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Abstract

CURRENT PROBLEMS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN THE STATE OF KUWAIT:

by:

Muhammad Yousef Al.Musailim

This research is an inquiry into the current problems and difficulties of educational administration in Kuwait.

The study comprises eight chapters. The introduction defines the scope and purpose of the study and the methodology employed. Chapter Two examines the past and present development of education in the country. Chapter three describes the stages of development of the organisation of the Ministry of Education and its current problems. Chapter Four analyses the trends towards decentralization in the educational system of Kuwait. Chapter Five deals specifically with the individual schools, their administrative structure and function in the Kuwaiti educational system. Chapter Six examines particularly the administrative difficulties in post-secondary education. Chapter Seven discusses the recent academic and administrative problems of university education in Kuwait. The conclusion summarises the current problems of educational administration in Kuwait and includes suggestions for strategies for change and improvement.

CURRENT PROBLEMS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
IN THE
STATE OF KUWAIT

by

Muhammad Yousef Al.Musailim (BA. MA.)

Thesis submitted to the University of Durham
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

School of Education

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May 1987



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Thesis
1987/ALM

Dedication

To my wife, Noreeyha Al.Mani and my four children, Ghadeer, Bashar, Asseel and Nisreen, without their love, help, and encouragement this study could never have been completed.

Acknowledgements

There are so many people who have helped in the production of this study that I can only mention those to whom I am particularly indebted. I am grateful to Mr R F Goodings, my supervisor, for his valuable suggestions, constructive criticism and interest throughout which has enabled me to complete my task. I owe much to a number of friends and colleagues in Kuwait, particularly Mr Mohammad Jasim, Assistant Head of Ka'ab Iben Edi Secondary School and Mr Eissa Abullah Jaber, Headmaster of Tallah Secondary School for their encouragement and valuable advice on the structure of this study. I also wish to express my sincere gratitude to many friends in Durham especially Mr Mahrous A Hasan, for his stimulating company and valuable friendship.

My special thanks go to a number of government ministries, centres, and institutions, both in Durham and Kuwait, for support and for providing data and information.

And finally, I am indebted to Miss Norma Clement, for her outstanding skill in typing this study.

M. Al.Musailim

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

- Statement of the Problem
- Significance of the Study
- Purpose of the Study
- Limitations of the Study
- Procedures and Methodology
- The Structure of the Study
- The State of Kuwait
- Definition of Terms



STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In the era of technological societies, education and educational systems have been considered one of the most important instruments for changing people's lives and improving their standards of living. Contemporary societies cannot progress without setting up an advanced and effective educational system, that can meet the growing social demands of mankind and their changing aspirations.

In Kuwait, the last few decades have proved that both Government and people fully understand the importance of education in promoting the small country of Kuwait to the position of an advanced society.

This belief has been characterized by tremendous efforts by the State Government to spread educational services throughout the country by adopting the principle of free education. However these efforts have concentrated on quantity and have tended to neglect quality.

It is not enough simply to build schools and provide equipment and instructional materials, recruit and prepare teachers, set up curriculum and enroll children. Before all of that a well thought out and sophisticated educational system must be established. This must be a system that is adequate to meet the schools' goals and the country's long term plans and philosophy.

Beginning in the 1970's a demand for the reform of the whole educational structure was made by various interest groups, and such questions as the following were asked: What is the philosophy of school education in Kuwait? What are its goals and what contribution can it make to the

progress of the individual and the society? To what extent should school education seek to keep a balance between the rapid changes of the contemporary age and the Kuwaiti society's values and traditions; and to what extent can school planners develop the individual school environment so as to achieve this balance? To what extent can school education respond to the technological changes in the fields of administration, teaching methods, teacher training and the school climate in general? And, finally to what extent can school education take account of educational research and experiment and incorporate scientific planning in developing all its aspects? These questions indicate that the educational system in Kuwait needs to be evaluated to identify its weaknesses and strengths and the areas that need to be developed or changed.

This study is a comprehensive survey of the defects and difficulties that have recently faced the educational administrative structure in the state of Kuwait. It shows that the most educational problems were the result of lack of administrative development. The educational services have expanded enormously and a corresponding development in the administrative system is increasingly demanded.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This is a comprehensive study of the development and recent defects and difficulties of educational administration in the State of Kuwait. The study emphasizes the present administrative structure of the Ministry of Education, where most educational decisions are taken and where power and authority is centralized at the top of the Ministry hierarchy. In addition, the study suggests that schools, learning centres and institutions have suffered from lack of power and autonomy which has diminished their efficiency and hampered their role as a factor for change in Kuwait society. The study is significant for a number of reasons. It is the first piece of educational research in Kuwait that is concerned exclusively with the development and problems of educational administration at all levels of the educational structure in the country (Ministry of Education, School District System, Individual School Administration, Post-Secondary Education, and University Education). Secondly, it is the main purpose of this study to raise issues and questions and indicate topics for further research and discussion in the area of educational administration. It is the researcher's belief that the more we obtain information and assess problems, the easier it is for us to reach appropriate solutions and to develop our educational system. Thirdly, educational planners, school heads, teachers and researchers will perhaps benefit from this study, since many aspects of the Kuwaiti educational system have been analysed and discussed, and the need for further research has also been indicated. Fourthly, this study is designed as a contribution to international and comparative education. Finally, the study is intended

as a source of information and a guide for any future attempt to reform educational administration in Kuwait. For example, it suggests ways to reorganize the hierarchy of the Ministry of Education, to redevelop the School District System, and to redefine the autonomy and academic freedom of the institutions of higher education.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study has the following purposes:

1. To present a brief background to the development of education in the State of Kuwait, to show how the current system has evolved and to identify the origins of the current problems.
2. To analyse the structure of educational administration in the school system of Kuwait and to examine the hierarchy of power and authority through a detailed description of the organisation of the Ministry of Education and other levels of the educational system.
3. To examine the educational decision-making processes in order to assess how and where decisions are taken. Also to examine the possibility of greater participation by schools, learning centres, and other institutions in the decision-making process.
4. To raise questions that are relevant to the current structure of educational administration in the country, and to suggest policies that might help in developing plans and strategies for remedying the deficiencies in the school system.

5. To identify the current problems and difficulties of educational administration in Kuwait, through a study of the problems at five different levels; the Ministry of Education, the School District, the individual school, post secondary education, and university education.
6. To measure the in-put, out-put relation in the Kuwaiti school system and to assess the degree to which the inappropriate administration system is an obstacle to the optimum out-put.
7. To suggest some strategies for change in controlling educational services in the State of Kuwait. These recommendations are a contribution to future plans for reforming the current educational system.

LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study is essentially an evaluation of the current system of educational administration in the state of Kuwait. The study is not intended to present a final solution to all the present defects and difficulties of the educational system. It is hoped, however, that the points made will be taken into consideration in any future plans for reform.

PROCEDURES AND METHODOLOGY

This is a descriptive analytic study. Sources that were used for the collection of data included the following:

1. Books, reports, and studies; most books that have been written concerning the development of education in Kuwait during the last thirty years such as, the annual reports, the ministerial resolutions, the laws and the decrees have been reviewed. Also other studies that are concerned with education in Kuwait, such as masters and doctoral, theses have been consulted.
2. Visitations; during the preparation of this study the researcher has visited most of the Ministry of Education departments, many individual schools throughout the country, and all the higher education institutions including Kuwait University. The greatest value of these visitations was the opportunity to observe the actual work of administration and to note in the difficulties that presently obstruct the development and the efficiency of these organizations.
3. Personal interviews; senior officials in the Ministry of Education, Directors, headmasters and headmistresses, members of the National Assembly, university professors, parents and students have been interviewed. Also the researcher has attended several group discussions of matters relating to the educational system of Kuwait. In addition several school administration council meetings have been attended at different school levels.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study consists of eight chapters that cover the most important aspects of the current problems of educational administration in the State of Kuwait. In addition to the introduction and the conclusion there are six chapters which are devoted specifically to the different aspects of the educational structure. Chapter Two presents the background to the development of education in Kuwait. It is clearly essential in order to understand the present structure of the educational system in Kuwait and its problems, to consider first the background which has had a profound influence on the current system. It is not possible to discuss the present problems of education without seeking the roots of these problems. Those features of the present system which create difficulty and inefficiency, such as an over-centralized system, an over-complicated administration, and an over-large bureaucracy are the results of the past. They emerged in the fifties, developed in the sixties and seventies and became major problems in the eighties. Chapter Two attempts to answer the following questions:

- Why was the mosque the only institution of learning for children and youth until the end of the last century?
- When and how was the first Kuttab established; and how did it contribute to the development of the education in the country?
- What were the roles of educational commissions in reforming the school system?

- What was the system of educational funding by the state in 1936, and what steps have since been taken to reorganize the school system?

- What has been the increase in educational expenditure, schools, students, and teachers?

Finally there is an overview of the current public education system.

Chapter Three is principally concerned with the development and organization of the Ministry of Education in Kuwait. The chapter presents a summary of the development of the theory of educational administration, and then outlines the stages in the development of educational administration in Kuwait. These include the establishment of the Board of Education in 1936, the Department of Education in the 1950's, the Ministry of Education and Instruction in the 1960's and the recent administrative structure of the Ministry of Education in the 1970's-1980's.

The last section of the chapter discusses the educational legislation of the Ministry of Education and indicates the necessity for further legislation for the development of education in the country.

Chapter Four is a discussion of the recent movement to reform the school system in Kuwait. The trend towards decentralizing the educational services in Kuwait is the central topic of this chapter. In the first part a study of educational administration in transition between

centralization and decentralization is presented. There follows a discussion of the idea and the implementation of the establishment of the school district system in Kuwait. The second part of the chapter describes the field work conducted in the Ahmadi School District to assess the value of this new movement. Finally the need for more study and preparation in this initiative is stressed because questions such as the following remain unanswered. Has this movement actually benefited the school system in Kuwait or not? What was the purpose of establishing school districts without giving them any power or authority?

Chapter Five is devoted to an examination of the difficulties that have recently faced the individual schools in the Kuwait educational system. The purposes and the operation of school administration is studied in general. Then the role of headmaster, the assistant head, and the school administration council in different school levels in Kuwait is also analysed. An attempt is made to identify and assess the problems of school administration in Kuwait. For this purpose 35 different schools were visited in different areas throughout the country. At the end of the chapter there is a discussion of the problem of the qualifications and training of school administrators. And there is an assessment of the recent in-service training programme for heads and their assistants.

Technical and vocational education, its development and recent administrative difficulties in Kuwait is the central issue of Chapter Six. A brief background of the importance of this kind of education is

first presented. Then the type of technical institutions which was established in the 1960's and their administrative development are comprehensively discussed. The establishment of the Department of Technical and Vocational Education and its functions is discussed. A study of the higher institutions of technical education, their recent organization and the role of the Public Authority of Applied Education and Training (PAAET) are considered in detail. The last part of this chapter describes the deficiencies that at present face the technical institutions and inhibit their progress and also suggestions are made as to the way in which they might develop in the future.

Chapter Seven is concerned with the development and recent academic and administrative problems of university education in Kuwait. The chapter presents, first the role and significant of university education in general; and then the need for university education specifically in Kuwait is discussed. The administrative structure of Kuwait University and Law No 29/1966 are also discussed in the third part of this chapter. And finally, the recent academic and administrative problems of Kuwait University are analysed and discussed.

Chapter Eight is the conclusion. This chapter includes three parts. First there is a summary and discussion of the main problems of educational administration in Kuwait that have been set out in the study. In the second part an attempt has been made to examine the in-put, out-put relation in the Kuwait educational system to assess the extent to which the inappropriate administration structure has engendered an inappropriate educational out-put. The final part of this chapter is devoted to suggestions and recommendation. Some strategies for change in the educational administration of Kuwait have been

formulated and recommendations are made as to how these strategies might be implemented.

THE STATE OF KUWAIT

Kuwait lies at the north western corner of the Arabian Gulf. Here 7,450 square miles meet Iraq on the north and west, the Arabian Gulf on the east, and Saudi Arabia on the south.

The country is largely desert except for some oases and a few fertile patches in the south eastern and coastal areas. The climate is very dry most of the year as is typical of desert, and the main climatic characteristics are temperature extremes, little and variable rain fall.

Kuwait's population has increased very rapidly during the last thirty years. From an unofficially estimated 152,000 in 1950 ⁽¹⁾ to 1,697,301 in April 1985 (see Table 1.1).

The estimated population of Kuwait in 1984 is 1,637,262 of which Kuwaitis comprise 661,168 or 40.4 per cent, and non-Kuwaitis 976,094 or 59.6 per cent. ⁽²⁾

The Government; Kuwait has always been an autonomous state, always ruled by its people, notwithstanding, the protection treaty with Great Britain which was in effect from 1899 until its abrogation in June 1961. It

(1) Kuwait Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Kuwait Directory in Arabic (Kuwait Government Press, 1973), p.18. [in Arabic]

(2) Kuwait Ministry of Planning, Annual Statistical Abstract (Central Statistical Office, 1986), p.25. [in Arabic]

Table (1.1)
Kuwait population by nationality and sex in census years
1957, 1961, 1965, 1970, 1975, 1980 and 1985

Census Years	Population			Percentage		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1957 Kuwaiti	59,154	54,468	113,622	28.7	26.3	55.0
Non-Kuwaiti	72,904	19,947	92,851	35.3	9.7	45.0
Total	132,058	74,415	206,473	64.0	36.0	100.0
1961 Kuwaiti	84,461	77,448	161,909	26.0	24.0	50.3
Non-Kuwaiti	116,246	43,466	159,712	36.1	13.6	49.7
Total	200,707	120,914	321,621	62.4	37.6	100.0
1965 Kuwaiti	112,569	107,490	220,059	24.1	23.0	47.1
Non-Kuwaiti	173,743	73,537	247,280	37.2	15.7	52.9
Total	286,312	181,027	467,339	61.3	38.7	100.0
1970 Kuwaiti	175,513	171,883	347,396	23.7	23.3	47.0
Non-Kuwaiti	244,368	146,898	391,266	33.1	19.9	53.0
Total	419,881	318,781	738,837	56.8	43.2	100.0
1975 Kuwaiti	236,600	235,488	472,088	23.8	23.7	47.5
Non-Kuwaiti	307,168	215,581	522,749	30.9	21.6	52.5
Total	543,768	451,069	994,837	54.7	45.3	100.0
1980 Kuwaiti	280,649	284,964	565,613	20.7	21.0	41.7
Non-Kuwaiti	495,990	269,349	792,339	36.5	21.8	58.3
Total	776,639	581,313	1,357,952	57.2	42.8	100.0
1985 Kuwaiti	388,796	342,492	681,288	20.0	20.2	40.1
Non-Kuwaiti	626,501	389,512	1,016,013	36.9	22.9	59.9
Total	965,297	732,004	1,687,301	56.9	43.1	100.0

Source: Ibid., p.25.

was after the termination of the treaty that Kuwait chose a democratic, parliamentary form of government. The Constitution of the State of Kuwait, adopted in 1961, declares that:

1. Kuwait is an independent, sovereign Arab State and the Kuwaiti people are an integral part of the Arab nation.
2. The State guarantees equal opportunities to all citizens.
3. Ownership, capital and work form the basic elements of the social structure of the State as well as the national wealth.
4. Freedom of the individual is guaranteed.
5. Freedom of faith is absolute.
6. Freedom of the press, printing and publishing is guaranteed.
7. Freedom to form societies and trade unions nationally and peacefully is guaranteed.

The National Assembly is elected for a four year term by all Kuwait: males over the age of 21 except service men and police who may not vote. Candidates for election must be over 30, and they stand as individuals since there are no official political parties.

Definitions of terms:

Quran: The Holy Book of Islam.

Mosque: A place, where Muslims practice their worships.

Muslim: A word to describe a person who believes in Islam.

Messenger Mohammadi prophet Mohammad, the last messenger of God.

Imam: Prayer leader in the Mosque.

Asalat: Prayers (five times a day).

Aseyam: Fasting (one month a year).

Azakat: Alms.

Al.Haj: Pilgrimage.

Suras of the Kuran: The Kuran is divided into a number of Suras, each
one has instructions or advice for all Muslims.

Arabian Peninsula: The land that is located in the Middle East, surrounded on the north by the fertile crescent, on the east by the Arabian Gulf and Oman Gulf, on the south by the Arab Sea and on the west by the Red Sea.

K.D.: Kuwaiti Dinar, The national currency, In 1986 its value is approximately 1.K.D. = £2 28.

Kuttab: A place for learning usually a small room in the Al.Motwa House.

Al.Motwa: Arabic word meaning teacher.

Al.Areef: Arabic word meaning assistant.

Al.Mubarakiya: First formal school in Kuwait, named after Al.Shaik Mubarak Al.Sabah.

Al.Ahmadiya: Second boys' school in Kuwait city named after Al.Shaik Ahmad Al.Jaber.

Rupees: Indian national currency.

Al.Azhar: Old and famous religious university in Egypt.

Sharia: Islamic law.

Al.Kuliah Al.Sinaih: Industrial College

Al.thanawia Al.Faniah: Secretarial Secondary School

CHAPTER TWO

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND RECENT DEVELOPMENT
OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN KUWAIT:

- Pre-Organisation Period in Education
- Kuttab Education
- Al.Mubarikay School 1912
- The Foundation of the Al-Mullah Murshad School in 1926
- Organisation Period in Education
- Overview of the Changing of the Curriculum
- Growth of Expenditure in Public Education
- Growth of Enrolment in Public Education
- Teaching Force in the Public Education
- Education Goals Formulation
- School System

I PRE ORGANISATION PERIOD IN EDUCATION

Education in Kuwait, as in most other societies, started as religious education. For instance, in Europe in the middle ages "the church was the only institution with the organisation, the money, the knowledge, and the teachers needed to set up schools. The civil authorities at that time had none of these resources." (1) In the seventeenth century American education had known the concept of the Parochial school, which means each church taught the children of its denomination according to its own beliefs and doctrines. (2)

Kuwait was no exception. Early in the eighteenth century it was part of an extensive region including Iraq and the Arabian Peninsula, and Islam at that time was the only foundation for the people's life and controlled their society.

The children from the age of seven were required to learn prayers and to read from the Kuran. Parents were responsible for this teaching. When the child reached the age of ten (particularly the boys) they had also to accompany their fathers to the mosque five times a day. The mosque in the Islamic world has played a seminal role as a centre for educating

(1) George Z F Bereday and Joseph A Lauwerys, Church and State in Education (Evans Brothers Limited 1966), p.1.

(2) Roald F Campbell and others, Introduction to Educational Administration, (Allyn and Bacon 1979), pp.28-29.

youth in addition to its formal role as a place of worship. M J Roda in his book, Arab, Education, and civilisation, stated that:

"... The child who is in good financial position usually enters the elementary school at the age of six or seven, the school in the Islamic world is usually the mosque itself or a place close to it, and the holy Kuran is the basic book for instruction. The student's efforts must be concentrated on reading and memorising it." (1)

In Islam the Imam plays the same role as the teacher in the school. In the old Kuwaiti mosques one of the daily responsibilities of the Imam was gathering the worshipers for a course of learning. The lesson was usually different from day to day, and covered all the rules of Islam. Sometimes the students read from the Kuran, answering questions, and making comments. At other times they practised religious ceremonies, or discussed ways of life for muslims.

It is important to consider the features of the curriculum in the religious educational period. It is not easy to define the curriculum of that period in contemporary terms, but in order to give a clear idea of the development of education in Kuwait, the curriculum was designed to teach the children and youths the rules of Islamic worships, which means prayer (Alsalat), Fasting (Alseyam), Alms (Alzakat), and pilgrimmage (AlHaj). To explain some of the suras of the Kuran; usually the Imam chose the short suras. To explain and clarify the preachings of Mohammad the messenger of God. To study the life of Mohammad from his birth to his death, concentrating on his struggles, moral teaching and behaviour.

(1) Mohammad J Roda, Arab, Education and Civilisation (Al.Menhal Library, 1979), p.167, [in Arabic].

From this it is clear that Kuwaitis even before their emergence as a state sought to educate their children by using Islam as a subject for preparation for useful citizenship. This was radically different from the modern understanding of education. There were, however, some similarities between modern schooling and the learning at the mosque. For example, in the Arabic language Imam means school teachers, worshipers means students, and mosque means school building. There was no need for the Imam to be a qualified teacher or to hold a certificate, although he had to be a specialist in religious studies. Furthermore, learning at the mosque was voluntary and depended on the choice and interests of the children. Also learning was solely oral, there was no need for textbooks, pens, and papers. Writing came later in the period of Kuttab education.

KUTTAB EDUCATION:

In the last quarter of the nineteenth century Kuwait education underwent a new development which was known as "Kuttab Education". Kuttab was a small room usually in the teachers house. The students were required to attend this room to learn secular knowledge, as well as the traditional religious curricula.

F Abdulghafoor in her book about the development of education in Kuwait has stated:

"Kuttab was considered one of the oldest centres for learning in Islamic Egypt, and in the Arabian Peninsula before the appearance of Islam. Kuttab was known too, as a public place for learning without any distinction between poor or rich, between old and young. Kuttab was usually controlled and managed by one teacher (AlMullah) who was assisted by another (AlAreef)" (1)

The first Kuttab in Kuwait city was founded in 1887 (2) by AlMullah Kasim, who came from Iraq for that purpose. This Kuttab was distinguished for its contributions to Kuwaiti education. By 1910 Kuttab education had developed into two kinds, one giving regular religious education and the other teaching reading and writing. During the early period the first was the more widely known.

Saleh Shehab, in his study "the history of education in Kuwait and Gulf" gives a good description of the function of the Kuttab education, he mentioned that in the beginning of the last century there was a great indigenous effort toward educating the children even of the very poor.

Saleh Shehab pointed out, "This generation know very little about that period of hard times when our grandfathers suffered very much to provide education." Shehab gives some important details about the best known

(1) Fauzia Y. Alabdulghafoor, The Development of Education in Kuwait, (Alflah Library 1972), p.10 [in Arabic].

(2) Abdullah A Nuri, The History of Education in Kuwait in the Half Century, (Cairo, Al Estigama Press, 1966), p.22, [in Arabic].

Kuttabs or Kuranic schools in Kuwait of which there were then more than fifty.(1)

The teaching methods and curricula in the Kuttab had special features. In the Kuttab the boys were taught to read and write which was direct learning compared with the previous religious education which can be considered as indirect learning. Also in that period the learning was restricted to boys. Girls were excluded for various social and religious reasons. When the boy attended his nearest Kuttab his parents were expected to provide him with a small blackboard and other requirements. The teachers had great independence and were entirely free to determine the plans, methods and materials. The strategies of learning therefore, varied from one Kuttab to another. There were various learning levels in the Kuttab. The boys usually passed through three levels, which took between one and two years.

Level one: learning the alphabet which in Arabic consists of twenty eight letters.

Level two: reading and memorising the Kuran.

Level three: reading from textbooks and practising writing. When the boy was able to read and write he left the Kuttab to seek employment.

(1) Saleh Shehab, stated the following schools as are best known in Kuwait during the pre-organisation period:

- (a) AlMulla Zakaria School
- (b) A Abdullafeef School
- (c) AlMulla Marshed School
- (d) AlMullah Hamed School
- (e) AlMulla Abdulwahab AlHunian School
- (f) Khalaf Bin Dahain School
- (g) Abdullateef Alomar School
- (h) Ahad Alkhamis School
- (i) Mullah Belal School

Source: Saleh Shehab, The History of Education in Kuwait and Gulf, (Ministry of Information 1984), pp.23-24 [in Arabic]

Arithmetic was first introduced in 1893 by a man who came to Kuwait to work at the Royal Department for Financial Affairs. For trading purposes some Kuwaiti youth were very anxious to learn arithmetic. A group of them managed to contact this man who developed the first arithmetic syllabus. Later arithmetic became one of the main subjects in the Kuttab curriculum.

Western education which was considered as a step toward innovation in the development of education in Kuwait, was first introduced in 1911 by the Arabian Mission of the Reformed Church in America. One year later in 1912 the mission set up clinics for male and female patients, opened a bookshop, and began a small school. The mission school offered some new courses which were not available at the Kuttab education such as typing, English language and social studies. Between 1925-1941 there were six English schools set up and operated by Kuwaiti teachers. (1)

AL.MUBARIKAY SCHOOL 1912

The people of Kuwait consider 1912 the turning point in the history of Education in their country, for in that year Al.Mubarikay School was founded by the efforts of the people as the first organised school. The idea of the school jumped from the traditional type "Kuttab" to the more organised and advanced. The main purpose of the Al.Mubarikay was to prepare youth for the job market by offering a few courses in reading,

(1) For more reading in the influence of Western education in Kuwait education development, see for example:

(a) Saleh Shehab, op.cit., pp.44-60 [in Arabic]

(b) Marquerite L Cornell, 'The University of Kuwait: An Historical comparative study of purposes in a new university in developing nation' (Unpublished McGill University PhD's Thesis, 1982), pp.154-158.

maths, Koran and English language. The programmes were very simple and in keeping with what had been offered earlier at the Kuttab education.

Those who have studied the Al.Mubarikya period agree that for several reasons the school was of seminal importance in the development of education in Kuwait.

- 1) It was founded by the efforts of the people themselves. This suggests that the importance of education cannot have been very clear to the government at that time. On the other hand, it shows that the people themselves believed in education.
- 2) It involved a whole new model of school in terms of the building, teachers, textbooks and levels of classes.
- 3) The position of headmaster in the school appeared for the first time in the country.
- 4) In the Al.Mubarikya, the headmaster had greater power than anyone else in the school, he could appoint teachers and evaluate them, choose the programmes, and buy the textbooks.
- 5) For the first time in the history of education in Kuwait, the school had a financial council to administer the funds of the school and to collect the money from the people.
- 6) In the Al.Mubarikya school recruiting teachers was a serious problem. Before long, the student body increased and the need for another school became obvious.
- 7) In this period there was growing popular demand that the government should take a part in improving the quantity and quality of education.

THE FOUNDATION OF THE AL.MULLAH MURSHAD SCHOOL IN 1926:

was an important step toward the expansion and organisation of education. Educational development in Kuwait owes much to the work of this school. The work of the Mullah Murshad School was divided into four stages. At each stage the students learned a different curriculum taught by specialist teachers. Stage one was the teaching of the alphabet. Stage two concerned the skills of reading, writing to dictation and memorising poems. Stage three involved recitation of the Kuran and included arithmetic. Stage four included an advanced religious education, advanced work in the Arabic language, arithmetic, English language, bookkeeping and history.

These stages became the basis for the primary curriculum, when education became the responsibility of the state in 1936. The students enrolment in this school reached more than 500 for the first time between 1945-1948. Also the school finances were reorganised to include the student fees and donations from merchants.

Female education developed later than that of boys. Although boys had been educated in Kuwait since 1887, female education did not begin until 1926 when the first Kuttub for girls was founded in Kuwait old city. That followed the establishment of two male schools, Al.Mubarikya 1912 and Al.Ahmadiya 1921. Girls enrolment from the beginning was strongly encouraged, which reflected the enthusiasm for female education among the Kuwaiti families despite their restrictive traditions.

II ORGANISATION PERIOD IN EDUCATION:

In 1936 the state took over responsibility for the organising, decision-making, goals setting, and expenditure of education. The government of Kuwait decided to allocate 1/2 per cent of the national revenue to the purpose of building schools, purchasing books and instructional materials, and paying school teachers' salaries.

In the same year the government also formed the first board of education to develop and advise on plans for educational policies.

When education was brought under state control, the government was anxious that its funding should keep pace with rising costs of schooling. The greatest problem which faced the decision-makers was that of providing sufficient qualified teachers. A document in the India Library dated October 1930 under the title of "Education problems of Kuwait" is explicit on this point:

- "There are two distinct problems facing education in Kuwait:
a) technical training of boys abroad;
b) school masters for the simplex type of school in Kuwait."(1)

When the Board of Education was formed delegates were sent abroad to enquire about the training and recruitment of teachers. The first response was from Palestine which sent a commission consisting of four teachers to Kuwait in October 1936. This commission took a major role in reforming education. First the four commissioners appointed teachers and headmasters in the state schools as well as controlling the Department of Education Office. Secondly, they drafted the first law for education in 1936, which determined the powers of the board, the president of the education department, and the roles of headmasters.

(1) India Office Library and Records, Education Problems of Kuwait from 1930-1940, Microfilm document, p.11.

Thirdly, they drew up the outlines of the curriculum for each stage, and chose suitable textbooks. Finally, the commissionaires were able to increase the number of teachers, particularly female teachers who worked in girls' schools.

The Adrian Vallance Report: In 1939 the Kuwait government with coordination with the Political agent in the area of Kuwait and the Arabian Gulf; invited Mr Vallance a British educationalist to evaluate and report on educational matters of Kuwait. Mr Vallance inspected the four Government schools of Kuwait and submitted a brief report on what he found. The following is a summary of his main observations which are set out in a document in the India Office Library.(1)

1) I can begin by saying that my general impression of the schools of Kuwait is a very pleasant one. There was a happy atmosphere about them all, which is always a good sign.

2) The buildings in which the schools are housed are fairly satisfactory. They are clean, and in fairly good repair. The quality of teaching which is given inside the buildings is of course much more important than the quality of the buildings themselves.

3) Much of the school equipment, chiefly the desks used by the boys, was in need of renewal or repair, and I was told that this work would be done during the holidays.

(1) Ibid., pp.67-76.

4) As regards the staff, I think the government has been wise to engage Palestinian teachers, rather than Egyptians, Syrians or Iraqis, and in my opinion great credit is due to the Palestinian headmaster for the improvements which he has effected in education in Kuwait during the past three years. Most of the assistant masters seemed to be competent men, and I was particularly impressed by the efficiency and enthusiasm of the young Palestinian master who is in charge of the Boy Scouts.

5) The boys in the four schools appeared to be well disciplined, and on the whole, well taught. They were bright and intelligent, especially those in the lower classes.

6) The standard of education reached at Kuwait is not as high as that reached by some of the other Arab states.

There are in my opinion, a number of ways in which it could be improved and these will enumerate:

The first and most important thing to remember when we are trying to educate children is that there can be no sound education without sound physical health what is most urgently needed in the schools is a school doctor. It should be the duty of the appointed doctor to visit all the schools every day, and visit those children who are absent from school owing to illness. He should keep individual records of the health and the development of every school child, and make himself personally responsible for their physical health throughout the whole of their school life.

The next thing I ought to mention is the necessity of cultivating in the school children a proper feeling of patriotism, and by this I mean a patriotic feeling for Kuwait, rather than for the Arab world as a whole. I was sorry to find many of the boys, at all the four schools, using exercise books which bore on their covers the portrait of a foreign ruler and the name of a foreign state. This should be absolutely forbidden and if any portrait is to be placed on the school exercise books it should be that of the Shaikh of Kuwait.

Kuwait-Egyptian Cooperation 1942: A major step towards reforming the educational system was taken in 1942, when cooperation between the Ministry of Education in Egypt and the Department of Education in Kuwait was established. The first commission to Kuwait was active in many areas. It took over from the Palestinian Commission responsibility of reorganising the Department of Education and supervising the schools. It reformed the school curriculum by introducing the Egyptian curriculum instead of the Iraqi curriculum. It appointed teachers from Egypt to meet the growing needs of the schools (60 Egyptian teachers in 1950). Through the commission's efforts the Ministry of Education in Egypt recognised the Kuwait Secondary School Certificate, this made it possible for Kuwaiti students to be accepted in Egyptian universities.

The Study of Qabbani and Aqrawi 1955: In the winter of 1955 the Kuwaiti Department of Education invited the Minister of Education of the United Arab Republic, Mr Ismail Qabbani, and the president of Bagdad University, Dr Mati Aqrawi, to advise on the development of education in

the country. The two commissioners studied the situation from various aspects, and advised that any educational reforms should reflect the characteristics of Kuwaiti society. These characteristics summarised by H J Taha were:-

- 1) The Arabness of the Kuwaiti people and their historical and tribal connection with Arabic culture and tradition.
- 2) The people's deep religious roots in Islam and their adherence to the Islamic moral code derived from the holy Kuran and the Sunna.
- 3) The Kuwaitis' involvement in maritime activities which had opened for them new patterns of trade and ways of life.
- 4) The democratic (Shura in the Arab-Islamic tradition) and unlimited right of free expression of opinion. The protection of individual interests, and the equality of all under tribal laws.
- 5) The business and employment prospects open to Kuwaitis after the advent of their oil economy which would bring about new job opportunities.
- 6) The low level of literacy among the people and the lack of educational provision.(1)

(1) Husan J Taha, 'Education and the Imperative of Change: A case study of education in Kuwait' (Unpublished University of Liverpool PhD's Thesis, 1979), pp.192-193.

At the end of their enquiries, Qabbani and Agrawi submitted a report which included the following suggestions: The improvement of school systems should begin with the administration, specifically the headmasters should have more authority. The curriculum of the schools should relate more to the students' life and experiences. They suggested the inclusion of some new subjects, such as English, science and physical education. The period of public education should be increased to twelve years, four years elementary, four years intermediate and four years secondary school. Because teacher qualifications were regarded as of crucial importance, the commissioners suggested the establishment of a teacher training college.

International Bank Report 1961-1963: A commission from the International Bank visited Kuwait in 1961 for the purpose of making a survey for the development of the country. The commissioners concentrated on the field of education, visiting schools and examining the curriculum. The commission reported to the government making suggestions for the reform of the education services, and followed that with another visit in 1963.

Reports by Jaswant Singh a unisco expert, 1967: With the cooperation of Unisco, Mr Jaswant worked in the Kuwaiti Ministry of Education for almost eight years as an expert on the reconstruction of education in the country. Mr Jaswant edited two important studies, the first on educational planning and administration, which gives a general account of the concept of planning in education and the role of administration in the school system. The second study was concerned with the problems

and difficulties of educational planning specially in Kuwaiti education. The study emphasised such matters as the structure of the Ministry of Education , the role of decision-makers, the work distribution in the Ministry departments, and the function of school administration in Kuwait.

Changing in the ladder of Education:

The ladder of education has been modified more than three times within the last four decades. In the Al.Mubarikya period in 1912, there was only one level, the Primary. Thirty years later a secondary school was founded. In 1943 the Department of Education established for the first time the Kindergarten level, which accepted children between the ages of six and eight. During the 1950's the ladder of education in Kuwait was organised on three levels:

Kindergarten level from age of 6 - two years

Primary level from age of 8 - four years

Secondary level from age of 12 - five years

From 1960 as a result of the expansion of the educational services and the introduction of some new strategies such as the law of compulsory education, the ladder of education was reorganised in four levels. The first and the fourth are optional, and the second and third are compulsory:

Kindergarten level from age 4 - 6 - two years

Elementary level from age 6 - 10 - four years

Intermediate level from age 10 - 14 - four years

Secondary level from age 14 - 18 - four years

OVERVIEW OF THE CHANGING OF THE CURRICULUM:

The school curriculum in Kuwait reflects the nature of each period of the development of the educational system. For instance, in the early period as we have seen, the school curriculum reflected a religious orientation as the major purpose for educating the children. Teaching concentrated on memorising and reciting the Suras of the Kuran, and practising prayers. Educational demands were simple and the curriculum was linked to those demands. In later periods the aim of education was changed to include the need for preparing an educated citizen who would be able to work in trade, and later in the government and oil sectors. Therefore, the structure of the curriculum was changed too. New subjects appeared, for example, reading, writing, arithmetic, English and vocational training.

In 1965 the Ministry of Education established a higher committee to be responsible for matters of curriculum innovation and textbook adoption. The tasks of this committee included: First, designing the foundations upon which the curriculum should be built. Secondly, approving the curriculum and recommending changes and innovations. Thirdly, approving textbooks for each subject. Finally, forming sub-committees of experts to advise on curriculum projects, textbooks and other matters.

Since these reforms were implemented, the Ministry of Education has created a new division called School Curriculum and Textbooks. The division was necessary in order to undertake technical studies and research, and supervise and promote educational experiments and curricular activities. It was responsible for making the necessary

contacts and for consultations with the different divisions of the Ministry; the directors of education; the administrators; headmasters and teachers in an effort to obtain their views and suggestions about curriculum improvement. It had also to take the necessary steps for producing and printing textbooks.

During the seventies the most important innovations in the curriculum were the following:

- The curriculum became more related to the student's life and needs.
- Textbooks were printed in an attractive form and illustrated by pictures, maps, and tables.
- The science syllabuses were revised and important changes were introduced.
- A combined science syllabus was prescribed. It covered chemistry, physics and biology taken together instead of teaching them as separate subjects as in the old curriculum.

