect, two factors have affected the teacher training service; the absence, till 1970, of any national policy of education and the traditional approach adopted towards curriculum development. The issue of the Educational Policy in 1970 is a significant step on the

1. Moffitt, J.C., op.cit., pp.16-17.

right direction but, to be implemented, many details have to be worked out, tested and modified accordingly.

Curriculum, which in a sense is the main manifestation of the Educational Policy, is still ill-defined and does not amount to more than a collection of syllabuses and subjects. Its change has accordingly been carried out by subject specialists and ad hoc committees. The teacher's role in the processes involved has not been fully recognized.

To implement the Educational Policy and bring about systematic curriculum reform, there is a need for a professional machinery working at a full-time capacity and at a national level. Hence, we propose the establishment of a central body which may be called 'The Centre of Curriculum Development and Educational Research'. The particular reference to educational research is due to the fact that in the Arab countries "there has been more interest in the expansion of school systems than in research to improve the content and methods of education."¹ Moreover, the task of the Centre in this respect is not only to initiate and organize research work but also to co-ordinate the efforts of research workers as far as

1. Akrawi, M., and El-Koussy, A.A., op.cit. p.189.

possible. Experience has shown that "There is often great waste in curriculum programmes in developing countries because there is rarely such a co-ordinator and so not only is there a dearth of basic information to work from, but what information does exist is frequently over-looked. Consequently many new projects start from scratch and make wasteful mistakes which they could well have avoided."¹

In addition to the right approach to curriculum development, there is a need for a dynamic national policy for the education and recruitment of teachers. The working out of this policy and its implementation, coupled with the need for creating a systematic working relation between the training institutions themselves, and between them and the school system should be undertaken by a central body which may be called 'The General Council of the Teachers' Affairs'.

The Centre of Curriculum Development and Educational Research:

Planning curriculum development is increasingly receiving adequate attention. "Apart from the almost universal move towards the planning of the development of

1. Hawes, H.W.R., Planning the Primary School Curriculum in Developing Countries, Unesco: International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris, 1972, p.27.

education with emphasis upon the relationship between education, skilled manpower needs and economic growth, the most significant new emphasis in education of the last two decades has been the concern with the revision and development of the curriculum. In some countries this has been pursued on a comprehensive and national scale. In other countries the movement has taken the form of pilot projects in particular aspects of the curriculum,¹..." The result of these variations in the pursuit of curriculum reform and innovation is reflected in a diversity of objectives and considerable contrasts in the composition of central bodies established to further curriculum development.

These principal factors suggest the need for identifying the factors relevant to the Saudi context so that the objects and structure of the proposed centre may be decided upon. The identification of these factors will certainly be affected by the limitations of the present study and its findings, the contribution of other studies and investigations, therefore, is indispensable.

The proposed centre will operate in a highly centra-

1. Lewis, L.J., Teacher Education in Changing Societies, op.cit., p.8.

lised system of education, in terms of educational, administrative and financial affairs. As co-education is prohibited, the education of boys and girls is undertaken by two independent bodies; the Ministry of Education and the General Presidency of the Education of Girls. Their work is only partially co-ordinated and mainly through the Supreme Committee of Education (Al-ladjnah Al-^ulyā Lilta^līm), which operates at a part-time capacity. Speculation regarding the decentralisation of the system or the amalgamation of these central educational bodies serves no useful purpose at present, bearing in mind that; the creation of a separate body to supervise the education of girls was based on religious and other socio-cultural considerations, the whole structure of the government is centralised and the great shortage of qualified teachers and other educational personnel which is even more acute with regard to women's education system.

More important, however, is to ensure the systematic co-ordination of the work of the Ministry and the General Presidency in the field of curriculum development and educational research, and also to assist them in securing the co-operation of the various educational interests. It is a well known fact that "the present time is one in which sharp concern for curriculum is being shown in

several quarters: it is not always the official voice of central or local government which is loudest. Parents and employers as well as teachers and their pupils are expected to understand and to be to some degree enlightened."¹

As the proposed centre will serve the Ministry and the General Presidency simultaneously, on the one hand, and that they are independent of each other, the question of control may be raised. It seems that there can be two ways in deciding upon this issue; either that the centre is co-chaired by representatives of the two educational authorities or to be under the control of the Supreme Committee of Education. The latter measure is recommended on the following grounds.

The Supreme Committee was set up in 1963 (1383 A.H.) under the decision of the council of Ministers No. 2577 dated 28.1.1383 A.H., 1963 A.D., to supervise the whole educational policy in the Kingdom. It is under the chairmanship of H.R.H. the Deputy Prime Minister and its membership includes the Ministers of Defence and Education, the General President of the Education of Girls and other members of ministerial rank. It operates at a

1. Owen, J.G., The Management of Curriculum Development, Cambridge University Press, 1973, p.5.

part-time capacity.¹

It seems that in order to play its role more effectively, the Supreme Committee needs to establish some full-time specialized agencies operating at a national level. The proposed centre of curriculum probably comes on the top of these needed professional instruments. Whilst the Committee will give the Centre a recognised status necessary for it to fulfil its functions at a national level, the Centre, on its part, will enable the Committee to maintain its national educational responsibilities.

If this pattern of organization is accepted, there would be a need to establish two smaller units of curriculum development at the Ministry of Education and the General Presidency of the Education of Girls at a later time. These two units will draw upon the guidance of the Centre and become its executive tools at the level of both educational authorities.

Within this context, and apart from the implications of the general definitions of the terms 'curriculum', 'curriculum development' and 'educational research', the following considerations, as seen from the viewpoint of

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1. Article 231 of the Educational Policy refers to the intention of creating a Supreme Council for Education but this has not been implemented yet.

the present study, i.e., teacher education and the teacher's role in the development of the curriculum, may also help in identifying the objects of the Centre. First, the need for the careful examination, drawing on all available sources of knowledge and informed judgement, of aims and objectives. Teacher education courses have suffered greatly from the ambiguity and rather unrealistic ambition of the aims of the schools curricula.

Secondly, the termination of the artificial divorce between content and methods. Present practice considers the content as the most, or even the only, important element of the curriculum. This has resulted in (a) little attention being paid to the development of teaching methods and the use of new techniques; (b) the perpetuation of rote learning and that teaching has been limited to chalk and talk; and (c) whatever methods are taught at the training institutions are considered in a vacuum with no prospect of being applied in the classroom. This theory/practice dichotomy is likely to result in the consideration of the study of teaching methods merely as another examination hurdle.

Thirdly, there has to be a research oriented curriculum and the point of action is in the classroom and in

the school. At present, classroom experience is never formulated or described. Teachers have not been called upon seriously to convey their views with regard to the outcome of their efforts in implementing the objectives and the content of the adopted curriculum. "The curriculum development position in the 1970s and the 1980s will not be so simple. Some of the curriculum developments have failed, at any rate in part, just because they were not fully tested under the normal school conditions. And the process of try-out and feedback are aspects of evaluation."¹

Fourthly, there is a need for the reconsideration of the way in which textbooks are being prepared as well as the re-identification of their place in the education process. Under present practice, there is no relationship between those who decide the syllabuses, who write the textbooks, who select them, and who use them; i.e. teachers and pupils. The adopted procedure is that of setting up ad hoc committees to study texts written, in a free competition, by subject specialists - not necessarily having any teaching experience. Both groups; authors

1. Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, The Nature of the Curriculum for the Eighties and Onwards, Report on a workshop held at the Reinhardswaldschule, Kassel, Germany, from 29th June to 4th July, 1970, OECD., 1972, p.58.

and members of the selection committees, attempt to satisfy the requirements of syllabuses decided by a third group. Only one textbook in each subject for each year of study is finally chosen, published and distributed freely for pupils. Boys and girls have their respective textbooks.

The relevance of the chosen textbooks to the aims of the curriculum, the objectives of the subject courses and their suitability to each school - urban or rural - are taken for granted even before they are actually tried out. Teachers have to use them almost to the exclusion of any other materials. This attitude adds to the passive tolerance of the education process by both teachers and pupils. There is no room for manoeuvre about how much is relevant or how much can be replaced or rebuilt. The textbook thus becomes the only source of knowledge and the teacher's role is conceived merely in terms of transmitting certain specific pieces of information.

Fifthly, the Centre is to attempt to generate a new outlook in respect of examinations. The expectations of parents, pupils, universities and employers have hitherto led to the examinations being considered as the most important aspect of education and they stress the knowledge

content of separate subjects. This attitude has resulted in the curriculum being something fitted to the process of the examination rather than the other way round, and the teacher's role to be conceived in terms of preparing his pupils for the examination. His efficiency is judged on the merit of how many of his pupils have passed. It is hoped that the Centre, in co-operation with teacher training institutions and the mass media, will reduce the influence of public examinations so that eventually they are not considered the only valid criteria of educational success for pupils and professional efficiency for teachers, otherwise whatever role may be decided for teachers to play will remain utopian.

However, Saudi Arabia is not the only country to be faced with these difficulties. Nor do we expect the Centre to perform a miracle in the process of solving them. Time is needed. In other words, we expect for the Centre what Sir John Maud had expected for the Schools Council in England and Wales. "If we succeed" he wrote, "... success will be a long-term process of fostering a new dynamic in the schools. And this dynamic will take effect only as new ideas of what to teach and how to teach are tried out in classrooms up and down the country, and as examinations come to be recognised by all concerned

as part and parcel of the teaching process and are so modified that they become the servants of the educators."¹

One final factor has to be considered. Better curriculum and scientific research generally require highly qualified and adequately trained personnel as well as financial resources. Whilst the latter aspect is not much of a problem with regard to Saudi Arabia, the great shortage of qualified personnel, on the other hand, can be a hindrance for the establishment of the Centre. Thus, the training of a cadre of persons qualified for the job has to be taken seriously otherwise only a lip-service would be paid to research and curriculum development.