I. Elementary School curriculum:

Children attend elementary school at age 6 to 10 after two optional years in the Kindergarten level. The Elementary school opens five days a week, from 7.30 in the morning to one o'clock in the afternoon with slight variations between summer and winter. The curriculum at this level is emphasizing to acquire the children the principle of their own language (Arabic language occupies a third of student's time). Also the children learn mathematics and science (7 periods a week). Religious Education came third in terms of the number of periods. It is reduced to only three periods a week. (See Table 2.1)

II. Intermediate School Curriculum:

Students should be in the Intermediate school at the age of 10 to 14. Promotion to this level depend on the competent of the student in the previous level. Curriculum in the Intermediate school is slightly varied between boys and girls in terms of courses and periods. For example, the home economic courses are exclusively for girls and include: cooking, caring for children, needlework and tailoring. Also at this level, English Language is introduced as a first foreign language. The English course is concerned with developing competence in both oral and written expression, and includes reading, composition, grammar and translation. Promotion from grade to another strictly depend on the results of the final examinations. Student failures are held back for more years in the same grade. (See Table 2.2).

III. Secondary School Curriculum:

The first two years of student's life at the Secondary school are considered as a preparation period which provides a student with general knowledge and skills to be able to choose either science or literature studies in the third and fourth grade. (See Table 2.3).

Begining from the third and fourth grades the Secondary school is divided into two sections, the literature section and the science section. Each section has its own curriculum and objectives in terms of preparing students for work, or for higher education institutions. Table (2.4) shows the courses requirements of the literature section (third and fourth) these subjects must be completed by every student. At the end of each year, usually in June, the students are examined in all these subjects. If they pass they are promoted to the next grade, or obtain their Secondary School Certificate.

Students in the science section must concentrate on science and mathematics (14 periods a week) which at the end of the fourth grade enable them to pursue their study at the Institute of Technology or at medicine, engineering, or mathematic science in the Kuwait University.

TABLE (2.1)
Elementary School Curriculum

Subjects	Periods per-week			
	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4
Arabic	11	11	10	10
Islamic Edu	3	3	3	3
Science	2	2	3	3
Math	5	5	4	4
Social Studies	-	-	-	2
Physical Edu	3	3	3	2
Drawing	3	3	3	2
Music	2	2	2	2
Free Activi	1	1	2	2
Total	30	30	30	30

Source: Kuwait Ministry of Education, Report on Educational Development in the state of Kuwait, (Ministry of Education Press, 1981), p.22 [in Arabic].

TABLE (2.2)
Intermediate School Curriculum

Subjects	Periods per-week			
	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4
Arabic	8	8	8	8
Islamic Studies	3	3	2	2
Science	3	3	4	4
Mathematics	6	6	5	5
Social Studies	2	2	5	5
Physical Edu	2	2	1	1
Practical Stud	-	-	2B	2B
Drawing	-	-	2B	2B
Music	1B	1B	1G	1B 1G
English	8	8	8	8
Home Economic	3G	3G	3G	3G
Tech Studies	4B 2G	4B 2G	2B 2G	2B 2G
Total	37 37	37 37	39 39	40 39

Notice: B - Boys

G - Girls

Source: Ibid, p.23.

TABLE (2.3)

The Secondary School Curriculum, first two years

Subjects	Periods Per-Week			
	Grade 1		Grade 2	
Islamic Education	3		2	
Arabic	7		7	
English	8		8	
History	2		2	
Geography	2		2	
Social Studies	1		1	
Mathematics	6		5	
Physics	2		2	
Chemistry	1		2	
Biology	1		2	
Geology	-		1	
Art and Technical	2		2	
Home economic	2		2	girls only
Physical Edu	2		2	
Total	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
	39	37	39	37

Source: Kuwait Ministry of Education, Teaching Plans of the Public Education Stages, (Ministry of Education Press, 1981), p.13 [in Arabic].

TABLE (2.4)
 The Secondary School Curriculum
 (third and fourth grades literature section)

Subjects	Periods Per-Week			
	Grade 3		Grade 4	
Islamic Education	2		2	
Arabic	8		8	
English	8		8	
French	5		6	
History	3		3	
Geography	3		3	
Sociology	2		-	
Economic	1		-	
Philosophy and) principles of) moral and logic) and psychology)				4
Algebra and Statistics	1		-	
general science	2		-	
Home Economics (girls)	2		2	
Physical Education	2		1	
Total	B	G	B	G
	37	39	37	35

Source: Ibid, p.14.

TABLE (2.5)

The Secondary School Curriculum
(third and fourth grades science section)

Subjects	Periods Per-Week			
	Grade 3		Grade 4	
Islamic Education	2		2	
Arabic	6		6	
English	7		7	
Mathematics	7		6	
Physics	5		6	
Chemistry	4		4	
Biology	3		4	
Geology	1		1	
Home economics (girls)	2		2	
Physical Education	2		2	
Total	B	G	B	G
	37	39	38	40

Source: Ibid, p.15.

GROWTH OF EXPENDITURE IN PUBLIC EDUCATION:

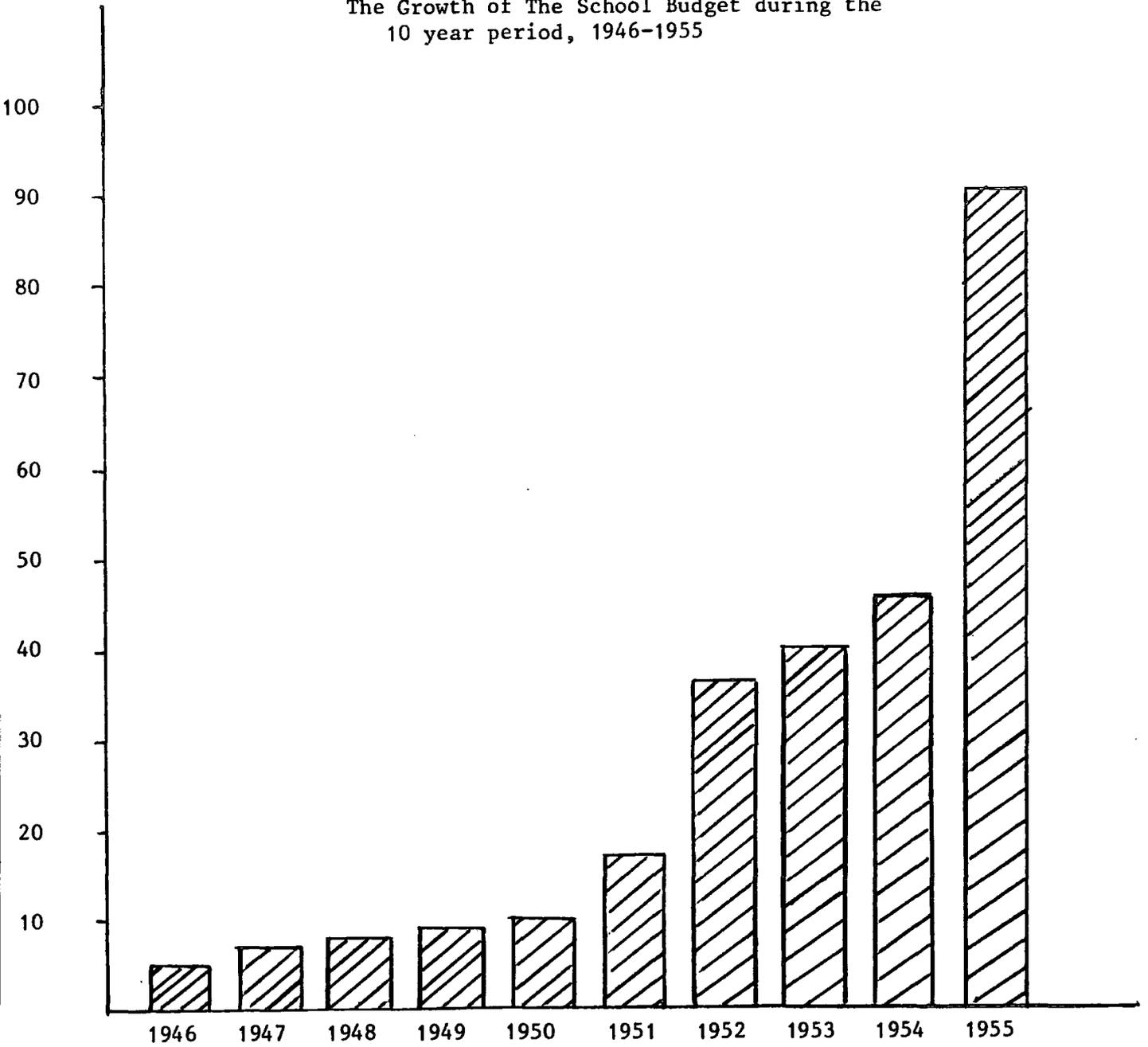
The assessment of the cost of education in general is an important consideration in setting plans for the educational system. Normally, the cost of education consists of capital expenditure including land, school buildings, and expenditure on furniture and equipment. It also involves recurring costs; salaries and wages, supplies of material, apparatus, textbooks, seminars, workshops, training programmes, library materials, teaching aids and other items. In Kuwait where education is absolutely free the cost of education is high. Beginning in the 1950's, the government of Kuwait adopted a national plan to expand the educational services. A large number of schools were built, hundreds of teachers were brought from different Arab countries, and textbooks and other instructional materials were purchased.

In the 1960's expenditure on education was increased in order to allow the enactment of the Compulsory Education Law in 1965. This law confirmed the concept of free education. This has meant that the Ministry of Education is responsible for providing education for all children between the ages of 4 - 18 and meeting the cost of food, clothes and transportation. In addition, there were the costs of administration and the large staff of the ministry itself.

In the 1970's expenditure further increased when the Ministry of Education took over responsibility for the Arabic private schools which served more than 35,405 students in the mid of 1970's. The enrolment increased to 56,997 students in 1985. For example in 1984-1985 the Ministry of Education's contribution to this sector was over five millions K.D. which included 50 per cent of the cost per-student, and all instructional materials.

Figure (2.1)

The Growth of The School Budget during the
10 year period, 1946-1955



Source: Kuwait Department of Education, Annual Report 1956-1957

(Kuwait Government Press), p.17. [in Arabic]

Figure (2.1)

TABLE (2.6)

The growth of the Ministry of Education budget from 1961-1980,
compared with the state national income

Year	Ministry of Educ budget Millions K.D.	State G.N.P. Millions K.D.	Ministry of Educ % of State G.N.P.
1961-1962	11,356133	155,700	7.3
1965-1966	16,711084	211,600	7.9
1970-1971	31,412899	317,7000	9.9
1975-1976	86,74000	826,000	10.5
1979-1980	177,00000	2250,000	7.9

Sources:

(1) Kuwait Ministry of Education, The Cost of Education and its Financing, (Ministry of Education Press, 1961), p.13 [in Arabic].

(2) Kuwait Ministry of Education, The Cost of Education, (Ministry of Education Press, 1978), p.71-75 [in Arabic].

(3) Kuwait Ministry of Education, Annual Report, 1961-62, 1965-66, 1970-71, 1975-76, 1979-80. (Ministry of Education Press) [in Arabic]

TABLE (2.7)

The growth of the Ministry of Education budget for the period
of 1972-1973/1984-1985

Year	Budget
1972-1973	47115150*
1973-1974	54487900
1974-1975	62175000
1975-1976	108425000
1976-1977	106441000
1977-1978	121700000
1978-1979	129000000
1979-1980	177000000
1980-1981	184050000
1981-1982	221500000
1982-1983	24605000
1983-1984	265357000
1984-1985	265205000

* Millions of Kuwaiti Dinners

Source: Data collected for the requisit of the researcher from
Finance Department in The Ministry of Education in 1985.

It is clear from table (7) that expenditure on education has formed 7 per cent of the general national budget during the last twenty years. It is also clear from table (7) that the budget of the Ministry of Education increased by a factor of 6 within a thirteen year period. It is necessary to sustain this a financially heavy load to accomplish the country's educational aims. This will be considered in the next chapters in the discussion of the problems of educational administration in Kuwait.

The Cost of Education for per-Kuwaiti student:

UNESCO reported in 1983 that "Kuwaiti students came second in terms of cost (\$1,412) among 18 Arab countries, with students in the UAE* coming first in the same year".(1)

The cost of per-child at the kindergarten level is considered the highest in comparison with other educational levels, as the next table shows:

TABLE (2.8)

The expenditure and the cost of per-student at the kindergarten level:

Year	Expenditure	Cost per-student
1979-1980	11,823,262 K.D.	704 K.D.
1980-1981	14,071,855 K.D.	792 K.D.

In one year, the general cost of the kindergarten level increased by 19 per cent, the cost per-student increased by 88 K.D.

(1) UNESCO, International Handbook of Educational System (John Wiley & Sons Ltd., 1983), Vol.11, p.563.

* UAE (United Arabs Emarats)

The pupils in secondary school were the next highest in terms of the cost per-student, as the next table shows:

TABLE (2.9)

The expenditure and the cost of per-student at the secondary level:

Year	Expenditure	Cost per-student
1979-1980	15,988,268	647 K.D.
1980-1981	18,764,038	682 K.D.

Female students at the secondary level cost more than male students. For example, the actual cost per-female student in 1981 was 820 K.D. The reasons for the difference are probably the following: female secondary schools are operated by more administrators and supervisors than male schools; female secondary schools utilise much more instructional materials in courses such as home economics and extra-curricula activities. Furthermore, in the female schools, there are transportation costs which are rarely occurred in the male schools.

The costs per student at the intermediate level are given in the next table:

TABLE (2.10)

The expenditure and the cost of per-student at the intermediate level:

Year	Expenditure	Cost per-student
1979-1980	27,389,918	534 K.D.
1980-1981	31,424,547	567 K.D.

The students at the elementary level were the least expensive as the next table shows:

TABLE (2.11)

The expenditure and the cost per-student in the elementary level:

Year	Expenditure	Cost per-student
1979-1980	31,694,998	493 K.D.
1980-1981	34,640,900	534 K.D.

For further details of the costs of education per-Kuwaiti student in the public education see:

- (1) Kuwait Ministry of Education, Financial Department, The Cost of Student, (Al Qabas Press, 1980) [in Arabic].
- (2) Kuwait Ministry of Education, Financial Department, The Cost of Student, (Al Qabas Press, 1982).
- (3) Abdul Rahman A Al-Ahmad,., Education in Kuwait, Researches and Studies, (Kuwait Government Press, 1983).

GROWTH OF ENROLMENT IN PUBLIC EDUCATION:

The growth of school population is a marked phenomenon in the educational system of Kuwait. The student body increased gradually from 600 students in 1937 to 4665 students in 1949. By the early 1960's the numbers of students had almost multiplied 11 times to reach 51,090, housed in 142 government schools. In 1984/1985 the number of students was 361,715 and the number of schools had increased to 568. (see table 12) Statistically, between 1955/1965 the school population in Kuwait increased by 43 per cent. The number of schools increased from 48 to 167 and the number of teachers increased by 36 per cent. During the period of 1965/1970, the school population grew at an average annual rate of 4.5 per cent. Between 1970/1975 the annual average rate increased to 5.6 per cent, and between 1975/1985 the annual average rate grew to 6.8 per cent (See Table 2.12).

The numbers in secondary school declined after 1965 for the reason that other forms of technical and vocational education were introduced at the secondary level early in the 1960's.

Girls participation has increased rapidly. In 1936 there were no girls at all in the public schools, in 1955 32 per cent of Kuwaiti total school population was girls, 38.5 per cent in 1960, 42 per cent in 1965, 45.5 per cent in 1975, 46.5 per cent in 1980, and 48 per cent in 1985.

TABLE (2.12)

the growth of schools, classrooms and students in public education
1961-62/1984-85

Year	Schools	Classrooms	Student		Total
			Male	Female	
1961-1962	142	1,633	30,860	20,230	51,090
1962-1963	140	1,844	35,674	23,877	59,551
1963-1964	157	2,082	41,511	28,597	70,108
1964-1965	166	2,510	46,613	32,509	79,122
1965-1966	176	2,878	53,550	38,238	91,788
1966-1967	178	3,201	58,702	43,026	101,728
1967-1968	195	3,504	64,366	47,655	112,021
1968-1969	212	3,897	68,877	51,673	120,550
1969-1970	224	4,280	73,262	55,783	129,045
1970-1971	230	4,644	78,363	60,384	138,747
1971-1972	245	5,208	84,460	66,219	150,679
1972-1973	273	5,660	88,897	71,334	160,231
1973-1974	287	6,012	93,317	76,046	169,417
1974-1975	309	6,426	100,061	82,717	182,778
1975-1976	326	6,932	109,873	92,034	201,907
1976-1977	378	8,117	127,380	107,823	235,203
1977-1978	394	8,663	136,714	116,498	253,212
1978-1979	437	9,060	143,586	123,932	267,518
1979-1980	457	9,283	152,656	132,677	285,333
1980-1981	481	9,681	160,987	141,623	302,610
1981-1982	510	10,233	170,812	151,700	322,512
1982-1983	519	10,397	176,368	158,574	334,942
1983-1984	533	10,701	181,329	164,524	345,853
1984-1985	568	10,904	188,459	173,256	361,715

Source: Kuwait Ministry of planning,
Central Statistical office
Annual Statistical Abstract,
(The Central Statistical Press, 1986), p.325. [in Arabic]

Growth of student prediction, 1985-1990

Enrolment between 1985-1990 at the four educational levels (kindergarten, elementary, intermediate, secondary) is expected to increase according to the last five years plan 1985-1990. The total number of students in the next five years is projected to grow from (347,254) to (420,177) an increase of 21 per cent.

At the kindergarten level (4-6) growth in the enrolment rate will be from 52 per cent to 73 per cent of the relevant age group. Enrolment in the first grade of the elementary school is expected to reach (172,470) students during the next five years, an increase of 23.9 per cent.

Enrolment at the intermediate level (10-14) is expected to decline for non-Kuwaiti students by 10 per cent annually as a result of the change in the public education admission policy that was adopted in 1980. Kuwaiti students enrolment will increase by 12 per cent for the male and by 20 per cent for the female.

For secondary education, the student enrolment will reach (110,070) in 1990, an increase of 41.8 per cent (See Table 2.13).

TABLE (2.13)
Growth of Student Enrolment Prediction, 1985-1990

School level	1985 enrolment	1990 enrolment
kindergarten	24,150	43,364
elementary	126,441	146,890
intermediate	119,037	126,856
secondary	77,626	110,070
Total	347,254	427,180

Source: Kuwait Government, A Five Year Plan, 1985-1990, (Kuwait Government Press, 1985) pp.89-92 [in Arabic]

TEACHING FORCE IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

Kuwaiti education largely depend on other Arab countries to provide teachers for the different stages of schooling. Teachers from Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Sudan, Iraq, Jordan, Tunisia, and Lebanon represent a mix of different abilities and nationalities, which does not work completely to the benefit of the educational system. In the academic year 1960/1961, Kuwaitis formed 5 per cent of the total teaching force. In 1970/1971, non-Kuwaiti teachers formed 80 per cent of the total teaching force of Kuwait. In 1984/1985, Kuwaiti teachers of both sexes formed 59 per cent of the total teaching force in elementary education, 18.8 per cent in intermediate and 13.5 per cent in secondary education.

Student - teacher ratios for the academic year 1984/1985, were 1:14.5 at kindergarten, 1:17 at elementary, 1:14 at intermediate, and 1:11 at secondary education.

Most Kuwait teachers at the primary level hold the general teaching certificate (equivalent to 4 years secondary education). Some of them hold the newer diploma of education which is equivalent to 2 years post secondary education. A minority hold university degrees. Non-Kuwaiti Arab teachers hold various educational qualifications ranging from 2 years post secondary preparation to a 4 years college course in education. Very few have post graduate diplomas.

TABLE (2.14)

Teachers at government school by sex, nationality and level of education 1984/1985

		Teachers			
		Kuwaiti	Non Kuwaiti	Total	% of Kuwaiti
Kindergarten	M	-	-	-	-
	F	1,187	475	1,662	71.4
	T	1,187	475	1,662	71.4
Elementary	M	1,355	1,588	2,943	46.0
	F	3,051	1,473	4,524	67.4
	T	4,406	3,061	7,467	59.0
Intermediate	M	297	3,889	4,186	7.1
	F	1,325	3,106	4,431	29.9
	T	1,622	6,995	8,617	18.8
Secondary	M	215	3,322	3,537	6.1
	F	775	2,907	3,682	20.5
	T	990	6,229	7,219	13.5

Source: Kuwait Ministry of Planning, Central Statistical Office, Annual Statistical Abstract, (The Central Statistical Press, 1985), p.302.

EDUCATIONAL GOALS FORMULATION:

In the pre-organisation period the aims of education concentrated on teaching subjects in a religious and moral context. Two decades later new aims were formulated such as the preparation of a generation able to cope with the aspirations of an oil-rich society. Some specific subjects were also taught to meet the needs of the economy. These unofficial aims of education have been reflected in the school curriculum. The first attempt to draw up formal aims for education in Kuwait appeared in the work of Mr Qabbani and Dr Agrawi in 1955. The two educationalists urged the educational authorities in Kuwait to

consider adopting a set of explicit and clearly defined educational objectives to guide the expansion of educational services which was imminent after the discovery of oil in 1946. In proposing a number of educational aims they reviewed the social economic and cultural aspects of Kuwait and considered its future demands. Later in their report they suggested some objectives for education in Kuwait:

First, the elimination of illiteracy both among the young and the adults, disseminating Islamic religious teachings and inculcating Arabic cultural traditions of freedom, generosity, courage, truth-seeking and compassion for and protection of neighbours. Creating an allegiance to Arabic nationalism in general and to the Kuwaiti home-land in particular.

Secondly, promoting equality and the democratic concepts of individual rights and motivating individuals toward productive manual labour. Emphasising useful hobbies and physical education.

Finally, encouraging free self-expression and the spirit of creativity, especially through the fine arts.

In the period that followed, 1955 up to the mid seventies some of these proposals were achieved. However, no official aims were published until 1976. In 1974, The Educational Aims Project Committee for the study and preparation of general aims of education in Kuwait was established by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Planning.

The Committee was composed of University professors, planning officials, ministry executives, teachers, and representatives of business and industrial agencies. In March 1976, the educational aims project was published and submitted to the Minister of Education for approval. The following is a review of the adopted goals as they are presented in the Ministry of Education official document "The General Goals of Education in the State of Kuwait".*

First: Goals relating to the nature and philosophy of the Kuwait Society:

- (1) To promote belief in Islamic principles in ways which would allow these principles to become a way of living and thinking.
- (2) To guide the students to adhere to the Arab national heritage including, Arabic language, Islamic religion and Arabic history.
- (3) To introduce students to the history and development of their homeland and to recognise its particular social life-patterns.
- (4) To develop in students a sense of allegiance to their Kuwaiti home-land in particular and to the Arab and Islamic world in general.

* Kuwait Ministry of Education, The General Goals of Education in The State of Kuwait, (Kuwait Government Press, 1976), [in Arabic].

Historical Background and Recent Development

- (5) To prepare the student to live in a society bound together in one communal family, and to discourage any discrimination due to religion, tribe, and social class.
- (6) To prepare individuals for an active social life on a democratic basis and in the context of individual freedom and dignity.
- (7) To prepare individuals to become aware of their rights and duties.
- (8) To develop in the individual the ability for a scientific approach in thinking about problems.
- (9) To develop the individual's abilities for creativity, invention and innovation.
- (10) To promote the standard of an individual's aspirations and provide equal opportunities for the utmost utilisation of his or her potentialities.
- (11) To encourage the gifted students in all aspects of education and prepare them to lead the progress of society.
- (12) To care for the special needs of backward and handicapped children and help them make an effective contribution to the development of society.

Historical Background and Recent Development

(13) To prepare a new generation able to bear national responsibilities and encourage them to initiate, take decisions and plan for their future.

(14) To create opportunities for individuals to take responsibility for change and development and to reject all aspects of backwardness.

(15) To meet the skilled manpower needs of the country demanded by various programmes for national development.

(16) To encourage the individual to respect work and the workers.

(17) To encourage the individual to contribute by money, time and effort to promote the welfare of the society.

(18) To recognise those human and material resources which contribute to the integration and co-operation of all parts of the Arab world.

(19) To prepare a strong generation that possesses capabilities, skills, and attitudes to meet the challenges and dangers facing the Arab nations.

(20) To emphasise Islamic education and the Arabic language, Foreign languages, social studies, sciences, the arts and contemporary cultures.

Second: Goals relating to the nature of the contemporary world.

- (1) Creating an awareness of the importance of modern scientific findings for the benefit of the individual and the society.
- (2) Creating a general understanding to safeguard against propaganda which tries to influence people for the sake of special interests.
- (3) Emphasising the essential links between theory and practice, as well as between knowledge and work.
- (4) Providing skills that assist individuals to adjust themselves to rapid social changes and to participate in those changes.
- (5) Emphasising the balance between spiritual and material values.
- (6) Increasing the depth and scope of an individual's preparation for life.

Third: Goals relating to growth needs of individuals:

- (1) To help individuals to develop sound spiritual growth based on Islamic moral values.
- (2) To help individuals to develop a healthy mental attitude.

Historical Background and Recent Development

(3) To help individuals to develop physical fitness and maintain their health and provide them with opportunities to practice physical exercises and sports.

(4) To provide individuals with opportunities to develop emotional maturity.

(5) To promote aesthetic attitudes and artistic appreciation of beauty.

(6) To prepare individuals for successful family-life.

(7) To introduce individuals to vocational education and career guidance.

(8) To prepare individuals for communal life and successful interaction with other members of society.

(9) To help individuals to solve their personal and social problems both of work and of leisure.

Fourth: Goals relating to contemporary educational trends:

(1) To achieve individual participation and self-directing activity in the process of learning.

(2) To develop an individual's abilities to practise self-learning.

(3) To enhance an individual's desire to pursue life-long education.

(4) To utilise modern educational techniques in the field of education.

SCHOOL SYSTEM

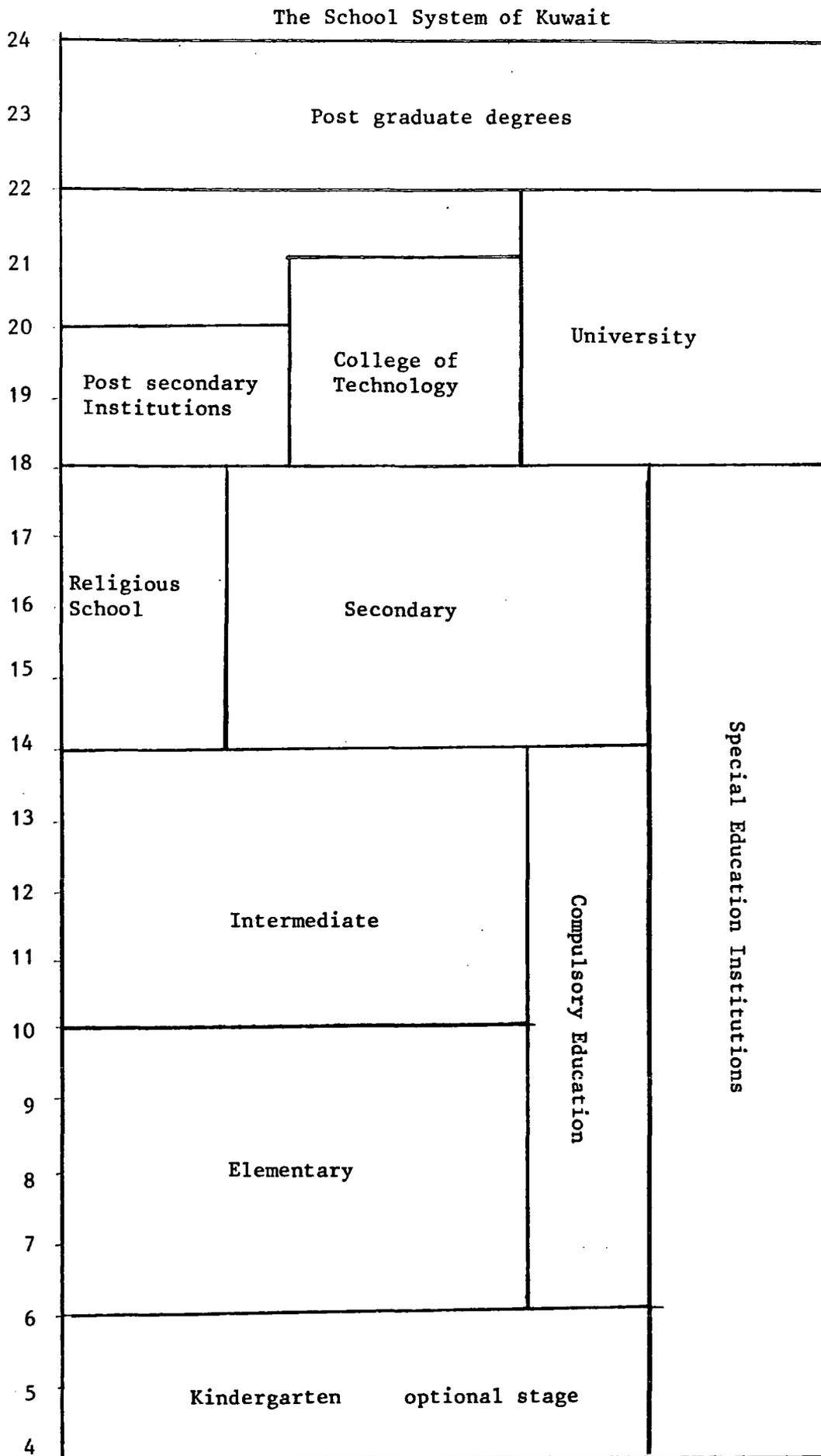
Pre-School or Kindergarten: This is the first stage in the school system of Kuwait. It is optional, parents can choose to enroll their children at the nearest kindergarten between the ages of 4 and 6. The enrolment reached a high level during the sixties and seventies.

In 1955 there were only two kindergarten with 24 children. By 1985 there were 78.

The importance of this stage as a preparation period before entering the compulsory cycle is clear from the popularity of these schools. The Ministry of Education in a report which was submitted to UNISCO* Conference in 1981 described the objectives of the Kindergarten as follows:

* UNISCO, The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Figure (2.2)



"The role of Kindergarten is to prepare the child to build and develop sound physical, mental, moral, spiritual, emotional, and social qualities. Teaching at this stage aims at developing emotions, reactions and skills that form the fundamental elements in the child with a view to enabling him to interact with his environment and acquire its related conceptions. It also trains his sense, behaviour, and develops his personality and prepares him for primary schooling." (1)

Elementary School: The origins of the elementary school in Kuwait go back to 1912. This stage is the first step in the compulsory cycle and admits students from age 6 to 10. During four years, students learn to read and write and practice some other skills.

Elementary education aims to:

First, to prepare students to grow spiritually and morally by understanding the principles of Islam, and to provide the students with basic knowledge, such as reading, writing, science and mathematics.

Secondly, to teach and train the student in the proper rules of public health and instruct him or her how to apply these rules in every day life. To encourage the students to respect and appreciate natural beauty and the arts.

Thirdly, to help the students to grow and function in a democratic society, by educating him or her to behave well both as an individual and as a member of a group.

Finally, to educate the student in the concept of nationalism, to teach him and her to be proud of the country of Kuwait and of the Arab nation.

(1) Kuwait National Commission for Education, Science, and Culture, Report on Educational development in Kuwait (Kuwait Ministry of Education Press, 1981), p.18.

Intermediate School: This is the second stage of the compulsory cycle. At this stage students must complete four years of more advanced study and practise technical skills. The Ministry of Education by investigating the needs of students aged 10 -14 has determined the goals of the intermediate school as the following:

First, to provide the student with a basis of cultural nationalism, by teaching the Arabic language, history and geography.

Secondly, involving the students in some social and cultural activities which extend their interests and hobbies.

Finally, one of the main goals of intermediate stage is preparing the student practically by providing some basic courses in decoration, electronics, radio, electricity, engineering and technical drawing and commercial subjects.

Secondary School: is the final stage in the ladder of public education. It consists of four years for students between the ages of 14 - 18. All students in the first two years must be involved in the general academic programmes. The third and fourth grades in the secondary school are divided into two different academic programmes, science and literature. Historically, the roots of the secondary education go back to Al.Mubaraklayha when secondary classes were established in 1949/50. There were then only four classes attended by 58 male students.

Historical Background and Recent Development

The growth of secondary education in students, schools and classrooms had several causes. The first was the enforcing of the compulsory education law in 1965. Secondly, more secondary schools were established in most of the country's cities and towns. Thirdly, establishing Kuwait University and other advanced vocational institutions encouraged many students to gain the high school certification to be eligible for higher education.

The Ministry of Education reconsider the goals each school level at regular intervals, which reflects the enhanced importance of schooling in the minds of decision-makers. In 1975 the department of secondary education laid down the four main goals of secondary education:

(1) To develop a mature person, with a feeling of self-respect and dignity and an awareness of his place and importance in society, and to develop in the student an understanding and appreciation of the family and its importance as a social institution and to give him the knowledge which is necessary for happy family life.

(2) To provide the student with the necessary information and skills as well as practical experience so that he will be able to support himself and his family and be a useful member of society.

(3) To teach the students the ways of utilising leisure time so as to improve their health and develop their recreational and aesthetic and intellectual interests.

Historical Background and Recent Development

(4) To develop in the student the habit of performing his duties, and responsibilities and acquaint him with the democratic ways of life so that he will become a responsible citizen working for the welfare of society, and prepare him for further studies.

Stages in the development of educational administration in Kuwait will discuss intensively in the next chapter. The chapter will concentrate on the aspects of organizing the Ministry of Education and its recent defects and difficulties.

CHAPTER THREE

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ORGANIZATION OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION IN KUWAIT

- The Development of Educational Administration Theory
- Stages in the Development of Educational Administration in Kuwait
- Posts and Work Distribution in the Ministry of Education Recent Organisation
- The Supervision Department in the Ministry of Education
- Decisions in the Ministry of Education
- Educational Legislation in the Ministry of Education
- Need for a Public Educational Law

THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION THEORY:

The theory and practice of educational administration may be found in treaties on public administration, business management, industrial psychology, military leadership, and other writings.

Historically an administration is concerned with mobilizing the efforts of a number of people toward the achievement of common goals. This enterprise has always existed, for example; 'the public regulation of water ways in ancient Egypt'; 'the duties of magistrates in the far-flung Roman Empire' and 'the efficient use of resources in the German States more than 200 years ago.'

Looking more specifically at the concept of administration leads us to the work of those who were the pioneers of administration. Frederick Taylor was born in 1856 and studied in France and Germany. Taylor noticed that workers were in charge of both planning and performing their jobs, a situation that led, he thought, to much waste and inefficiency. His experience at all levels of industry led him to formulate his principles of job analysis which were condensed into his book The Principle of Scientific Management, published in 1911. His essential points have been summarised by Robert Owens:

First: eliminate the guesswork of rule - of thumb approaches to deciding how each worker is to do a job by adopting scientific measurement to break the job down into a series of small related tasks.

Second: use more scientific, systematic methods for selecting workers and training them for specific jobs.

Third: establish the concept that there is a clear division of responsibility between management and workers, with management doing the goal setting, planning and supervising.

Fourth: establish discipline whereby management sets the objectives and the workers cooperate in achieving them.⁽¹⁾

Further major contributions to the theory and practice of administration particularly as it relates to human relations were made in the work of Mary Parker Follet, and Elton Mayo. Follet, born in 1868, graduated from Radcliffe College in the USA. Throughout her life, she worked to help bring about a better ordered society in which the individual might live a more satisfying life. Follet, contended that the fundamental problem of any organization, whether it be local government, national government, a business organization or an educational system, is the building and maintenance of dynamic, yet harmonious, human relationships. She reduced her principles of organization to four in number, all aspects of what she termed coordination. The principles were:

1. Coordination by direct contact of responsible people concerned.
2. Coordination in the early stages.

1. Robert Owens, Organizational Behaviour in Education, (Prentice Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1981), pp.809.

3. Coordination as the reciprocal relating of all factors in the situation.

4. Coordination as a continuing process.⁽¹⁾

The second contributor to the human relation concept was Elton Mayo, who was born in 1880 and studied in Australia. Elton, and his colleagues conducted several experiments in firms such as the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electricity Company. These experiments demonstrated that economic and mechanistic approaches to human relations in industry were inadequate, while wages and working conditions were important to the worker.

The third concept to emerge in the development of administration was an appreciation of the importance of the behavioural sciences. Chester Barnard, born in 1886, was the first to relate administration to the behavioural sciences. In 1937, Barnard published his book, The Function of an Executive, which emphasised the universal character of formal organizations and stressed the need for a theory to explain their behaviour.

Herbert A Simon was an important contributor to the science of administration. His contribution appeared in Administrative Behaviour, which was an attempt to develop a set of tools - a set of concepts and a vocabulary suitable for describing an organization. He defined such tools as administrative behaviour, decision-making, organization rational behaviour and others.*

1. Henry C Metcalfe and I Urwick, Dynamic Administration (New York: Harper & Brother, 1942), p.14.

* For more reading in the development of administration concepts and theory see for example: Roald F Campbell and Edwin M Bridges and Raphael O Nystrand, Introduction to Educational Administration, (Allyn and Bacon, 1979).