The author is a staunch believer in the far-reaching effects of the small - but well considered - start. This concept suggests that the Centre will have to be developed gradually and as it develops so does the curriculum. Unrealistically ambitious projects can leave the whole project in the middle of nowhere. The seemingly appropriate approach, therefore, is to have a short-term and a long-term plan which essentially require the establishment of priorities. The criteria to be used here can be based on

1. The Schools Council, Change and Response, the first year's work: October 1964 - September 1965, HMSO., 1965, see Foreword, p.iii.

the identification of the areas the development of which is most urgently needed, the availability and unavailability of the required personnel - inside and outside the country - and the level and length of the training required. At this point, however, we would add that gradualism should not be conceived as akin to a discontinuity of policy. It rather means the execution of one coherent plan over a number of defined stages.

In the light of the above considerations, and within the limits of the present study, the following line may be suggested for the objects and structure of the Centre.

Introduction:-

The purpose to be pursued would be the introduction of a system of continuous renewal of the schools curricula with a view to them being systematically developed to meet changing needs; to co-ordinate the work of the Ministry of Education and the General Presidency of the Education of Girls; and to encourage and co-ordinate educational research. This demands the establishment of the Centre of Curriculum Development and Educational Research.

The objectives of the Centre must be guided by:-

1. The aims and objectives of the Educational Policy of

the Kingdom;

2. Existing defects and short-comings in the schools curricula in terms of aims and objectives, content, methods and evaluation;
3. The implication of 2 for the teacher training, the teacher's role in the education process, and the inspectoral and administrative aspects of the education system.

General Objectives:-

Within these general guidelines the main objectives of the Centre can be described as:-

1. To provide facilities for:-
 - 1.1. the identification of curriculum problems at the primary, intermediate and secondary levels;
 - 1.2. the development of appropriate experiemental programmes, materials and techniques;
 - 1.3. the evaluation of both existing and experimental programmes, materials including textbooks, and techniques in the light of the agreed aims and objectives for each educational level;
2. To develop resource centre in the educational zones, through the co-operation of the Ministry of Education and the General Presidency of the Education of Girls, so that teachers understanding, co-operation, orient-

ation and support will be obtained in the achievement of objectives};

3. To develop in each subject, as far as possible, a variety of choice of materials and textbooks;
4. To co-operate with the Ministry of Education and the General Presidency of the Education of Girls in the development of the examination system, its constant evaluation and the interpretation and assessment of the examinations results;
5. To assist individuals and educational institutions in the field of educational research and provide, as far as possible, facilities for:- (a) the identification of educational aspects and problems where research is most urgently needed; (b) bibliographical information on researches already carried out and those being undertaken.

Administrative Organisation:-

The following pattern of organisation is suggested so as to enable the Centre to secure a professional as well as social approach to curriculum development, establishing adequate two-way systems of communication to ensure that its activities have the support of those involved in education and to assist in making the best use of existing professional expertise.

1. Permanent staff, comprising; (a) the Director of the Centre; (b) the General Secretary; (c) the Director of Administrative and Financial Affairs; and (d) a number of specialists.
2. An Advisory Board, composed of:-
 - (a) Chairman - the Director of the Centre.
 - (b) Secretary - the General Secretary of the Centre
 - (c) Members - Representatives from:-
 - i. the permanent staff of specialists.
 - ii. The Ministry of Education.
 - iii. The General Presidency of the Education of Girls.
 - iv. The General Council of the Teachers Affairs.
 - v. The Educational Zones.
 - vi. The Tertiary Level Teacher Training Institutions.
 - vii. Co-opted Members.

The function of this board would include; (a) discussion of general policy, in terms of establishing the Centre policy; (b) discussion of progress and problems arising from the work of the Centre; and (c) dissemination of information to members' respective authorities.

General Matters:-

1. The Centre will be under the control of the Supreme Committee of Education, and its director is to be appointed a member of the Committee;
2. The Centre will have its own administrative and financial regulation which would define the function of;
(a) the Director and the senior staff of the Centre. The function of the Director would include:
(i) the implementation of the general policy in terms of established objectives; (ii) the supervision and direction of technical, administrative and financial affairs; (iii) the allocation of the duties of the specialized members of the Centre; (iv) representing the Centre on the boards of the faculties of education and other tertiary level teacher training institutions.
(b) The permanent staff of experts. Here, regular team discussions are envisaged particularly during preliminary stages and at intervals during the various activities of the Centre. In addition, each individual member will assume responsibility within his own specialism for;
(i) selection of areas of weakness and establishment of priorities within these areas; (ii) production, trial use, evaluation and modification of materials; and (iii) maintenance of liaison with, co-ordination of the efforts of teams

- at the educational zones level;
3. The Centre would enter into a special relationship with the faculties of education and other tertiary level teacher training institutions so that their staffs could assist in the production, evaluation of present and experimental materials, and in day to day supervision of the work in the areas where the training institutions are located;
 4. University experts, both at home and abroad, could be enlisted as the occasion permitted, at both the head office and the educational zones levels, to advise on a wide variety of specialised difficulties and problems. In addition, the Centre should attempt to forge close links with bodies carrying out similar work in other countries by exchange of visits of experts, specialists in relevant disciplines, and publications;
 5. The Centre should have its budget. The following considerations may be taken into account: (a) co-ordination of work with both the Ministry and the General Presidency; (b) the priorities established; and (c) co-ordination of efforts with the Ministry, the General Presidency and the teacher training institutions in respect of in-service education. A

clear decision needs to be taken regarding the programmes that are to be provided by each of the above educational authorities and institutions stating whether the expenditures will be met by the Centre or to be included in the budget of these bodies according to the courses provided.

The General Council of the Teachers Affairs:

Although the Centre of Curriculum Development and the General Council of the Teachers Affairs are complementary to one another, the latter will inevitably deal with a different set of issues and problems. Thus reference will be made to these issues which may help establishing criteria for deciding the objects and structure of the Council.

Teacher education is undertaken by a number of institutions controlled by different authorities. Contact between these institutions is sporadic. Moreover, the advancement in the training of teachers has proceeded on many fronts without an overall policy. The result has been the emergence of a variety of programmes which lack a basic training philosophy. This is apparent in the abolishment of old courses and the provision of new ones for training the primary teacher, as well as the different,

sometimes extreme, approaches adopted at the training institutions of the tertiary level. Accordingly, there is an apparent need for a systematic correlation of efforts between the different educational authorities and training institutions to decide at least the minimum standard of adequacy which is to be observed at a national level.

But the guidance that a national body would provide in administrative and training matters, and the means by which its application is monitored is of crucial importance to the wellbeing of the training institutions and the teaching profession. If the guidance is to be narrowly prescriptive the education of teachers would suffer the dead hand of uniform rigidity and the training institutions would be without initiative. "Where a professional qualification is involved, clearly academic bodies must be sensitive to professional requirements and must be willing to take professional advice, but external control over content and method, clumsily applied, would dangerously erode essential academic freedoms."¹

Another important factor that contributed to the haphazard advancement of teacher education is due to the

1. Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education, Executive Committee, Education: A Framework for Expansion, A Commentary, May 1973, cyclostyled, p.10.

absence of a two-way traffic between training institutions and schools which could have provided the former with one solid ground for evaluation of courses. This is a very important aspect of teacher education and has received ample consideration by educationists in general and teacher educators in particular. In the words of the Plowden Report; "The schools and colleges are yoked together. The purpose of training is to produce good teachers who will serve the schools. It cannot be achieved unless the staff of training institutions know what is happening in the schools and are sympathetic to their needs. Equally, schools will not provide good conditions for young teachers and students on teaching practice unless their staffs understand what the training institutions are trying to do."¹

Accordingly, every possible means has to be utilized to bring about such a desirable goal. The efforts of each individual training institution, the proposed centre of curriculum development and the General Council of the Teachers Affairs are some of these means.

If the issues and problems identified above are

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1. Department of Education and Science, Children and Their Primary Schools, A Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England), Vol. 1, the Report, London: HMSO., Para. 984, p.348.

essentially related to the qualitative aspect of teacher education, adequate consideration should also be given to the quantitative aspect. The dimensions of this aspect are manifested in the fact that there is a need for a national plan of teacher supply and demand. The difficulties here arise from; (a) the co-ordination of policy in respect of input; (b) the intake has to be planned according to areas of specialization and not in general terms; (c) there is at present, and will be for a long time to come, a dearth of basic data required for planning; (d) the integration of the plan in the national plan of the development of the Kingdom; and (e) the processes of implementation, revision and modification according to changing needs and circumstances.