Educational Administration

What is it about?

It is now necessary to consider educational administration as a field of study. Schools administration did not evolve as a field of practice until the later part of the nineteenth century, nor become a field of study until the twentieth century. In general the central purpose of administration in any organization is that of coordinating the efforts of people toward the achievement of its goals. In education these goals have to do with teaching and learning. Thus administration in an educational organization has at its central purpose the enhancement of teaching and learning. To enhance teaching and learning, school administrators are required to perform five major functions:

1. To define and influence the development of goals and policies.
2. To stimulate and direct the development of programmes designed to achieve these goals and purposes.
3. To establish and coordinate an organization concerned with planning and implementing the programmes.
4. To procure and manage resources, money and materials necessary to support the organization and its programmes.
5. And, to evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency by which all of these functions are being achieved.

STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN KUWAIT:

1936 Board of Education

In 1936, we have seen that there was a major development in education in Kuwait, partly in response to popular pressure. The Government took measures to improve education by enacting a law intended to coordinate and direct the efforts of both the Government and the people. Some aspects of 1936 law of education are relevant to this study:

By section one; the Board of Education was to consist of twelve members. The president must be from the Royal family.

Section two required the board to meet monthly to discuss, and to make decisions on the following matters: (a) establish the educational policy for the whole country; (b) design and set the curriculum; (c) appoint teachers and other staff; (d) report on students who were continuing their education in the other Arab countries; (e) determine the rules and regulations that control the work of the school administration.

Section three sets out the duties and authority of the president of the Board of Education: (a) his vote should carry more weight than that of any other member of the Board; (b) he should implement the policies and regulation issued by the Board; (c) he supervises the work of schools and arranges for the recording of assessments of teachers; (d) he may visit the classrooms to inspect the teacher's efforts and the student's accomplishments; (e) he may also teach some subjects in chosen schools; (f) and finally, he could set the rules for punishments without reference to the Board.

The president of the Board of Education has to submit at the end of each academic year a report to the Government including the following:

- some projected goals for the next year including the number of students, schools, teachers and the budget of schools.

- a report on teachers including their competence and qualifications, moral standing, how they control their students, their attendance and absence, and any suggestions to increase their salaries and other benefits.

- a list of school needs such as books, papers and pens, and maps.

Section four sets out the role and responsibilities of the Director of the Board of Education. This section describes the Director as a person who should have certain qualifications and be selected by the Board members. The Director was the second person in terms of power on the Board. He could conduct the Board meetings when the president was absent, administer the Board finances, review the income and make decisions.

Clearly the 1936 Educational Law was a step forward in the organization of educational system in Kuwait. The law can be also seen as an important transition in the history of education in the country. Its establishment of general plans for public education, curriculum, teacher preparation and administration of finances were great advances over the previous disorganized situation (Kuttab period). Secondly the 1936 law

established the theoretical foundations of a centralized system. It also had a major influence on the structure of the Department of Education and the Ministry of Education and this influence still persists. However the distribution of the tasks among the twelve members of the Board was not clear. Questions that remained unresolved were for example, what was the role of each member, and how did they participate in managing the schools? On the other hand, the law did clarify how education policies related to the political situation. Section one of the law stipulated that the president of the Board of Education must be a Royal family member, which gave him unlimited power over every aspect of the school system. Since the law has been enforced the headmasters have lost their dominant position in the school administration. The law reduced the headmaster's power and authority and made his role merely that of an executive instead of being a planner. This is still the situation.*

* For more reading in the tasks and functions of the 1936 Board of Education see, for example:

- (1) Fauzia Y Alabdulghafoor, The Development of Education in Kuwait, (Al.Flah Library, 1978) [in Arabic].
- (2) Saleh Shehab, The History of Education in Kuwait and Gulf, (Ministry of Information, 1984) [in Arabic].
- (3) Abdullah Ahuri, The History of Education in Kuwait in the Half-Century, (Cairo, AlEstigama Press, 1966) [in Arabic].
- (4) Darweesh AlMagdadi, Department of Education in Two Years 1950-1951/1951-1952, unpublished Report, (Kuwait Government Press, 1952) [in Arabic].

Department of Education in 1950's

During the fifties formal education services have considerably increased in student population, schools, teachers, administrators and expenditure. These quantitative changes have demanded changes in the administrative structure to meet the new needs and to fulfil new goals. In general, however, the Department of Education has established and maintained the simple structure that was formed in 1936 but has expanded it. The Department was headed by the president of the Board of Education (Royal family member) who was assisted by two deputies. The first deputy for Administration and Financial Affairs was responsible for expenditure on building, equipment, furniture, books, food and clothes. In addition he was responsible for implementing the regulations and procedures issued by the Board of Education. The second deputy for Technical Affairs was responsible for curriculum setting, inspection, educational commissions and controlling the school examinations. The deputies have been assisted by the coordinators of divisions such as statistics, translations, school theatre, public relations, libraries, and audio visual aids. The Inspection Division has an important role in that each inspector serves as a link between the school administration and the Department of Education. The 1950's structure of the Department of Education also had several committees and sub-committees to review and evaluate educational policy, curriculum research and textbooks. Some of these committees were permanent and others were temporary.

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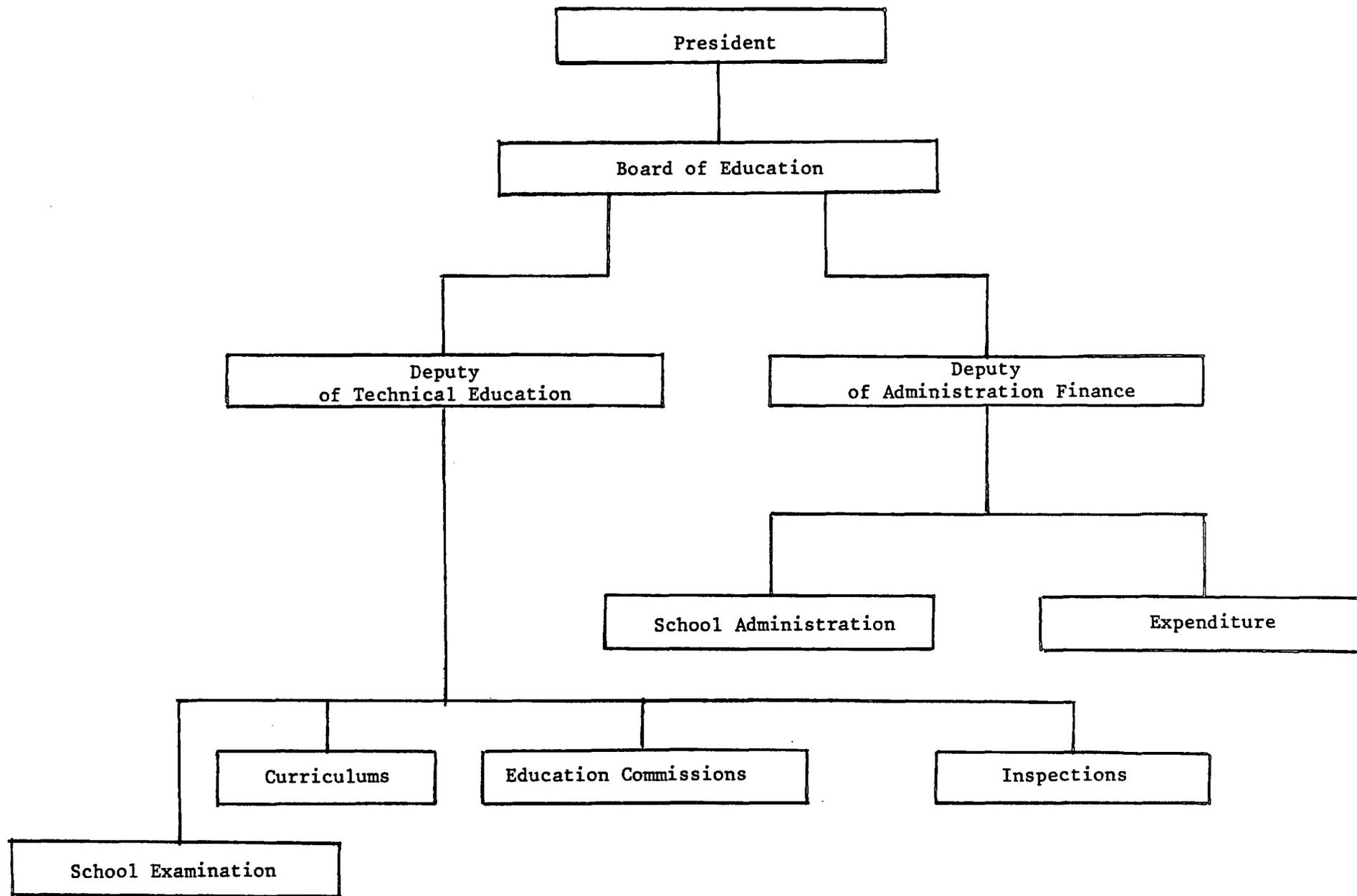


Figure (3.1)

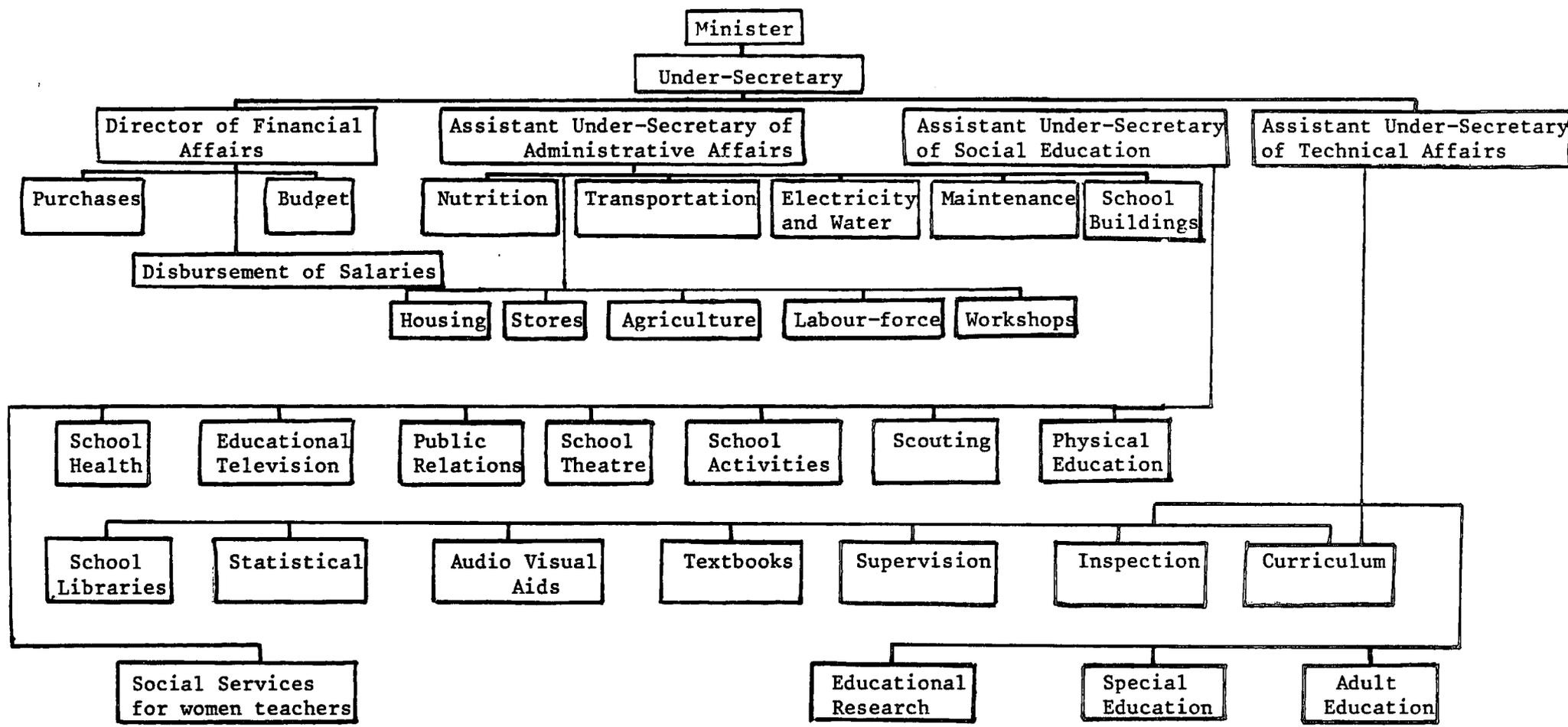
Ministry of Education and Instruction in 1960's

The expansion of the administration system in the Department of Education has acquired a different meaning in the sixties. It is essential that some of the massive oil money should be used effectively in the educational services in order to meet the demands arising from an obligation to spread education as a means of social equality and the pressures arising from the need to consider questions of the quality and relevance of education. The Department of Education which was re-named The Ministry of Education and Instruction in the 1960's, has had to increase its administrative performance and efficiency to meet these new challenges. Jawsent Singh, showed the need for an effective administration in the Ministry of Education and Instruction:

"....to meet these needs, the first pre-requisite is an effective administrative set-up. For it is they who make plans, take decisions, formulate programmes and policies and see to their execution or implementation. In the absence of an efficient administrative organization, the most well thought out plans and programmes are destined to fail or lead to results the very opposite of those planned or anticipated. An ineffective administration can be a serious stumbling block in the way of improvement or progress". (1)

It is important to make clear the structure of the Ministry of Education and Instruction during the 1960's. At the top of the hierarchy was the Minister who was a member of the National Assembly, who held the overall responsibility for all educational services in the state. He was assisted by the Under-Secretary of Education, who was a permanent Civil Servant. However, the Under-Secretary held office only during the pleasure of the Minister of Education and Instruction. The

(1) Jawsent Singh, Educational Planning and Administration, (Unpublished Report, Ministry of Education, 1965), p.13.



Under-Secretary in addition to general administrative and supervisory duties deals personally with the following matters: Conferences and Educational Seminars, Personnel Affairs, Private Schools, Planning Affairs, Appointment Contracts and Examinations and Certificates. The Under-Secretary has full authority to decide all matters except those of general policy, financial matters, foreign missions and scholarships and important basic changes. In the structure or functioning of the Ministry for these he has to seek the approval of the Minister. The Under-Secretary was assisted by three Assistant Under-Secretaries and a Director.

The Assistant Under-Secretary of Technical Affairs was responsible for all academic policies and curricula, inspection and supervision, textbooks, audiovisual aids including educational cinema, statistical division, schools libraries, adult education, special education, reports on teachers and educational research. In the discharge of these functions, he was assisted by the Director of primary education, inspectors and the heads of various divisions.

The Assistant Under-Secretary of Social Education was responsible for physical education, scouting and school picnics, school activities, school theatre, public relations, educational television, school health, social services for women teachers. He was assisted by divisional heads and inspectors.

The Assistant Under-Secretary of Administrative Affairs was responsible for school buildings, maintenance, electricity and water services, transportation, nutrition, workshops, labour-force, agriculture, stores and housing. He was assisted by the heads of relevant sections.

The Director of Financial Affairs was concerned with budgets, purchases, disbursement of salaries, and other financial transactions. He was assisted by a chief accountant and the accounts branch.

In addition, the hierarchy of the Ministry of Education and Instruction of 1960's included some committees to advise on educational matters. These committees were: Curriculum Committee, Reports Committee, Examinations Committee, School buildings, planning, School libraries, School activities and Personnel Affairs Committee.

From this review of the 1960's hierarchy it can be seen that most of the administrative functions in the Ministry of Education and Instruction were completely controlled by the Under-Secretary of education who was helped by three assistants and one director. In almost all matters the final decision lay with him. The absence of any provision for delegation profoundly affected during the sixties, the relationship between the senior administrators and their subordinates in terms of job distribution and decision making. It has continued to be one of the most characteristic features of the Ministry organization during the seventies. In the 1960's, the organization of the Ministry of Education and Instruction had serious defects:

First: since all matters had to be referred to the Under-Secretary he was so overworked that he found it extremely difficult to devote much time to constructive policy making, planning and supervision. Some of his authority was delegated to the assistants, but not enough.

Second: since the subordinate officers did not have the authority to make decisions they tended to look to the Under-Secretary for everything and were inclined to assume any responsibility.

Third: the appointment of an Under-Secretary was related to the appointment of the Minister, he was in a sense, a political appointment, and therefore, there was always the possibility of a change of Under-Secretary if there should be a change of Minister. This sometimes deprived the Ministry of the advise of experienced Under-Secretaries.

Fourth: some important divisions like elementary and secondary education were largely controlled by inspectors through standing committees. The inspectors were more or less of equal rank and there was no suitably qualified educationalist to coordinate their work or to draw up an interegrated programme for the development of education. Therefore, there was a need for a body of specialists with responsibility for meeting the growing demands of the educational service.

Ministry of Education Recent Administrative Structure 1970's - 1980's

From the 1970's until recently, the Ministry of Education hierarchy continued to grow in different ways and for different reasons. The Kuwait Government has adopted a new policy called 'Kuwaitization' which means that all senior posts in the state ministries and organizations must be held by Kuwaitis. This new policy has had a tremendous influence in terms of the total number of employees in the Government

offices. Each ministry has promoted large numbers of Kuwaiti employees to the senior posts without any consideration of their qualifications or capability. Meanwhile the non-Kuwaitis who were holding those posts became redundant for political reasons. Each ministry has to find work for its redundant employees even though it conflicts with its own policy and its own needs. An example of the Kuwaitization policy is the unplanned appointment of Kuwaitis as heads of schools over a very short period.

X The case of the Ministry of Education was unique in that in making the change. New departments have been created (from 17 in 1974 to 41 in 1983) without any regard to the actual needs. The main duty of most of these departments is to absorb the surplus employees. In the case of some departments, such as that of nutrition, schools could do the work. In the case of some others, such as the department of transportation, typing and publications private sectors could be used. Others duplicate one another's work, such as the department of Textbook and Curricula, and the Centre for Curriculum Research. Early in 1980's the administration of the Ministry of Education became the most complex of all government offices in terms of the number of employees and the number of departments (see table 3.1).

POSTS AND WORK DISTRIBUTION IN THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION RECENT

ORGANIZATION:

In the following section of this chapter, an attempt will be made to see how the employees in the Ministry of Education are distributed among the different departments. It is difficult not to conclude that employment inflation has been the major factor which has shaped the Ministry as an organization.

The Minister of Education's office is administered by one director and twenty employees, in addition to several consultative committees. The Under-Secretary's office has two directors, two supervisors and 138 employees. There is also the Under-Secretary responsibility for the Centre for Curriculum Research (C.C.R.), the Kuwait National Committee of Educational Sciences and Culture (K.N.C.E.S.C.), and the Public Relations Department. In addition there are several consultative committees.

The Assistant Under-Secretary of Parallel Education* is responsible for five departments arranged as follows: Private Education Department, Religious Education Department, Special Education Department, Adult Education Department and Parallel Education Department. He is assisted by five directors and seven supervisors. The total number of employees in this unit is 251, Kuwaitis form 19 per cent.

* Parallel Education: A kind of Education that runs parallel to the Public Education System. Students are accepted under certain conditions.

Table (3.1)

The Employees in The Ministry of Education Offices

Post	Kuwaiti	non-Kuwaiti	Total	K %
Administrators	1201	2574	3775	32
Inspectors	123	511	634	20
Administrators	39	7	116	82
Scholarships				
Teachers	440	36	476	93
Cultural Counsellor	16	-	16	100
Labourers	441	2897	3338	13
Total	2260	6025	8285	27

Table (3.2)

School Teachers and Administrators

Post	Kuwaiti	non-Kuwaiti	Total	K %
Directors/Assistants	8	8	16	50
Headmasters	361	79	440	82
Assistant Heads	499	32	531	94
Teachers	6610	17757	24367	27
Secretaries	4184	2051	6235	67
Labourers	3642	7518	11160	33
Total	15304	27445	42749	36

Source: Kuwait Ministry of Education, Planning Department, Statistical Division, The Employees in the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education Press, 1984), p.1. [in Arabic].

The Assistant Under-Secretary of Administration and Financial Affairs is responsible for twelve departments arranged as follows: the Department of Financial Affairs, the Department of Imports, the Department of General Storages, the Department of Accommodation, the Department of Nutrition, the Computer Centre, the Department of Employment, the Department of Services, the Department of Organization, the General Registration Department, the Employment Registration Department and the Transportation Department.

He is assisted by 11 directors and 28 supervisors. The total number of employees in this unit is 4071, Kuwaitis form 18 per cent, and non-Kuwaitis form 82 per cent. This unit was divided into two in 1984 to become the Administration Unit and the Finance Unit, headed by two different Assistant Under-Secretaries (see figure 4).

The Assistant Under-Secretary of Social Services is responsible for two departments arranged as follows: the Social Services Department and the Psychological Department. He is assisted by one director and four supervisors. The total number of employees in this unit is 230, Kuwaitis form 42 per cent.

The Assistant Under-Secretary of Planning and Cultural Affairs is responsible for ten departments arranged as follows: Planning Department, Developing Labour-Force Department, Textbook and Curriculum Department, Educational Technology Centre, Cultural Affairs Department, Libraries Department, Educational Information Centre, Scholarship Department, Typing Affairs Department and Training Centre. He is assisted by nine directors and thirteen supervisors. The total number of employees in this unit is 962, Kuwaitis form 25 per cent.

The Assistant Under-Secretary of Public Education is responsible for eight departments: Ahmadi District Department Aljahra District Department, Kindergartens Department, Elementary School Department, Intermediate School Department, Secondary School Department, Supervision Department and Failaka Education Division. She is assisted by eight directors and thirteen supervisors. The total number of employees is 1308, Kuwaitis form 65 per cent.

The Assistant Under-Secretary of Student Affairs is responsible for four departments: School Activities Department, Physical Education Department, Examination Department, Scientific Museum and Educational Military Supervision. Assisted by five directors and six supervisors. The total number of employees is 839, Kuwaitis form 27 per cent.

Without an appropriate systematic organization, the Ministry of Education will not be able to function effectively to improve educational output in the country. The current structure clearly suffers from considerable defects:

(1) There is a great need to reduce the number of employees in the central offices of the Ministry of Education by applying some principles of scientific management, such as analysing the tasks of each post in each department, assessing the number of employees that needed to accomplish these tasks, and eliminating the surplus employees by such means as retraining them to work in other places, or encouraging early retirement.

(2) There is no clear definition of the functions and powers of each post throughout the Ministry, particularly among the middle post - directors, supervisors, and assistant supervisors.

(3) There is no definition of tasks assigned to staff in each department which often leads to overlapping of function and delays. Therefore, it is necessary to provide all staff with a clear statement of their duties.

(4) Personnel qualifications is a real problem in the Ministry of Education. As a result of the 'Kuwaitization Policy' and the promotion system according to seniority, it has been easy for anyone to secure promotion without being properly qualified or even trained.

(5) Among the seven Assistant-Under Secretaries, there is a great imbalance as regards relative responsibilities. For example, the Assistant Under-Secretary of Public Education, and the Assistant Under-Secretary of Planning and Cultural Affairs have to manage between nine to ten departments as against two to three departments only under the Assistant Under-Secretary of Social Services and Assistant Under-Secretary for Financial Affairs.

(6) Every member of the Ministry organization should clearly understand to whom he or she is responsible. For this purpose a code will have to be prepared giving details of the function and powers of each officer, and the line of authority. However, since each unit in the Ministry of Education is headed by an Assistant Under-Secretary who is assisted by directors, supervisors, assistant supervisors, chiefs of division and chiefs of branch, it will be difficult to prepare a line of authority without a simplification of the structure and establishing a clear channel of communication and decision making.

Figure (3,3)

The Line of The Authority in The
Ministry of Education:

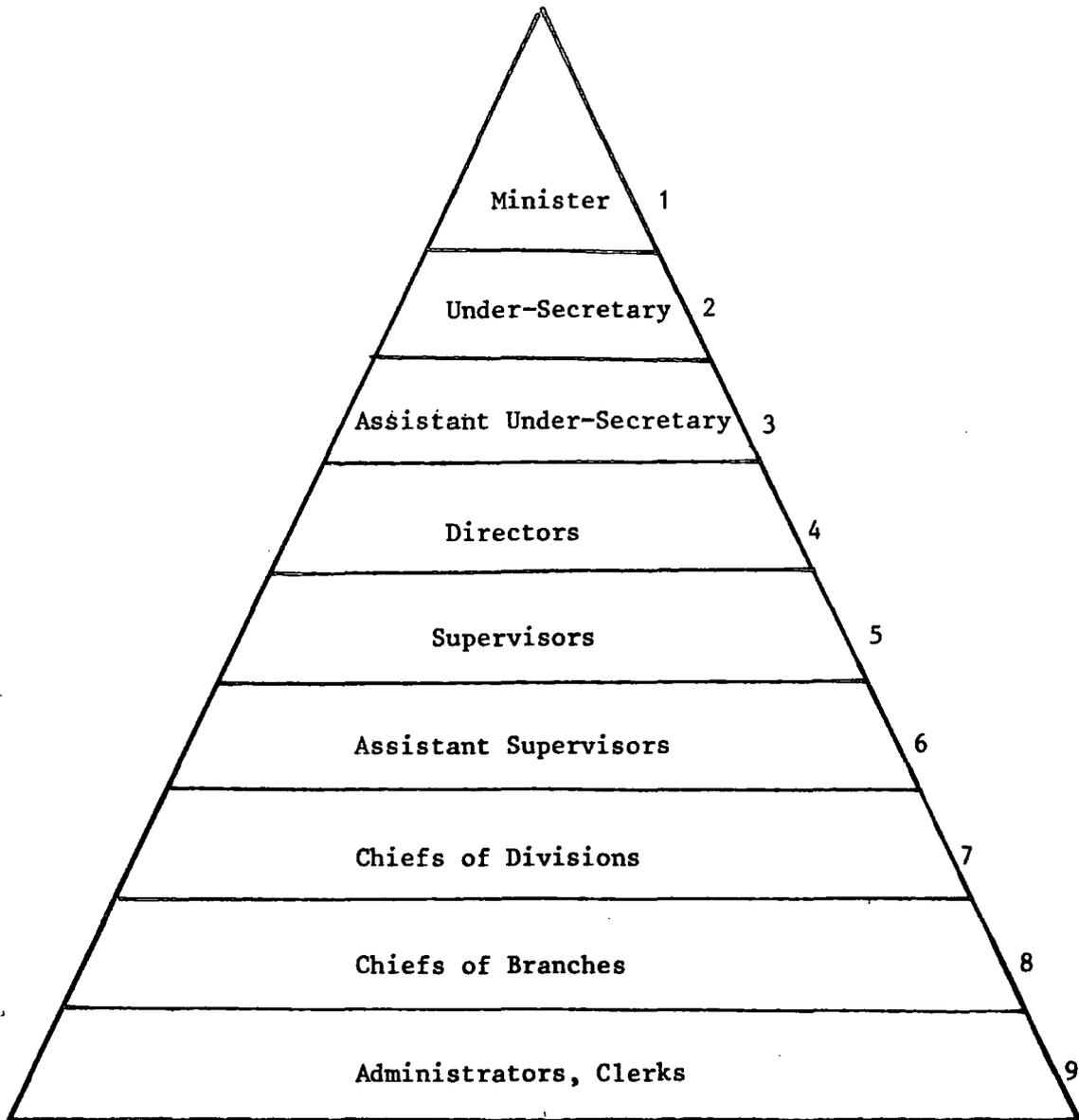
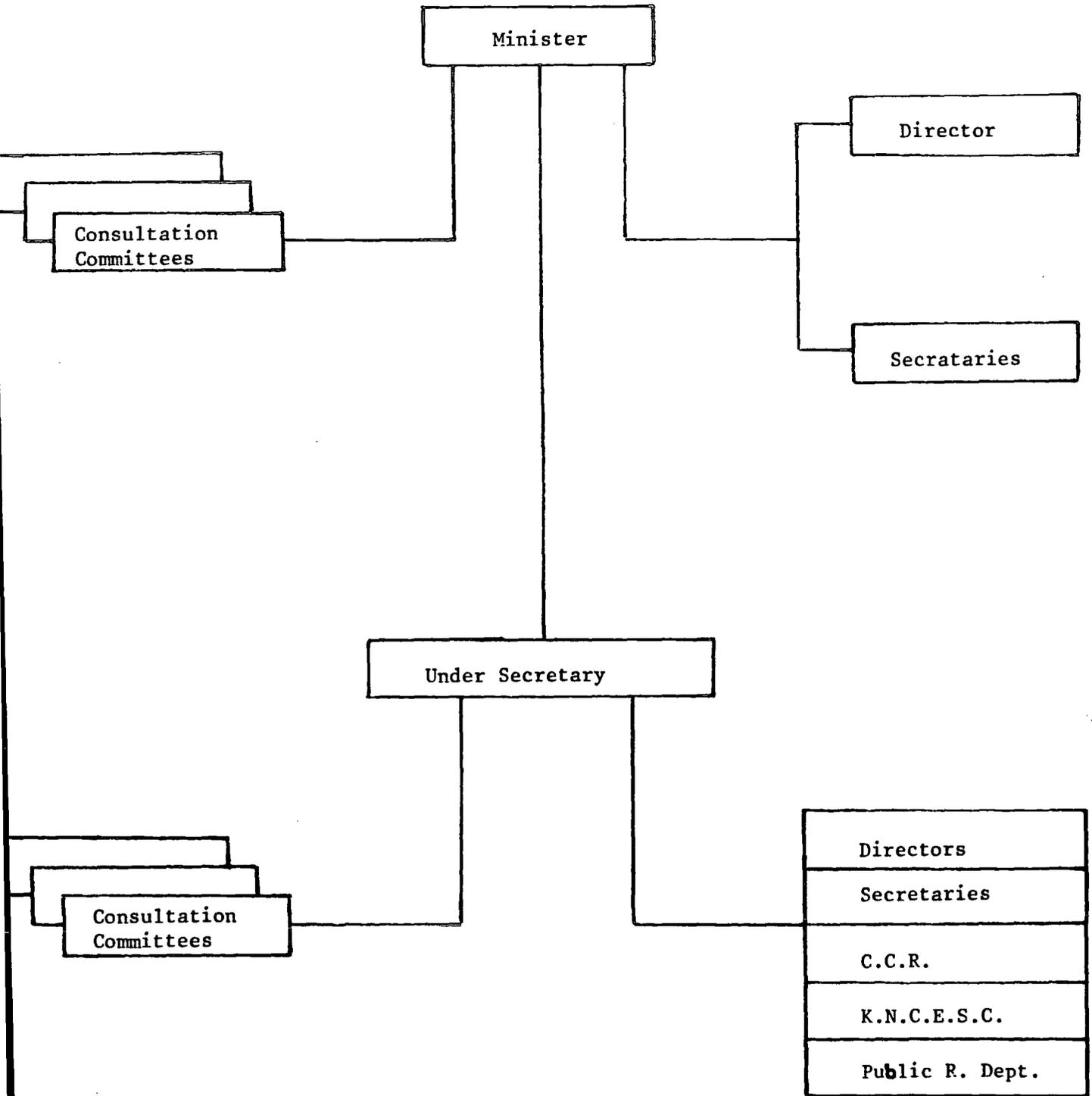


Figure (3.3)

Figure (3.4)

Work distribution in the Minister and Under-Secretary offices, In The Ministry of Education



Source: Kuwait Ministry of Education, organization chart 1983

Figure (3.4)

Figure (3.5) Distribution of the Work among the Assistants Under-Secretary in the Ministry of Education

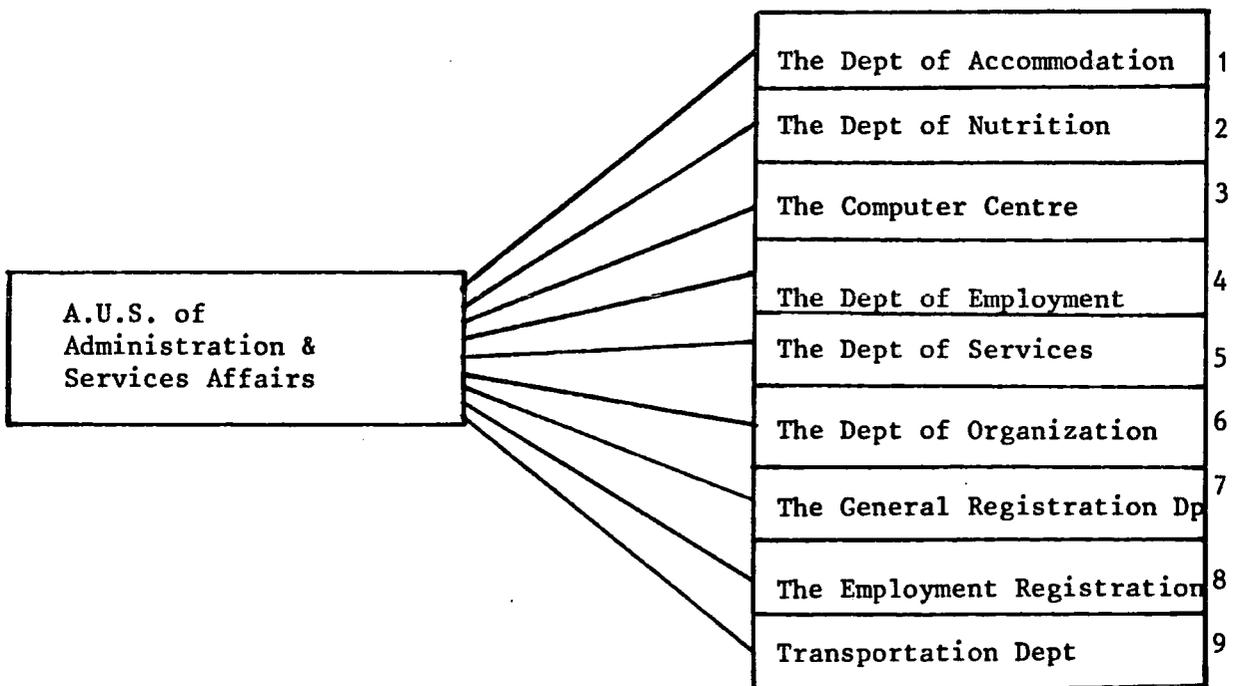
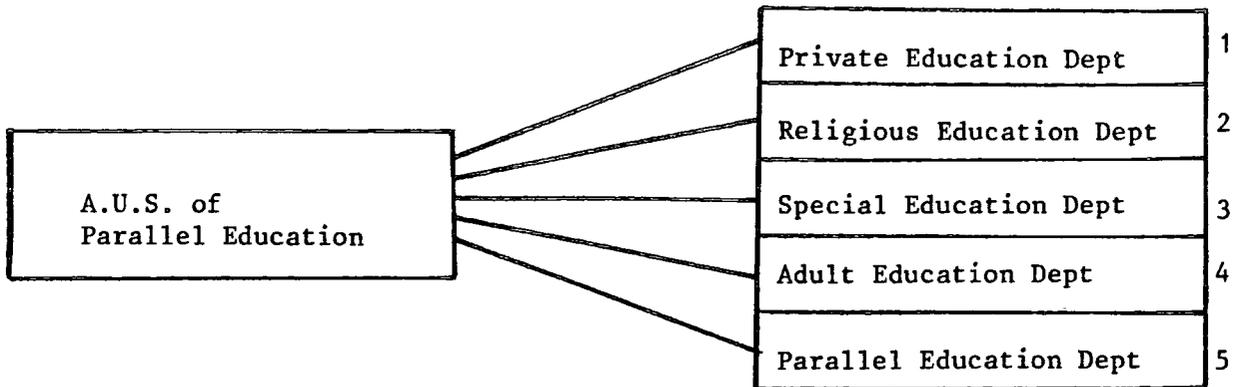