Difficult as it is, the task also involves the reconciliation of the qualitative and quantitative aspects of training and recruitment, bearing in mind the great shortage of indigenous teachers, and that teaching is still largely considered a bridge-occupation; and the shortage of skilled manpower resources in the country as a whole. Under similar circumstances, experience has shown that the process of reconciliation is not easily maintained. "... the problem of teacher supply" argues Philip Coombs, "is not of simple numbers. It is first and foremost a

problem of quality - of getting a large enough quantity of the right quality. ... Looked at in this light - and in full context of a nation's over-all manpower position - the teacher supply problem is seen to have its origin in three hard facts: the first fact is that education is a mass production, labor-intensive industry, still tied to a handcraft technology. The second fact is that education, in contrast to other industries, is both a producer and a consumer of high-level manpower; if it is to serve all other consumers of manpower well - and each generation better - it must constantly recoup enough of its own best output to reproduce a good further crop. The third fact, tied to the other two, is that in the competition to win back enough of its own best quality products, education is usually at a disadvantage. It often ends up with a high proportion of 'second choice' candidates. Education is at a disadvantage because other competitors with larger purses set the standards for attractive salaries."¹

These difficulties, however, do not imply the neglect of planning or the issue of reconciliation.

Finally, there is the question of remuneration, promotion and the social status of teachers. The present

1. Coombs, Philip, *The World Educational Crisis: A Systems Analysis*, Oxford University Press, 1969, p.34.

thesis is based on the principle that consideration must be equally given to adequate training and adequate material rewards. They are two sides of one currency. The fallacy of the consideration of material rewards as the most effective incentive to attract people to the teaching profession has already been established. Yet, the consideration of the provision of adequate training in isolation from adequate rewards will, in turn, prove inadequate because other jobs with more attractive salaries are available and that the teacher is, after all, a human being.

Thus, there will be a need, as will be discussed later, for a special cadre for the teaching profession. The working out of the details of this cadre, its implementation and revision constitute a full-time job which has to be accomplished at a national level. Neither the formulation of this cadre, nor its implementation will be possible unless a better systematic communication exists between, on the one hand, teachers and their employers, and, on the other, the officials responsible for financial, employment, planning and mass media affairs, as well as the society as represented by parents. For the cry for a sympathetic understanding and appreciation, on the part of society, of the importance of the teaching profession

and the onerous nature of the teacher's duties is likely to remain as an empty motto unless all parties concerned can talk to each other directly, objectively and as regularly as possible. Without such a direct contact, the teacher will remain to be considered by the man in the financial department as a figure in the budget; by the man in the employment department in terms of vacant and filled-up jobs; by the man in the planning department as representing one sector in the plan of manpower needs; and by the parents as an agent who prepares their children for the examination. Similarly, if teachers and other educationists and their employers do not talk with these people they may be tempted to live in the illusion that the teaching profession is the only profession that the State should cater for.

With these considerations in mind, the proposed Council may prove to be the national forum for regular and constructive contact. We hasten to add that under no circumstances can the Council be envisaged to mitigate, let alone substitute, the importance of direct communication between home and school, teachers and parents, and the institutions of teacher education and the community they serve. In fact, the Council may be conceived as a symbol emphasising the need for such communication.

If the above issues and problems are considered sufficient enough to justify the establishment of the Teachers' Council, and hence throw some light on the nature of its objectives and structure, there remains the issue of control. For the same reasons expressed earlier while discussing the control of the Centre of Curriculum Development, it is suggested that the Council should be controlled by the Supreme Committee of Education. It should also have its own administrative and financial regulation as well as its own budget.

In the light of the above considerations, the following line is suggested for the development of the objectives and composition of the Council.

General Objectives

1. To prepare a national policy of teacher education in order to enable the institutions of teacher education to fulfil their functions effectively. The Council is also to advise on subsequent modifications according to changing needs and circumstances.
2. The Council is not intended to run the institutions of teacher education but to provide for a systematic contact and promote channels of exchanging ideas within the teacher training service.

3. To promote systematic contact between teacher training institutions and the schools through the representation of both on the board of the Council. Other means should also be utilized such as the arrangement of formal and informal meetings, organizing local and national seminars, relevant publications and the use of the mass media.
4. To become a national forum for exchanging views and ideas between all those concerned with the training and work of teachers as well as their financial and social welfare. These would include - apart from teachers, headmasters, inspectors and educational administrators - teacher training institutions, the Ministries of Finance and Information, the Personnel Department, the Central Planning Organisation, and parents.
5. To prepare, in co-operation with other concerned bodies, a short-term plan and a long-term plan of teacher supply and demand according to each area of study, type and level of education. Proper consideration should be given to the qualitative aspects of training, the co-ordination of policy with regard to input of student teachers, and the revision and modification of the adopted plans in the light of changing

circumstances.

6. To submit to the authorities concerned a project of a special salary structure for the educational profession. The structure should provide for (i) the consideration of the profession as one coherent profession including teachers and other educational personnel; (ii) definition of qualifications and experience required for each grade and level of responsibility; (iii) proper emphasis of in-service training; and (iv) adequate initial salaries, other appropriate allowances and systematic promotion.
7. To develop a resource centre through which data and information about teacher education and recruitment may be obtained.
8. To issue bibliographical information regularly about the research work that has been carried out as well as researches which are being undertaken in the country.
9. To carry out other assignments as required by the Supreme Committee of Education.

Administrative Organisation

The following pattern of organisation is suggested with the view of enabling the Council to perform its work at a professional level and establishing adequate two-

way systems of communication to ensure that its activities have the support of all those concerned.

1. Senior permanent staff, to include:

- 1.1. the Director of the Council (preferably a well experienced teacher's educator);
- 1.2. the General Secretary;
- 1.3. the Director of Administrative and Financial Affairs;
- 1.4. Specialists in the various activities of the Council as inferred from its objectives.

2. The Board of the Council; to be composed of:

- 2.1. Chairman - the Director of the Council;
- 2.2. Secretary - the General Secretary of the Council;
- 2.3. Members - (a) the permanent specialists of the Council,
(b) Representatives from:
 - the Ministry of Education, including teachers, headmasters, inspectors and educational administrators,
 - the General Presidency of the Education of Girls,
 - the Universities (faculties of

- education and other institutions engaged in teacher education),
- the Ministry of Finance,
 - the Ministry of Information,
 - the Employment Department,
 - the Central Planning Organisation,
 - parents.

The functions of the Board would include:

1. discussion of matters of general policy;
2. discussion of progress and problems arising from the work of the Council;
3. dissemination of information to members' respective authorities; and
4. securing the participation and support of parents.

Finally, as the Council will be under the control of the Supreme Committee of Education, it is expected that the Director of the Council to be appointed as a member of the Committee.

We realize that women teachers and educationists are not likely to take part in the meetings of the general boards of the Centre of Curriculum Development and the Council of the Teachers Affairs. Their participation, nevertheless, should be secured through their encourage-

ment to formulate their own ideas and assessment of all activities related to the work of these two central bodies. They also should have their own meetings and seminars. Communication between them and the two central bodies can be regularized through the representatives of the General Presidency of the Education of Girls. Closed-circuit television can also be used whenever appropriate.

A Special Salary Structure for the Educational Profession:

One of the urgent needs is the formulation of a special salary structure for the teaching profession because planning for the improvement of the academic and professional education of teachers should be accompanied by steps to improve the attractiveness of teaching as an occupation. The question which imposes itself in this respect is what are the main criteria on which this structure should be formulated?

As referred to earlier, teaching has for long been considered as a religious duty and only recently has it started developing the very first characteristic features of a profession. Nevertheless, like elsewhere, "Because its advance in this direction has been of piecemeal and sometimes sporadic nature, and because it is still in the process of evolution, the teaching profession has remained

relatively unstructured and loosely defined. It lacks the symmetry and precision of organisation to be found in some of the older professions. Sometimes even its own practitioners do not agree on the definition of its limits."¹

At present, the teaching profession is regarded to include all those who are engaged in classroom instruction, whether they are qualified or not. Other educational personnel such as inspectors, educational administrators and even headmasters are considered as a distinctive group within the educational service. They are of a status which is essentially higher than that accorded to teachers. This gap between the two levels of personnel has been further widened by two factors. The first is that under the pressing need for personnel to fill-up the jobs of the higher echelons of the educational hierarchy, a tradition has developed according to which teaching experience has not been considered as a relevant qualification for these jobs. Secondly, promotion to senior posts has been largely pursued on ad hoc bases; the new

1. Anderson, A.W., "The Teaching Profession: An Example of Diversity in Training and Function", N.B. Henry, (Ed.), Education for the Professions, the Sixty First Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Chicago, NSSE., 1962, p.140.

graduates - qualified as teachers or not - and people who have spent a varying number of years in teaching - successfully or otherwise - can be seen working side by side.

This situation has been further complicated by the fact that at the school level, all those who are engaged in classroom teaching come under the title 'teacher', whether they are qualified teachers, semi-qualified or unqualified, and whether they have a long or a very short teaching experience.

These factors have resulted in the teacher being considered in a position inferior to that of other educational personnel as well as lacking any definite channel for promotion. This is one reason that the teaching profession is regarded as a 'dead level'; "at the best a dull tableland which, you have once surmounted, you have no other rise before you and look forward only to going down wearily at its end."¹

In the light of the above analysis, the following considerations may be regarded as a base while formulating

1. As quoted by Tropp, A., *The School Teachers: The Growth of the Teaching Profession in England and Wales from 1800 to the Present Day*, William Heinemann Ltd., 1957, p.40.

the desired structure:

First, the starting-point is to put an end to the prevalent artificial, and rather arbitrary, division between teachers, on the one hand, and other educational personnel, on the other hand. This may be achieved if the profession is conceived in terms of 'education' and not simply 'teaching' so that it comes to be known as the 'educational profession'. One implication of this concept is that teachers, headmasters, inspectors and educational administrators will all be included under the title 'educational personnel'. The other implication is that the required structure will not be for teachers only, as envisaged in the Educational Policy, but rather for the educational profession as a whole. This is one means of opening channels of promotion for teachers.