Figure (3.5) Continued

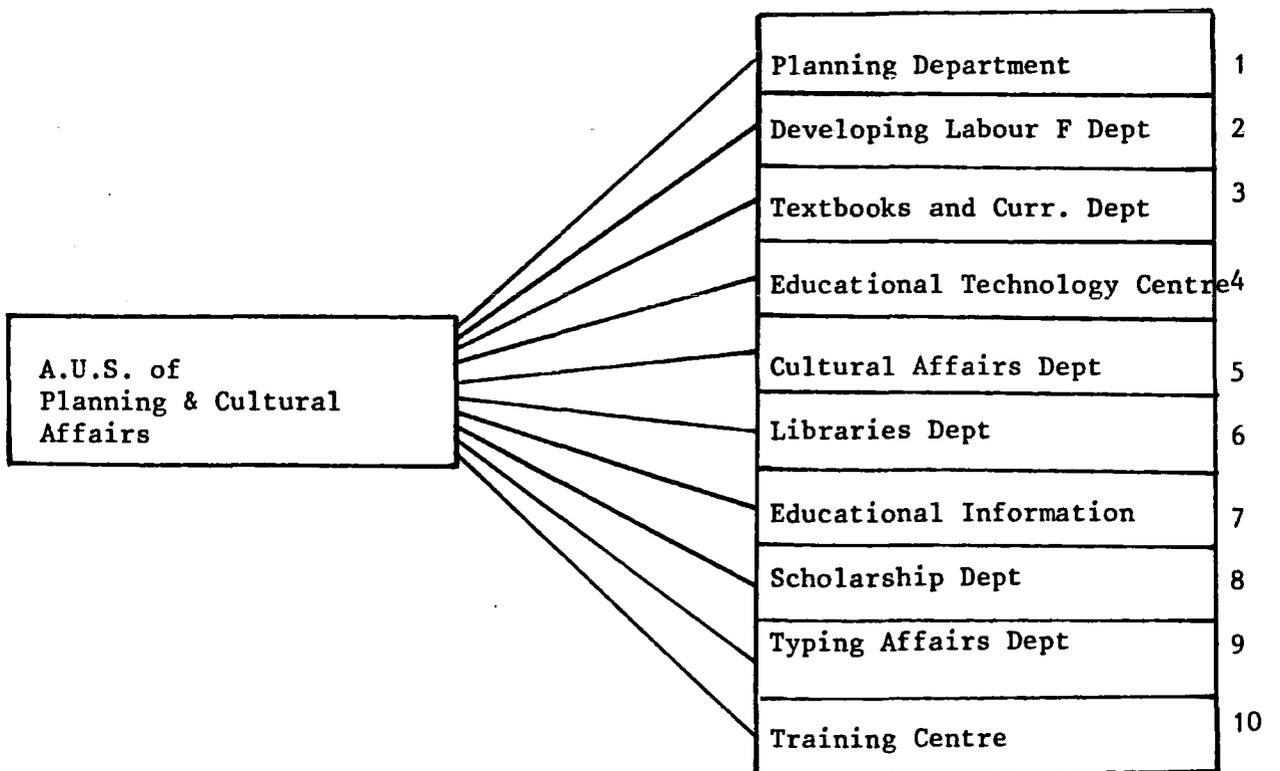
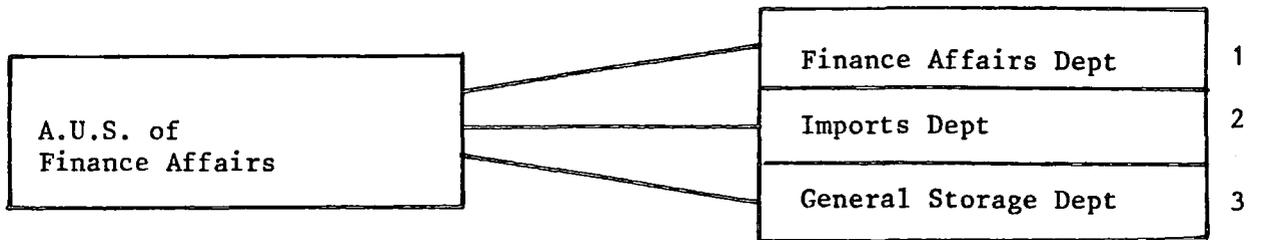
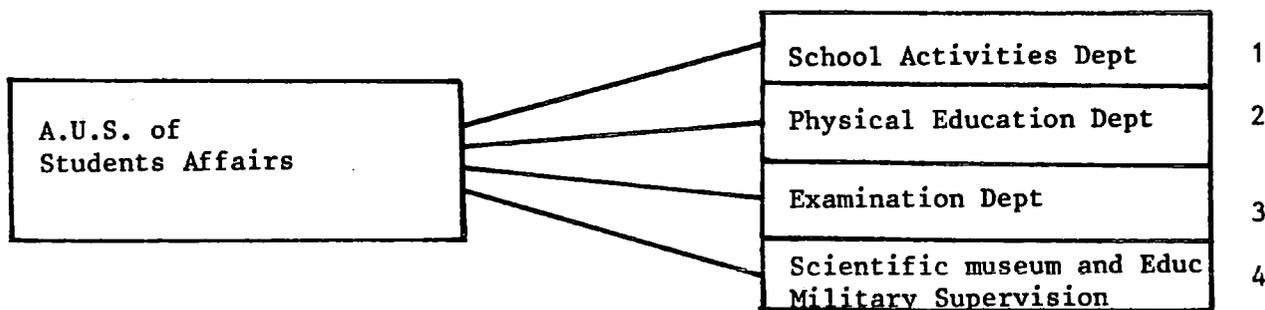
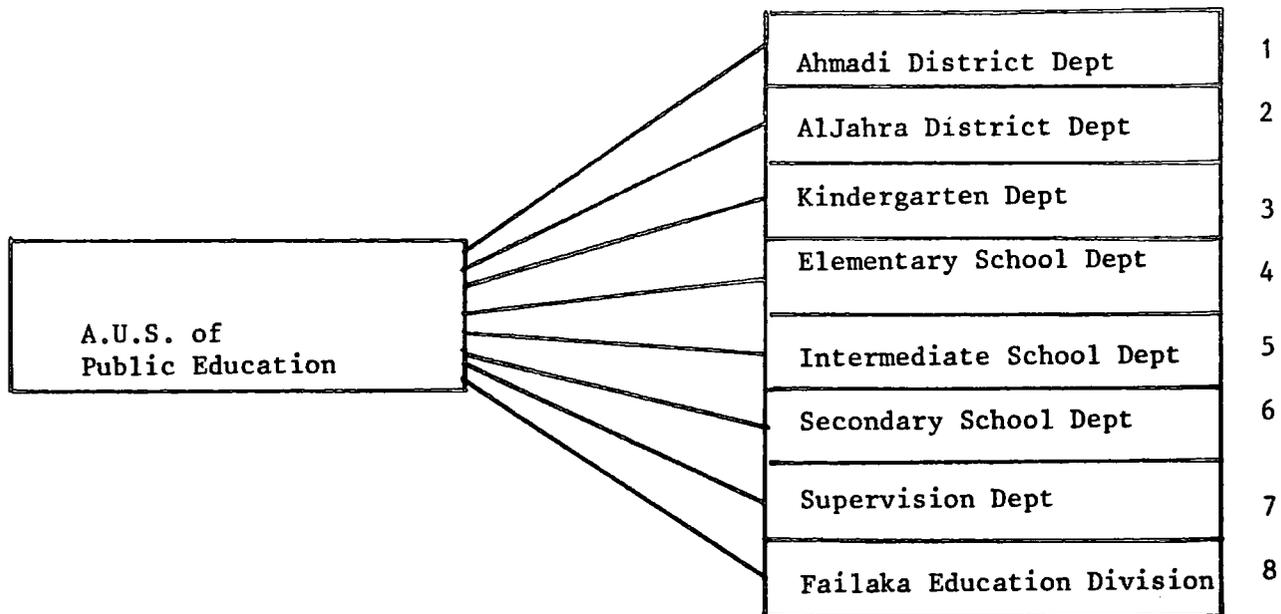


Figure (3.5) Continued



THE SUPERVISION DEPARTMENT IN THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION:

The function of supervision in the school system of Kuwait still has the same role as at its establishment early in the fifties,* which was mainly directing and checking the work of teachers. Often the supervisors visit a group of teachers two or three times a year to prepare a report. Teachers have no right to see their reports. Currently, the general Supervision Department is one of the largest departments in the Ministry of Education. By 1975-1976 there were 265 supervisors working in primary, intermediate and secondary education. In 1981-1982 the number of supervisors increased to 316, Kuwaitis formed only 23 per cent of the total. The number reached 634 in 1984-1985, non-Kuwaiti supervisors still form the majority.

* The term supervision has many different meanings. Each person in the school system who reads or hears the word interprets it in terms of his past experiences, his needs, and his purpose. During the past half-century, supervision has been in a state of rapid evolution. In the 1920's writers in the field of supervision recommended telling teachers what to do and then checking to see whether they had done as they were directed. In 1930's the emphasis was on 'democratic supervision'. This seems to have meant a type of manipulation in which teachers were to be treated kindly. Supervision was described in 1940's - 1950's as a cooperative enterprise. The writers in the field saw all people in a school system supervising each other, which meant helping each other, counselling each other, planning with each other, or talking with each other about how to improve the teaching - learning situation. In this sense the task of the person who is designated as a supervisor is to make it easier for people to supervise each other. In the late 1960's and during the 1970's, clinical supervision techniques were developed by R Goldman and his colleagues in the teaching programme at Harvard University. In clinical supervision there is a face to face relationship between supervisor and teacher.

For more reading in the development of supervision see for example:

- (1) Kimball Wiles and John T Lovell, Supervision for Better Schools (Prentice Hall, 1975).
- (2) Thomas J Sergiovanni and Robert J Starratt, Supervision Human Perspectives, (McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1979).

Table (3.3)

The Distribution of the Supervisors in the Public Schools,
according to the subjects. 1984-1985

Subjects	Non-Kuwaiti	Kuwaiti	Total
Arabic Language	65	19	84
Religious Education	40	17	57
English	41	16	57
French	30	15	45
Music	20	26	46
Arts	20	14	34
Home Economics	21	20	41
Social Studies	34	22	56
Sciences	56	18	74
Mathematic	60	22	82
Technical	26	32	58
Total	414	220	634

Source: Data collected from the Supervision Department in the Ministry of Education in 1985.

In spite of the efforts of the Ministry of Education to extend the supervision role, that role has not essentially changed since 1950. Supervision in Kuwaiti education suffers from three serious defects:

(1) A majority of supervisors trained a long time ago and are not now in touch with the latest developments. They have not adopted the new approaches and techniques of supervision. They still consider supervision as essentially a matter of policing and assessing the teachers, even after the Ministry had changed the name of the Department from 'Inspection' to 'Supervision'.

(2) A large majority of the supervisors carry considerable administrative responsibility which makes heavy demands on their time, with the result that supervision is either lacking or exercised in a perfunctory manner.

(3) The necessary coordination is lacking with the result that different supervisors make different demands upon the teachers.

DECISIONS IN THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

The Department of Libraries in the Ministry of Education has recently issued a publication under the title 'Ministry of Education during the quarter of a century 1954-1979'. The introduction indicates that the main purpose of this collection is to provide researchers, decision makers and the state authority with a wide range of information.

The publication raises some important points. First; educational decisions in the country are in some way political decisions. although the Ministry of Education has the authority to determine the general policy of education, some important decisions needed to be approved by his majesty the Amir during the fifties and by the Cabinet from the sixties. Examples of such decisions were, the appointment of the president of the Department of Education in the 1950's, and the members of the Board of Education; the determination of the Ministry of Education Jurisdictions and the enactment of some important laws such as, the Law of Compulsory Education, and the Law of Eradication of Illiteracy. All the decrees for the appointment of the Ministers of Education, the Under-Secretaries, and the Assistant Under-Secretaries are made by the Amir. The decrees for the establishment of Kuwait University in 1966, similarly required the approval of the Amir.

This situation leads to the question, who is supposed to be responsible for making educational decisions in the country, and how far do those who are responsible for making decisions in the Ministry of Education really feel autonomous?

Secondly, the publication also includes a large number of decisions and ministerial resolutions that have been issued by the Ministry of Education since 1954 concerned with the organization and the work of its departments and schools. These decisions included: (a) the 1950's delegation of the authority from the president of the Department of Education to the Director of the Department, and to the deputies of Finance and Administration; (b) the delegation of authority from the

Minister of Education to the Under-Secretary during the 1960's and 1970's; (c) the delegation of some of the authority of the Under-Secretary to the Assistant Under-Secretaries.

Although, there is some delegation of authority among the supervisory officers, as indicated in the publication, these delegations were insufficient and were done through personal relationships. There are as yet no clear systematic procedures that control these delegations.

Other decisions related to the development of the Ministry bureaucracy are described in the publication such as: Establishing a number of Assistant Under-Secretary posts, creating a large number of departments and many senior posts such as: directors, supervisors and chiefs of unit, setting the terms of reference of permanent committees and sub-committees.

The last group of Ministerial decisions that the publication includes are decisions that relate to the school administrative system. Examples of these: (a) rules for appointing headmasters and assistants, teachers and supervisors; (b) examinations procedures at each school level; (c) admissions and regulations in the vocational and technical institutions, and in Kuwait University; (d) setting the syllabus of each subject and determining its appropriate goals; (e) determining the programmes of teachers and administrators in-service training; (f) controlling special and private education.

EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION IN THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION:

I The Ministry of Education Jurisdiction Decree:

In the late 1970's, the Government's administrative performance was widely criticised. The Kuwait National Assembly adopted a project entitled 'Reconstruction of the Government Executive Administration', the project required that all Government Organizations and Ministries should have a written document clarifying their jurisdictions and limitations. The Ministry of Education Jurisdiction Decree was passed and approved by the Cabinet in 1979.* The Decree included three sections:

Section One: The Ministry of Education is responsible for the contributing to the growth of society and of the younger generation, in the light of Islamic principles, Arabic culture, and contemporary culture, consistent with Kuwait's environment and the attainment of its progress.

Section Two: The Ministry of Education has specifically the following duties:-

- (a) Proposing general educational policies and plans through a higher Educational Council and other consultative committees;

* The Decree of the Ministry of Education Jurisdiction was published in Kuwait Today Journal, No.1328, (Kuwait Government Press, 1979) p.9.

(b) general responsibility for all education matters such as the determination of the school levels, the improvement of the curriculum, and setting admission procedures and examination rules.

(c) It is also responsible for adult education, the eradication of illiteracy centres, special educational institutions, vocational and technical education and religious education.

(d) The Ministry of Education has the right to establish new institutions, send students abroad for higher education and prepares and implements the school programmes in sports, social and cultural activities and in the arts.

(e) The Ministry of Education may cooperate with other ministries and organizations concerned with youth affairs and interests, and with other friendly countries and with Arab and foreign educational associations to reform education in Kuwait.

II The Law of Compulsory Education:

In 1951 Unesco sponsored a series of monographs on compulsory education around the globe. The organization assumed that all United Nations members agreed on the general principal of the necessity of instituting a system of compulsory, free universal education.

The Kuwait Law of Compulsory Education Act 11* was passed in 1965 after approval by the Kuwaiti Government. The Law included fourteen articles, arranged as follows:

Articles (1), (2), (3) and (4) confirmed that education is free for all Kuwaiti children, and that the period of compulsion is eight years from age 6-14. Parents are legally responsible for enrolling their children in primary school as soon as they reach the age of six. A pupil may not be dismissed or leave the school before the completion of his fifteenth year. The Ministry of Education is required to establish schools for the education or vocational training of the handicapped.

Articles (8), (9) and (10) are devoted to the implementation and enforcement of the law. The Ministry of Education and the Office of the Registrar General are responsible for preparing yearly records of all children of the age of compulsion. The Ministry of Education should inform parents who have a child of compulsory school age. The heads of schools have to inform the Ministry if there is no response from the parents within two weeks.

Article (10) fixes the fine for parents who refuse to enrol their children in school at the age of six. The penalty is a fine of (10.K.D.) or prison for not more than two weeks.

* The Law of Compulsory Education, was published in Kuwait Today Journal, No. 366. (Kuwait Government Press, 1965) pp. 9-19.

Article (11) makes the Ministry of Education responsible for enforcing the law. And finally, Articles (12), (13) and (14) state that the Ministry of Education is responsible for providing the school buildings, all necessary equipment and other resources.

The law of compulsory school attendance in Kuwait education is not entirely effective. For example, in 1982-1983 nearly 21 per cent of boys and 20 per cent of girls aged 4-14 were not in school, in spite of the existence of the compulsory education law.

Table (3.4)

The student enrolment age 6-14 and the children not in school in the same age group, 1982-1983

Population age	Student Enrolment	%	Out of	%
6-10	age 6-10		School	
(Boys) 93343	65555	70	27788	30
(Girls) 72786	63683	87	9103	13
Population Age	Student Enrolment	%	Out of	%
10-14	age 10-14		School	
(Boys) 80183	62011	77	18172	23
(Girls) 62022	52017	83	10005	17

Source: Kuwait Ministry of Education, Planning Department, School Map, (Ministry of Education Press, 1984) pp.90-96.

Another defect of recent compulsory education law is that compulsion does not apply to all children in the state. Article (1) in the Act II/1965 stipulated 'Compulsion is for Kuwaiti children male and female between age 6-14'. Non-Kuwaiti children are admitted into the state schools on the basis of availability of places and political considerations. The implication is that some children will be denied equal education opportunity as a result of their nationality or status. For instance, in 1985, the non-Kuwaiti population aged 5-14 was 183,752, 68.2 per cent of them were in the government schools, and 31.1 per cent were either in the private school or not at school. ⁽¹⁾ The failure to provide free compulsory education for such a large section of the population represents a major violation of the principle of human rights and strongly conflicts with the commitment to universal education.

III The Law of Eradication of Illiteracy:

Many of the less developed countries have high rates of illiteracy. Making education compulsory in a country does not necessarily solve the illiteracy problem. Kuwait was conscious of the problem early in the fifties when the first centre for adult education was opened. However, in 1985, 26.4 per cent of the total Kuwaiti population was illiterate and 19 per cent of Kuwaitis between the ages of 15-39 still are illiterate. ⁽²⁾

(1) Ministry of Planning, Central Statistical Office, Annual Statistical Abstract, (Central Statistical Press, 1986) p.34 and p.330.

(2) Ibid., p. 36.

The Law of Eradication concerning illiteracy, Act 4 was approved by the Cabinet of Kuwait in 1981. The law included twenty three articles. Articles (1), (2) and (3) stated that the eradication of illiteracy was a national responsibility, and defined an illiterate as one who failed to reach a certain specified level. The eradication of illiteracy is compulsory for all Kuwaitis males aged 14-40 and all Kuwaiti females, who are working in the Government sectors and who are under the age of 35.

Article (4) defined the work and authority of the Higher Committee for the Eradication of Illiteracy, which is headed by the Minister of Education. Article (5) applied to all government organizations, companies, and private sectors, and made them responsible for taking this law into consideration. Article (10) applied to every illiterate person who was required to enrol at the nearest centre within sixty days from the date when the law came into operation.

Article (14) states that a person who is able to pass the eradication of illiteracy examination, should hold a certificate from the Ministry of Education. The law has prohibited the appointment of illiterates to any post in a Government Organization until they have become literate. Article (17) states that employees can not be promoted until they have obtained the eradication of illiteracy certificate.

Article (18), (19) and (20) dealt with the enforcement to the law. An illiterate who does not enrol at the illiteracy centres will be fined



(100 K.D.). An illiterate who is absent from the classes more than 25 per cent will be fined (50 K.D.). The owners of private enterprises have to apply this law to their workers who are illiterate by enrolling them at the illiteracy centres, or be fined.

Article (21) makes the Ministry of Education responsible for implementing the law of eradication of illiteracy.

NEED FOR A PUBLIC EDUCATION LAW:

In 1980 the Unesco Commission reported:

'Kuwait has not yet enacted an educational law which could strengthen the philosophies and policies. It is recommended that such a law be written, reviewed and revised as necessary, and adopted in its most acceptable and workable form, as soon as possible.'⁽¹⁾

Accordingly, the Ministry of Education has prepared a draft educational law which was submitted to the Ministries Council for approval in 1984. The proposed law has confirmed: first, that education is a right for all citizens guaranteed by the state. Secondly, that education aims to provide an equal opportunity for children to grow spiritually, intellectually, and physically in the framework of Islamic principles, Arabic culture, contemporary culture, and the Kuwaiti social environment.

(1) Unesco, An Appraisal of the Educational Structure of Kuwait, (unpublished report, Kuwait Ministry of Education, 1981) p.26.

The law has assessed the methods, the composition and the functions of the Higher Council of Education. This official body is essential to set policies and avoid duplication of effort and wastage of material resources. Article (7) for example stated 'The Higher Council should be constituted through representation of key personnel from appropriate Government agencies and from business, industry, and the professions.'

Three years have passed since the draft of the public educational law was discussed by the highest authority of the state. The law has not yet been approved. According to an official source 'time and further study are still needed to approve a law so important for the progress of the country.' Kuwait National Assembly members have raised questions about the delay in enacting the law of public education.

So far there is no indication that in the near future a law of such importance will be enacted. Further there is no reason at all to delay it. It could be supposed that the delay indicates that educational legislation has not yet achieved a high priority in the minds of State decision makers.

The next chapter will examine the trends towards decentralization in the school system of Kuwait. The research will show the appropriateness of moving in this direction. Ahmadi School District has been taken as a case study.

Chapter Four

TRENDS TOWARDS ADMINISTRATIVE DECENTRALIZATION IN THE KUWAIT PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

- Educational Administration in transition between centralization and decentralization.
- Partnership between centralization and decentralization.
- Trends towards decentralization, the ideas and the implementation, in Kuwait Educational System.
- Directors of the School Districts role and duties.
- The need for an effective local role, a view of the future.

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN TRANSITION BETWEEN CENTRALIZATION AND
DECENTRALIZATION:

Education administration as a system has been divided into two different kinds: Centralized Administration and Decentralized Administration. What do the two terms mean? How do they differ? And which is more relevant to particular educational objectives?

The terms 'Centralization' in the field of education is often used to mean that a single office, department or ministry is responsible for all matters of the educational services throughout the state. Sometimes that single office has a number of branches in the communes or cotons. However, these branches do not have the right to make decisions or to form policies. Their main purpose is to implement directions and follow instructions. Examples of the centralized type of education are the systems in France and U.S.S.R. In administration the public or state system of education in France can be taken as a classic example of centralization. Its origin dates back to the laws of 1802 and 1808, by which Napoleon created the 'Universite de France'.

The Ministry of Public Instruction in France was divided into separate administrative areas, each headed by a director. These areas were elementary education; secondary education; higher education; physical education; vocational education; fine arts and accounts. The functions of the Department of Accounts have recently been broadened to include a variety of duties under the general label of administration.

Each directorate was made responsible for implementing all aspects of educational policy in its area. This included the preparation and management of the budget; the preparation, certification and appointment of the teachers; the location and inspection of the school buildings; the preparation of courses of study; the regular and detail inspection of the work of each teacher and the examination and promotion of each pupil, at least at the major points of transition, from one level to the next. Policy was to be formulated at the national level. Uniformity of administration of policy and quality of performance were to be guaranteed by a staff of external examinations administered nationally. The inspectors were attached to the Ministry of Public Instruction made up of distinguished leaders and ambitious young politicians who were appointed either by the minister or by a professional group.

The most positive characteristics of centralization in education are that it is able to integrate the work and supervision of the whole educational system in the country by determining in advance the line of authority the procedures of responsibilities and the channels of communication. At the same time the centralized system can reduce educational expenditure and control it more easily. Also it is able to benefit from the available experience among staff of the ministry to facilitate the work of school administration. Nevertheless, this type of administration suffers from problems:

Moh. Saebi, rejected centralization in this way:

'Centralization administration of education is likely to result in mediocrity and in the lack of local adaptability. Centralization in the control administration, and financing of education is very apt to lead to a mediocre school system and a lack of progressive development of the programme of public education. With well-developed local units for the administration of schools it is certain that some communities will develop leadership which will be effective in improving education. Most of the great reforms in education have originated in the schools of some local community.

They were not decreed by central authority.'⁽¹⁾
This situation exists in most less advanced countries and in some advanced countries as well. Also centralizing the work in the hands of the state through its official authorization which often takes a place in the capital of the state, will deny the more remote regions equal education opportunities. Finally, centralization can cause problems in decision making in that the senior officers in the hierarchy will monopolize the decision making and exclude the middle and lower ranks from being involved.

Decentralization is sharply contrasted to centralization. Decentralization accepts that the local autonomous bodies are best suited to control and administer education by their elected boards; U.S.A. and Switzerland are examples.

In the U.S.A; each of the fifty states is sovereign in important respects. One of these is in the control of its own educational. Each state governs the length of the school life, the certification of teachers and the indispensable minima of the curriculum. It also decides educational provision above the elementary level, for example, in relation to universities, technical education and auxiliary services. There is some federal aid (land grants, and aid for ex-service men and for technical education). There is also some federal oversight (in pronouncements about segregation or other matters affecting basic rights guaranteed in the U.S. constitution) but federal powers and contributions are strictly limited. Furthermore, within each state the control of education is amazingly decentralized: counties, schools districts or cities have their own school systems, can establish a local

(1) Mohammad Saebi, The Historical Development of Public Education in the Islamic Republic of Iran (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, 1981), p .

curriculum hire and fire their own teachers at their own rates of pay, and show remarkably varied degrees of wisdom and ingenuity in providing the minimum or maximum of scholastic opportunity.

Kirst Michael made this statement in support of decentralization:

'For administrators, decentralization will be significant to the extent that they can prepare and administer their own budgets and do their own hiring and promoting. For teachers decentralization will be significant to the extent that they can design their own curricula. Of course a central administration must remain to support funds among individual schools, set minimum standards and promote coordination.'⁽¹⁾

A number of authors have advanced other arguments in favour of decentralization in education:

(1) To promote community involvement: it bases the programme on the community's needs and provides for community participation.

(2) To promote administrative effectiveness: it reduces the size of administrative units, moves decision-making closer to implementation sites, responds to need for social services, improves planning and problem-solving ability at local school levels.

(3) To promote administrative efficiency: it reduces overlap of services, engage schools in setting priorities and resource allocation, and encourages programme budgeting.

(1) Kirst Michael, The Politics of Education at the Local, State and Federal Levels, (McCutchan Publishing Cooperation, 1970), pp.186-187.

(4) To provide for greater curriculum and instructional improvement: it provides more sensitive responses to student needs, promotes inter-disciplinary and inter-level coordination, improves instructional quality, increases teacher participation in curriculum development, and responds to the needs of a particular geographic area.

(5) To increase the influence of minority groups: it increases the participation of minority groups in the system as a whole, and in neighbourhoods where such groups are in the majority, they share control of the schools.

(6) To bring the schools closer to the people: it improves pupil performance because parents generally care more about the education of their children than anyone else.

(7) To strengthen democracy: it helps disseminate a sense of democracy within the community and eventually within the country.

Though a decentralized system of education is popular and well established in many countries, it has been opposed for different reasons.

For example, Ellwood Cubberley in 1925 wrote:

'It would be better for the child if practically all powers (such as selecting teachers, instructional materials, determining curricula, salaries and length of school years) were taken away from the local school trustees and transferred to county educational authorities for handling in a way that would secure rather uniform results throughout the country.' (1)

(1) Ellwood P Cubberley, An Introduction to The Study of Education and Teaching, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1925), pp.80-81.

Paul Mort in 1960 viewed the crisis of decentralization in education as this:

'The problem in the decentralization system is how to deal with the disadvantages without losing the advantages and without involving inequitable treatment of communities with like ability but with different vigour. It boils down to this: what do districts lose in support of the system of local autonomy when compared with the support that would be available if the programme were a centralized state programme?' (1)

Myron Lieberman in 1962 criticised the American Educational System:

'The centralization of public education in whatever form it comes will bring public education into the mainstream of American life. Centralization means that some people are going to make educational decisions that will be important in every community. When this happens, education will be news and educational leaders will be nationally known for good or evil as the case may be. When this happens public education may become close to the people, but in a new and more fruitful sense than it is now.' (2)

PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN CENTRALIZATION AND DECENTRALIZATION:

Concerning the study of centralization and decentralization in education the possibility has been raised of some compromise between the two systems to avoid the weaknesses of either. If participation or incorporation is considered such question as the following are raised: How can we avoid the drawbacks of both systems without losing their advantages?

Antony Jay in 1981 commented:

'Good decentralization needs to be accompanied by good centralization; and so far from being in direct proportion to each other, they are indirect proportion. The more you have of the latter, the more you can afford of the former.' (3)

Abdelghani Abood,⁽⁴⁾ suggested a pattern of participation by dividing the educational services into external services, such as the material

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- (1) Paul R Mort, Public School Finance, (McGraw-Hill Book, 1960), p.43.
 - (2) Myron Lieberman, The Future of Public Education, (The University of Chicago Press, 1962), p.285.
 - (3) Antony Jay, Management and Machiavelli (A Bantam Book, 1981), p.61.
 - (4) Abdelghani Abood, Educational Administration (Dar Alfikr Alarabi, 1979), pp.99-100, [in Arabic].

services which include school buildings, school maintenance, teacher's salaries, instructional aids and internal services such as, teacher training programmes, teaching methods and supervision and school climate. According to Abdelghani, the centralized authority should deal with external services and the local authority be responsible for internal services.

It seems extremely difficult to divide educational services into external and internal because that would conflict with the nature of education as an integrative process. Furthermore, it would cause inequality in services between poor and rich districts as is the case in the United States of America.

Another approach to dividing educational services between state and local bodies is to base the division on the educational level. In this approach the central authority might be responsible for the secondary and higher education, and the local authority might be responsible for primary education.

Morphet J Reller in 1969 argued that:

'... there are probably certain things that can and should be centralized. For example, the state is in a much better position than most of the local school districts to tap and utilize effectively certain sources of revenue that should be used for support of schools. On the other hand, teaching must be carried out in the local community, but effective teaching is made possible by resources and materials, some of which must come from without the community.'⁽¹⁾

(1) Morphet J Reller, Education Administration, Concepts, Practices, Issues, (Prentice-Hall, 1969), p.22.

In my view certainly a partnership between the central authority and the local authority is necessary for the purpose of providing a better education. Without partnership and cooperation neither of them alone would be able to act entirely effectively. For example, the extreme decentralization of American education system has led to the problem of inequality and other disadvantages, in many states the less wealthy areas generally had shorter terms, fewer well-qualified teachers, lower salaries, and less adequate buildings. On the other hand extreme centralization also suffers from some disadvantages, such as lack of system development, the problems of decision-making and delegation, and the problems of delay.

TRENDS TOWARDS DECENTRALIZATION, THE IDEAS AND THE IMPLEMENTATION IN KUWAIT EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The previous chapter has shown that the administration performance in the Ministry of Education is not good and needs urgently to be improved. The decision-makers in the Ministry of Education and in the state authority are aware of the problem and have agreed in principle that change and development should take place. A report presented by the Department of Organization in the Ministry of Education under the title 'Evaluation of the Educational Administration Performance' pointed out: 'The time is coming for a radical change in the administrative structure.' The information which has been obtained shows that a number of laws, ministerial resolutions and regulations should be reconsidered.⁽¹⁾ The report has also indicated some administrative defects in particular the problem of centralization.

(1) Kuwait Ministry of Education, Evaluation of Ministry Qualification, Department of Organization, publication (Unpublished Report, 1975), p.1 [in Arabic].

In 1976 a committee headed by the Assistant Under-Secretary for Cultural Affairs was set up to plan for the new system. The committee at their second meeting presented the following recommendations:

- (1) Setting up a School District System according to the geographical distribution of the population in the country.
- (2) Dividing the country into four educational school districts.
- (3) Regarding the relationship between the Ministry of Education and the districts, it was agreed that the central office at the ministry would be in charge of policy making, planning, financing and the districts in charge of implementation and supervision.
- (4) Also it was agreed that all staff and organizing authorities in the district should be under the director of the district and not the central office of the Ministry of Education.

For more research and consultation the committee wrote to some departments in the Ministry of Education.

The Department of Nutrition reported that despite the increase in expenditure involved, the idea of establishing the school district system is desirable for the purpose of mitigating centralization and redistributing the work. The department has suggested that each district should have its own nutrition centre which should be provided with suitable equipment and staff. The nutrition centre specifically

deals with: estimating the number of schools and students in the district; receiving and storing the food supplies; preparing the meals and distributing them by its own transportation; inspecting and controlling the work of the centre.

The Department of Administrative Affairs reported to the committee that the development of the Ministry of Education was vital and necessary. The department suggested that a system of delegation of authority should be set up as a means of reducing centralization. After this the next step would be the establishment of the number of branches or offices throughout the country. These branches would have the task of implementing educational policies. It will be observed that the department of administrative affairs has distinguished between two aspects of decentralization. First the internal aspect which develops a delegation system in the ministry organization itself. Secondly, the geographical decentralization aspect which meant the setting up of the district school system. Accordingly, the Department of Administrative Affairs rejected the idea of a district system for two reasons:

(a) The proposed project defined the school district as a department of the Ministry of Education with all its jurisdictions being formed in the same pattern as the other departments of the ministry, and since no departments possess any authority, the school district would be without any real power.

(b) Geographically Kuwait is a small country with a small population and there is no pressing need for a school district system at least at the present time.

The Financial Department advocated that all financial matters should remain in the hands of the central ministry. This point did not agree with the view of the Assistant Under-Secretary of Public Education and the directors of educational levels who considered that a measure of financial autonomy should be granted to the school districts.

The Legal Department stated that the proposal clearly defined the school district's role as one of 'coordination' without adequate authority for making decisions. That opinion came from a study of the proposed hierarchy of the school district which was to be headed by a director obliged to follow the instructions of the Assistant Under-Secretary of Public Education. That certainly meant the director would have to obtain approval for his decisions from the Assistant Under-Secretary of Public Education who would be in the ministry central office.

Finally, the Employment Department which was responsible for the appointment of employees, determining their ranks and salaries, their seniority and promotion; reported to the committee that it would be very difficult to separate some of the departmental tasks and transfer them to the school district because these tasks were naturally centralized. However, it felt that it could delegate the following: the transference procedures of employees from one place to another within the district boundary, and the issue of certificates and testimonials.

The School District System in Kuwait Education: Ahmadi District as a case study:

The idea of the establishment of the School District System in Kuwait public education has been opposed by most of the ministry departments for valid reasons. However, the Under-Secretary's office issued the Ministerial Resolution 30/80 recommending the formulation of a committee to set the goals and draw up the regulations of the first school district in Kuwait 'Ahmadi'.

The Ministerial Resolution 30/80 included the following points:

First: it authorized the establishment of an educational district at the level of a department. The school district was to be in charge of the administration of educational services in a defined area.

Second: the school district was to conform to the principles established on the Assistant Under-Secretary of Public Education.

Third: the Under-Secretary's office could be responsible for defining the school district's power and duties. These would be set out in a Ministerial Resolution.

Fourth: the school district would carry out its duties according to the Ministry of Education policies, plans, and programmes. The school district would be subject to close ministry supervision.

In October 1981 the first school district was established in Kuwait. It is located in the Ahmadi area in the south east of the country. Ahmadi is the largest oil producing region in the country and its people mostly work in the oil sector.

In 1984-1985 scholastic year the Ahmadi school district had 101 schools, 4520 teachers, and 68005 pupils (see table 4.1).

Subsequently, the Ministry of Education determined the Ahmadi school district's power and duties:

(1) The Geographical boundary of the Ahmadi school district includes all the government schools in Ahmadi and in 14 other towns: (Sabahia, Fentas, Fenatees, Egela, Abohlafa, Omalhiman, Meni Soid, Bar Ahmadi, Rega, Fahaheel, Mahpola, Mongaf, Shaiba and Alwafra).

(2) The Ahmadi district administrative structure has been divided into three supervision sections:

Instructional Affairs Supervision: Kindergarten Division, Elementary Division, Intermediate Division and Secondary Division. This section is responsible for cooperating with the Director of the district in suggesting appropriate locations for new schools, supervising the teachers and other employees and promoting them, transferring the teaching staff and redistributing them, the determination of catchment areas and the allocation of pupils.

Table (4.1) The students, classrooms, schools and teachers in Ahmadi School District

Source: Kuwait Ministry of Education, Ahmadi school District guidance, 1985, p.20.

Education levels		1981-1982				1982-1983				1983-1984				1984-85			
		Students	Classrooms	Schools	Teachers	Students	Classrooms	Schools	Teachers	Students	Classrooms	Schools	Teachers	Students	Classrooms	Schools	Teachers
K	M	2081				3211				2260				2101			
	F	1819	120	10	220	1939	130	11	341	1993	132	11	269	2022	132	11	264
	T	3900				4150				4253				4123			
Elementary	M	14034	428	19	721	14400	458	19	782	13720	341	19	727	13582	441	19	720
	F	13512	413	18	706	14235	452	18	810	13511	438	17	740	13189	446	18	745
	T	27546	841	37	1427	28635	1312	37	1592	27231	869	36	1467	26772	887	37	1465
Intermediate	M	11884	379	16	870	12981	424	16	928	12552	424	16	851	12302	454	18	848
	F	9453	292	13	728	10399	344	13	870	10857	344	13	779	11069	346	16	835
	T	21337	681	29	1598	23380	768	29	1798	23409	768	29	1630	23371	790	34	1683
Secondary	M	5059	174	8	536	6405	208	8	624	6830	218	9	578	7563	243	11	586
	F	3843	133	6	454	4764	159	7	539	5309	159	7	512	6176	200	8	522
	T	8902	311	14	1095	11179	367	15	1163	12139	377	16	1090	13739	443	19	1108

Educational Affairs Supervision: This section deals with various educational affairs such as, compulsory education, examinations, students transportation and statistics. In addition, it is responsible for supplying technical materials to the schools such as laboratory supplies and equipment. It also includes some psychological and social services. Each individual school has a consulting expert who is in charge of guiding the students according to their individual needs. Finally, this section has responsibility for school activity programmes.