Secondly, the structure should aim at creating a recognized status for the profession, and protecting and extending it. This goal can be achieved if professional traditions are established and observed. Some of these traditions are; (a) admission into the profession has to be controlled by the requirement of basic qualifications and that advancement and promotion are based on objective assessment of qualifications and suitability. This is pre-requisite for the educational occupation to be

accorded the status of a profession by the public. It "must ensure that all practitioners have a high standard of general education and professional preparation, and that the unqualified and poorly qualified are progressively eliminated from its rank."¹ (b) The 'qualified teacher' should be considered the nucleus of the whole profession. The exclusion of the unqualified teacher is maintained not only in harmony with the previously stated tradition but also in view of the fact that "One of the reasons why teachers are often invested with a low academic and economic status is that skilled professionals, semi-professionals and non-professionals have been encapsulated under the single umbrella of the teaching profession..²

Thirdly, the newly appointed qualified teacher should be given a special consideration. This is suggested on the ground that "There is no major profession to which a new entrant, however thorough his initial training, can be expected immediately to make a full contribution."³ This implies that the initial programmes of teacher education can no longer attempt to achieve too much in too

1 R.K. Kelsall & H.M. Kelsall, "The Status, Role & Future of Teachers", In: E.J. King., (Ed), *The Teacher and the Needs of Society in Evolution*, Pergamon Press, 1970. P.114

2 Renshaw, P., "A Flexible Curriculum for Teacher Education", In: D.E. Lomax, (Ed), *op. cit.*, p. 223

3 *Education: A Framework for Expansion*, Presented to Parliament by the Secretary of State for Education and Science by Command of Her Majesty, December 1972, London, HMSO, P.19

short a time "and a sharper focus needs to be placed on curricular priorities during this period."¹ It also implies that the new teacher "should have the support of an experienced colleague and not be expected to take full responsibility for all aspects of the role he will eventually assume"² Accordingly, we suggest his appointment as an 'assistant teacher' for a period ranging from two to three years before being promoted to the status of 'teacher'. It is hoped that this measure would indicate the limitations of both his duties and rights, and differentiate between him and the teacher, i.e., the one who has already passed through this induction period successfully.

Fourthly, the consideration of the qualified teacher as the nucleus of the whole profession indicates that satisfactory teaching experience should be considered as a relevant qualification for promotion to, or application for, the senior posts in the educational hierarchy such as headmastership, inspection and educational administration. There is ample evidence that many educational policies and decisions have failed to achieve their objectives because of the lack of teaching experience and

1. Ranshaw, P., op.cit., p.224.

2. Lord James Report, op.cit., Para. 3.20, p.25.

acquaintance with the schools working conditions.

Fifthly, promotion or the undertaking of new responsibilities should be linked with the serious participation in, and the successful passing of specially designed in-service training courses. Seniority can no longer be based on age or time factor alone. Complaints about the work of the inspectors, for instance, know no limitation in the educational literature, but is it not true that such shortcomings are, at any rate in part, due to the trifling attention being given to the provision of specially designed courses to qualify persons for the inspectorate so as to perform their task more effectively?

The above demands may sound utopian. But, has the teaching profession made significant gains by requiring simple demands or by remaining loosely organised? "It wouldn't matter whether education were a profession, if education were only a matter of schooling. But it is much more than that. For one thing, it increasingly goes on in extra-school setting. For another, it has become central to the lives of so many people that it cannot be left to its own devices. It is the principal means of entrée to a wider world for most people; it is the principal pre-requisite for modernisation in the third

world: Possession of some certificate of educational completion is required for entry into almost any occupation ... Education is the angry preoccupation of a majority of the world's people. The quality and the authority of educationists, whoever they may be in the future, are therefore part of what is central to many societal problems. Both quality and authority ... are caught up in the term 'professional'.¹

The Re-organization of the Provision of Primary Teacher Education:

The improvement of the provision of primary teacher training has to be given a high priority for primary education is the foundation of any educational system. The starting-point, however, is that one should be reasonably realistic and utilize the realities of the situation, as far as possible, to put the development plan into effect.

The realities of the situation, as inferred from previous chapters, can be summarized as follows: (a) for a variety of reasons, primary education has been, and is still, considered as the least important educational level; (b) teaching, therefore, could be trusted to unqualified

1. Foshay, A.W., "Introduction", *The Professional as Educator*, edited by A.W. Foshay, Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1970, p.1.

persons, and at the very best to semi-qualified teachers; (c) a tradition has developed, out of these considerations, according to which teaching at the primary level is considered as one of these jobs which come next to manual work, in a society which is still trying to rid itself of the social phenomenon of despising manual labour; and (d) there is a great shortage of indigenous primary teachers. Their percentage is around 55% only. The causes of the wastage-rate are not only those related to the low social status of the teaching profession but also that the primary teacher training institutions have failed to meet the educational ambition of some of the leavers. Thus they have left the service to pursue their higher education.

It is obvious that these realities present themselves not only in terms of physical obstacles but also in terms of social and educational concepts which are deep-seated and no would-be reformer can afford to ignore them. Accordingly, development will be gradual. But, gradualism here must neither allow for excessive time to elapse, unnecessarily, before the ultimate goal is achieved, nor is it to be considered akin to a discontinuity of policy which characterizes the primary teacher training system. Within this context, and the limits set forth in the introduction to this chapter, the following proposal may be put

forward for consideration.

It is assumed that, sooner or later, primary teacher education should be undertaken by institutions of the tertiary level. To achieve this goal, a transitional stage has to be planned for. It involves the provision of primary teacher education as a joint responsibility of the Ministry of Education and the universities acting through the faculties of education. The final objectives of this pattern of organisation are; (a) the full participation of the universities in the process of the development of primary education and the undertaking of the training of primary teachers. It is unfortunate that, at the tertiary level training institutions, concern for the training of the intermediate and secondary schools teachers has been given precedence over the training of primary teachers. (b) To raise the standard of primary teacher education to become, in the end, equivalent to that of the teachers of the intermediate and secondary levels while in the mean time avoiding one of the fatal defects of primary teacher training courses, namely the discontinuity of policy.

To achieve the first objective, the following procedures are suggested:

1. The Ministry of Education should delegate to the universities the task of training the primary teacher.
2. There is at present a department in the Ministry of Education which is responsible for the institutions of primary teacher education (for men). The new pattern of organisation requires the enlargement of the scope of the department to include the responsibilities for following-up the education of intermediate and secondary schools teachers. The function of the department in this respect is not to run the training institutions but rather to act as a co-ordinating body, within the Ministry and between the Ministry and the universities, in matters related to teacher education.
3. The boards of the tertiary level training institutions should include representatives from the Ministry. They can be chosen from the above mentioned department as well as the inspectors. Through such representation, additional ideas and channels of communication can be promoted between the Ministry and the training institutions. The former will be offered specialized advice on education while the latter will be kept in touch with the needs of the schools.
4. Until the proposed council of the teachers affairs is

established, a standing committee is needed to co-ordinate the work between the Ministry and the tertiary level training institutions. The members of this committee can be chosen from the representatives of the Ministry on the boards of the training institutions and from some members of these boards. If the proposed council is founded, this committee can then operate within its framework. The minutes of the meetings of the training institutions boards should be regularly sent to the permanent secretariat of the standing committee.

With regard to the second objective, namely the organization of the course, reference should be made first to the main shortcomings of the present course. These are; (a) the course is of three years' duration after the completion of intermediate education, i.e. the duration is equivalent to that of the secondary level. As the course provides studies in general education as well as professional training concurrently, the result has been that the standard of leavers in the general subjects is considerably lower than that of the leavers of secondary education, and their knowledge in the subjects relevant to the professional training is inadequate; (b) the course is considered as a closed educational level, it

does not qualify its graduates to pursue their higher education or any type of further education. This is one of the causes of the wastage-rate as referred to earlier. The Ministry of Education and the Universities are trying to arrive at a working formula which is conducive to the acceptance of the leavers of the institutions of primary teacher education in the faculties of education and Shari'ah. No clear policy has yet emerged.

With these considerations in mind, the proposed course will be essentially different from the present one. It is of seven years duration (grades 1-7) after the completion of intermediate education, i.e., the first three years (grades 1-3) are equivalent to those of secondary education, and the last four years (grades 4-7) are equivalent to the duration of the degree course provided by the faculties of education.

The course will be divided into two levels; the basic course and the advanced course. The former consists of the first five years of study (grades 1-5), i.e., equivalent to the duration of secondary education and the first two years of the degree course provided by the above named faculties. Accordingly, the basic course will be in fact two years longer than the present course of

primary teacher education. This will enable the training institutions to provide the students with adequate general education which exceeds the level of secondary education and takes them well into the requirements of the first two years of the degree course. In addition, the students will be professionally prepared for their immediate task as primary teachers.