Administration Affairs Supervision: It is considered the largest section in the school district, and has varied duties and responsibilities for the appointment of employees and the procedures for punishment, for assessing the local needs for labour force and for contact with the ministry in respect of these matters. It is also required to prepare staff profiles which include personal details, qualifications and assessments.

The administration section is supported by a secretarial division which deals with: receiving and distributing correspondence, preparing employees records and classifying their files, distributing memoranda and decisions from the district offices to the schools.

Table (4.2)
Employees and Inspectors in Ahmadi School District, 1983-1984

Supervisions	Employees
Administration Affairs	99
Instructional Affairs	91
Educational Affairs	30
Inspection	97
Total	317

Source: Kuwait Ministry of Education, Ahmadi School District Report, (Ministry of Education Press, 1984, p.8 [in Arabic])

DIRECTORS OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICTS ROLE AND DUTIES:

The Director is expected to be the chief educational administrator and advisory officer. He has the general supervision over all educational matters affecting directly or indirectly the operations of the school system. His duties and power vary from one district to another, and depend on the form of decentralization that has been adopted by the state. Several authors are agreed on the following general outlines of the duties of the Director of the school district:

- (1) He is responsible for putting into effect the educational policies, rules and regulations adopted by the Board of Education. To this end, there should be delegated to him such powers as are necessary for executing the administrative details and in cases where his duties are not definitely prescribed, he may exercise his discretion, subject to the approval of the board.
- (2) He should be responsible for the educational advancement and growth of the school system. In this connection, he should serve as an expert in educational matters and should make recommendations to and advise the board in all matters pertaining to courses of study, extra curricular activities, admissions of pupils, their instruction, discipline, grading and promotion and the selection of textbooks and other educational equipment and supplies.
- (3) He should be responsible for and have general supervision over all educational activities of the public schools in the school district, the school health services and the attendance officers.

- (4) He should have general supervision over all professional employees and educational secretaries for the district. He should be responsible for nominating all such staff for approval by the Board of Education. He should have power to assign and transfer all such employees. If any such assignment or transfer shall involve a change of status or salary it shall be subject to approval by the board. He should also have the power to suspend any employees for any just cause, and he shall report such suspensions to the board at its next regular meeting (or to an earlier special meeting, if called for that purpose) for further action. He shall, having due regard to statutory requirements, make recommendations to the board with respect of all appointments for such employees, change of status and discontinuance of services for such employees of the school district.

The determination of the Director's role and duties in the school district system of Kuwait was taken by the Ministerial Resolution 159/81. This role was assigned in four areas of responsibilities:

In the educational area; the Director can suggest the siting of new school buildings within the boundary of his district. He should read and comment on the reports of schools and supervise the allocation of new students and teachers.

In the administrative area; the Director can decide on matters of employees' holidays. In addition he should approve administrative decisions, and sign most of the paper work. He also has to chair the supervisor's weekly meeting and represent the district at the ministry meetings.

In the employment area; the Director should circulate decisions regarding transference or delegation of technical employees to the schools of the district. He can take the final decisions regarding employees' promotion, and assess the number of employees that are needed for the district.

In the evaluation of employees' competence: the Director should be in charge of punishment, such as warnings or deductions from salaries. On the other hand, he should praise good employees. And finally, the Director can permit his employees to work in different departments within the Ministry of Education or in the other organizations.

The role and duties of the Director of Ahmadi school district are advisory and supervisory which would agree with the main purpose of establishment of the school district system. That assigned role will certainly lead to contacting the Ministry Central Office frequently to obtain approval or consultation or even suggestions to solve any problems, and that would conflict with the purpose of reducing the centralization which was a primary goal in setting up the school district system.

The reason for considering the above point arose from an attempt by the researcher to measure the advantages and disadvantages of the trend to decentralization as it is established in the Kuwait educational system. This measure has two aspects:

First: the correspondence between the Ahmadi District and some of the ministry departments was collected and studied. The researcher

collected the out-going correspondence from the district for the month of January 1985* which consisted of 4508 letters most of them requesting approval or consultation. That number indicates that the Ahmadi District usually sends approximately 161 letters to the ministry on each working day, and more than 1014300 in a year.

Incoming correspondence from the ministry, consisted of 510 letters for the same period (see table 4.3). The conclusion here is that the large number of out-going and incoming items of correspondence strongly indicates how much the district depends on the ministry and how much of its time and effort is devoted to contacts with the ministry.

Table (4.3)

The number of letters that went out from the Ministry of Education to the schools of the Ahmadi District, for the period of 1 January 1985 to 31 January 1985:

School levels	No. of letters in per-day
Kindergarten boys + girls	16
Elementary schools - girls	26
Elementary schools - boys	26
Intermediate schools - girls	27
Intermediate schools - boys	33
Secondary schools - girls	14
Secondary schools - boys	19
Total	161

Notice:

The total in one month $161 \times 28 = 4508$ letters

The total in one year $4508 \times 225 = 1014300$ letters

Source: Kuwait Ministry of Education, the General Registration Department, (unpublished data, 1985) [in Arabic].

* Unpublished data collected by the researcher from the General Registration Department in the Ministry of Education, on 3 February 1985 [in Arabic].

The second aspect of the measurement of the advantages and disadvantages of the school district system is the summary of the outcomes of the interviews with the headmasters of various schools in the Ahmadi district. The interview dealt with the following questions:

- Have you noticed any change in the relationship between your school administration and the district administration since the establishment of the Ahmadi school district?

- How can you contact the school district office?

- Whom do you contact?

- Do you need to communicate with the Ministry of Education?

- How many times a week?

- Why?

- Do you think that the establishment of the school district system contributed to lessening the amount of centralization?

- Suppose that there were no district school system, would there be any change in your work as an administrator?

The interview comprised of 45 headmasters and headmistress all of them having between eight to ten years experience. 25 of them were males and

20 were females. The researcher met each of them personally to be sure that the discussion would accomplish its purpose. The findings of the discussion can be summarized as follows:

In response to the first question there is a general agreement that the creation of the school district has achieved some improvement in the relations between the school administration and the district administration compared with the situation before the establishment of the new system. One of the headmasters described the new relationship: "Clearly, I can say things have improved between my administration and the elementary school division in the Ahmadi school district. As a result of a smaller number of schools and a smaller number of administrators which our district deals with, the supervision has become much easier and much more productive. However, we still suffer from improper personal relationships. For example, if someone knows the Director personally he will get all his requisites much faster. Not all of the heads have this kind of relationship, and this is one of the disadvantages of the new system, I think."

One group of headmasters thought the relationship had become much stronger, but the administrative supervisors in the school district still need to understand how they can work with the school administration to promote school effectiveness. "They still think and use the same old techniques when they came to visit our schools."

Regarding the communication between the headmaster and the school district, most heads said that it was confusing. The confusion arises

as I understand it from the complexity of the communication system. Before the establishment of the school district the headmaster used to receive his correspondence from one single source, which was the ministry. After the establishment of the district the headmaster has to communicate with both the district and the ministry. Concerning financial matters the headmasters has to contact the Ministry's financial department, and also needs to write to the legal department directly on matters of legal problems. The confusion is particularly great when the school administration receives some instructions from the ministry regarding a specific educational matter, and receives different instructions from the school district concerning the same matter. One of the headmasters said "It is difficult to know which instruction we should follow."

Even with the existence of the school district most of the headmasters think they need to contact their departments (Kindergarten, Elementary, Intermediate, Secondary) in the Ministry of Education once or twice a week because the school district is still not able to meet all their needs.

In response to the question "Suppose, that there is no district school system, would there be any change in your work as an administrator?" The headmasters almost all agree that even with the existence of the new system, they still do the same work in their school and fulfil the same role. "The school administration has not yet developed the capacity to meet the new role that is held by schools in our society", one headmaster said. Another one said, "It is too early for that change, the district school system needs to extend its jurisdictions to be able to demonstrate a real improvement in the school administration."

THE NEED FOR AN EFFECTIVE LOCAL ROLE; A VIEW OF THE FUTURE:

Who should control education in the future? To what extent will the government be able to monopolise educational decisions? Is there any need to involve the people in making educational decisions? In my view it is undesirable to allow the control of education to be assumed by groups or organizations that might seek to use the schools for their own purposes. It is also inappropriate to prevent people at the local level from taking an active part. Education in any society should be a national obligation and responsibility.

To ensure that all children receive a better education requires a degree of coordination and cooperation between state, parents and other agencies. M Donald Thomas, 1980, considered:

"In the years ahead, parents' participation in school affairs shall become increasingly more effective. More than any other movement, parent activism will produce a dramatic change in the governance of schools. Parents will become equal partners with professionals to decide what school can and cannot do. Similarly they will become equally responsible for the failure or success of public education the truth of the matter is that⁽¹⁾ without parent participation and support schools cannot succeed."

Developing the school district system in Kuwait is desirable, but not the best way to start. There is a need to involve people in making education better by setting up local boards of education.

The following is a proposal for operating the boards of education throughout the country of Kuwait.

(1) M Donald Thomas, 'Parent Participation in Education', NASSP Bulletin, 64:1, 1980.

In the 1985 general census, Kuwait was divided into four population districts:

District One (capital governorate)

Included the following areas:

1. Dasman
2. Sharq
3. Monsoria
4. Morgab
5. Gebla
6. A Salem
7. Ebnadalgar
8. Shamia
9. Kiafan
10. Nozha
11. Deia
12. Shwaikh
13. Faiha
14. Qadsia
15. Alshwakh(b)
16. East of Soliabekhat
17. Failaki

Population in 1985, 167,750

District Two (Hawilly governorate)

Included the following areas:

1. Hawilly
2. Khaldia
3. Masela
4. Jabria
5. Yarmok
6. Rai
7. Farwania
8. Salmia
9. Roda
10. Edailaiy
11. Romiathia
12. Meshref
13. Bayan
14. Sorra
15. Omaria
16. Sha'ab
17. Salwa
18. Gordoba
19. Rabia
20. Newkhaitan
21. Regia
22. JeleepAlshookh

Population in 1985, 943,250

District Three (Ahmadi governorate)

Included the following areas:

1. Sabahia
2. Agala
3. Menasuiad
4. Rega
5. Shaiba
6. Fentas
7. Aboholafa
8. Baralahmadi
9. Mahpola
10. Alwafra
11. Fentatees
12. Omalhiman
13. Fahaheel
14. Mongaf
15. Alahmadi

Population in 1985, 304,662

District Four (AlJarah governorate)

Included the following areas:

- | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------|----------------|--------------------|
| 1. Jahra | 2. Soliabria | 3. Bar AlJahra | 4. Asheesh AlJahra |
| 5. Alsoliabria Alshaibia | 6. Alsokrab | 7. Aldoha | |

Population in 1985, 279,466

A board of education could be established in each population district. School board members are agents of the state, chosen locally in accordance with constitutional or statutory provisions and derive their authority from the state. R F Campbell 1977, defined the specific role of the school board members as:

"The school district board shall have the possession care, control and management of the property and affairs of the district. The board may make rules for the organization, graduation, and government of the schools..." (1)

The functions of the board members are varied and basically depend on the form of decentralization that has been adopted by the state. For example, in Kuwait where most educational policies and plans are centralized, it seems difficult to operate boards of education unless a real effort has been made to break the centralization and distribute the power. However, in the beginning it would be possible to operate boards of education as advisory bodies. They might participate in committee meetings, and make suggestions and recommendations. In the long run the board members might employ the director of the school district as a chief administrator, and also employ the teachers, in addition to their primary role as controllers of the school system in the district.

(1) R F Campbell and others, The Organization and Control of American Schools, (Charles E Merrill Publishing Company, 1980) p.186.

Finally, the board could make such rules and regulations as would be necessary for its government and the government of its employees and pupils of the schools.

Selection of school board members:-

In the appointing system, a special commission could be created by the governor of each population district and be composed of representatives of organizations reflecting the various social interests of the city. The representatives of the commission should not exceed 15 in number and should be selected by the organizations themselves. Labour, the professional, welfare, education business, religious groups and parents should be represented through organizational representatives. Each year the commission would present names, usually twice as many names as there are vacancies, to the governor who in turn would make appointments from this list.

Through the elective system, the board members would be elected by the public by the normal procedures. For example in the United States 86 per cent of board members are chosen by the elective system.

To operate the board of education system in Kuwait would need an extensive study to determine its power and role in designing the school system. In my view, to go ahead in the way of decentralizing the educational system in Kuwait it is essential to realize that only two issues should be centralized in the hands of the state authority,

finance and the curriculum. All other educational matters should be dealt with locally by the boards of education. This step needs to be considered in any future form of the development of the school system in the country.

In the next chapter the emphasis will be in the school administration in the education system of Kuwait, its concepts, functions and current problems.

CHAPTER FIVE

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION; ITS FUNCTION AND RECENT PROBLEMS, IN THE KUWAIT PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

- The Concept of School Administration.

- Individual School Freedom and Functions.

- The Reality of School Administration in the Kuwait Public Educational System.

- Kuwait School Administration: The Non-Instructional Role.

- What are the Problems of School Administration in the Kuwait Public Educational System.

THE CONCEPT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Recent studies of administration define it as the coordinating of the efforts of people towards the achievement of the goals of an organization. School in the national view, is an organization to which the people delegate the task of carrying out society's goals and aspirations. Stephen Bennett, referred to school as a group of people associated with a particular activity which happens to occur regularly in an identifiable building. In other words, the school is a social construction which cannot itself act or think. Action in the name of the school will be taken by individuals or groups of individuals. (1)

Everett Reimer, as quoted by Toresten Huseň describes school as, 'an institution that requires full-time attendance of specific age groups in teacher-supervised classrooms for the study of graded curricula.' (2)

School administration, which is the main concern in this chapter, is considered to be one of the most important-single areas in the study of educational administration. What is school administration, and how can it be defined?

In the U.S.A. during the early twentieth century a new concept of 'School Administration as Management' emerged. In an explanation of the new concept, Blumberg and Greenfield state:

(1) Stephen J Bennett, The School, An Organization Analysis, (Blackie, 1974), p.34.

(2) Toresten Huseň, The School In Question (Oxford University Press, 1979), p.36.

'The appropriate basis for decision-making was ideally a fiscal one. Like a business enterprise, the schools were to be operated at minimum cost ... and maximum efficiency. The child was first the raw material and then product, the teacher was the worker, and the school the factory.'⁽¹⁾

Mangarous and Mohm, characterized school administration as a social process involving both problem solving and decision making.⁽²⁾

Others have described school administration as a management leadership, organization, manipulation, and control. It has been defined as the ability to utilize existing resources in order to attain a number of goals. Or we may characterise the school administration in terms of a number of processes of functions, such as the determination of objectives, the determination of tasks, and finally the selecting of people who are able to achieve these objectives.

None of the preceding definitions, however, is comprehensive or precise enough to define properly the role of school administration.

Stoop and Refferty, define public school administration as:

'The organization and leadership of all community personnel concerned with public education in such a manner as will effectively make for sound education within the framework of policy set up by the Board of Education.'⁽³⁾

The authors of the 'Handbook of Educational Administration, a Guide for Practitioner' have given a shorter and much more restricted definition

(1) Arthur Blumberg and William Greenfield, The Effective Principal, (Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1980), p.14.
(2) Reyad Mangarous and Mohm.Wahba, School Administration (Dar Al.Kutab, 1978), p.44 [in Arabic].
(3) Emery Stoops and Max Rafferty, Practices and Trends in School Administration, (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1961), p.5.

of school administration:

'Administration at the local level mobilizes personnel and resources to provide maximum learning opportunities in harmony with legal stipulations.'⁽¹⁾

This definition stresses the mobilization of personnel and resources. It implies that teachers, classified workers, community supporters, and others join together for the improvement and maximizing of learning opportunities. Resources refer to finance, transportation facilities, equipment, and supplies.

INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL FREEDOM AND FUNCTIONS:

As stated earlier, school in its general aspect is an organization established by society to carry out a very specific role. This role varies from one society to another, and from one school system to another. From one point of view the whole function of an individual school s determined by how much freedom is assigned to it. For example, in some school systems, the area of decision-making assigned to individual schools is very narrow. The rules and regulations of the controlling authority with respect to individual school administration are written in extreme detail. The course of study for each grade level and the curriculum generally are minutely prescribed. Even the method of giving grades to the students is made uniform. The headmaster is is such a system usually has little to do with the appointment of either teaching or non-teaching staff, and he must secure the approval of the superintendent for everything with little opportunity for leadership.

(1) Emery Stoops and Max Refferty and Russell E Johnson, Handbook of Educational Administration, a Guide for Practitioners, (Allyn and Bacon, inc., 1981), p.7.

In fact, he is little more than an unimportant bureaucrate carrying out the superintendent's orders. The Kuwaiti school is a good example of this type.

In contrast with the school system that exercises rigid control over the educational activities of the individual schools, there are other school systems that give individual schools a considerable degree of freedom in decision-making. The following are some of the characteristics of the school system that give important responsibilities to individual schools:

- (1) The directive of the controlling authority with respect to educational programmes are expressed in terms of broad policies and objectives rather than in terms of detailed and specific regulations.
- (2) The headmaster and the staff are expected to take the primary responsibility for the development of the educational programme of the school.
- (3) The headmaster makes recommendations to the superintendent about the appointment of all staff, both teaching and non-teaching, employed at the school he administers.
- (4) Representatives from the headmasters, teachers, and others advise the superintendent concerning any regulations of general application before such regulations are presented to controlling authority for adoption.

(5) The budget is based on an educational plan, but that plan is not developed exclusively by the superintendent and his central staff. The over-all educational needs of each school. Therefore the headmaster and the staff at each school are given important responsibilities for participating in the development of the educational plan upon which the budget is based. The headmaster and the staff are expected to work closely with the citizens in their school community in developing this educational plan.

While their duties and responsibilities have continued to grow and increase in complexity, the expectation is still that headmasters serve the twin functions of providing instructional leadership and managing school affairs. Roe and Drake ⁽¹⁾ conceive the headmaster's functions in terms of combined administrative managerial and educational leadership. In educational leadership they introduce the following responsibilities:

- Stimulating and motivating staff to maximum performance, and developing with the staff a realistic and objective system of accountability for learning (as contrasted to merely monitoring programmes and instructional processes in input terms as prescribed by central offices).

(1) W H Roe and T L Drake, The Principalship (New York: Macmillan, 1974), pp. 13-14.

- Developing cooperatively operable assessment procedures for-on-going programmes to identify and suggest alternatives for improving weak areas.
- Working with staff in formulating plans for evaluating and reporting students progress.
- Providing channels for the involvement of the local community in the operation of the school.
- X - Encouraging continues study of curricula and instructional innovations.
- Providing leadership to students in helping them to develop a meaningful but responsible student government, and establishing a professional learning resources centre expediting its use.

In the administrative-managerial area, Roe and Drake, suggest that the appropriate responsibilities include:

- Maintaining adequate school records of all types; preparing reports for the central office and other agencies; budget development and budget control; personnel administration; student discipline, scheduling and maintaining schedules, building administration, administering supplies and equipment, pupil accounting and monitoring programmes and instructional process prescribed by the central office.

According to Roe and Drake, that the role of headmaster of today's school should be extended to serve twin functions which are providing educational leadership and working as an administrative controller. This advanced role needs to be supported by well organized educational system that can provide a considerable power to the individual school in the area of decision-making and initiating new programmes.

THE REALITY OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN KUWAIT PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The formal internal school structure in the Kuwait educational system has remained almost unchanged since the development of organized education early in the 1930's.

It is important to consider how do schools arrive at their particular structure, and what are the factors involved in determining that structure? Stephen Bennett, noted that environment has an important influence in shaping the school structure. He wrote:

'For instance, the available models in other organization, and particularly in other schools are bound to influence the choice of formal structure. In addition certain outside bodies play a critical role in the establishment of the formal structure of a school. The government department responsible for education at national level and local education authorities have an influence on what each individual school looks like, through regulations or advice.'⁽¹⁾

In the Kuwait school system we can see that four major factors have influenced the current internal school structure. First, the major responsibility of the state in providing education and being the sole

(1) Bennett, op.cit., p.60.

decision making body directly created the over-centralized system of education powerfully influenced the school structure. Second, the education commissions (which were referred to in chapter two) have modified the school structure several times and for different purposes. Third, the formulation of school goals in the mid of 1970's developed an educational philosophy and extended its influence. Fourth, there has been the impact of the Ministry of Education itself by directing schools through the issue of rules, laws, and regulations.

The team of administrators at each school level (Kindergarten, Elementary, Intermediate and Secondary) have certain roles and tasks which are determined by the Ministry of Education. The school administration at each school level usually comprises, headmaster, one or two assistant headmasters depending on the level and size of the school, heads of divisions, secretaries, social advisor, and student affairs personnel. There might be some differences in the structure among the four school administration levels. For instance, at the Kindergarten and Elementary education level there is no need for more than one assistant headmaster and the posts of heads of divisions do not exist in the Kindergarten. Other variations in the structure of the four school levels might be found in tasks of administration. For example in the intermediate and secondary education the administration has much more responsibility for student discipline examinations, technical courses and military training. These responsibilities influence the structure at the two school levels and increase the tasks of the administration.

In kindergarten and elementary schools, where the pupils are young and the schools main concern is basic learning, the structure of school administration is much more simple. The size of school population also makes some differences in terms of school administration tasks and responsibilities. Some secondary schools have more than 1,300 pupils others have less than 500.

There is a difference between boys and girls schools in terms of the problems which the administration has to deal with, these are usually a function of the different social roles of boys and girls in society. For example, in the boys schools the administration might face problems of drug-taking, smoking, truancy and student violence, which are much more rare in girls schools.

The headmaster and his assistant are the two crucial posts in the school administration. They are normally qualified teachers and have a number of years experience before reaching the administrative rank. The procedures for their selection and appointment usually follow these stages:

- (1) The headmaster of a school nominates one or two teachers once a year.
- (2) The nomination is sent to the department of the appropriate school level. For example, if the nomination comes from an elementary school it is sent to the Department of Elementary Education in the Ministry.

- X (3) The nominees should cue for interview by their departments in the Ministry. In the interview the nominees are expected to show ability and aptitude to hold a position in school administration.

If a nominee passes the interview he or she is appointed as assistant headmaster or headmistress in an available school. The promotion to the position of headmaster or headmistress depends on experience, which requires several years and also depends on the relationship between the headmaster and his assistant during their work together.

The above description of the selection and appointment of heads of schools and the assistants shows that preparation and training form no part of the process. Later in this chapter the issue of an in-service training programme for school administrators will be discussed.

The Assistant Under-Secretary of Public Education Office, has defined the duties and responsibilities of school administrative team as follows:

The head has the main responsibility for all administrative, technical, social and cultural matters in the school. All teachers and other staff are required to obtain the head's approval for the way in which they perform their duties. The head should allocate duties among the teachers and other personnel and supervise them. His responsibilities during the scholastic year are:

Approving and circulating the school timetable and approving other school activities; reviewing and signing teachers lessons plans and the students examination reports; visiting classrooms and inspecting the teachers once a year and receiving the Ministry's instructions and implementing them. Furthermore, the head has to contact all the departments of the Ministry concerning requirements for extra teachers, school maintenance, school furniture and supplies. In addition he must reply to all correspondence from the Ministry of Education or other organizations. In students affairs the headmaster is authorized to accept students from other schools or transfer students from his school to another. In certain circumstances he has to punish students by suspending them according to the Ministry instructions. Also he has to warn his teachers and other personnel of any violations of Ministry regulations or internal school rules. At the end of each scholastic year the headmaster has to report on each teacher or other personnel and send the reports to his school department in the Ministry of Education.

The assistant headmaster is the second person in the school administration hierarchy. He assists the headmaster and follows his advice. In the absence of the headmaster the assistant takes complete charge. In general the assistant headmaster has the following duties: he supervises any work carried out through the Department of Services in the Ministry of Education. He helps in preparing the monthly student attendance records which are sent to the Ministry. In addition he participates in the school administration council as an active member, and shares the headmaster's responsibility in decision-making processes regarding school examinations, school activities, and the supervision of teachers classroom work. This assigned role perhaps depends on the kind

of leadership that is practised by the headmaster of the school. When democratic leadership is practised it is easy to find an extensive and active role for the assistant. He will share in most internal decisions and play a valuable role in representing the school at Ministry and community events. In contrast, where the leadership is more authoritarian the assistant is merely a nominal post with no real power or responsibility.

In addition to the headmaster and his assistant the Kuwaiti school has a number of non-teaching staff such as secretaries, student affairs officers, telephone operators and typists. The work of the guidance division as a part of the school administration is important. Each school has its own guidance division staffed by specialists in sociology and psychology. Their job is concerned with individual pupils who need special treatment or diagnosis. Sometimes they work with teachers or parents, or cooperate with the special education department in the case of some learning disabilities or behaviour problems.

The division heads in each school are expected to be a link between their own teachers and the headmaster's office. In addition to their regular role as supervisors and heads of division (English, Arabic language, Mathematics ... etc) they are also members of the school administration council representing their teachers and speaking on their behalf. They observe school rules and ensure that other teachers do so too.

Figure (5.1) School Administration Structure at the level of Elementary Education

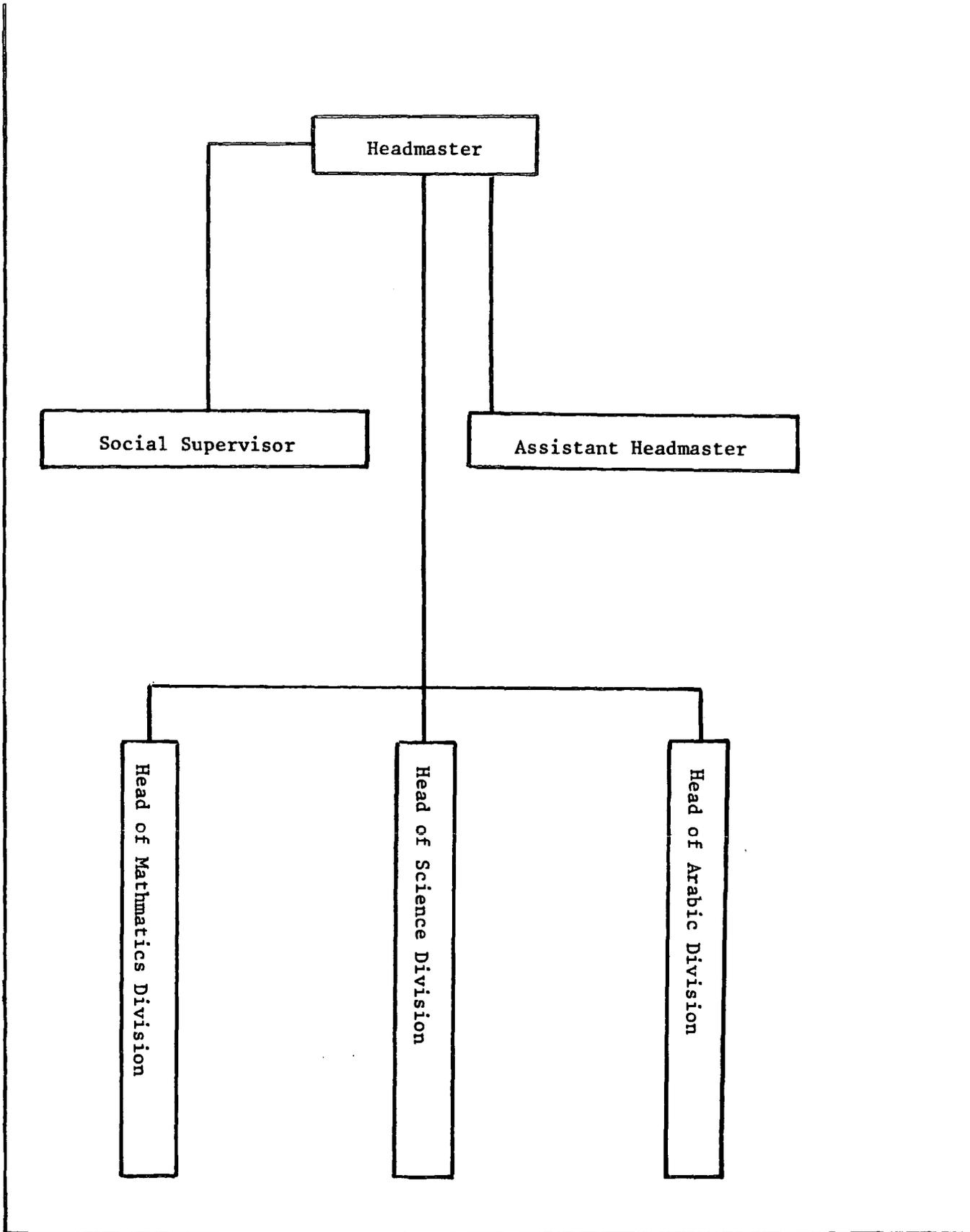
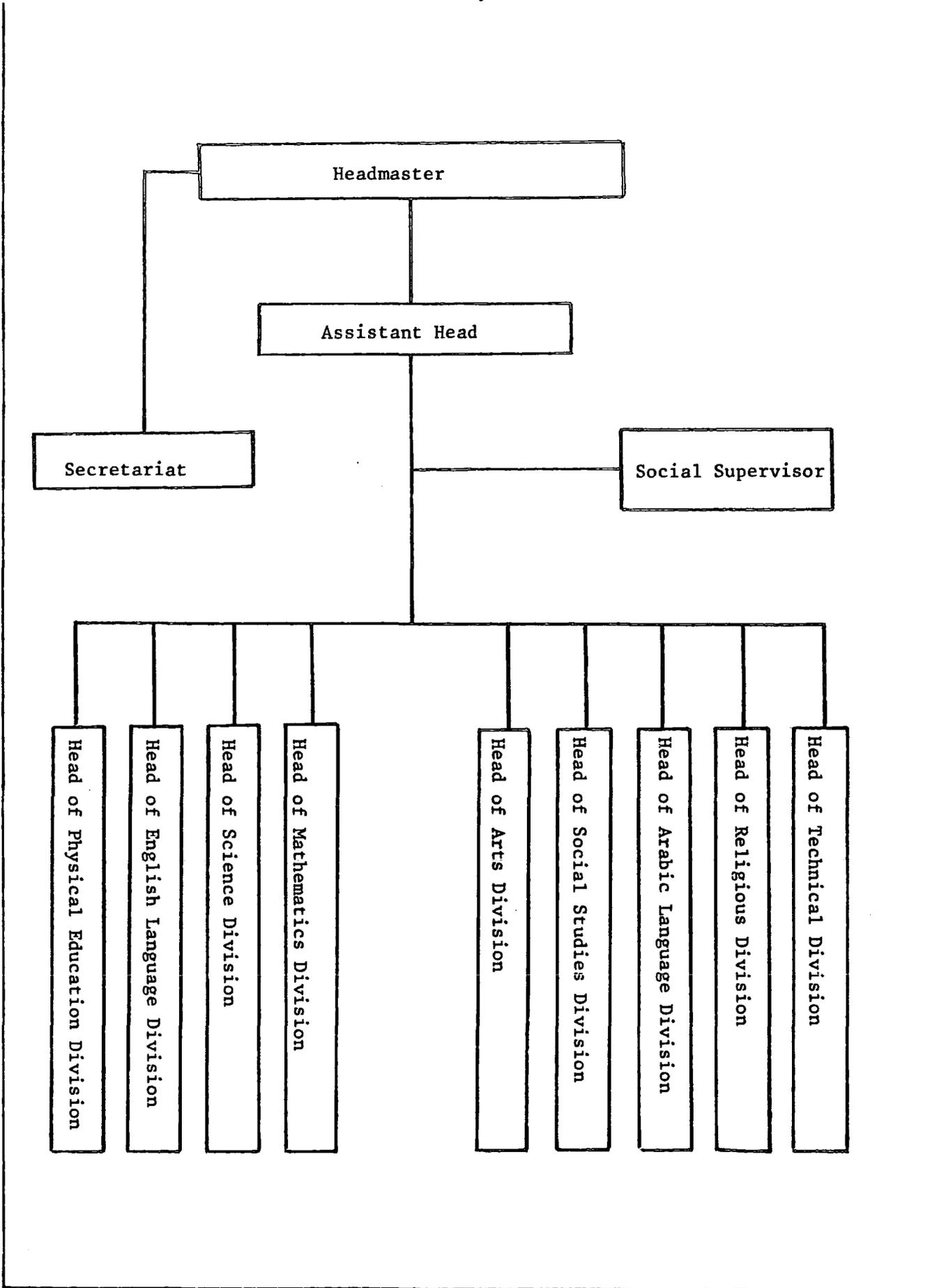


Figure (5.2) Shows the School Administration Structure at the Intermediate and Secondary Level



Each school sets up its own school administration council, which is composed of the headmaster, the assistant head, the heads of division, and the social supervisor. The council meets once a week to deal with certain school matters. The matters considered include the following:

- (1) To formulate general school rules in terms of technical and administrative affairs (work distribution and work tasks).
- (2) To study the Ministry's instructions and determine ways of implementing these instructions.
- (3) To scrutinise student affairs in particular their attendance rate, their moral, and social problems, truancy and student discipline.
- (4) To study staffing levels in terms of quality and quantity according to school needs.
- (5) To prepare estimates of school requirements (textbooks, laboratory needs, equipment, and others).
- (6) To supervise extra curricular activities, and monitor student examination results and take appropriate decisions to help students who fail and regard those who are outstanding.

Here is an example of a meeting* of the school administration council in a secondary school. The meeting was headed by the headmaster in his office. The head and his secretary had prepared an agenda in advance and arranged the items as follows:

- The first fifteen minutes of the school day
- Control of students by teachers during the recess time
- Internal school security
- Student attendance records
- Requirements from the heads of divisions
- Student participation in the school discipline programme

The meeting started with words of welcome by the headmaster and the distribution of the agenda for approval by the council and the addition of any further suggestions. In discussing the first point, the council agreed that the first fifteen minutes of the students' day were important and therefore all students should meet in the school hall to salute the flag and listen to the school announcement and instructions. At this point the headmaster mentioned that he had received some new instructions from the Ministry and he would hand them to the members of the council at the end of the meeting. On the second point, the headmaster said that he noticed over the last year that some problems occurred during recess times. Therefore he suggested a new arrangement of teachers' responsibilities for controlling the students during their free time.

Then the council recommended an arrangement which made each division responsible for one day a week. For example, each Saturday it might be

* The meeting was attended by the researcher in Ka'ab Iben Edi Secondary School, on 15.10.1985.

the English language division, each Sunday the Arabic language division, and so on.

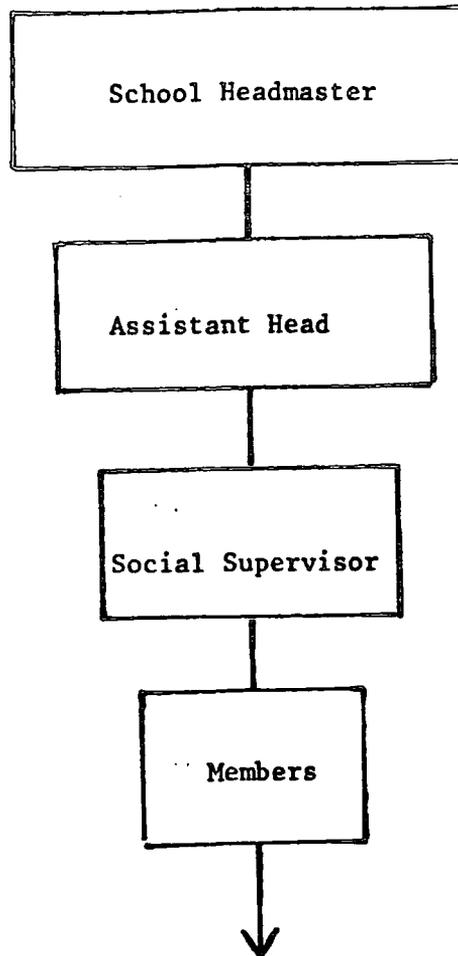
Regarding internal school security, the head mentioned that the Ministry of Education had urged each school to establish its own internal security system. Therefore he suggested that each member of the council should submit a written proposal to the next meeting. On the fourth point, the head confirmed that each teacher should prepare his attendance records and registers of absent students in each class period. At the end of the day the teachers should hand the record to the student affairs officer who was responsible for preparing an official record and sending it to the Ministry of Education.