The advanced course consists of two years duration (grades 6-7) after the completion of the basic course and it will be provided at the faculties of education of Riyadh and King Abdul-aziz universities. The candidates should; (i) have good records while pursuing the basic course; (ii) two-year teaching experience at the primary level; and (iii) have shown interest in the educational profession. Those who pass the advanced course successfully are entitled to the first degree issued by the faculties of education.¹

This advanced level of training will be introduced for some years to come on a voluntary basis, i.e., should not be immediately required as the basic qualification for teaching in the primary schools. The reasons are; first,

1. The Faculty of Shari'ah has been excluded for reasons discussed later in the chapter.

it is unrealistic to raise the standard of the present course of primary teacher education suddenly from the secondary level to the university level. There has to be an interim period, bearing in mind that the schools are in a desperate need for teachers. Secondly, it is certainly difficult at present, and perhaps for some time to come, to convince graduate teachers to work at the primary level. This is due to the low standard of primary education and the unfavourable social status of primary teachers. The gradual implementation of the proposed advanced course would, therefore, give the educational authorities concerned, including universities, sufficient time to develop a new curriculum for primary education and start building up a new image for this rather important educational level.

In addition to this pattern of organization, other means should be explored to recruit primary teachers with better qualifications than those which exist at present. Some of these are; (a) to develop a course which meets the requirements of the last two years of the basic course described above; i.e., grades 4-5, to be joined by the holders of the secondary education certificate who wish to become primary teachers. (b) The staffs of the tertiary level training institutions as well as other

university faculties can contribute, on a voluntary basis, to the process of building-up the new image of primary education by participating in teaching as part-time teachers. Is it too much, for instance, to ask an educator to go to his old primary school, or to the nearest school, and help in running its affairs? Furthermore, such experience will help the teacher's educators to obtain some very important hard facts about the teaching/learning situation and the working conditions in the primary schools. This is one way to initiate the feedback process which is necessary for the evaluation of the training courses. (c) The faculties of education and Shari'ah may consider it appropriate to start providing courses for their students who would volunteer to start their teaching careers at the primary level. At present, the courses are exclusively directed towards preparing the future teachers of the intermediate and secondary schools. (d) Teaching experience in the primary schools can become one of the criteria upon which promotion may be decided, provided that the basic qualifications are met.

With regard to the development of the provision of primary teacher education for women, we can see no reason for not applying the above procedures. The main dis-

advantage here is that the faculties of education for women are still in the very early stages of development, they cannot, therefore, work out and supervise the implementation of the details of the suggested programme of training. Accordingly, closer links should be established between the General Presidency of the Education of Girls and the Ministry of Education and the universities. Moreover, the General Presidency should be represented in the above mentioned standing committee.

Finally, we are not of the opinion of establishing small training institutions; adequate buildings and library and laboratory facilities take time to provide. Furthermore, the qualified teacher's educators are very scarce. Therefore, ample consideration should be given to the size and distribution of institutions. In fact, we are in favour of establishing residential teacher training institutions wherever possible, for this will help organising the students' time and utilizing it more effectively. Moreover, "it cannot be too strongly stressed that teachers would be ill-served indeed if large numbers of them were to receive their whole education in their immediate environment. The social and cultural in-breeding which would result from spending the school-college-school cycle in the same community would be pro-

professionally disastrous."¹ For a variety of reasons described earlier, this suggestion is not automatically applicable to the institutions of women teachers education.

Aims, Content and Methodology: Some Basic Principles and Considerations:

The content of the curricula of the training institutions has been affected by the ambiguity of aims and objectives. Under educational circumstances similar to those described early in this chapter, the formulation of precise aims is not easy. Still more difficult is to decide objectives because "Aims are broad statements; objectives are detailed items."² Furthermore, deciding aims and objectives, though important as it is, does not suffice to provide all the basic criteria needed for the development of content. For there remains the definition of the teacher's role and functions in both society and school.

Here, the experience of other countries, including

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1. Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education, Executive Committee, Education: A Framework for Expansion, A Commentary, London: May 1973, Cyclostyled, pp. 17-18.
 2. Leeds University Institute of Education, The Objectives of Teacher Education, NFER, 1973, p.9.

developed countries, has shown that despite all the research work that has been carried out for rather a considerable time, no definite conclusions have been drawn yet. "During the present century, and especially since the Second World War, some educational research has been concerned to analyse the teacher's role and function. Yet a survey of this research has recently shown that no clear cut conclusions emerge and that a great deal of work remains to be done."¹

The present study cannot hope to rectify this situation. Nevertheless, a break through has to be made so that the gradual development of content and methodology may be achieved. We suggest, therefore, that present inadequacies and the Educational Policy be taken as a base for further investigation and improvement. The Educational Policy was issued in 1970 but no significant step has yet been taken towards its gradual implementation. If it is not to remain as a theory in legislation, it should be tried-out, revised and modified according to the outcome and the changing needs and circumstances. But whatever aims have been decided they have to be taken, at this

1. Brown, G.N., (Ed.), *Towards a Learning Community, The Report of the Review Committee of the Area Training Organisation of the Institute of Education at the University of Keel*, Darton, Longman & Todd, London, 1971, p.27.

stage of development, as indicative so that some light may be shed on the various aspects of education, in general, and teacher training in particular. Within this framework, reference may be made to the following articles of the Educational Policy which should serve our immediate purpose.

1. General Principles and Aims of Education:

"The ultimate aim of education is the sound and comprehensive understanding of Islam."

"Enforcing the Islamic moral values."

"Understanding the total Islamic concept of the universe, man and life."

"Close association with the history of our nation and the Islamic heritage."

"The prudent interaction with the achievements of other civilizations in the fields of science, culture and arts by studying them, participating in their advancement and directing them towards the benefit and good of mankind and his progress."

"Strengthening in the student his awareness of the cultural, economic and social problems of his society and preparing him to participate in their solution."

"Encouraging and promoting scientific thinking and research, and strengthening the faculty of observation."

"Keeping pace with the characteristics of child development and helping the individual to grow spiritually, mentally, emotionally and socially."

2. Teacher education:

"The curricula of teacher training institutions, of all educational levels, should comply with the fundamental aims chosen by the nation for the process of educating Muslim generations that understand Islam correctly and participate in the development of their nation."

"Ample consideration should be given to Islamic education and the Arabic language so that teachers may teach in a high Islamic spirit and sound Arabic."

"Attention should be paid by all concerned educational authorities to the training of the teachers of all educational levels both academically and professionally."

"Teacher education is a continuous process. There should be a plan for training the unqualified teachers and another one for raising the standard of the qualified ones."¹

It is obvious that the principal prerequisites for

1. Abridged translation, Cf. the Educational Policy, op. cit., Articles 28, 32, 3, 18, 16, 35, 41, 53, 163, 164, 165 and 170.

the implementation of these and other educational aims as stated in the Educational Policy are a sound approach to curriculum development and an adequate teacher education service. The aims are essentially applicable to the teacher training institutions and unless every possible measure is taken by these institutions to implement them there may be every reason to doubt the possibility of their implementation in the schools for 'the schools cannot be better than their teachers'.

Within this context and the limits set forth earlier, reference may be made to the following broad issues in an attempt to contribute to the establishment of some valid criteria against which the development of content and methodology may be considered.

First and foremost, more attention should be given to the teaching of religion and Arabic and the adequate training of their teachers. Islam is 'the religion' of the country and it is not only a set of beliefs but also a way of life. Arabic is not only the mother tongue of the people but also the medium of instruction, except in a very few cases at the tertiary level. Thus, they are in fact the main elements of the cultural setting of the country.

Although Islamic and Arabic studies are provided in a number of institutions, reference has been made only to the Faculty of Shari'ah in Mecca, and the two colleges of Shari'ah and Arabic in Riyadh because they are involved, in some way or the other, in teacher education. The main characteristic features of these institutions are that whilst the former is still searching for an entity, the latter colleges still consider the training of the future teachers of religion and Arabic as subsidiary. Moreover, they all share one phenomenon, namely; each uses one curriculum to achieve different purposes. The result has been that the requirements of all intended fields of study have not been satisfactorily met.

A new conception is needed and it has to be essentially based on the realization that neither specialization in Islamic and Arabic studies, as such, nor the training of their teachers can be considered subsidiary. The importance of the former is self-evident. Doubt, however, may exist with regard to the importance of the training courses. Two facts, both hard and painful, should suffice in clarifying this issue. First, the school system has hitherto failed to present Islam and Arabic as the main elements of the culture of society. They are treated merely as 'another examination hurdle'.

Secondly, relatively speaking, the use of new methods and techniques is much less frequent in teaching religious and Arabic subjects than it is the case with other subjects especially science. Yet the problem is deep-seated. It is "rooted in Arabic and Islamic practice in the age of decadence when reliance on memory and learning by rote, adherence to existing texts and respect for authoritative opinion became established at lower or higher levels of education. Once the original Arab oral tradition was superseded by fixed written material the teacher's function became more of a restrained transmitter and commentator and less of a resourceful adapter and innovator."¹ Rote learning and limiting teaching to chalk and talk are not conducive to the assimilation of Islam as a way of life. Nor do they lead to the prudent interaction with the achievements of other civilizations and the participation in the advancement of knowledge, as desired in the Educational Policy. Hence it is imperative to recruit adequately educated and properly trained teachers for religious and Arabic subjects.

In the light of this concept, we suggest two different lines for the development of the Faculty of Shari^hah and

1. Tibawi, A.L., Islamic Education: Its Traditions and Modernization in the Arab National Systems, op.cit., p.211.

Islamic Studies in Mecca, and the colleges of Shari^hah and Arabic in Riyadh.

As far as the former faculty is concerned, its search for entity is manifested in the frequent changes of names. The Faculty has been known as the Faculty of Shari^hah, the Faculty of Shari^hah and Education, the Faculty of Shari^hah (again) and recently as the Faculty of Shari^hah and Islamic Studies. Yet, the present name is still rather ambiguous and misleading for the following reasons; (a) the term 'Shari^hah' suggests the provision of studies for those who want to become judges or specialized in jurisprudence as such, but the Faculty does not provide for such training. (b) The term 'Islamic Studies' is more comprehensive and it includes the study of jurisprudence. It is meaningless to use it and supplement it with the term Shari^hah (jurisprudence) in an institution which is not specialized in jurisprudence studies. (c) The Faculty includes the departments of Arabic, and History and Islamic Civilization, in addition to the Department of Shari^hah, but the name does not include the former departments. (d) The name also does not indicate that the main purpose of the Faculty, as decided in its regulation, is the training of the future teachers of religion, Arabic and history.

As the Faculty is in Mecca, the Holy City of Islam, on the one hand, and that Islamic and Arabic studies need to be pursued as disciplines in their own right, on the other hand, we suggest, therefore, that the Faculty becomes known as 'the Faculty of Islamic and Arabic Studies', so that all aspects related to these two disciplines can be provided at a specialist level and thus pursued in depth. This will give the Faculty the badly needed sense of purpose which is the principal pre-requisite for the development of content.

According to the above proposal, the Faculty becomes concerned with the provision of Islamic and Arabic studies as such. As for the training of the future teachers of religion, Arabic and history, it should be undertaken by the Faculty of Education which is also in Mecca. We can see no reason for isolating the future teachers of these disciplines from the future teachers of other disciplines. Furthermore, apart from the fact that the Faculty of Education will give the provision of training the teachers of religion, Arabic and history the badly needed sense of direction, will also provide the teachers of these subjects with an early opportunity to be acquainted with their future colleagues; the teachers of other disciplines. This pattern of organisation is also helpful in respect

of providing in-service education for the teachers of religion, Arabic and history because the Faculty of Education has to play a significant part in this field.

As far as the colleges of Shari^hah and Arabic are concerned, they have recently become the nucleus of a new university, namely the Islamic University of Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud. Speculation regarding future trends of development is not possible at present. But if the colleges will continue to participate in teacher education then two distinct curricula have to be developed; one is for those who want to specialize in Islamic and Arabic studies as such, and the other is for the future teachers of religion and Arabic. In this respect, and until the proposed general council of the teachers affairs is founded, close links and systematic contact should be established and maintained with the faculties of education of Riyadh and King Abdulaziz universities and the Ministry of Education. These should help in working out a general framework within which a minimum standard of adequacy may be maintained.

Turning to some wider issues, the aims of education quoted above imply the need to; (a) strike the balance between the teacher's role as conserver and as innovator;

(b) preserve the best in the culture of the society and in the mean time utilize thoughts, ideas and practice initiated in different cultural settings; and (c) observe the Islamic values with regard to conduct and relationships. Within the limits set out for this chapter, the following account may serve as an example of the implications of these basic principles in relation to the development of content and methodology.

It is narrated that the second Kalif in Islam (Umar Ibn Al-Khattab) has said, 'educate your offspring, they are created for an age which will be different from yours.' The essential thing to be observed here is that the quotation was said by a Muslim Kalif who himself proved that change and development could be achieved without violating the Islamic teachings or undermining its basic moral values. Moreover, it was within this Islamic concept of change that Muslim theologians constructed, in the early centuries of Islam, 'a whole system of conduct for the individual, the community and the state and their inter-relation.'

Social change and economic development in Saudi Arabia are matters of fact. The present generation is, in some respect, different from the past generation. Its members

are gradually being systematically educated, far better off financially, relatively more independent of their parents, and their experience of life is wider. The question is not whether this is good or bad, but rather how teachers can play their role in channeling this change through the basic Islamic concept of change and development.

Despite the difficulties involved in the task, we believe that they can play a fundamental part in this connection and the starting point is that teacher education courses must be carefully constructed as to permit the student teacher to be well grounded in the Islamic faith, commanding the basic principles of Arabic grammar - bearing in mind that Arabic is also the medium of instruction in the schools - and be familiar with the traditions of his society both in the past and at present. Moreover, understanding the present is not enough; he must be able to contemplate, at least in some respect, the causes, nature and consequences of change. This fundamental component of the curriculum may be called 'the general education course'. Its essential aim is to cultivate in the student teacher religious and social awareness and the sense of values to guide him in his study and work in a world of rapid change. "There is almost no part of the

world where vast changes are not taking place, but the feeling of uncertainty and bewilderment is doubled in countries where a modern and materialistic way of life has burst on traditional civilizations suddenly and in the last few decades. And in this doubly perplexing situation the student who passes out of his Training College is to be a guide! His will be the task of discerning the false from the true in the invading civilization, and the good from the bad in the old traditions."¹ Moreover, to be effective, the general education course needs to be provided as one solid entity. Compartmentalization and artificial division can deprive the course of its very essence and may well be conceived by the students as unrelated examination-oriented subjects.

In addition to the general education course, the student teacher should be provided with the opportunity to choose a subject, or area of study, which he can pursue in depth as far as possible. The significance of this course lies in two words; choice and depth. The former should be taken by the students as the first step towards building up their confidence in themselves, their abilities, knowledge and skills. The student will soon resume his

1. Hargreaves, J., *Teacher-Training*, London: Oxford University Press, first published in 1948, reprinted in 1949, 1950, 1957, p.42.

challenging responsibilities in both society and school, it is the duty of the training institutions to prepare him for that day. The principal pre-requisite is to train him how to read, think for himself and find out when he does not know instead of being spoon-fed.

The issue of building up confidence can be more appreciated if considered in its wider context, namely its relation to attitudes and values. "This problem of confidence is related to the general issue of attitudes and values. If the teacher is to fulfil his role as mentor of the young, as interpreter between the generations, and in some respect as the anticipator of changing needs, he must have confidence in his own knowledge and skills, and show sensitivity to the aspirations, hopes and anxieties of children and parents. He must also be confident of support and understanding being forthcoming from those who superintend and supervise his activities. The starting point of growth of these attitudes lies in the treatment the teacher receives in his professional preparation. Too frequently, this is authoritarian and expository instead of being based upon the companionship of learning and exploring together."¹

1. Lewis, L.J., "The Nature and Content of the Curriculum in Teachers Colleges", In: New Directions in Teacher Education, Proceedings of the Second Kenya Conference 1968, East African Publishing House, 1969, p.65.

With regard to pursuing one's subject studies in depth, and apart from its contribution to building up confidence, it is essential if the educational aim of 'prudent interaction with the achievements of other civilization and participation in the advancement of knowledge' is to be realised. Superficial coverage leads only to imitation and rumination. At this point, it must be added that we see no possible contradiction between, on the one hand, the required solid background and, on the other hand, the implications of (a) being in the age of the explosion of knowledge; and (b) that the pre-service programme cannot hope to achieve everything. For the emphasis will not be on the memorization of concise factual statements but rather on the inculcation of the habits of study and application. Indeed, it is time that rote learning is seriously tackled and that, in this respect, the teacher training institutions should take the lead. "Accelerating change in society (and in particular the 'knowledge explosion' and information storage and retrieval systems) is making increasingly out of date education based on memorising knowledge. The emphasis needs to be on acquiring basic concepts and useful skills and abilities."¹

1. Brown, G.N., (Ed.), op.cit., pp.27-28.

In addition to the general education course and the subject studies, there is also the professional training. This has to be the third basic element of the curriculum. "Training is that part of the education of a student which emphasies^s that he is preparing himself for a particular profession. The studies and practices of one student which reveal that he is to be a teacher and not an engineer are as much 'education' as are the studies and practices of another student which reveal that he is to be an engineer and not a teacher."¹

Here again, the principle of acquainting the student teachers with their own culture is also applicable. In their study of educational thoughts, the students at present start with Plato and proceed to Dewey. Islamic and Arabic Educational heritage is largely taught as part of the medieval period or in isolation from educational thoughts of other nations. This implies that they study ideas and practices initiated in other cultural settings and cannot relate them to the needs of their society because they are not in the first place fully acquainted with the educational thoughts and institutions of their own culture. For the present school has its roots in

1. The McNair Report, op.cit., para. 164, p.48.

educational traditions established in the mosque, the Kuttab and the early 'madrasah' and not in any Western educational institutions. Unless they know the traditions of yesterday they can hardly develop the school of today.

It does not auger much good for the country that the graduate teachers speak glibly about Aristotle, Rousseau or Dewey, while knowing very little, or nothing, about thinkers like Al-Chazali, Ibn Sina, Ibn Khaldun and others. Therefore, we suggest that the students should be first initiated into the Islamic philosophy of education and the educational traditions in both the golden age and the age of decadence so that they know the good points and the defects together. The serious studies and analyses that have been produced hiterto are more than enough to start this course.

Once this stage is completed, the students then can start supplementing their knowledge by studying the educational thoughts and practices which have been initiated in different cultures for only then will they be able to understand them and relate them to their own situation and adapt what is relevant in order to develop their system of education, bearing in mind that "human inheritance embraces unfinished tasks."¹ This approach, and

1. Lewis, L.J., op.cit., p.60

its requirements, may ascertain the fact that teacher education can no longer be considered as subsidiary.