Heads of the divisions are required by Ministry regulations to prepare the following records:

Inspection records, weekly meeting records, syllabus records showing the progress of students, classroom visiting records, teachers absence and excuse records, and extra curricular activities records showing the contribution of the teachers. All records as the council decided have to be regularly signed by the headmaster or his assistant.

The council discussed some student problems particularly pupils who were disruptive in class. The council recommended that each case should be referred to the guidance division. The headmaster reported that new instructions had been received from the department of social affairs concerning student problems, and new procedures had been established for referring the cases. These instructions would be distributed to all members of staff.

School Administration Council



1. Head of Religious Division
2. Head of Arabic Division
3. Head of English Division
4. Head of Social Studies Division
5. Head of Art and Technical Division
6. Head of Mathematic Division
7. Head of Science Division
8. Head of Physical Education Division

On the last point the council resolved to introduce the student self control programme which had been recently proposed by the Department of Secondary Education. The new programme gave students an opportunity to co-operate with their teachers in keeping control in the classroom. The headmaster said that the Ministry had chosen his school to implement the new programme as an experiment in the current year. The Ministry intended to generalize the programme in the next few years. The head requested members of the council to cooperate in following the Ministry suggestions in applying the new self control programme. The council formed a committee to follow up the implementation procedures which would report back to the council in one week's time.

At the end of the council meeting, all the members signed a register according to their position in the school council record. The record would be available for signature by the Ministry administrative inspectors when they next visited the school.

Table (5.1)

School Administration Council Record

No	Position	Name	Signature
1	The headmaster		
2	The assistant head		
3	The social supervisor		
4	Religious Division head		
5	Arabic Division head		
6	English Division head		
7	Social Division head		
8	Math. Division head		
9	Sciences Division head		
10	Art Division head		
11	Physical Edu. Division head		

Source: Ka'ab Iben Edi, Secondary School, The School Council Meeting on 15.10.1985.

KUWAIT SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION: THE NON-INSTRUCTIONAL ROLE

For the purpose of this chapter 35 different schools were visited in different areas throughout Kuwait.* Long discussions were held with heads, teachers and other personnel as well as with students. The main purpose of this enquiry was to examine in depth the actual work of school administration and to investigate its current problems. School in one sense has a specific role which can be defined as 'to give children a good education', 'to make children fit for society', 'to give children opportunity to develop the best of their abilities'. The team of administrators in a school have to promote the development of a system to attain this role. They should be an efficient team and organize the school in such a way that these tasks are accomplished and they should also be a communicator team standing in an intermediate position between central office and the teachers. And lastly they should be an instructional team, able to create a congenial working relationship among the staff members, encouraging their creativity by seeking out the special talents of individual members through innovation and experiment.

(1) Barada Kindergarten (2) Qordoba Kindergarten (3) Bayan Kindergarten (4) Noween Kindergarten (5) Khaled Iben Al.Waleed Elementary (6) Sa'ad Iben Wagas Elementary (7) Al.MaMoon Elementary (8) Hawalli Elementary (9) Jelai Elementary (10) Qazali Elementary (11) Salimia Elementary (12) Al.Najah Intermediate (13) Al.Hariry Intermediate (14) Khaittan Intermediate (15) Al.Salimia Intermediate (16) Al.Esra Intermediate (17) Al.Mansoria Intermediate (18) Al.Romathia Intermediate (19) Hawalli Intermediate (20) Al.Sha'ab Intermediate (21) Al.Roda Secondary (22) AlSabria Secondary (23) Ka'ab Iben Edi Secondary (24) Al.Kaledia Secondary (25) Fontas Secondary (26) Al.Jahra Secondary (27) Al.Rodateen Secondary (28) Sabah Al.Salim Secondary (29) Anas Iben Malik Secondary (30) Kaifan Secondary (31) Al.Morgab Secondary (32) Al.Romaiathia Secondary (33) Alasmal Secondary (34) Hawalli Secondary (35) AlRabia Secondary (36) Al.Ahmadi Secondary.

The role of the internal school administration in Kuwait does not meet this specification. The research shows that school administration in Kuwait is immersed in what can be called 'clerical work' instead of being involved in its proper role of instructional facilitator. Each school has to follow the directions of the department of its level in the Ministry of Education (some schools have recently come under Ahmadi school district, others follow Alghra school district). The department at each level is responsible for directing and observing the work of schools by sending instructions from the first day of the scholastic year to the last. The department of each school level expects that every head will act upon the department orders without any argument or delay. The department of each school level inspects the work of school administration through its inspectors who visit schools several times during each school term.

Furthermore, each individual school has to communicate officially with eight other departments in the Ministry of Education. These departments are: services, social affairs, physical education, labour force, curriculum and research, general registration, examinations and stores. The communication between the eight departments and the individual school must be by official letters. The Ministry does not accept any other form. Most heads who were interviewed complained about this system. The following three statements accurately describe the situation:

'We waste more than two thirds of our time in reading through and signing papers.'

Figure (5.4)

The Communication Network between the Individual School and the Ministry of Education Departments

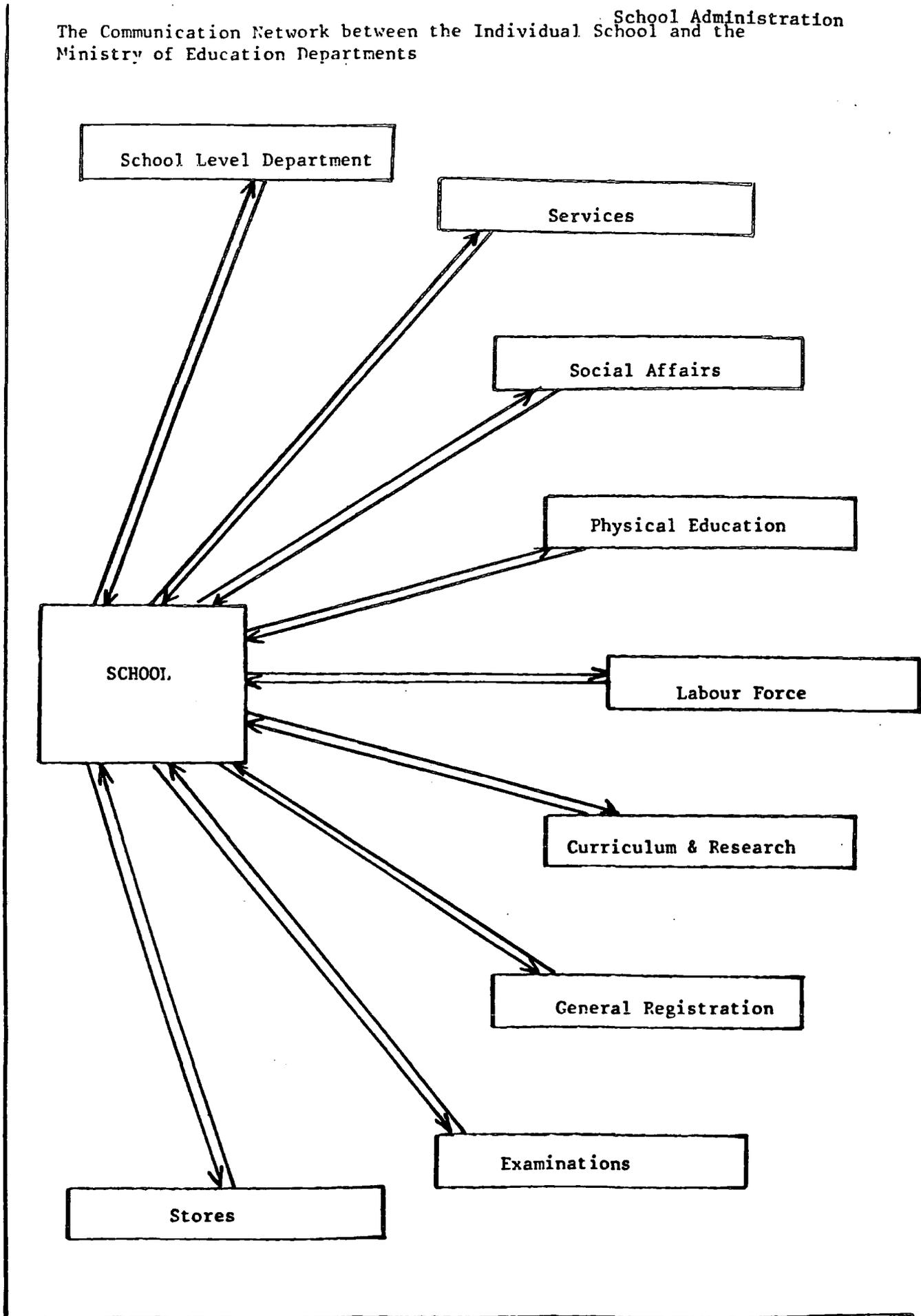


Figure (5.4)

'I do not see any difference between my role as educational leader and the role of departmental deputy in the business sector.'

'The Ministry of Education restricts our work by its unaccountable instructions, I think the decision makers in the Ministry do not know yet that we are educationalists and not shareholders in a big firm.'

Each individual school receives and sends out hundreds of letters annually. In the scholastic year 1984-1985, every kindergarten received 373 letters and sent out 515 letters; every elementary school received 397 letters and sent out 617 letters; every intermediate school received 463 letters and sent out 814 letters; and finally every secondary school received 509 letters and sent out 1119 letters. Each letter that is received from the Ministry has to go through three stages; first, the daily mail has to be opened by the secretary of the school and arranged in a file, secondly, the head has to read each letter and sign it before returning it to the secretary and finally, the secretary has to copy each letter and distribute it to the school divisions. The original copy of each letter must be registered in the incoming record which includes information such as, the number of the letter, the name of the department which sent it and the date of receipt. This record should be available for inspection from time to time.

School maintenance is another example of the non-instructional role of the internal school administration in the Kuwait education system. As a consequence of centralization, the department of services is wholly responsible for school maintenance. Hundreds of orders are received monthly from schools and seven per cent of the Ministry budget goes

towards the maintenance services.* The head of school has to report to the services department describing in detail the problems and the repairs that are needed. When the department of services receives the schools order, it replies to the school that the order is being processed. The maintenance is usually done within two weeks or so. The head of school keeps in touch with the department by 'phone or by requesting his assistant to follow up the order. All this process is very long and complicated and costs money, time and effort, which undoubtedly affects the role of school administration.

It is necessary, in analysing the non-instructional role of the school, to consider the large number of forms that are sent to every public school at the beginning of each scholastic year. These forms cover all school needs in contacting Ministry departments, other official organizations, its own teachers, students and parents. The forms must be printed in the Ministry of Education Press and sent to the schools regularly. Schools do not provide their own forms. The following are examples of some of these forms:

Transference Certificate form: every school has to use this form when it transfers a student to another school. The form requires detailed information about the student such as, full name, nationality, date of birth, date of attendance at the school, last grade and the reason for transfer. The form has four copies each in different colour, the white for keeping in the present school, the red to keep in the new school, the blue to send from the new school to the department of student affairs, and the yellow to send to the department of the school level.

* That according to the Ministry of Education year budget of 1984-1985.

The school leaving form: this form is issued by the department of student affairs. The school completes this form when a student leaves the school. The form has two copies, a white copy to keep in the school, and a red to send to the Ministry.

Teacher competence report form: this form is issued by the supervision department. On this form has to be entered personal information about the teacher's competence, his personality, skills and abilities, his performance, and his effect on the students. The form has to be completed and signed by the headmaster and sent to the department of the school level once a year.

The following table lists some other forms that must be kept in schools. These forms were collected from various schools:

Table (5.2)

Forms that are used by School Administration

No	Forms
1	Teacher's Transference Form
2	Teacher's Passport Form
3	Teacher's Absence Form
4	Teacher's Lateness Form
5	Teacher's and Personnel Signature Form
6	Employee's Evaluation Form
7	Employee's Civil Information Form
8	School Maintenance Form
9	Student Monthly Progress Form
10	Student Information Form
11	Student Absence Form
12	Parent Notification Form

Source: The forms were collected by the researcher from various school levels.

Student discipline is another duty of the school administration. Clearly student discipline is one of the school's responsibilities. However, the research shows that schools in Kuwait particularly the intermediate and secondary schools, waste much time and effort in managing students. The Assistant Under-Secretary of Public Education has defined pupil misdemeanours in two categories:

First, breaking school rules such as, lateness in attending classes, not wearing school uniform, damage to textbooks, jumping from school walls, damage to school furniture and equipment, attacks on teachers and other staff.

Second, actions that relate to state security such as editing, publishing or distributing subversive pamphlets or encouraging students to leave school premises to participate in demonstrations.

The role of the school administration in this respect is to control the students and restrain them from such actions. The headmasters and the school council are required to formulate internal rules to make the school system secure the rules of discipline are very strict. However, the records of the social divisions in many intermediate and secondary schools show that more than five students break the rules every school day. The Ministry of Education goes in its intervention in drawing up the school external and internal policies and regulations. The school has certain instructions that must be followed when penalising rule breakers. The punishments include, warning troublemakers in writing or orally, accusing them in front of their fellow pupils, requesting parents' cooperation, excluding trouble-makers from classes in some

courses for up to three days, prohibiting trouble-makers from participation in any social or sports events, transferring trouble-makers to another school and excluding them from the mid-term exams or final exams. The final action is expulsion from any public school.

School involvement in discipline matters needs to be reconsidered, not because of the difficulty of such matters but because of the complicated procedures that have to be followed by the school in dealing with trouble-makers. A teacher has to report to the social supervisor informing him that he is not able to accept a student in his class. The social supervisor has to interview the student privately, discuss the problem with him and report to the Ministry if he decides to punish the student. Sometimes the parents do not agree with the headmaster and complain to the Ministry. If the head decideds to suspend a student for a few days or transfer him to another school he has to write to the department of student affairs and ask for approval. When the researcher asked the headmasters and the social supervisors of schools about the increasing number of trouble-makers, they attributed it to the fact that 'the school does not have much freedom to deal with student discipline matters'. One headmaster said, 'It is our problem and we alone must find the way of solving it.'

WHAT ARE THE PROBLEMS OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN THE KUWAIT PUBLIC
EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

In considering this question there are two problems that have to be discussed. First there is the problem of the lack of authority of school administrators. Second there is the problem of the qualifications and training of school administrators.

In relation to the first problem, as we have seen the Ministry of Education has directly contributed to creating a school without authority. In applying centralization, the Ministry has extensively eroded the autonomy of the head and left nothing to his initiative and decision. He has strictly to follow instructions which cover almost 95 per cent of the work of the school. In an attempt to study the extent of the head's authority the researcher collected from a number of schools all the instructions sent by the Ministry's departments from the first day of school until the last day of 1984-1985. The instructions have been collected from 16 different schools (4 kindergartens, 4 elementaries, 4 intermediates, 4 secondaries). The next Table shows 30 kinds of instructions classified according to the department which sent them.

Table (5.3)
School Instructions

Instructions	Departments
1 School timetable	School level
2 Number of periods in each course	School level
3 Daily school hours	School level
4 Number of periods for every teacher	School level
5 School broadcasting	School Activity
6 School examinations	Students affairs
7 Teacher's behaviour	School level
8 Student's abuse	School level
9 Student discipline	Student affairs
10 Teacher's absence or lateness	School level
11 Teacher's evaluations	Supervision
12 Transfer of students from one class to another	Student affairs
13 Transfer of student from one school to another	Student affairs
14 Organization of school personnel	School level
15 School library	Library
16 School occasions	Activities
17 School nutrition	Nutrition
18 Free activity courses	Activities
19 Student's promotions	Student affairs
20 School council	School level
21 Teacher's and parent's council	Social
22 Student evaluation	Examination
23 Student punishment	Social
24 Assistant head evaluation	School level
25 Maintenance instructions	Services
26 School cafeteria	Activities
27 Teacher's time off	School level
28 School telephone operator	Services
29 School stores and supplies	Stores
30 School guards duties	Employees

As can be seen from the table (5.3), the Ministry of Education influences school decision-making at all levels not just the important decisions but trivial ones as well. School administrators do not have to be creative they are just required to be organizers or coordinators who can establish a system for following the Ministry plans exactly. The problem of decision-making in the Kuwait school system has created two types of administrators. The first group advocate change and see the school as a powerful agent for change in society. Therefore they believe that the school must have much more freedom and much more authority. The other group, who resist change believe that more freedom in the school system means more responsibilities and more work assigned to the school administrators. The conflict between the two viewpoints arises from a misunderstanding of the actual role of the school on the one hand, and the actual role of the administrators on the other.

Lack of power among the school authorities has created what may be called 'school without personality' or 'without individuality'. Visiting schools throughout the state gives one the impression that there is one pattern of school; nothing is individual and all schools are the same in terms of the building, the classrooms, the textbooks, and curriculum, the teaching methods, the examinations and much more. In reality schools are not the same nor should they be, there are schools in the cities and in the deep desert of the south of Kuwait, and also there are schools on islands. Furthermore, schools vary in terms of people's social-economic and cultural background such as the Badu areas and the civilian areas.

Concerning the uniqueness of each individual school, Daniel and William and Billy (1981) argue:

'Students and their parents come from a variety of ethnic backgrounds and have differing educational histories. All of these factors and many more, make each school unique. Even within the same school district individual schools develop their own distinct history, traditions, and ways of functioning. Each school is a human community within its own distinct culture.'(1)

What power should, ideally be entrusted to the schools? On this point a group of secondary headmasters submitted a paper to an in-service training course held by the Arab Planning Institute in February 1982. The headmasters explained how much they suffered from the lack of power in their schools. They made suggestions as to how the schools should be organised:

- (1) There should be an educational law defining relationship between headmasters and their teachers and other personnel in the school. The law should also specify the relationship between the school and the Ministry of Education departments.
- (2) The school council, in cooperation with parents representatives should be responsible for drawing up an annual policy for their school.
- (3) The school headmaster should be a member of committees for selecting teachers since they will work with him and be evaluated by him.
- (4) Headmasters and teachers should have responsibility for developing the school curriculum and selecting the appropriate textbooks.

(1) Daniel C and William J and Billy E., Strategies for School Improvement, (Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1981), p.55.

- (5) Schools should have their own yearly budget, which would cover all their material needs and give them flexibility in maintenance matters.⁽¹⁾

The problem of qualifications and training of school administrators:

The success of any educational system depends to a considerable extent on its administrators, their vision, and their administrative abilities. Therefore, neglecting the development of successful administrators is a great mistake since we are in the age of scientific and modern administration. Whatever schools, labs and libraries we build, their equipment they will achieve a great deal less than their full potential if they are not run by qualified administrators who are satisfied with and enthusiastic about their work. In Kuwait today 637 government schools are run by 1512 administrators (heads and their assistants) most of them qualified by a diploma in education which is equivalent to four years training after the intermediate level or two years training after the secondary school level. Some of them have a university degree and some others have only a secondary school certificate.

Promotion^{*} to the rank of head depends mainly on the number of years served as a successful teacher and other personal characteristics. When a successful teacher is promoted to an administrator position, such as assistant head or head of school division, he has to rely on a not

(1) The Arab Planning Institute, Suggestion to Improve the School Administration Performance (unpublished report, 1982), pp. 6-7 [in Arabic].

* For more details on the selection and appointment of school administrators refer to page in this chapter.

wholly relevant experience and learn by his errors in coping with the new job.

The following table shows the qualifications of a sample of 579 school administrators. The sample represents all the administrators who are under the direction of the elementary, intermediate and secondary schools departments in the central office of the Ministry of Education. The administrators who came under Ahmadi and Gahra School district are excluded.

Table (5.4)

School Administrators Qualifications

Qualifications	Head	Assistant	Head	Assistant	Total
	men	men	women	women	
Less than Diploma					
in Education	10	5	13	5	33
Diploma in Edu.	56	78	86	86	306
University Degree	50	45	55	65	215
Post Grad. Degree	6	7	2	1	16

Source: The material for tables, 4, 5, 6 was collected by the researcher from the elementary, intermediate and secondary education departments (1985) [in Arabic].

Table (4) shows that 54.4 per cent of the sample are qualified by the diploma in education, 37 per cent have a university degree, 5.8 per cent have less than the diploma of education, and 2.8 per cent have a post graduate degree in education.

A Ministry official source asserts that year of working in school administration will be sufficient for preparing qualified administrators. Researchers and educators in the field of in-service training, think that experience alone is insufficient in forming a good and successful administrator. They have pointed out the following advantages of in-service training:

- it gives the administrators the benefit of knowledge of modern methods of school administration.
 - it motivates the administrators to strengthen co-operation between school and society.
 - it encourages them to appreciate human ideals and social values as well as establishing fruitful human relations.
 - it helps them to comprehend economic, social and political changes in society.
-
- it gives the administrators the expertise to tackle current educational problems.

Table (5.5)

Years of experience for 579 school administrators:

Periods	No of Administrators	%
less than 5 years	70	12
5 to 10 years	180	31
10 to 20 years	277	47.8
20 to 30 years	52	8.9

The next table shows the number of those administrators who had attended an in-service training course over a ten year period.

Table (5.6)
Number of courses that have attended by the group of
579 School Administrators

Number of Administrators	Number of training courses	%
460	0	79.5
65	1	11
32	2	5.5
13	3	2.5
9	4	1.5

The 460 school administrators, who represent 79.5 per cent of the sample, had not attended any training courses within a 10 year period. 65 administrators had attended one course in 10 years, and there were 54 administrators who had attended between two and four courses in the 10 year period. The conclusion is that there is an absence of any clear policy for the attendance of school administrators at the available courses.

In 1974 the Ministry of Education established a training centre for school administrators and teachers. The centre aims to enhance the standard of performance of teachers and school administrators and acquaint them with the latest innovations in the field of education. In 1980 the centre revised its in-service programmes for heads and their assistants, by increasing the number of courses in each year.

Table (5.7)

Attendance at the Training Centre for headmasters
and headmistresses between 1980-1984

Period	Trainees		Total	Hours	groups	Total Hours
	men	women				
1980-1981	79	59	135	30	3	90
1981-1982	-	78	78	12	2	24
1982-1983	80	115	195	24	4	96
1983-1984	28	25	53	40	2	80
Total	184	277	461	106	11	290

Source: Kuwait Ministry of Education, Training Centre, Training Programme in five years, (Ministry of Education, 1980-1984), p.69-84
[in Arabic]

Following the discussion of a report on in-service training courses held at the training centre in the scholastic year 1983-1984, five main objectives were identified:

- (1) Developing the heads skills and promoting their technical and professional competence.
- (2) Informing the administrators about theories and practices in the field of school administration.
- (3) Emphasizing the cooperation between school and parents on the one hand and between the school and society on the other.

- (4) Recognizing some of the educational problems that face school administrators at the intermediate level.
- (5) Acquainting administrators with methods of scientific research and group work, through participation in workshops and case studies.

79 headmasters and 68 headmistresses participated in the 30 hours course for each group. The headmasters group was from 20.11.83 for 5 weeks, 3 days a week and 2 hours a day in the evening. The headmistresses group was from 20.11.83 for 5 weeks, 3 days a week and 2 hours a day, in the morning.

Course subjects and activities include the following:

- school administration (concepts, responsibilities, human relations).
- the use of scientific research methods.
- ~~the~~ the relations between school and parents (evaluation of the current parents' council in intermediate schools).
- classroom activities and extra curricular activities.
- group activities in the intermediate school.
- the role of the social services in the intermediate school.
- school administration and students (homogeneous group, intelligent groups, trouble-makers groups).

- school administration and supervision.
- evaluation techniques.
- the contribution of educational technology.
- curriculum development in the intermediate school.
- discussion on workshop reports.

Course evaluation:

The course has been evaluated by a questionnaire prepared and distributed by the training centre. The trainees were asked to give their opinions in the following areas relating to the course. (a) time planning for the course; (b) the convenience of the course location (a school); (c) the relevance of the course subjects to the administrator's role; (d) achievement of course objectives.

The next two tables summarize the trainees opinions about (c) and (d) above:

Table (5.8)

Trainees opinions about (c) question

The importance of course subjects	Headmasters			Headmistresses		
	Subjects	very imp- ortant %	Import- ant %	not imp- ortant %	very imp- ortant %	Import- ant %
School admin.	74.5	21.3	5.2	86.8	10.5	2.7
Scientific Res.	27.7	59.6	12.6	18.4	63.2	13.2
School & Parents	80.9	19.1	-	63.8	18.4	17.8
Classroom effec.	14.9	74.5	8.5	52.6	31.6	2.6
Group activities	27.7	63.8	8.5	34.2	52.6	17.2
Social services	74.5	25.5	-	65.8	31.6	2.6
School admin & Supervision	55.3	42.9	2.1	57.6	36.8	5.6
School admin & Students	68.1	31.9	-	71.1	21.1	7.8
Evaluation Meth.	51.1	42.7	6.4	63.2	28.9	7.9
Educational Tech.	44.7	46.8	2.1	63.2	26.6	4.3
Curriculum Devel.	53.2	42.6	-	65.8	26.3	4.3
Discussion on reports	48.0	42.6	18.5	63.2	31.6	5.2

Source: Ibid, p.90.

Concerning the importance of course subjects, the table shows that large numbers of headmasters and headmistresses were satisfied with the course subjects and materials. However a small number who were dissatisfied raised reasonable points. They thought that the course in general neglected the practical aspects and emphasized the theoretical side of school administration. They also thought that most lecturers were too remote from the reality of Kuwaiti school administration and its current problems. With respect to course timing they considered this needed more thought because 30 hours was not enough to cover all these subjects.

Table (9) shows the headmasters and headmistresses answers to the question, 'Did the course achieve its set objectives'?

Table (5.9)

Trainees opinion about (d) question

Answers	Headmasters	Headmistresses
	%	%
High achievement	17	21
Medium achievement	63.8	60.5
Low achievement	12.8	10.5
No opinion	6.4	7.9
Total	100	100

Source: Ibid, p.94.

Only 17 per cent (13 headmasters) and 21 per cent (21 headmistresses) thought that the course fully achieved its objectives. 63.8 per cent of the headmasters and 60.5 per cent of the headmistresses were unsure whether the course had achieved its objectives or not. 12.8 per cent of the men and 10.5 per cent of the women thought that the course had fallen short of achieving the stated objectives.

What can be learned from this review of the course evaluation? Considerable efforts have been made since 1980 to provide training courses for school headmasters and headmistresses. However, these efforts probably need to be extended to include the assistant heads, other school staff, and the administrators in private education.

In other respects careful consideration should be given to the school administration's power and authority before proceeding with the in-service training programmes. Without increasing the heads' authority and developing their role it would seem that all training efforts are misdirected. In the in-service course the heads are trained to utilize scientific management techniques, to develop a good human relationship with their staff, and to share with their staff in decision-making. They also learn how to administer the school budget, how to set the school goals and draw up the curriculum, and how to use the new evaluation techniques. That is in theory, in practice the situation is very different. When the headmasters and headmistresses return to their schools and to reality, they are not able to do these things because the Ministry's laws, decrees, and resolutions do not allow them to. That is the dilemma.

The next chapter will deal specifically with developments and administrative difficulties in technical and vocational education. The research will show the importance of this type of education to the present and to the future of Kuwait. Also the research will show that the problem in this sector is not a financial one but rather a decision-making problem.

CHAPTER SIX

THE ADMINISTRATION OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN KUWAIT

- Two Years Post Secondary Education, Realization and Functions
- The Need for Technical and Vocational Education in Kuwait
- Institutes of Technical and Vocational Education in Kuwait: Stages of Administrative Development
- Technical and Vocational Institutions, the Need for Reform
- The Department of Technical and Vocational Education, In the Ministry of Education
- The Higher Institution of Technical and Vocational Education
- The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training
- Technical and Vocational Education, recent deficiencies and future progress

TWO YEARS POST SECONDARY EDUCATION, REALIZATION AND FUNCTIONS

There is a general agreement that the two-year post secondary school is a product of the twentieth century. The expansion of such institutions is one of the most notable developments in post secondary education. These institutions respond to the increasing demand for greater variety of more accessible training and education. At the same time they enable other colleges and the universities to concentrate a great proportion of their energies than would otherwise be possible on more advanced, graduate, and professional work.

The development of higher education has received much attention internationally in the last two decades. In the sixties the view was widespread that a substantial expansion of higher education was necessary to secure economic growth and social welfare. In the seventies, however concern grew in many countries about 'mismatch' between the increased supply of highly qualified labour and the demands of the labour market which, had not achieved the expansion anticipated in the sixties. The new situation called for a consideration of the economic, social and political factors that influence the development of higher education and the labour market, and also of the role played by education and manpower planning in this respect.

The need for this kind of learning derives from two factors:

First, two years-post secondary education is the product of the social and economic forces which created it and shaped its character. One of these forces is the growing belief that educational opportunities beyond

the high school must be equalized, any society which puts a premium on higher education for all who can profit from it and which recognizes the college as an aid in developing talent of many kinds must make sure that economic and social barriers do not result in the development of an educational elite.

Second, there are also academic and social barriers to post secondary school education. Some secondary school graduates are not eligible to enter certain four year colleges or pursue certain academic programmes, yet they too have talents worthy of development. In the long run their desire to participate in a post-secondary programme will probably mean that pressures will be exerted upon society to make it possible for them to do so. In addition, there are young people from lower social groups who, though may be able and also may be eligible for financial aid, would be reluctant to enter a conventional four year college. Yet they may be willing to enter a local two year college with many of their social peers.

Three Major Systems of Post Secondary Education:

When looking at post secondary education from an international perspective we can see generally three major types. The American, the Continental European and the English. The American model is characterized by a wide range of institutional types, from junior colleges to prestigious private universities. The administrative and legal links between these various institutions are in general very loose

or even non-existent. Yet the system possesses in a certain sense, a high degree of unity. In particular, it allows, on paper at least, students to move relatively easily from one institution to another. The bottom of the institutional pyramid - the junior or community college - provides both terminal (vocational) and intermediate (transferred) education, and so do many another private and public colleges and universities. In general, most of the institutions, with the exception of specialized professional schools are multi purposes, they offer a variety of both vocationally and academically oriented courses.

The Continental European model consists of two main sectors:

Universities (and University-Status Institutions) usually with open access and other post-secondary establishments. The duration of studies in the former is considerably longer than in the latter and there is a significant difference between the prestige value of degrees awarded in the two sectors. Student mobility between them is nil or negligible and the curricula have a different orientations, more abstract and theoretical in the one, more practical and vocational in the other.

There are several variations to the European model, the most significant probably being the French system. This is a system which has three main components: The Grands Ecoles, The Universities, and other post-secondary institutions of various types. The first category represents a small minority of the institution in the system and is of an elitist nature, but there are a number of links which exist between this type of institution and the universities which unlike the Grands Ecoles, traditionally exercise no selection in admission apart from the

possession of the baccalureate. Both types offer either high-level professional training (medicine, engineering) or a multipurpose education of a more academic nature. The third category, with the exception of the newly created instituttes universitaires de technologie (IUT), has little or no links with the previous two and provides mainly specialized and vocationally-oriented training.

The English model exhibits an extreme of separation between the university and non-university sectors of higher education. In fact, these are two independent systems where, contrary to the preceding models, studies have the same duration and can at least theoretically if not in social prestige value lead to identical degree levels. As in the Continental European model, there is practically no student mobility between institutions or between the two sectors, and one sector is more theoretical and general, the other more practical and specialized.

THE NEED FOR TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN KUWAIT

Kuwait for her future development, has to depend upon her people. This requires that, in order to fulfil the aspirations for the future for building an advanced society, the nation must develop the people themselves by providing them with the kind of education they really need to advance their own standards and eventually the standards of their society. Simultaneously, a comprehensive development scheme should be implemented in every sector of society and should include all available resources whether they are industrial, agricultural, commercial or cultural.

Not only in Kuwait society, but in many other countries in the developing world and in the developed world, technical and vocational education occupies an important place in the educational system. In Kuwait, it is insufficient just to import the most recent scientific and technological achievements to be used in the development of economic resources. If these technological achievements are to play a significant role in plans for national development, it is necessary to prepare, along with them, a well trained, able work force capable of achieving future objectives. In 1979 the Department of Technical and Vocational Education issued a statement of principles and objectives.

First:

from modern technologies only those should be selected that are best suited to the development stage and plans in Kuwait, and which would respond immediately to its development needs.

Second:

new technologies should be implemented in the way best suited to the working conditions in Kuwait.

Third:

complicated modern machinery should be maintained so that it could be used for a longer time and remain in good condition.⁽¹⁾

(1) Kuwait Ministry of Education, Report on Technical and Vocational Education in Kuwait, (Unpublished Report, Ministry of Education, 1979), pp. 9-11 [in Arabic].

The manpower Kuwait needs to undertake these tasks which will provide creative and productive work capable of achieving a satisfactory standard of living for all citizens can be categorized as follows:

- (a) Specialists responsible for planning and designing.
- (b) Technicians in various fields of production and services, whose main responsibility will be to supervise and the actual work.
- (c) Technical assistants - or skilled workers - who carry out the work.

The preparation of these levels of manpower in sufficient numbers and suitably trained, rests in the hands of educators and teaching institutions. One of the major responsibilities of education and educators is to achieve the comprehensive development of these goals in the country.

To education and educators in Kuwait, these responsibilities can only mean:

- paying more attention to those areas in education which will lead to the creation of a society capable of surviving and progressing in an ever-developing and changing world.

- the second is to pay more attention to technical and vocational education in view of the great need for this kind and the great contribution it could make to plans for the comprehensive development of the country.

INSTITUTES OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN KUWAIT:

STAGES OF ADMINISTRATIVE DEVELOPMENT

Industrial Education: In 1954-1955 the Department of Education established an industrial secondary school called 'Alkulia Alsinaiah'. The school accepted students who had eight years of basic education and who had passed the intermediate level. The school was aimed at producing skilled labour in various trades which included, car mechanics, electrical fitting, cabinet making, wireless repairs, refrigeration and air conditioning.

A further development in industrial education took place in 1967 when a group of Unesco experts suggested the implementation of new plans.

These plans were:

- (1) To change the aim of industrial secondary schools to that of preparing the assistant technicians and establish a new centre for the training of skilled labourers.
- (2) To attach technical and vocational education to the industrial sector and provide training programmes in the work locations.
- (3) To prepare for the establishment of an advanced vocational and technical institute for students who had completed secondary education.

Accordingly, a committee was formed, headed by the Minister of Education, and including representatives of the industrial sectors in

the state. The committee worked with Unesco's experts to reorganize the 'Alkuliah Alsinaiah' to equip it to prepare assistant technicians. The committee agreed on the following principles: that admission to the Alkulia Alsinaiah should be restricted to students who had completed intermediate education, the length of the courses should be four years, the first devoted partly to general education and partly to introducing the students to technological subjects. The students who had ability in mathematics and sciences were enrolled in the pre-technician stream. Other students were oriented towards to the craft stream.

Since then some other Ministries such as those of public works, defence, social welfare and communications have established various kinds of schools, institutes and training centres, whose purpose is to supply the needs of these Ministries for specialized, skilled manpower.

The third attempt at improving industrial education in particular and technical and vocational education in general was the provision for training 'technicians'. The publications of the Department of Technical and Vocational Education indicate that many experts and committees shared in making the appropriate decisions. (1)

(1) Some examples of the committees and experts:

- (a) The Planning Council (1971) report concerning innovations in technical and vocational education.
- (b) The Report of the Sub-Committee (1974) in the Ministry of Education to establish the Higher Industrial Institute.
- (c) The Report of the Department of Technical and Vocational Education (1973) regarding reconsideration of the admission procedures in preparing the technicians.
- (d) The Unesco expert's reports on the development of the technical and vocational college during the period of 1970-1975.
- (e) Reports of the industrial experts who were invited by the Ministry of Education, Dr William B Rust (1974) and H Jordan (1974).
- (f) The Report on the future of technical and vocational education in Kuwait, which was submitted by the Department of Technical and Vocational Education (1974).

It seemed that the type of industrial education (after the intermediate level) which existed in the 1960's and before failed to make much contribution to the Kuwaiti labour market. The financial support for this kind of education was not the problem; the problem was one of administration. Statistics showed that 5 per cent of the total students were attracted to this type of education during the period 1960-1975. But a study ⁽¹⁾ indicated that among (5321) students who were admitted to the Alkulliah Alsinaih between 1954-1972 only (828) students completed the course, 85 per cent of them dropped out.