Here, we must add that the importance of professional training has not gained roots yet because the application in the school is not apparent. Rote learning and the lecturing method are still as persistent as ever. This has led to the conclusion that only little of the students' time should be devoted to professional education and the rest should be spent in studying 'other useful subjects'. The improvement of this situation lies in the realization of the fact that theoretical knowledge in education and psychology is crucial to a modern teaching profession, but its application in the schools is indeed equally crucial. The latter goal cannot be realized unless; (a) the application of theoretical knowledge starts in the training institutions themselves; and (b) adequate teaching practice is provided for while the teacher is still in training. With regard to the former, student teachers will learn more about how to teach and how to improve teaching methods and techniques from the way they are themselves taught than from any amount of educational theory that is given to them; "..., in training our future teachers, we need to appreciate the fact that the subject matter and the method employed for

putting it across go hand in hand. If we lecture to our students we must not expect them to do the opposite when they face their own classes. If we want them to use audio-visual aid materials, we ourselves as teacher trainers should employ the same devices in teaching them. If we want them to explore science with the children we must explore science with them. If we want the student teachers to encourage manual dexterity in their children, we ourselves must encourage them in this art while they are with us."¹

As far as teaching practice is concerned, no regular pattern of organisation exists at present. Adequate consideration, therefore, should be given to this vital aspect of teacher education; "...school practice is the first step for the future teacher to get to grips with his real work, perhaps his life's work, to begin to exercise his craft and to come in real contact with children, responsive or unresponsive to this authority (such as it is)."²

Teacher Educators:

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1. Fafunwa, A.B., "Supply and Training of Tutors of Teacher Training Colleges", In: New Directions in Teacher Education, op.cit., pp.93-94.
 2. Gurrey, P., Education And The Training of Teachers, A Plea for the Education of Teachers as Persons, op.cit., p.132.

Teacher's educators have not hitherto been regarded as requiring any special skills or training. At the institutions of primary teacher education a variety of qualifications exists. At the one end there are those who possess the secondary education certificate, and, at the other, there are the new graduates of the tertiary level training institutions. Teaching experience, whether at the primary level or post-primary education is not required. At the faculties of Shari'ah and Education of Riyadh and King Abdulaziz universities, the doctoral degree is the basic qualification required for the appointment of the academic staff. Previous experience in teaching is not essential. In respect of the two colleges of Shari'ah and Arabic in Riyadh, no unified pattern of qualifications, required for appointment, could be detected, bearing in mind that the colleges are concerned with religious and Arabic studies and that teacher education is subsidiary. They are all greatly dependent upon expatriates.

The institutions of teacher education for women are even more dependent upon expatriate women teachers and lecturers. In fact, the College of Education for Women is totally staffed by non-Saudis. This is due to two reasons; the briefness of the provision of education for

women and the restraints on their movements; they cannot be sent abroad in the same numbers as men to pursue their advanced education. Yet, advanced studies in the country are rather limited and attained mainly by men.

Ideally, the primary teacher training institutions should be staffed by trained graduate teachers who have a considerable teaching experience in the primary schools. But, as long as primary education is not so encouraging as to attract graduate teachers, there is little hope to achieve this goal. As the present policy of recruitment is not adequate, there seems to be one other alternative; namely, to staff the institutions by trained graduate teachers who have experienced teaching at the intermediate and secondary levels. The candidates have to attend a special in-service training course to prepare them for their new assignments. On a voluntary basis, however, they may be encouraged to teach some lessons in the primary schools so that they may have some idea - inadequate but better than none - about teaching at the primary level. Material rewards can be used as an incentive.

But here again, it must be realized that the low educational standards of student teachers and the unfavourable social status of the training institutions, in

comparison with the intermediate and secondary schools, may well result in the trained teachers to be reluctant to leave their intermediate and secondary schools and work for the training institutions. Material rewards may prove to be inadequate as an incentive. The real remedy lies in the development of primary teacher education and the enhancement of educational status of the training institutions. This argument can be used to sustain our proposal for the reorganisation of primary teacher education. The required new staff will certainly be encouraged by the thought that they will be employed by the universities. Moreover, their employment by the universities will facilitate the provision of continuous on-the-job training.

In order not to put in jeopardy the career prospects of existing personnel who do not satisfy these requirements, the Ministry of Education, the General Presidency of the Education of Girls and the faculties of education might consider providing the graduate teachers of the present staff of the institutions with opportunity of qualifying to meet the new requirements and, on the other hand, transferring the non-graduate teachers to other jobs in the Ministry and the General Presidency.

In respect of the tertiary level training institutions, it might be considered appropriate to give priorities for selecting candidates for advanced studies for those who have teaching experience in the intermediate and secondary schools. The candidates who have no such experience may be provided with an opportunity to teach for one academic year before they start their advanced studies. Those who have the doctoral degree with no teaching experience can participate in the work of primary and secondary schools on voluntary basis. The starting point is the realization by the staffs of the importance of gaining some teaching experience at the educational levels for which they prepare their students. They have to take serious stock of their own present shortcomings as professional trainers of teachers. It is by putting their own house in order, as Vernon Mallinson suggested, that they "may bring pressure to bear in other quarters that must result in professional recognition of the whole teaching cadre."¹

The provision of effective training for teacher edu-

1. Mallinson, V., "Common Problems and Opportunities in Teacher Education", In: Comparative Education Society of Europe, British Section, Trends in Teacher Education: Report of a Conference held at the University of Reading, 12-15 September, 1969, June 1970, Cyclostyled, p.16.

cators is of great importance. They should be enabled to meet the demands of a job requiring specialized knowledge, skills and attitudes, and to be kept up-to-date with developments in their fields of specialization.

In-Service Education:

The present study indicates that in-service education should play a major role in the process of the education of teachers as well as the process of promotion in the educational hierarchy. Accordingly, in-service training programmes will have to consist of a very wide variety of activities which can be divided into three main categories. These are; (a) to enable the unqualified teachers to become at least semi-qualified, this is especially true with regard to the primary education level; (b) to enable the qualified teachers, at all educational levels, to keep up-to-date with new knowledge in their respective fields of specialization and new curriculum materials, teaching methods and techniques. As the accumulation of knowledge and progress in education proceed rapidly, all teachers and other educational personnel require, in addition to their own continuous efforts to read and think - and to experiment whenever possible - a systematic kind of help and guidance; and (c) to prepare teachers, the nucleus of the educational profession, and other educational personnel

for their new assignments and level of responsibilities. This is one of the most effective means to eliminate present inadequacies in the promotion system which contribute to the prevalence of unfavourable social status with regard to the educational profession.¹

Indeed, injustice to children and youth will be inevitable unless teachers are adequately trained and enabled to keep up-to-date with educational and social changes and developments. Similarly, injustice to teachers themselves is inevitable if those who superintend their education and supervise their work are not acquainted with the latest developments in their fields and levels of responsibilities. "The insecure, poorly prepared administrator will most often operate a school based on traditional notions of authority. In such a school one may find experiences threatening to teachers and to children. ... Children and adults have been told what to do and how and when to do it. ... The administrator who supervises the teacher, like the teacher who supervises the student, reassures himself of his authority by exerting it."²

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1. Cf. the above proposal regarding the formulation of a new salary structure for the educational profession.
 2. Moffitt, J.C., op.cit., P.50.

However, it would be unrealistic to expect full implementation of such a wide variety of programmes in the immediate future, but a policy established along this line and implemented gradually would ensure that the quality of the education service in general would be improved considerably. "...nowhere can it be claimed that comprehensive provision has been made for regular in-service training, and it is very doubtful whether any country could face the financial implications of implementing such a policy. Nevertheless, something can be done within the limits of the resources available."¹

As it is unrealistic to embark upon any details at this stage, reference may be made to the following broad issues. First, the standards of trainees and the objectives of the in-service programmes should be carefully evaluated. The experience of the Ministry of Education in this respect may be taken as a warning.²

Secondly, educational research in the Kingdom is in its infancy. The role of research as an integral part of in-service education should, therefore, be carefully con-

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1. Report of the Committee of Inquiry into African Primary Education, (Rhodesia), 1971, Cyclostyled, Para.143, p.20.
 2. Cf. Chapter 4.

sidered. Adequately trained teachers and other educational personnel may be granted a sabbatical leave to carry out research work. This scheme can be supervised by the proposed Centre of Curriculum Development and Educational Research, and the faculties of education. If research methods and practice have not been adequately provided for in the pre-service courses, in-service education should include some usable information to improve research skills.

Thirdly, in-service training facilities should not always be expected to be provided by the central authority. The educational zones, the schools and the training institutions can take the initiative in certain instances. As Professor William Taylor has put it; "Not all the further professional study required can be, or should be, undertaken outside the schools. The Heads, the local authorities and the teachers themselves have the chance to make schools into places in which adults, not just children, can grow in stature and responsibility."¹

Fourthly, in-service education programmes should pay a special attention to teachers in their first year of

1. Taylor, W., Half a Million Teachers, Lyndale House Papers, University of Bristol Institute of Education, 1968, p.26.

assignments. The first year of teaching is a process of continuous adjustment, constituting a series of problems of both professional and personal nature. The new teacher wants to succeed; failure is a horrifying prospect. To whom does he go for help? Present practice does not allow for a guided experience; a few minutes' visit by an inspector, a headteacher or a headmaster is far from being satisfactory.

If it is agreed that the new teacher should be systematically assisted, we propose the following procedures; (a) the supervision of his work should be carried out by a team which consists of the headteacher, a member of the Inspectorate and a tutor from the training institution (preferably someone known to the teacher). The team should be well and deliberately prepared for the job. The process of preparation may include the distribution of specially written pamphlets, regular meetings and an intensive in-service course, otherwise the whole process may be conceived in terms of inspection, i.e. fault finding, while the emphasis should be placed upon the advisory and supporting aspects. (b) By the end of the year a summer vacation course of one month duration should be organised to be attended by all teachers in their induction year. They also should be joined by the headteachers,

inspectors and tutors who supervise their work in this year. Attendance should be compulsory because we consider the first year in teaching and the summer course as an essential part of the initial training of teachers. In the summer course, a systematic analysis of the performance of the new teachers should be attempted and through discussion, it is hoped, that serious shortcomings may be eliminated. The process should also provide the training institutions with an effective means for feedback and evaluation of the pre-service courses. (c) Every training institution should establish an office which may be called 'the follow-up office'. The object of it should be to regulate contact between the training institutions and their graduates. Both graduates and institutions should benefit from such arrangement; the former would turn to their institutions for professional assistance while the latter can analyse the difficulties and utilize its findings in the process of evaluating the pre-service courses and use them as indicative with regard to the requirements of in-service programmes.

Fifthly, adequate consideration should be given to the organisation of the provision of in-service education and the training methods. Poor organisation and inadequate methods can kill the liveliest of programmes.

Finally, it is apparent that more than one educational body will be involved, in one way or the other, in the provision of in-service education. Systematic co-operation between all the parties concerned and the correlation of efforts are indispensable.

Conclusion:

Until three decades ago the aims of education in Saudi Arabia were clear and simple. Parents and schools alike taught the children to perform their religious duties, prepared them for the existing limited fields of work largely within the framework of handing down from one generation to the other inherited professions and economic activities.

The past thirty years, or so, witnessed the gradual introduction of some social changes and economic development. But, today change is accelerating at unprecedented rate and the era of 'oil for technology' has already started.

Technological advancement is much more than the erection of factories. It essentially touches upon well established values, norms of behaviour and deep-seated traditions. The end would be the mechanical imitations of others. Under the circumstances, safeguards have to

be provided otherwise the very roots of the culture of society would be shaken. Perhaps very few would deny the fact that the education service can provide most of the needed safeguards.

Saudi Arabia has reached a stage in its development where it must wrestle with the problems of its educational goals and practices in terms of its own concepts, needs and temperament and the natural start is in the fields of curriculum and teacher education.

The curriculum at present is passively tolerated by both teachers and pupils, and systematic planning is a necessary condition for bringing about any effective curriculum development. This process cannot be proceeded with on the basis of ad hoc committees. A central professional body for curriculum development and educational research is needed. The issue here is not 'centralization' but its form and extent. For at the present time any exertion of educational central control has to be made through a professional and representative body if the requirements of social change, and educational and economic development are to be adequately met.

In the field of teacher education, it has been established that the educational authorities believe in

development; the standard of primary teacher education has been raised from the intermediate to the secondary level, and the faculties of education are now attached to universities. The question, therefore, is not whether development is needed or not, but how to make further developments more articulate and comprehensive. Advancement in the training of teachers should no longer proceed on many fronts without co-ordination or any over-all accepted plan. Here again, a central body is essential.

Future developments in both fields; curriculum development and teacher education, can be guided by the general aims and objectives of education as set out in the Educational Policy. In respect of teacher education, however, it has been established that the aims of the Policy could provide for the recognition of the essential elements of training. Some of these are; fostering an understanding of the Islamic faith and the achievements of the Islamic civilization, understanding the society; proficiency in the use of the mother tongue in speech and writing; inculcation of habits of observation, study and application of knowledge; understanding children and the characteristics of child development and to be academically and professionally educated.

At this point, however, reference should be made to the fact that the Educational Policy stresses the importance of primary education. This demands the radical improvement of the education of primary teacher with the ultimate aim being to raise its standard to that required for the teachers of the intermediate and secondary education. Similarly, the Educational Policy states very clearly that teacher education is a continuous process. Hence, ample consideration should be given to in-service education which is necessary not only for teachers but also for all other key personnel in the education service.

The country is greatly dependent upon expatriate teachers and educationists. Planning for the improvement of the academic and professional education of teachers should, therefore, be accompanied by steps to improve the attractiveness of the educational profession. Important as they are, material rewards and regular promotion are not sufficient in themselves to enhance the social status of the profession. Some fundamental professional traditions have to be established and observed. These should create the badly needed recognised status for the profession.

The author fully acknowledges the fact that the

difficulties are great, but the endeavours hitherto attempted by the authorities concerned are indeed very encouraging.

(AND HASTEN NOT WITH THE KORAN ERE ITS REVELATION IS ACCOMPLISHED UNTO THEE; AND SAY, 'O MY LORD, INCREASE ME IN KNOWLEDGE.')

The Koran, XX, 114.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Primary Education Expatriate Teachers According to
Countries of Origin.

<u>Country</u>	<u>1963-64</u>	<u>1971-72</u>
Jordan	2731	3756
Palestine	709	1231
Sudan	234	139
Syria	105	137
Egypt	16	846
Algeria	7	1
Lebanon	6	24
N. Yeman	2	20
S. Yeman	1	9
Iraq	--	50
Tunisia	--	2
Marrocco	--	2
Pakistan	1	3
India	1	4
Indonesia	8	8
Malaya	--	6
Other Nationalities	8	17

Source: Ministry of Education, the Unit of Statistics,
Research and Educational Documents.

Appendix II

The Expatriate Teachers of Intermediate Education According to Countries of Origin.

<u>Country</u>	<u>1963-64</u>	<u>1971-72</u>
Jordan	163	682
Palestine	94	263
The Sudan	55	118
Syria	80	80
Egypt	13	435
Iraq	1	154
Lebanon	3	8
Pakistan	1	18
Indonesia	1	6
India	--	14
U.K.	3	35
New Zealand	--	2
Ethiopia	1	6
Other Nationalities	--	33

Source: Ibid.

Appendix III

The Expatriate Teachers of Secondary Education According to Countries of Origin.

<u>Country</u>	<u>1963-64</u>	<u>1971-72</u>
Jordan	122	147
Palestine	50	61
Syria	72	41
Egypt	15	265
The Sudan	19	48
Iraq	2	26
Lebanon	4	3
U.K.	--	41
India	--	2
Pakistan	--	12
Tunisia	--	1
Other Nationalities	13	8

Source: Ibid.

Appendix IV

The Teachers of Primary Schools According to Qualifications.

<u>Qualifications</u>	<u>1964-65</u>	<u>1971-72</u>
Without Qualifications	171	92
The Primary Ed. Certificate	389	162
The Intermediate Ed. Certificate	111	158
The Secondary Ed. Certificate	2,903	1,986
Teacher Training Institutions	3,787	8,990
Physical Education	13	140
Art Education	36	98
Below Higher Education	119	328
Graduates	57	1,731
Post-graduates	--	4
Other Qualifications	216	33

Source: Ibid.

Appendix V

The Teachers of Intermediate Education According to Qualifications.

<u>Qualifications</u>	<u>1963-64</u>	<u>1971-72</u>
Without Qualifications	--	4
The Primary Ed. Certificate	4	5
The Intermediate Ed. Certificate	6	5
The Secondary Ed. Certificate	135	102
Teacher Training Institutions	128	321
Physical Education	--	119
Art Education	--	147
Below Higher Education	32	19
Graduates	256	2,219
Post-graduates	2	40
Other Qualifications	10	14

Source: Ibid.

Appendix VI

The Teachers of Secondary Education According to Qualifications.

<u>Qualifications</u>	<u>1963-64</u>	<u>1971-72</u>
Without Qualifications	--	1
The Primary Ed. Certificate	--	1
The Intermediate Ed. Certificate	2	1
The Secondary Ed. Certificate	50	7
Teacher Training Institutions	32	55
Physical Education	12	33
Art Education	10	11
Below Higher Education	13	2
Graduates	244	651
Post-graduates	2	37
Other Qualifications	7	2

Source: Ibid.

Appendix VII

The number of the graduates of the tertiary level teacher training institutions from 1949-50 till 1971-72 according to fields of specialization.

<u>Specialization according to institutions</u>	<u>No. of graduates</u>	<u>Total</u>
A. Religious Studies:-		
i. Shari'ah (Mecca)	605	
ii. Shari'ah (Riyadh)	1,674	2,279
<hr/>		
B. Arabic:-		
i. Teachers College (Mecca)	47	
ii. The College of Arabic (Riyadh)	872	
iii. The Faculty of Shari'ah (Mecca)	97	
iv. The Faculty of Education (Mecca)	24	1,040
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C. History:-		
i. The Faculty of Shari'ah (Mecca)	70	70
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D. Geography:-		
i. The Faculty of Education (Mecca)	150	150
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E. English:-		
i. The Faculty of Education (Mecca)	31	
ii. The Faculty of Education (Riyadh)	2	33
<hr/>		
F. Education & Psychology:-		
i. The Faculty of Education (Mecca)	65	
ii. The Faculty of Education (Riyadh)	14	79
<hr/>		
G. Physics & Maths:-		
i. The Faculty of Education (Mecca)	31	31
<hr/>		
H. Maths & Physics:-		
i. The Faculty of Education (Riyadh)	6	6
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Appendix VII (cont'd.)

Sources:

1. Statistics about the two faculties in Mecca as supplied by them directly.
2. The letter No. 1449 dated 21.8.1393 A.H., 1973, from the Dean of the Faculty of Education in Riyadh.
3. The Foundation of the College of Sharī'ah in Riyadh, and The College of Arabic in Riyadh, op.cit.

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