In 1967, R Elias a Unesco expert, presented a comprehensive study on the development of industrial education in Kuwait. According to this report, the labour-force employed in 27 industries totalled approximately (15,930), including administrative and technical staff at all levels, specialised man-power at the technician and foreman level, and engineers. Taking into account Kuwaiti nationals only, the available manpower in Kuwait is very limited, since most of the working population consists of non-Kuwaitis. In view of this it seems very probable that the figure of (15,930) is an accurate estimate of Kuwaiti's technical manpower requirements. Of this total, (400) to (500) should be engineers or top-level technicians, (1,500) intermediate technicians and (14,000) skilled workers. These are the numbers of Kuwaitis who need to be trained, so that one day they will form the country's skilled labour-force. There are as yet no estimates of how

(1) Yousef AbdulMuti, Kuwait Experiment in the Innovation of Technical and Vocational Education, (Unpublished report submitted to Unesco, 1982, Ministry of Education) pp. 131 - 132 [in Arabic].

long this will take. The country will have to make a serious effort to train as many technicians as possible, for with its present provision there is no prospect of achieving this goal in the near future. (1)

K D Drysdale, 1972, another Unesco expert studied the situation of industrial education in the country and made the following observations:

The teaching staff in the technical college were still far from satisfactory. They were in many cases inappropriately qualified, and had no industrial experience. At the Technical College (AlKuliah Alsinaih) it was essential that competent senior staff should be available. Because of the lack of experience among the senior staff many difficulties with the running of the college and with discipline arose. Drysdale recommended that, where suitable local staff were not available, consideration should be given to appointing non-Kuwaitis to the senior posts of director, assistant directors and heads of departments.

Drysdale thought that the students progress was not as good as it should be. There were numerous contributory factors including the quality of those admitted in the college, a failure to insist that homework and lab-work were completed, the defects of the academic calender, the inexperience of the teachers both in teaching and in the subject matter of the new syllibi and a shortage of facilities for practical laboratory work. (2)

(1) R Elias, Kuwait Technical Education, Unesco mission, (Unpublished report, Unesco 1967), pp. 1-10.

(2) K D Drysdale, Unesco Mission Kuwait Fund in Trust Project, (Unpublished report, Unesco, 1972), pp.1-10.

Commercial Education: Commercial education in Kuwait has developed in three stages since it was first established in the fifties. During the first stage it was concerned almost exclusively with preparing clerks with elementary knowledge of finance, trade and administration. The second stage was concerned with preparing assistant technicians at secondary school level. And the final stage is the period of recent changes in commercial education towards preparing technicians.

The first school of Commercial Education was founded in 1952 as an evening school. The school offered courses in book-keeping, secretarial work and typewriting. In 1963-1964 the Department of Education established a commercial secondary school which would accept students after intermediate education. The length of the course was to be four years leading to a certificate in commercial studies. The curriculum in the commercial school was varied and included the subjects taught in the general school such as religion, Arabic language and social studies. It also provided the students with some special courses in finance, mathematics, office management, trade correspondence, English language, typewriting and economics. Between 1965-1971 (840) students graduated from the commercial school as assistant technicians.

The girls' technical and commercial secondary school 'Althanawia Alfaniah' was founded in 1967-1968, by the Ministry of Education to prepare girls for secretarial work. The length of the course was also four years, leading to a certificate in technical and commercial studies. Although a considerable effort was made to improve the school, the enrolment declined from year to year. The number of girls in the school in 1969-1970 was 345 it became 220 in 1971-1972, and only 75 girls were in the school in 1973-1974.

Mohammad Salam a commercial scholar who studied secondary commercial education in Kuwait reported in 1974 that:

'Even with the actual need of this sort of education for the present and future development of the country, and inspite of the efforts that have been made by the government to support commercial training, young Kuwaitis have not been attracted by this kind of education, their enrolment was very limited (5 per cent of the total male graduated from the intermediate education, and only 2 per cent of the female)'⁽¹⁾

M Salema made some important suggestions for the reform of commercial education.

- (1) It was important to draw up a plan to train the teachers who work in the commercial schools.
- (2) It was necessary to establish a secondary commercial school for females, and develop some commercial courses in the general secondary schools.
- (3) Appropriate school building should be provided and supplied with suitable equipment. A programme should be developed to train students in the work locations such as companies, banks and firms.
- (4) The intermediate students should have some elementary courses in technical and commercial matters, which would help them to form a clear idea about this kind of education which might encourage them to take more advanced study in the field at the next school level.

Teacher Training Institutes:

Despite the efforts to provide an adequate supply of local teachers made 35 years ago, Kuwait still depends on the neighbouring states to provide

(1) Mohammad Salam, Commercial Education in Kuwait, (Unpublished report, Ministry of Education, 1974) pp.17-19 [in Arabic].

about 76 per cent of its teachers (see Chapter Two). A Teacher Training Institute for women was established in 1953 with a three-year course. In 1962 it was converted into a four-year secondary school for preparing elementary teachers. In the same year a similar institute was established for men. Since the establishment of the two institutions, much criticism has been made of their contribution to the development of education in the country. Jaswant Singh,⁽¹⁾ studied the work of the teacher training institutions and outlined their deficiencies. This is a summary of his observations: a careful scrutiny of the programme of the teacher training institutions reveals two weaknesses, one relating to the organization and the second to the content of the courses. It appears that the staff for these teacher training institutes is not recruited with the care needed to guarantee the most outstanding and competent personnel. Some of the staff are in fact mediocre, which could perhaps be tolerated in an ordinary school, but is out of place in an institution which is concerned to train teachers for the schools. The teacher training institutes should have outstanding staff who will be models of good teaching for the prospective teachers. At present, ~~these teacher training institutes do not enjoy as much prestige or status as an ordinary high school, which is another factor that discourages students from joining them.~~ It will be necessary to give a higher status to these institutes by selecting the best teachers and offering them a salary scale a little higher than the prevailing rate in the ordinary schools. The campus, buildings and other facilities too should be on a par with high schools, if not better. The heads of these institutes also need to be outstanding leaders in education who can inspire the members of the staff as well as the students.

(1) Jaswant Singh, Educational Planning and Administration, (Unpublished Study, Ministry of Education, 1965), pp.80-85 [in Arabic].

As regards the content, Jawsant thought that one major difficulty as the next table shows, seemed to be that mastery of subject matter tended to be sacrificed to professional education and training. But the teachers need to possess a thorough grounding in the subjects which they will be required to teach. They should be able to answer questions which the students raise during the lessons and practicals. The teacher training institute should provide as good a general education as the ordinary high school. The professional training should be additional and so organized as to provide the basic principles in a short period of time. Further professional instruction can be provided on an in-service basis and therefore greater emphasis should be placed on the subject matter.

Table (6.1)

Syllabus in the Teacher Training Institutes

Subjects	I Year	II Year	III Year	IV Year
Religious Knowledge	2(periods)	2	2	2
Arabic Language	7	6	6	6
English	4	3	3	3
Geography, History and Sociology	4	4	3	3
Mathematics	4	4	3	3
General Sciences and Health Education	4	4	3	3
Physical Education	2	2	2	2
Music, Songs & Arts	2	2	1	1
Methods of Teaching	3	3	3	3
Fundamental Education & Psychology	2	2	2	2
Practical Education	-	2	4	4
Total	34	34	32	32

Source: Jaswant Singh, Ibid, p.84.

An examination of the table shows that whereas the number of periods per week in the high school is 37 it is only 34 in the teacher training institutes. Again, for English language only three periods are provided each week, which cannot assure an adequate mastery of a foreign language. It is doubtful if the fundamentals of education and psychology can be grasped by a student who has just completed the intermediate school. It is doubtful if practical training can be of much use to students who are not fully conversant with theory. Practical training should come when the students have mastered the theoretical aspects of professional education so that they can utilise and test their theory in actual practical situations. Furthermore, the study of geography, history and sociology is likely to be hotch-potch without the necessary integration to give the students a proper understanding of the social and cultural forces that have shaped society. In the first two years it would be desirable to concentrate more on the subject matter. The programme of general education should be of the same standard and concentration as provided in a high school. This will have the additional advantage of making it possible to transfer from the high school to the teacher training institute and vice versa for students who may find that they have made a wrong choice. In the third year and fourth year, without diluting the academic programme, professional courses should be introduced to provide the requisite understanding of educational philosophy, psychology, teaching methods and guidance and counselling techniques along with practice in teaching. In fact it would be valuable for the teachers' institutes to have an additional programme of teacher training after secondary school for one year and to evaluate the outcomes of the two courses before making a final decision on the matter.

Furthermore, in the end of his observations, Jaswsant Singh raised a very important point regarding the selection of candidates for the teacher training institute. He pointed out that not everyone can be a good teacher. The teacher's personality and his attitudes have a far reaching effect on the pupils. Since every teacher is likely to affect the development of thousands of pupils in his teaching career, it is of the utmost importance that teachers should exert a good influence over the pupils. Accordingly teachers who are socially immature, who lack emotional stability, or who have developed undesirable attitudes should have no place in education. In Kuwait owing to an extreme shortage of teachers, there is a tendency to admit everyone who comes along, which is not a sensible policy and is likely to prove costly in the long run.

TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS, THE NEED FOR REFORM

The careful examination of the structure and organisation of technical and vocational education in the decade of the sixties should raise questions regarding the purposes, significance and functions of this kind of education. Were the technical institutions established to provide places for students who had failed in general education? Were they intended to provide a training that was more vocational than technical to solve the problem of pupils over the age of 15 who were still at the level of general education? How can one explain the fact that most of the technical education graduates have opted for administrative posts in government organizations even though these posts did not relate to their specialist training?

These questions and more have faced the policy-planners both during the seventies and more recently.

The institutions of technical and vocational education have been challenged by poor enrolment ever since their establishment, not because they were less important for the development of the country, but for reasons that related to the purposes and functions of the institutes themselves. It seems that whoever decided to set up these institutions did not relate them to the rest of the educational system in the country. Was the system able to produce students with an aptitude to accept the 'professional' as a study and a career? This point has not been researched nor probably even raised in the minds of decision-makers.

The following points are relevant in this connection:

- (1) Those completing the general secondary school were able to go abroad for advanced studies, and everyone was keen to avail themselves of this opportunity.
- (2) The institutions of Technical and Vocational education, did not enjoy high prestige, and the standard of teaching was lower than that obtaining in general secondary education.
- (3) It was obvious that as long as there was a general shortage of educated Kuwaitis for higher posts, and as long as foreign study scholarships were available, only the third-rate or those who had no aptitude or ambition or had some family difficulty would be available to join these vocational courses. This being so, these institutions could not enjoy the requisite prestige, and special steps need to be taken to improve their status.

A third point in this analysis of the effectiveness of technical and vocational education of the 1960's, is the statistical evidence which indicates that an increasing need for a foreign labour-force will continue through the seventies and eighties.

The following table shows the participation of Kuwaitis and non-Kuwaitis in some important professional and industrial posts according to the 1965-1970-1980 censuses:

Table (6.2)

Professional and Industrial Posts for Kuwaitis and Non-Kuwaitis

Posts	1965 Census			1970 Census		
	Kuwaiti	Non-Kuwaiti	%	Kuwaiti	Non-Kuwaiti	%
Manufacturing & Industries	1825	16117	10.2	6109	25982	19
Construction	1264	27584	4.4	2188	31484	6.5
Electricity	1645	5346	23.5	2133	5119	29.4
Gas & Water						
Wholesale, Retail trade & Restaurants & Hotels	5129	17916	22.3	7298	25715	22
Posts	1975 Census			1980 Census		
	Kuwaiti	Non-Kuwaiti	%	Kuwaiti	Non-Kuwaiti	%
Manufacturing & Industries	2258	22209	9	3179	38081	7.7
Construction	2634	4637	36	2068	6099	25
Electricity	1756	21500	4.5	1206	95893	1.2
Gas & Water						
Wholesale, Retail trade & Restaurants & Hotels	6327	33232	16	4577	53840	7.8

Source: Kuwait Ministry of Planning, Annual Statistical Abstract, (Central Statistical Press, 1985), pp.131-132.

Table (6.3)

Supply and demand in the labour-force for the period of
1975-1986, for the Assistant Technician Grade:

Specialization	Supply	Demand	Deficit	%	Supply	Demand	Deficit	%
Ass Technicians in Engineering	775	2278	2502	76.5	1180	7270	6190	84
Nurses	145	2703	2558	94	1090	6000	5060	83
Ass Technicians in Scientific Medical	112	667	555	83	540	1320	780	59
Ass Pharmacist	97	348	251	72.1	330	780	400	57
Ass in Profess- ional Medical	358	2082	1724	82	850	4500	3650	81

Source: ABO-Al-Jawad, Technical Education and its Role in the Developments of Human Resources in Kuwait, (Unpublished paper presented to the meeting of the Kuwaiti Teacher Society, 28 March - 12 April 1981), p.14 [in Arabic].

The table for supply and demand shows a large deficit in some important posts at the Assistant Technician Grade which should be filled by the graduates of the technical and vocational institutions. In addition, the table indicates that the deficit in some posts will reach 84 per cent in 1986 which will increase the need to depend on an imported labour-force from the neighbouring states or other countries.

In the light of these facts the need for reform of the technical and vocational institutions is very evident. In the beginning of the

seventies the rapid modernization in Kuwait affected many fields of production and services in both the public and private sectors. This development created a need for new kinds of man-power at different levels. It also encouraged the state authorities to recommend the establishment of a new type of technical and vocational administration that would be responsible for supervising schools and institutes of technical, commercial and industrial education whether they were already in existence or about to be established.

U.N.E.S.C.O. Report on The Future of Technical and Vocational Education in Kuwait, 1975:

The report was submitted by Unesco and some Arab experts during the period 20 January to 18 February, 1975. The report was concerned with the conditions of technical and vocational education within the context of a comprehensive survey of Kuwaiti society and the labour market. This report is considered to be an important turning point in the development of technical and vocational education in particular, and education in Kuwait in general. The following are some points that are raised in the report and are highly relevant to the present discussion.

The reform of technical and vocational education should begin with a reform of the system of general education. This is true because thorough investigation proves that the many efficiencies of technical and vocational education stem from the educational system as a whole. For instance, the most significant problem, the image and status of

'hands on' technical workers in society, stems from the kind of relationship that exists between general education on the one hand and technical education on the other. In the context of this relationship technical education is considered as an inferior form of general education. Students and their parents both have the same attitude towards technical education. This will not change unless the students are introduced to technical education and understand its values at an early stage. Consequently, no change of this image and status will take place unless technical and vocational education are merged with general education and become an integral part of it. It should be given the same weight and value as general education in all study programmes. The students should be given the same opportunities for progress higher levels in their field of specialization. The diplomas should have a value in the labour market equal to that of the certificates of general education.

If technical and vocational education are to assume real pioneering roles in the development and advancement of Kuwait, then this education in its new organizational form should be closely related to the needs of the country and the educational planners should take into consideration all the country's circumstances, geographic, demographic, economic, social and cultural. They should also take into consideration the future trends, so that the educational system will be capable of responding to developments in all these areas in the future.

Secondly, the report discussed new strategies to develop general education and make technical matters an integral part of the educational

process at both the elementary and intermediate stages. Secondary education, it suggested, should become 'comprehensive' and able to provide both general and technical courses in the first two years. In the third and fourth years it should offer different specializations from which the student would select those most appropriate to his interests and aptitudes. These specializations would include disciplines in the sciences, the arts, commerce and industry.

The report also suggested raising the standards of technical and vocational education by paying more attention to specializations which lead to advanced technology as well as those which are more closely related to the economic trends of the country and the needs of its labour-market. In addition, the report urged the state authorities to improve the financial and moral incentives both within and outside the technical and vocational system so as to increase its attractiveness for students, and to pay greater attention to the preparation of teachers working in technical and vocational education as well as to make sound preparation of senior administrators in this field.

THE DEPARTMENT OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, IN THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

The establishment of the Department of Technical and Vocational Education in 1972 was considered the second stage of the administrative development of the technical and vocational institutions. The ministerial decree defined the primary purpose of the department which was 'to prepare a qualified cadre of manpower for fulfilling the development needs of the country'. Among its main tasks were the following:

- (1) Surveying the needs for manpower and the existing provision to meet these needs.
- (2) Supervising technical institutes and schools.
- (3) Preparing and developing the instructional system.
- (4) Setting up systems of examinations, methods of evaluation, and standards.
- (5) Preparing budgets and selecting officials for supervisory jobs.

In 1978 the department was given more responsibilities under decree number 7111 which reorganized the department and redefined its responsibilities. Functions such as planning, research, libraries, student affairs, educational technology and information services were added to the basic task of overseeing the work of the institutes.

In the matter of the department's organization and hierarchy, the
department was part of the Ministry of Education and operated under the Ministry's general rules and procedures. The department was headed by the Assistant Under-Secretary for Technical and Vocational Education and consisted of six major units, reporting to the Director. The Director was responsible to the Higher Council of Technical and Vocational Education, chaired by the Minister of Education. The council was considered the governing body for the department. In addition to this there was the institute's Board of Directors who advised the Director of the department on matters relating to the functioning of the institutes.

THE HIGHER INSTITUTIONS OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Since the new initiatives were made and the new strategy was adopted the preparation of technicians needed for skilled labour has been intrusted to the institutions of technical and vocational education (two years or more of post-secondary education). The Department of Technical and Vocational Education undertook the establishment and development of the following applied technical institutes.

The Teacher Education Institutes (1972-1973)

(one for males another for females)

The institutes came into existence in 1972-1973 when the Ministry of Education abolished the former Teacher Training Institutes (1960's type). The new institutes required graduation from secondary school as an entry qualification, and the period of study was four semesters. The purpose and functions of the institutes can be considered in two categories:

First: to prepare male and female teachers for kindergartens and elementary schools through various study programmes including physical education, fine arts, and assistant librarianship. During this training process emphasis is placed on the following goals:

- (1) To acquaint students with the general objectives of education, modern trends in education at the primary stage and the nature of children and the characteristics of their growth and development.

- (2) To provide the students with appropriate academic knowledge to prepare them to become class teachers for kindergarten and the first two years of the elementary level or as subject teachers for the third and fourth years.

- (3) To provide each student with an opportunity for practical teaching, allowing him to take up a hobby of his preference and gain appropriate qualifications in his area of specialization which will enable him to pursue his education further in the future.

The second objective of the teacher institutes is to prepare assistant librarians and other technicians who can work in all educational services especially those for the elementary stage. In this case, study schemes are directed towards preparing students for the various fields of the education services.

The students have to choose one of six areas of specialization that are offered by the institute. They make their choice during the first semester and the student is permitted to transfer from one area to another only in the second semester.

Area of Specialization in the Teacher Institutes

Liberal Arts Department: prepares the students to teach,

- (1) Islamic Education
- (2) Arabic Language
- (3) Social Studies

Science Department: prepares the students to teach,

- (1) Mathematics
- (2) Sciences

Kindergarten Department: prepares the students to teach at the kindergarten level (in the female teacher institute only).

Physical Education Department: prepares the students to teach Physical Education at the elementary level.

Fine Arts Department: prepares the students to teach fine arts.

Assistant Librarians Department: prepares the students to work as Assistant Librarians in schools, public, specialized or University Libraries.

Organization and Administration of the Teacher Education Institutes:

Over the years the institutes have experienced steady growth and expansion and have sought to meet the growing need for teachers at the elementary and kindergarten levels. In 1979, the two institutes merged, and today internal leadership rests with the Director of the mens institute and the Directoress of the womens institute. The governing board for the teacher education institutes is the Higher Council of Technical and Vocational Education whose duties and responsibilities are those of handling external policies and regulations, such as the admission procedures, curriculum and budget matters. The advisory committees are the third layer in terms of administrative power. Both institutes form several committees each year to advise on programme development, or to cooperate in the field of training. In addition, committees are established to explore possibilities of opening new sections or to suggest changes in the curricula.

A comprehensive report was prepared in 1982 by an American Commission SACS ⁽¹⁾, and an internal committee from the Ministry of Education. They reported on the administrative structure of the Teacher Education Institutes. They commented that at the Teacher Education Institutes, there was an administrative and organizational structure which was well defined and appeared to be clearly understood by members of the faculty and staff. The internal committee proudly drew attention to the adoption of democracy in running the institutes and managing their

(1) SACS, The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, (Unpublished report on the Improvement of Higher Technical and Vocational Institutions in Kuwait, Ministry of Education, 1981) (in Arabic].

affairs as one of the strengths of the institutes. The (SACS) commission confirmed a general air of cooperation, and sense of achievement throughout the institutes in terms of working with students and preparing them for their chosen fields. The internal study made several references to the fact that the duties and responsibilities of heads of departments and deputy heads in both institutes were not always clear and appeared to overlap in some areas. The (SACS) commission recommended that the Institutes review their current policy regarding academic departments, particularly as they related to the responsibilities of head and deputy head, to ensure that policies were appropriate and that roles and responsibilities were clearly defined.

Size of Institutions and their Contribution to the Labour-force:

The Teacher Education Institutes were recently moved to four new sites: one campus housing the men students and three campuses for women. The increase in the number of students has been slow in contrast to the rapidly increasing need for local teachers. In 1972-1973, only (233) males and females were enrolled at the two institutes. Twelve years later the number had grown to (1067) students which indicates the relatively slow growth in the student body of the two institutes. The next table shows the numbers of students in the two institutes for the period of 1972-1973 to 1984-1985 and also shows the growth of graduates for the same period.

Table (6.4)

Student teacher enrolment and graduation

1972-1973/1984-1985

Year	Student Teacher Enrolment	Student Teacher Graduation	%
1972-1973	233	182	78
1973-1974	543	175	32
1974-1975	522	475	90.9
1975-1976	518	474	91.5
1976-1977	506	446	88
1977-1978	644	367	58
1978-1979	791	456	57.6
1979-1980	828	574	69.3
1980-1981	749	581	77.5
1981-1982	1120	713	63.6
1982-1983	1282	787	61
1983-1984	984	935	95
1984-1985	1067	836	78

Source: The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, Statistical Guidance, (Unpublished report, PAAET Publication, 1985), p.89.

71.5 per cent of the total output of the two teacher education institutes has graduated since their establishment in 1972-1973. 28.5 per cent dropped out or failed. The 1985 Ministry of Planning Annual Statistical Abstract showed that the total number of teachers in the kindergarten and elementary schools was 9,129 Kuwaiti teachers were 61.2 per cent, and the non-Kuwaiti teachers were 38.8 per cent. The figure in 1967 was 94.8 per cent non-Kuwaiti and 5.2 per cent Kuwaiti teachers. With the growth of enrolment in the two teacher institutes, however, they have been able to provide a large percentage of the teaching force at the primary levels at least for the present time.

The Business Institutes (1975-1976)

(one for males another for females)

The Institutes were developed to meet the need for skilled man-power in the business sectors and were the result of extensive studies by various committees representing the Ministry of Education, local business representatives, Unesco experts and Kuwait University. The institutes have the following purposes:

- (1) To prepare young persons to meet the man-power needs to the state of the technical and middle-management levels.
- (2) To provide programmes to upgrade the skills of those already in the labour-force, and meet a wide range of individual needs through community service programmes for personal development and career enhancement.

To achieve the institutes purposes, the authorities have concentrated on two main aspects: first, on the programmes and practical training that are offered by the institutes, and second, on the contribution of the institutes graduates in the business market. The (SACS) commission in its report stated that: 'the kuwait Business Institutes faculty has identified three factors considered essential in the achievement of institutional purposes. These are: dissemination of purpose, clarity of purpose and consistency of purpose.' Response to questionnaires by students, faculty, and employers of graduates indicate success in the first of these. 62.8 per cent of students and 66.7 per cent believed that the purposes were clear in the minds of those involved. It was the consensus of the study committee that there was consistency of purpose between instructional departments, and the institutes and the Department of Technical and Vocational Education Employers. Faculty, and graduates were asked their opinions on the academic and practical preparation of students as related to the stated purposes of the Kuwait Business Institutes. There was a strong belief among respondents that this was being achieved to a high degree. Employers were almost unanimous in the opinion that Kuwait Business Institutes graduates had good job skills. They were less enthusiastic about the academic, practical and cultural efficiency of the graduates. The (SACS) report suggested that 'this may be due in part to the relatively short time graduates have been in the field'.

Organization and Administration in the Business Institutes:

The two institutes for men and women were established in 1975 by a decree of the Ministry of Education. The Department of Technical and

Vocational Education operates the two institutes and makes decisions concerning them. The internal administrative structure is in the hands of the institutes Directors, who suffer from a lack of autonomy. The Institutes plans and policies, budget and programmes are controlled by the governing board, which is the Higher Council of Technical and Vocational Education.

The Institutes of Business received their first students in 1975. Students enrolment has increased from 816 in 1975-1976 to 2109 in 1984-1985. The faculty has shown an increase from 55 to 110 and the administrative staff has grown from 100 to 131. The institutes contribution to the labour-force for the period of 1976-1977 to 1983-1984, is as follows:

Table (6.5)
The Institutes of Business Graduates for the period
1976-1977/1983-1984

Years	Male	Female	Total
1978-1979	110	185	395
1979-1980	128	274	402
1980-1981	109	266	375
1981-1982	140	391	531
1982-1983	154	374	528
1983-1984	233	419	652
Total	874	1909	2783

Source: The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, Annual Statistics, 1978-1979/1983-1984 (PAAET Publication, 1984), p.67.

Table (5) shows that the two Business Institutes have supplied the labour-market with (2783) assistant technicians during the period 1978-1984, in the fields of accounting, administration and secretaries, computers, insurance and banking. In the 1985 census Kuwaitis filled 29.6 per cent of the above posts. The non-Kuwaitis is accounted for 70.4 per cent. With the very small capacity of the two institutes (2783 graduates in seven years) it will clearly take many years to meet the demands of the business market for this kind of specialist. Nor are there any plans for the future to increase the institutions capacity or to establish new institutes.

The Kuwait Institute for Health Sciences:

The Kuwait Institute for Health Sciences was established for girls in 1974, as a result of an agreement between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Public Health. The Institute started with a school health nursing programme and added general nursing programme in 1978. Nutrition technology and environmental health were added in 1980. The latter two programmes were open to boys as well. The Department of Technical and Vocational clearly defined the purpose of the first two programmes. The school health nursing programme prepares specialized school health nurses to be employed in girls schools and boys primary schools under the Ministry of Education. This programme enables the students to acquire experience and skills in the following areas:

- (1) General nursing.
- (2) First aid procedures.
- (3) Assisting the physician in treating the pupils and carrying out preventive measures within the school environment.
- (4) Identifying cases of illness within the school and referring them to the physician.

The general nursing programme aims to prepare qualified nurses to work in various fields of health care, especially in hospitals and clinics. To achieve this general objective the syllabi of this programme are designed to:

- (1) Provide students with integrated experiences to help them to acquire information, attitudes and skills related to nursing and health care.
- (2) Provide an appropriate educational environment in which students can achieve academic, professional, cultural, social and psychological growth with special emphasis on the development of self-education skills.
- (3) Allow students an opportunity for practical training in nursing and other related activities.
- (4) Provide students with the opportunity for taking up a hobby of their own preference which will help them to carry out their duties.

- (5) Provide students with conditions which will help them rely on themselves in seeking and acquiring knowledge. This will provide students with opportunities for academic and professional development through individual effort.

- (6) Provide students with appropriate scientific and specialized knowledge which will qualify them for further education. This is seen as achieving the principle of continuous education.

In connection with the institute's purpose and objectives, there is one problem which should be mentioned. This problem is the unacceptable image of nursing studies in Kuwait culture and in one sense this might explain the low enrolment in the institute for health sciences during the last ten years. At first, Kuwaiti families did not encourage their daughters to study in the nursing school. The small number of girls who graduated in the seventies were shocked by the conditions of work in the hospitals which involved treating men, and working shift duty at night. The Institute suffered from low enrolment and it was even suggested that it should be closed. In this context the (SACS) report suggested: 'The Kuwait Health Sciences Institute should improve its image and disseminate a better understanding of its purposes by an organized publicity campaign. This programme should involve a low-key use of static displays as well as an involvement of the media. Such displays both permanent and moveable, could be placed in schools, health clinics, public areas of hospitals and other prominent places. This effort should be coordinated by the authorities. Teaching of the cultural and religious heritage in a important part of the Institute programme. This

receives little attention in discussion of purpose and it is suggested that such activities be given greater emphasis in the publicity. This could enhance the image, but more importantly it would demonstrate the value of such studies in a rapidly changing, scientific and technological world'.

Organization and Administration in the Institute for Health Sciences:

The administrative structure of the Health Institute is similar to that of the other higher technical institutions. Three levels of authority deal with decision-making processes. These are Higher Council of Technical and Vocational Education, The Department of Technical and Vocational Education and the Administration of the Institute.

Size of the Institution and its contribution to the labour-force:

The Institute of Health Sciences has had the problem of low enrolment ever since it was established. During the last few years the Institute has depended heavily upon non-Kuwaiti girls, as the next table shows:

Table (6.6)

The enrolment in the Kuwait Institute for Health Sciences

Programme	1978-1979		1979-1980		1980-1981		1981-1982		1982-1983		1983-1984		1984-1985	
	Kuwaiti	Non-K	Kuwaiti	Non-K	Kuwaiti	Non-K	Kuwaiti	Non-K	Kuwaiti	Non-K	Kuwaiti	Non-K	Kuwaiti	Non-K
School Nursing	55	2	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	47	197
General Nursing	7	66	28	105	41	105	33	101	29	212	30	188	44	1
Environment	-	-	-	-	-	-	26	-	50	1	27	1	45	1
Health														
Food Science	-	-	-	-	-	-	39	-	57	2	24	-	-	-
Technology														
Total	62	68	34	105	41	105	98	101	136	215	81	189	136	199

Source: The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, Statistical Guidance, 1978-1983/1984-1985 (unpublished report, PAAET Publication, 1985), p.59 and p.75.

Table (6) shows the slow enrolment among Kuwaiti girls, and the slow growth of non-Kuwaiti enrolment. Between 1978-1984 the total Kuwaiti girls in the general nursing programme was (168) and the total non-Kuwaiti was (777). Between 1980-1984 none was enrolled in the school nursing programme which caused it to be closed down by the authorities. With the establishment of the food science Technology and Environment Health programmes it has been estimated that the enrolment will grow by 10 - 20 per year for the next few years.

As far as the Institutes contribution to the labour-force is concerned the Ministry of Planning Statistics in 1985 forecast a rapid growth of the health services in the state. For example, in 1984, there were (17) hospitals and sanitariums, (62) clinics, (140) dental clinics, (21) mothercare centres, and (540) school clinics. These units are staffed by more than 16,000 medical staff, of whom 7,994 are qualified nurses and assistant nurses. In the context of these figures, which indicate the increasing demand, the Institutes for Health Sciences supplied only 457 graduates in nine years, as the next table shows:

Table (6.7)

The Institute for Health Sciences output for the period of
1975-1984

Year	Graduates	Year	Graduates
1975-1976	30	1980-1981	29
1976-1977	60	1981-1982	35
1977-1978	49	1982-1983	69
1978-1979	45	1983-1984	101
1979-1980	39		

Source: (1) The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, op.cit., p.77.

(2) Kuwait Ministry of Planning, op.cit., p.329.

Kuwait Institute of Applied Technology:

This Institute was established in 1976 for one specific purpose which was to fill the gap between engineers with extensive theoretical study and little practical training and technicians with little or no theoretical background. The Institute aims to prepare technicians for various fields in technology according to the need of the Kuwaiti labour-market. To achieve this objective students are involved in theoretical and practical technological training. In addition they receive applied field training in their major field of specialization. It is worth noting that the field training occupies the whole of the fifth term. This extends the period of study in the Kuwait Institute of Applied Technology to two and a half years in contrast to the two years which is normal in the other Institutes.

Students are provided with a number of science courses related to their field of specialization to acquaint them with the relationship between the various technological sciences. They also study a group of courses in the humanities to qualify them for senior managerial posts. In addition, they have a chance of acquiring a foreign language. In 1979 the Department of Technical and Vocational Education reformulated the statement of aims for the Institute of Applied Technology. The purposes then became as follows:

- (1) The Kuwait Institute of Applied Technology will offer courses of applied study of varying lengths to meet the needs in Kuwait for an intermediate labour-force in every production and service field.

- (2) It will offer programmes to meet the special requirements of different fields of work and develop the skills of staff on an in-service basis.
- (3) It will offer general studies for individuals to enhance their opportunities of employment.

Organization and Administration of the Kuwait Institute of Technology:

The organization and administrative structure of industrial education in Kuwait has developed in two quite distinct stages since 1954. It was originally 'Alkuliah Alsinaiah' which continued until the late 1960's. Then after several administrative changes it became the Kuwait Institute of Technology, one of a hierarchy of technical institutions which were established from 1972 onwards under the Department of Technical and Vocational Education. The Higher Council of Vocational and Technical Education, which was chaired by the Minister of Education and the Department of T.V.E., have complete responsibility for the external policies and programmes of the Institute. The internal organisation is the responsibility of a director and three deputy directors.

The programmes of specialization in Kuwait Institute of Technology were arranged in six streams. Within each stream there were various specializations:

- (1) Mechanical Technology Department: (a) Power Engineers, (b) Production, (c) Automotive, (d) Refrigeration.

- (2) Electrical Technology Department: (a) Power Systems and High Voltage, (b) Electrical Machines.
- (3) Electronic Technology Department: (a) Communication, (b) Industrial Electronics.
- (4) Construction Technology Department: (a) Building Construction, (b) Roads and Sewage Works, (c) Surveying and Quantitative Estimating.
- (5) Industrial Chemistry Technology Department: (a) Petrochemical Industries, (b) Non-Petroleum Chemical Industries.
- (6) Basic Administrative Sciences and Humanities: This is a non-specialized department. It services all other streams by offering an elective course in the fields of administration and the humanities.

The size of the Institution and its contribution to the labour-force:

The Kuwait Institute of Technology has experienced steady growth since its establishment. The Institute has attracted a group of students who were not able to find a place in the university and prefer to complete their studies in two years. The Institute already has plans to offer selected programmes for girls, as well as to offer two year associate degree programmes and a four year programme in Engineering Technology.

The next table shows the growth of enrolment in the Kuwait Institute of Technology, between 1978-1979/1984-1985:

Table (6.8)

Growth of enrolment in the Institute of Technology

Year	Kuwaitis	Non-Kuwaitis	Total
1978-1979	205	113	318
1979-1980	440	138	578
1980-1981	568	174	742
1981-1982	684	261	942
1982-1983	652	320	972
1983-1984	679	390	1069
1984-1985	680	405	1085
Total	3908	1801	5709

Source: The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, Statistical Guidance, 1978-1979/1984-1985 (PAAET Publication, 1985), p.103.

Although the enrolment increased by 70.7 per cent in six years, this figure is relatively small in contrast with the increase in the total output of secondary education during the last few years. For example secondary school graduates in 1984-1985 numbered (15,366), of whom 9.5 per cent have chosen to go to the Institute of Technology. Official sources in the Public Authority of Applied Education and Training have stated that the restricted size of the campus and the shortage of teaching staff have prevented the further growth of the Institute.

As far as the Institutes contribution to the labour-force is concerned, the next table shows the number of graduates between 1978-1985, Kuwaitis and non-Kuwaitis:

Table (6.9)
Kuwait Institute of Technology Graduates between
1978-1979/1984-1985

Year	Kuwaitis	Non-Kuwaitis	Total
1978-1979	47	26	73
1979-1980	48	36	84
1980-1981	55	39	94
1981-1982	78	48	126
1982-1983	146	67	213
1983-1984	117	89	206
1984-1985	131	104	235
Total	622	409	1031

Source: Ibid., p.106.

The Institute of Applied Technology has supplied the labour-market with (1031) assistant technicians during the last six years. In 1984-1985 only 12 per cent of all the graduates of the higher technical institutes were from the Institute of Applied Technology.

We have reviewed the main aspects of the administrative development of the higher technical institutions since the establishment of the Department of Technical and Vocational Education in 1972. In the late seventies these higher institutions experienced administrative difficulties. An analysis of these difficulties suggests the following points: The Ministry of Education as a centralized government organization with its increasing responsibilities and obligations became less able to operate effectively the Institutes of higher education. Even with the establishment of the Department of Technical and Vocational Education, the authorities continued to work independently of one another. The Ministry still considers and treats these institutions as secondary schools. The relationship between the Ministry of Education and the institutions of higher education is almost the same as the relationship between the Ministry and the schools. The Ministry of Education has created an over-complicated system which has three levels of authority. First, there is the Department of Technical and Vocational Education, this department had direct relations with the Institutes in the matters of, supply and budget, planning and man-power development, educational services, students' welfare, registration and statistics, secretariat, and technical follow-up. The second levels of authority is the Assistant Under-Secretary for Technical and Vocational Education. At this level there is an indirect relation with the Institutes. The office of the Assistant Under-Secretary must sign and approve all the Institute's requests and correspondence. The third and the last level of authority is the Higher Council of Technical and Vocational Education. At this level the policies are decided and important decisions are taken. These decisions include the establishment of new Institutes, or new programmes, or the modification

of the admission procedures and the approval of the annual budget. These three levels of authority were not merely a burden to the Institutes themselves, but were also a burden to the Ministry of Education. Later in the seventies there was a general public demand that the institutions of higher education should be removed from the control of the Ministry of Education.

This system of multi-levels of power certainly leads to an overlapping of responsibilities among the authorities. The institutions of higher education have become the victims of this 'unclear system' which profoundly influences the identity of each institution as a distinct unit. This point was raised in the (SACS) report:

'When an institution is a unit of a multi-unit system of educational institutions, the administration, management, financial and student accounting and general operations must be such as to reflect clearly the identity of one institution as distinct from the other units of the system with general policy outlines laid down by the controlling or coordinating boards of the system or systems.'⁽¹⁾

(SACS) recommended that careful and continuous evaluation be undertaken to ensure that as long as the institutes are identified as separate operational units, the institutes be clearly identified and distinct from other units of the system.

In the early 1980's the state authorities recommended the establishment of an autonomous system able to move all technical education in Kuwait into yet another phase of development. This new movement in the administrative development of the technical and vocational education in Kuwait will be considered in the next section.

(1) SACS Report, op.cit., p.167.

Figure (6.1)

The levels of authority in Administiring the Higher Institutes of Technical and Vocational Education

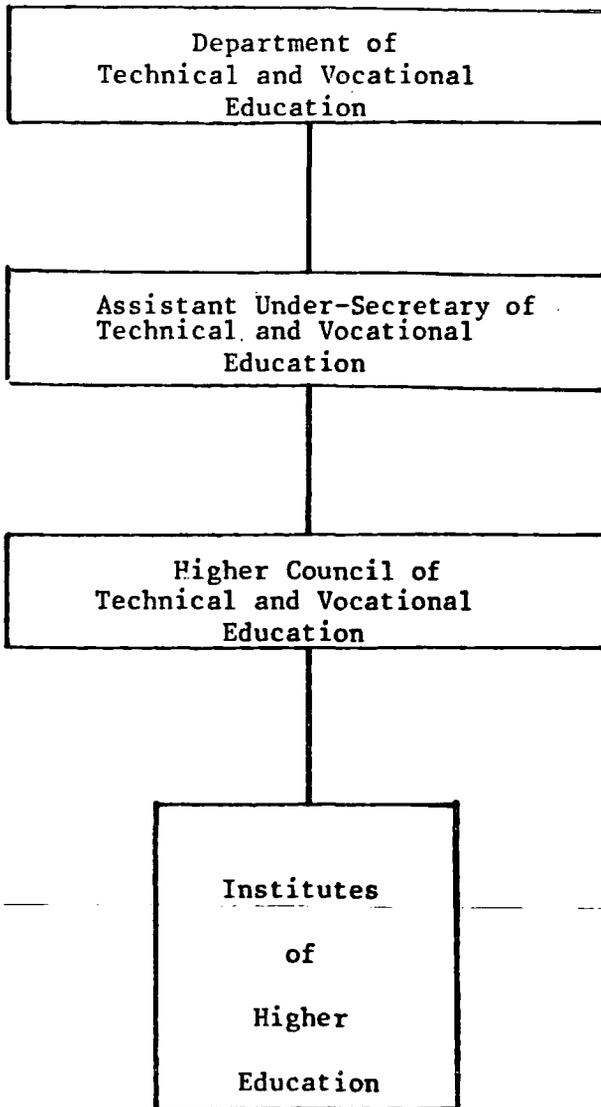


Figure (6.1)

THE PUBLIC AUTHORITY FOR APPLIED EDUCATION AND TRAINING: (PAAET)

This Authority was established by Law number 63 in 1982. The law was specifically concerned with removing technical and vocational education from the direct control of the Ministry of Education. Article one of the Law provided for the 'Establishment of a legal and prestigious authority for applied education and training'. The Law made it clear that the new authority for applied education and training reflected more accurately the role of technical and vocational education in Kuwait. It proposes involvement in a broader range of programmes, from specific training to general educational preparation and from lower level entry job skills to highly advanced technical trainees. The term 'Public Authority' is also generally recognized as indicating a more independent role for applied education within the total education system. The first step toward change was the transfer of the work of the old Department of Technical and Vocational Education in the Ministry of Education to the new public authority. After that the six institutions of higher education (Teachers, Business, Health and Technology) and the central training which had been located in the Ministry of Social Affairs, were also transferred to the Public Authority.

Article (2) of the law comprehensively promoted the objectives of technical higher education. First, it sought to provide the trained labour-force needed in all production and service fields. Second, it aimed to develop the national labour-force in both government and private agencies. Third, it was designed to develop the Kuwaiti

labour-force by providing practical and professional programmes. Fourth, the authorities were anxious to promote job-satisfaction among the labour-force.

The administrative structure of the public authority was laid down in Articles (3), (4), (5) and (6). The Board of Trustees has substantial authority in terms of ultimate decision-making. The Board consists of the Minister of Education as the chairman. He is assisted by the Director who is legally responsible for implementing the policies and decisions that have been taken by the Board. Other members of the Board are the under-secretaries at the Ministry of Planning, the Ministry of Social Affairs, and the Ministry of Education. In addition there are representatives from Kuwait University, the Board of Kuwait Trade and Industry, the Kuwait Labour Unions, the Oil Sector, and two experts appointed by the Cabinet.

The Board of Trustees deals with the following matters:

- (1) Determines the policies and programmes of applied education and training and proposes decisions and regulations.
- (2) Establishes or closes down or combines the institutes and training centres.
- (3) Draws up the administrative rules and regulations concerning appointments and promotions, according to Article (5) and (38) of the Civil Service Law 1979.

- (4) Sets the admission procedures, length of study and approves diplomas and certificates.
- (5) Determines the salaries and allowances of the teaching staff and trainees.
- (6) Decides the annual budget for the Public Authority and the Institutes.
- (7) Disseminates information about applied education and training throughout the society.
- (8) Sets scholarship procedures for the employees and the teaching staff.

In addition to the Board of Trustees, there is the Public Authority Administrative Council. The Ministerial Resolution Number 19/1983 is concerned with the structure and functions of this council. The Minister of Education is Senior Supervisor of the Council, the General Director is the Superior Exclusive Officer, and the three Assistant Directors are responsible for each of these separate sectors. The following are the main responsibilities of these sectors:

Research and Planning Sector: is responsible for proposing the research policy and conducting applied studies to serve the aims of the technical and vocational education. This sector consists of two departments:

- (1) Department of Research and Applied Studies.
- (2) Department of Planning and Information.

The Technical Affairs Sector: is responsible for programmes coordination, registration and student affairs, the staffing of the institutes and centres, services and equipment. This sector is organized into three departments:

- (1) Department of Institutes and Training Centres Affairs.
- (2) Department of Registration and Student Affairs.
- (3) Department of Curriculum and Cultural Affairs.

The third sector is concerned with financial and administrative matters: in this section the annual budget is estimated and presented for discussion by the Board of Trustees. This sector is also concerned with the hiring of employees and legal matters. This sector is organized into two departments:

- (1) Department of Financial and Administrative Affairs.
- (2) Department of General Services.

The Public Authority and the Higher Education Institutions

The Problem of Autonomy

From an optimistic point of view a considerable improvement should result from the advent of the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training. However there is no single optimism organization structure. In this context it would probably be premature to criticize the work of the Public Authority during the last three years. It is more constructive to examine the ability of this new organization to improve higher education institutions at the present time and in the future. Law Number 63/1982 created a 'dependent organization' although the Law

in article one stated that: it is 'a prestigious organization' which gives the impression that it is free from outside controls. However a careful examination of Articles (2), (3), (4), (5), (6) and (7) reveals that there is intervention from the Ministry of Education. For instance, the Minister of Education is the president of the Board of Trustees and the Senior Supervisor of the Administrative Council of PAAET, has the authority to veto any decision which is not in accordance with general government policy. Another example of intervention is Article (3) which stipulates that a majority of the members of the Board of Trustees must be official administrators (under-secretaries of three Ministries, and two experts appointed by the Cabinet). Article (8) states: 'The Public Authority should present a yearly comprehensive report to the Cabinet'. The report presents a detailed account of the work of the Public Authority and the progress of the institutes and training centres.

It remains to be seen how far the Board of Trustees in its present constitution will be able to implement the plans for this very important sector of education. Do the members have the time, the experience, and the knowledge to deal appropriately with this task. Since most of the members are civil servants and have daily responsibility as senior administrators in their Ministries?

The relationship between the higher institutions and the new system is another issue which needs to be clarified. When the changes became effective, the Public Authority took control in place of the Ministry of Education, and a new optimism was apparent. The Board of Directors of

the institutions has been constituted and has drawn up its rules and regulations. The teaching staff and personnel feel that the powers granted to them under the Public Authority will enable them better to accomplish the objectives assigned to them and to fulfil their primary mission of providing a professional indigenous cadre of manpower to meet the development needs of the country. The Director of the Business Institute, evaluated the relationship between the new system and the institutions of higher education. His report was published in 'Alsaisa Daily News'. The Director stated:

'Nothing has seriously changed since the establishment of the Public Authority of Applied Education and Training. We still experience the same old problems regarding students who need to feel that they are in real institutions for higher education, and teaching staff who still suffer from a lack of a suitable teaching climate. Some other problems have even become worse, such as the high rate of student drop out, or the closing down of some important sections in some institutes'.

The article also discusses the overlapping responsibilities between the institute's Directors and the Deputy Assistants in the Public Authority Central Office. On this point the Business Director is right when he says:

'During the last three years this problem has persisted even with the existence of Law Number 63 and several ministerial decrees. The real question is still whether the PAAET should serve the institutes or the institutes should serve the PAAET'.⁽¹⁾

(1) Alsiasa Daily News, 11 January 1986, p.6.

TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, RECENT DEFICIENCIES AND FUTURE
PROGRESS

The institutions of Higher Technical and Vocational Education in Kuwait now need to find appropriate answers to such questions as: What control should be exercised, by whom and what area? What is the future of the existing institutions? Do we need to reconsider their specializations and requirements? When should we start vocational training - before or after secondary education? And finally, how should public education relate to technology, industry and commerce?

The institutions of higher education in Kuwait have recently suffered from acute problems, without an assessment and solution of these problems we shall not be able to allow these institutions find their role in the development and advancement of the country. The following are some examples of these problems:

High rate of drop-out:

The PAAE annual statistics indicate that approximately one student out of three dropped out from the six existing institutes between 1978-1984. In 1983-1984, (2,316) students were admitted to the six higher institutes and (930) students 48 per cent dropped out, most of them in the first year study.

Table (6.10)

The drop-out rate in the Higher Institution of Technical
and Vocational Education, 1984-1985

Institutes	Enrolment 1984-1985	Students dropped-out	%
Teacher (men)	311	85	27
Teacher (women)	615	89	69
Business (men)	390	91	22.9
Business (women)	599	172	28.7
Technology (men)	443	139	31
Health (women)	174	56	31
Total	2538	632	25

Source: The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training, Annual Statistics, PAAET Publication, 1984-1985), p.33, p.44, p.144.

Low Rate of Output

The Higher Institutions of Technical and Vocational Education have to increase the number of their graduates to meet the present and future demand for a trained and specialized labour-force. In 1983-1984 the six institutes supplied only (1,751) graduates to the labour-market, 51.7 per cent from the teachers institutes, 29 per cent from the business institutes, 12 per cent from the technology institutes and 7.3 per cent

from the health institutes. As a result of this small number of graduates it will be difficult to reach a balance between supply and demand in either the short or the long run.

Admission in the Higher Institutions:

There are several reasons, why the higher education institutions except Kuwait University, have not yet attracted many secondary school graduates. One reason could be social circumstances, or the institutes themselves in terms of their programmes and areas of specialization could be another. It is possible that the advantages that are offered to the graduates such as salaries and other benefits are less than their expectations, therefore students prefer the university. The statistics show that in 1983-1984, (2,316) students were admitted to the six institutes, which number was less than 30 per cent of the secondary school graduates. More than 75 per cent came from the arts section of secondary education and were therefore considered unqualified to enrol in the Business and Technology Institutes since these institutes required a background in science and mathematics. 25 per cent of the students enrolled came from the science section which is a much smaller number than that needed by the Business and Technology Institutes. To secure a sufficient number of students, the Technology Institute admitted some secondary graduates from the art section and enrolled them in a preparation course for one term, then distributed them to the institute's specializations according to their interest and abilities.

Lower Enrolment in some Institutes:

There is a mismatch between the demand of the labour-market and the enrolment in the institutes of higher education. For example, in 1984-1985, 90 per cent of females and 60 per cent of males of the total enrolment wished to obtain places in the Teacher Institutes. In the same year only 16 per cent wished to enter the Technology Institutes, and 14 per cent enrolled in the Health Institute.

Higher Technical Institutions, a view of future:

The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training as the only organization responsible for professional education in the country is required to plan for the future.

The new strategy for the next five years (1985-1990) in the PAAET seeks to achieve the following objectives:

To increase the capacity of the institutes and training centres* from (6,830) students in 1984-1985 to (9,640) students in 1989-1990, an increase of 71 per cent.

* Training Centres: Provide a vocational training for students who dropped out or failed in the general education. The training centres came under the PAAET in 1982.

To increase the admission of new students from (5,000) in 1984-1985 to (6,820) in 1989-1990. The Institutes of Higher Education and the training centres will be able to admit a total of (28,950) Kuwaitis and (5,050) non-Kuwaitis.

The Public Authority for Applied Education and Training plans to establish twenty new specializations in the field of health services, industry, botany, and post experience training.

In the basis of this prediction of growth, the enrolment for the period of 1985-1990 in the higher education institutions and the training centres will be:

Table (6.11)

Growth of the enrolment prediction at the higher education institution and training centres, 1985-1990

(A) Higher Institutions:

	1985-86	1986-87	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	Total
Teacher (men)	346	370	397	413	422	1948
Teacher (women)	640	660	697	697	715	3389
Business (men)	548	674	693	610	803	3128
Business (women)	572	605	645	685	690	3197
Health (women)	113	125	135	205	220	798
Health (men)	296	310	322	348	379	1655
Technology (men)	591	611	625	650	660	3137
	3106	3255	3394	3608	3889	17202

Source: Ministry of Planning, A Five Year Plan, 1985-1990. (Central Statistical Press, 1985) p.118.

(B) The Training Centres:

	1985-86	1986-87	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	Total
Communication	630	650	675	750	780	3490
Civil Aviation	90	90	90	90	90	450
Elect & Water	120	120	120	120	120	750
Industrial	-	350	-	350	350	1050
Typewriting	-	-	-	-	250	250
Scholarship Courses	1095	1120	114	1160	1190	4679
Total	1940	2330	2025	2470	2470	11695

Source: Ibid., p.120.

The Public Authority predicts an increase in the output of the higher institutes and training centres in the next five years, 1985-1990. The total graduates will be (17,600), (11,000) technicians, (5,500) technical assistants and (1,100) skilled labours. Kuwait graduates are estimated to be (15,200), approximately 87 per cent.

The following tables give some other details:

Table (6.12)
Graduates prediction in the Higher Institutions

Institutes	1985-86	1986-87	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	Total
Teacher (men)	254	264	277	300	305	1400
Teacher (women)	518	523	549	562	573	2770
Business (men)	137	182	193	199	220	967
Business (women)	368	398	416	440	481	212
Health (men)	36	38	45	60	70	249
Health (women)	155	161	166	190	195	867
Technology	216	220	224	230	240	1130
Total	1738	1786	1870	1981	2084	9959

Source: Ibid., p.122.

Table (6.13)
 Graduates prediction in the Training Centres

Institutes	1985-86	1986-87	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	Total
Communication	398	410	428	460	495	2191
Civil Aviation	58	58	58	58	58	290
Elect & Water	100	100	100	100	165	565
Industrial	160	-	200	-	210	670
Typewriting	-	-	-	-	-	-
Scholarship	875	890	900	910	940	4515
Total	1591	1458	1686	1528	1868	8131

Source: Ibid, p.122.

It is probably valid to conclude that technical and vocational education in its present structure does not seem satisfactory. The Public Authority plans for the next five years to increase the capacity of the institutions and hopes that the students will come forward to fill the places. But they have not done so in the past, why should they in the future? The Public Authority needs to research the very real problems that urgently face this kind of education, whether they are financial or a decision making problems, whether they are related to the students themselves or to the programmes and activities that are offered to them in the higher institutions of technical education. Also it is the responsibility of the Public Authority to reorganise these institutions in such a way to make them much more attractive to the students' life and their interests and also to the needs of the country's development.

The next chapter will concern with the University Education in Kuwait. The analysis and discussion will emphasise the development and significance of this type of education in Kuwait society. Several matters will be raised concerning the administrative structure of Kuwait University and other questions will arise regarding the present and the future of this important sector of education in Kuwait society.

CHAPTER SEVEN

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN KUWAIT; RECENT ACADEMIC AND ADMINISTRATION
PROBLEMS

- University Education role and significant.

- The need for University Education in Kuwait society.

- Administrative structure in Kuwait University, Law No. 29/1966.

- Kuwait University recent problems and view of the future.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION ROLE AND SIGNIFICANT:

There is a growing belief among educationalists, economists, and even laymen, that university education is highly significant for the development of the individual and of society. Thus, what is its role in the development of the society? The vice-chancellor of East Anglia saw the universities as producing 'superior men'; the vice-chancellor of Leeds hoped for 'thinking people'; the vice-chancellor of Lancaster believed that university education is concerned with 'wisdom'.⁽¹⁾ It remains to be seen which of these opinions proves correct in the Kuwaiti context.

In paragraph one of the Danish law of September 1970, for instance, it is stated that the aim of the university education is the conduct of research and teaching of a scholarly nature and that its task is to contribute to the general dissemination of knowledge and to the application of scientific and scholarly methods and their results.⁽²⁾

To meet the 'national needs' a new concept of university education emerged after World War II in Europe. The new concept implied that the university has a duty to help society solve its problems. Moreover, the new concept urged the universities to provide European societies with technologists, engineers of various specialities, economists of equally varied kinds, sociologists, psychologists, accountants, statisticians, and business managers, home economists, system analysts, experts in tourism, nursing, operational research and computers.

(1) Jack Embling, A Fresh Look at Higher Education, (Elsevier Scientific Publishing Company, 1974), p.7.

(2) Ibid., p.14.

The Carnegie Commission which studied higher education in the European countries in 1973, defines its role and purposes as:

'A basic responsibility to provide good educational opportunities for students, to provide an understanding of society, to obtain academic and technical competence in selected fields, to fulfil appropriate standards of academic conduct, and to explore cultural interests and enhance cultural skills.'⁽¹⁾

The advisory commission which studied the possibility of establishing a university in Kuwait, in the 1960's viewed the purpose of university education as follows:

- (1) It should preserve, develop, and transmit the culture of the community, an especially necessary role in societies facing rapid technological change.
- (2) It should help create a professional class to assist in the economic, social and cultural development of the society.
- (3) It should promote higher academic and social standards in the schools.
- (4) It should serve as a centre of learning where young people are giving a training in intellectual integrity and in social responsibility.
- (5) It should engage in the interchange of ideas with other universities, work on the discovery and spread of new knowledge and establish and maintain a high standard of academic and intellectual life.

(1) Ibid., p.25.

THE NEED FOR UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN KUWAIT SOCIETY

During the fifties and early sixties the majority of Kuwaiti graduates from secondary education, (art section and science section) who wished to pursue advanced studies had to go abroad.* The state offered full scholarships, including all expenses, to its students abroad and in addition, guaranteed a job for them when they returned home. In 1963-1964, 714 students were in receipt of these scholarships and were studying in various countries in the Arab world and in Europe and America. The rapid growth in the number of students who obtained the secondary school certificates who became eligible for higher education, and the reasons for the poor organization of the technical and vocational institutions during the 1960's, have been examined in Chapter Six. For these reasons and the development of the educational system, and the planning for the advancement of the country, the idea of establishing a university was put forward and became a matter of discussion and debate among the senior authorities in the state, the National Assembly, and the Public Professional Associations.

From this debate there emerged two sharply contrasting opinions. The establishment of a university was considered undesirable by those who thought that a small society like Kuwait had to be very careful in investing and spending its revenue, and that priority should be given to improving primary and secondary education and only then, should attention be given to expanding higher education.

* In the academic year of 1963-1964, there were 337 students in U.A.R., 37 students in Lebanon, 20 students in Syria, 2 students in Iraq, 124 students in the United Kingdom, 190 students in the U.S.A., 2 students in West Germany and 2 students in Switzerland.

Source: Jaswant Singh, Education Planning in Kuwait, (Unpublished Report, Ministry of Education, 1967), p.202.

Dr Constantine Z Zureiq in a report prepared in 1963 pointed out: 'Kuwait has no need of a university which would be a carbon copy of any other Arab university'. He noted that unlike other Arab countries Kuwait had a shortage of students but an abundance of resources. Dr Constantine proposed an undergraduate College of Arts and Sciences to train teachers and public servants. Professional needs, he advised, could be met by contract with other universities for at least a decade. (1)

It would be better, therefore, for Kuwaiti youth to attend institutions of excellence abroad than to acquire a second rate education at home. This argument was supported by of these who had other reservations about the creation of a university.

Those who supported the idea of the establishment of a university in Kuwait strongly believed that it would not be appropriate to delay any longer a decision necessary for the development of the country. The supporters thought first that a state university would provide ~~opportunities for study for a larger number of citizens, since the~~ economic development of the country had created a need for a body of professionally educated and qualified Kuwaitis in such fields as engineering, technology, science, business, medicine, law and education. Secondly, as in other developing countries, a university would provide prestige for a newly independent Kuwait by serving as a sign of the intellectual life and development of the country. The university would constitute an important symbol of national maturity and dignity. Since

(1) Constantine Zureiq, Report in the Establishment of Kuwait University, (Kuwait Government Press, 1963), p.9. [in Arabic].

it was an age of university development everywhere, establishing a university in Kuwait was seen as the embodiment of an idea whose time had come. Moreover, Kuwait had the money to establish a university. The proposal could therefore be implemented without fear, delay, or hesitation. Thirdly, establishing a university would lead in the social and cultural context, to the advancement of Kuwait society through promoting knowledge and conducting research and experiment.

In the late 1950's the need for a university in Kuwait became a national concern. Cornell, M⁽¹⁾ in her exhaustive study of the development of Kuwait university lists some of the arguments that were advanced demonstrating the need for a university in Kuwait. The following is a summary of her discussion:

- (1) The rapid growth in the number of schools at all levels meant that larger numbers of teachers were being hired from other parts of the Arab world. This situation generated concern that expatriate teachers might socialize and politicize the student body with non-Kuwaiti interests or possibly depreciate or disregard Kuwaiti interests and aspirations. It also raised the question of the relationship of Kuwaitis to non-Kuwaiti teachers, given that Kuwaitis were in a minority in the schools. Even by the early 1960's, for example, non-Kuwaitis comprised 95 per cent of the teachers in the country. The urgent need for a sufficient number of trained Kuwaiti teachers for intermediate and secondary schools virtually necessitated the establishment either of higher teacher training institutions or of a university level college of education.

(1) Cornell, Marguerite L, op.cit., pp.204-206.

- (2) As the number of graduates increased, the number of those wishing to continue their education also rose. Government policy had been to send students abroad for higher education. However, as numbers grew it was foreseen that this policy would prove prohibitively expensive. Moreover, it was also seen to be impracticable, since universities in other countries, whether in the Arab world or in Europe, were finding it difficult to provide places for their own students, let alone for Kuwaitis. Moreover, Kuwaitis considered that if it were not possible for Kuwaiti students to secure places in good universities there did not seem much point in sending them abroad.
- (3) Sending students abroad obviously meant that as the numbers increased a larger segment of Kuwaiti youth would be subject, at a vital and impressionable period in their lives, to foreign influence. Cornell added that there was also a danger that people trained abroad might acquire elitist attitudes and values regarded as incompatible with the general trends of life in Kuwait. Moreover as many young people had not yet developed stable patterns of life and study it was considered possible that, in being away from home supervision, they might not benefit from their studies.
- (4) Cornell continues, although at the end of 1950's, the number of Kuwaiti female secondary students was small (probably less than 400) fifty of the graduates in 1960 were given government scholarships to continue their studies abroad. However, in some cases, girls from religiously conservative families were not

allowed to leave Kuwait to pursue their education away from home, since their reputation as chaste young women was important for their chances of marriage and could not be adequately safeguarded while they were away.

The Foundation of Kuwait University:

In 1960 a commission of three distinguished scholars* was invited by the Department of Education, to study and report on the advisability of the establishment of a university in Kuwait, and to make recommendations on when and how this project should be implemented. The university advisory commission reported on matters that related to the purposes of the proposed university.

Kuwait youth needed the opportunity to explore their country's unique history and traditions along with its present and future development in order to use this knowledge in the services of the Arab community and the world at large.

* The three scholars had considerable and distinguished experience in university life and development. Sir Ivor Jennings, from England, a lawyer and professor of law at Cambridge, had long association with universities in England and in the developing world.

Dr Suleiman Huzain, PhD (Manchester) from Egypt, had been the Under-Secretary of State for Education in Cairo 1954, and was the rector of Assiute University in Egypt 1955-1965.

Dr Constantine Zureiq, PhD (Princeton) a Syrian, professor of History, author on Arab Culture and Philosophy and former rector of the Syrian University 1944-1952.

A University and a community of university graduates would provide the means and the support for the development of these interests. The commission considered that the university in Kuwait should first concentrate on providing a broad general type of education suitable for the needs of a small country that required a labour force which was not specialized, but which had to be able to provide a vast array of services. The commission recommended that colleges or departments of arts and science should form the basis of the university, providing studies in Arabic and English language, history, geography, economics or commerce, education, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology and geology. It suggested that law should not be offered initially, except for some courses in commercial law. As regards engineering, the commission considered that the basic training prior to specialization could be given by the science department which in due course would develop programmes in the more specialized fields of engineering most suitable and appropriate to Kuwait economy. As for medicine, the commission recommended that studies in this field should not be offered initially, although pre-medical courses could be provided by the science department.

The commission considered the future role that should be played by a university in Kuwait. In their opinion this role had three aspects; in the Arabian Gulf, a university in Kuwait could offer education to the Arab Gulf students and thus assist in a revival of the region. In the Arab world it could provide not only technical and professional education but maintain and uphold Arab and Islamic spiritual and moral values. It could also participate in scientific and intellectual exchanges with other Arab universities, to the benefit of all.

Accordingly, to obtain the benefits outlined by the advisory commission, the decision was made to open a university in Kuwait in the academic year 1966-1967. From one point of view the decision reflected a real need to find alternatives to sending the Kuwaiti students abroad. From another, the decade of the sixties was viewed as a turning point in the history of the country, which was in transition from a simple pattern of society to a fully independent state. This transition meant more for Kuwaitis than being politically free, it was further seen as a search for identity. This point is made by Al Ebraheem and Stevens:

'Thus, in some ways the decision to found Kuwait university was perhaps less the result of extensive studies on the prerequisites of a modern university than of a desire to assert a Kuwait identity in the face of ⁽¹⁾strong pressures which deny the country's very existence.'

The Government of Kuwait finally responded to these pressures and showed considerable flexibility in handling decisions to found the university. For there existed a fear that a university in Kuwait might become in future a centre for radical and subversive ideas. Although the government looked at the idea of university from a positive point of view, a fear for the future however existed.

The events of 1978, when the government forced the Kuwait university administration to prevent the student's unionization and to prohibit political activities was evidence of that fear.

(1) Al Ebraheem and R Stevens, 'Organization, Management and Academic Problems in the Arab University: The Kuwait University Experience', (Higher Education, 9:205,1980).

The Minister of Education and Chancellor of Kuwait University in his address on the occasion of the university's opening celebration, drew a picture of what the government of Kuwait expected from university education. He said:

'Such a remarkable development in the field of education would not have been complete without the existence of a university which will raise the standard of education in general, be the basis for the development of life and culture, and strengthen its status, besides providing the country with scientists, men⁽¹⁾ of arts, teachers, engineers, medical staff, business men, etc.'

Kuwait University was opened in October 1966 with two faculties:

(1) Science - offering mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, and geology. And (2) Arts - offering Arabic language, and literature, English language, history, geography, philosophy and sociology and education and psychology. In the first year, 418 students were registered in the two faculties, 269 were male and 149 were female. This number represented 70 per cent of the total number of students graduating from the secondary schools. In the following year 1967-1968, the number of students reached 516 an increase of 23 per cent. The percentage of females became 46.5. The number of students continued to grow, reaching 1271 in 1972-1973. The percentage of females overtook that of males in that year, reaching 58 per cent of the total student enrolment. In the academic year of 1973-1974, the university began to introduce the two-semester system. First it was adopted by the faculty of commerce, then in 1975-1976 it was made general for all faculties.

(1) The Minister of Education address has published in the Arai Alam daily newspaper, in 30.10.1966, p.3. [in Arabic].

After that the university began to accept students at the start of each of the two terms. In the academic year 1984-1985 Kuwait university statistics showed that there were 15,471 students housed on six campuses, and in nine faculties. As a result of this unplanned increase in the number of students, Kuwait University started at the beginning of the eighties to experience the problem of over-enrolment, a problem principally for the university administration and which raised questions concerning the ability of that administration. The next table gives more details in the growth of the student body of Kuwait University in the period 1966-1985. The expansion in student admissions was associated with an expansion in new faculties and new departments. In 1967-1968, two further faculties were opened, law and commerce. In 1975-1976, the faculty of engineering and petroleum technology was opened. That was followed by the establishment of the faculty of medicine in 1976-1977. In the academic year 1979-1980, the faculty of education was separated from the faculty of arts. Finally, the department of shari'a (Islamic Law) was separated from the faculty of law to become an independent faculty, the faculty of shari'a and Islamic Studies, in 1982-1983.

Table (7.1)

The growth of the student enrolment in Kuwait University, 1966-1985

Years	Kuwaiti		Gulf		Expartriate		Total
	Students	%	Students	%	Students	%	
1966-1967	309	86	30	7	29	7	418
1967-1968	705	80	94	11	82	9	881
1968-1969	965	73	209	16	146	11	1320
1969-1970	1231	73	242	14	224	13	1697
1970-1971	1329	67	374	19	285	14	1988
1971-1972	1590	61	517	20	486	19	2593
1972-1973	1794	58	653	21	657	21	3104
1973-1974	1978	52	749	20	1107	28	3831
1974-1975	2153	49	813	18	1452	14	4418
1975-1976	2801	48	913	16	2118	36	5832
1976-1977	3937	53	1045	14	2490	33	7472
1977-1978	3651	54	878	13	2274	33	6803
1978-1979	5328	67	922	12	1722	21	7972
1979-1980	6071	72	734	9	1642	19	8451
1980-1981	6526	75	429	5	1732	20	8687
1981-1982	7096	77	301	3	1773	20	9170
1982-1983	8197	74	271	2	2561	24	11029
1983-1984	9621	74	293	2	3062	24	12976
1984-1985	11202	72	327	2	3942	26	15471

Source: Kuwait University: University of Kuwait in Year 18 (University of Kuwait Press, 1985), p.41. [in Arabic].

Faculties and Student Distribution in Kuwait University:

The Faculty of Arts is the largest in terms of the number of students and the number of departments (Arabic, English, History, Geography, Psychology, Philosophy and Sociology). During the first academic year 1966-1967, 322 males and females were accepted. Of those students 287 were Kuwaitis, representing 74.5 per cent of the total enrolment in the first university year. In the first semester of 1984-1985, the total enrolment in the Arts faculty reached 5050 males and females, the number of students had multiplied more than 14 times over 19 years. It also indicates that one third of the total students in the University are in the Faculty of Arts (see Table 2).

It is noted from the table that Arts specializations increasingly attract large numbers of students, particularly female students, who represented 62 per cent of the total enrolment in 1983-1984. This raises a major point as to whether there is a need for this kind of specialization to meet the demand of the country's labour force.

The Faculty of Science comes second in terms of student enrolment. Study in this faculty started with the first year of the university in 1966-1967. The academic curricula in the Faculty of Science were divided into three categories: The first included pure mathematics, applied mathematics, physics, chemistry. The second included chemistry, zoology, physics and mathematics. And the third, chemistry, geology, physics, and mathematics.

The number of students in the Faculty of Science increased from 80 students in 1966 to 2890 in the first semester of 1984-1985; the number almost multiplied 33 times in 19 years (see table 3). Table (3) shows that Kuwaiti students initially constituted 81 per cent, while students from other countries only 19 per cent in 1966-1967. Ten years later the situation was reversed as the Kuwaitis had decreased to approximately 45 per cent of the total enrolment in the Faculty of Science. In the academic year 1984-1985 the ratio of Kuwaitis altered slightly to approximately 52 per cent of the total enrolment. This is another point of concern which needs to be discussed. Also, from table (3) it is clear that the ratio between Kuwaiti males and females has reversed for the reason that female students have not had the same opportunity to study abroad due to social circumstances. The table shows that in 1966-1967 males represented two third of the total Kuwaiti enrolment. In 1976-1977, the ratio became 44 per cent male and 56 per cent female. Recently only 36 per cent of the total enrolment of the Faculty of Science is male.

Study in the Faculty of Law began in the academic year 1967-1968. 56
students, 40 males and 16 females were distributed in five different departments:

- (1) Constitutional Law and Islamic Studies
- (2) Private Law
- (3) Public Law
- (4) Criminal Law
- (5) International Law

The number of students nearly doubled in the following year 1968-1969. Male student enrolment was higher than female as detailed in table (4).

Study in the Faculty of Commerce started in 1967-1968, only one year after the founding of the university. 150 males and females were enrolled in the faculty in its first academic year. In 1984-1985 the number of students reached 1977 an increase 13 times in a period of 19 years. The Faculty of Commerce offers five different specifications:

- (1) Business Administration
- (2) Accounting
- (3) Economics
- (4) Political Sciences
- (5) Statistics and Insurance

Student's distribution in the above specializations indicate that a large proportion joined the department of Business Administration, 30 per cent of the total students in the faculty were in this department in 1984-1985. The Department of Accounting is the next largest, its popularity and importance have increased as is indicated by the fact that while student enrolment represented 25 per cent in 1980-1981, it rose to 29 per cent in 1984-1985. The Economics Department comes third with percentages ranging between 21 per cent and 26 per cent of the total students, followed by the Department of Political Sciences from 11 per cent to 15 per cent. The Department of Statistics and Insurance come last where the number of students did not exceed 7 per cent in 1982-1983 and declined to 5 per cent in the academic year 1984-1985 (see table 5).

In the academic year 1975-1976 Kuwait University opened the Faculty of Engineering, which primarily aims to conduct research and engineering studies which will contribute to the progress and development of the state of Kuwait. The faculty was started with three departments,

Electrical Engineering, Civil Engineering and Mechanical Engineering. A fourth department, Chemical Engineering was opened a year later.

In the first year 127 students were enrolled in the faculty, 30 per cent were in Electrical Engineering, 51 per cent were in Civil Engineering, and 19 per cent were in Mechanical Engineering (see Table 6).

The Faculty of Medicine was opened in the academic year 1977-1978, to meet the state's demands for doctors in all specializations. The faculty is divided into three principal stages: The first comprises two academic years considered as the pre-medical stages which the students spend in the Faculty of Science and the Faculty of Arts taking subjects such as sciences, mathematics and English language. The curriculum follows the course system applied at the university. The second stage consists of two years, considered as the pre-clinical stage, where the main medical sciences are taught. The courses offered during this period are inter-connected. After this, stage is successfully completed, the student is granted the Bachelor's Degree in Basic Medical Sciences. The third stage consists of three years, considered as the clinical phase, during which the students study the various branches of clinical medicine in hospitals. This is a period of specialized study, the curricula for which cannot be divided since the subjects are integral and interrelated in nature and require study for a period of three years. The Faculty of Medicine comprises 15 departments, which are as follows: Medical Biochemistry, Anatomy, Pathology, Community Medicine, Microbiology, Physiology, Pharmacology, Internal Medicine, Surgery, Obstetrics, Gynaecology, Paediatrics, Radiology, Nuclear Medicine, Primary Care, Organ Transplantation, Psychiatry.

One hundred students were registered in the first semester of 1977-1978, 70 of them were Kuwaiti and 30 were non-Kuwaiti. The number of students multiplied almost four-fold to reach 409 students by 1984-1985. More detail of student enrolment in the Faculty of Medicine is given in Table (7).

The Faculty of Nursing and Allied Health began its academic programme in the year 1979-1980. The length of study is four years, leading to the Bachelor's Degree in Allied Medical Sciences and Nursing. 91 students joined the faculty in its first year. The number of students rose to 153 in the following year, 1980-1981. By 1984-1985, 246 students were enrolled in the Faculty, an increase of 170 per cent in six years, (see Table 8). It can be seen from the table that most of the students were female, more than 80 per cent of the total enrolment, except of the academic year 1982-1983 when the female percentage dropped to 68 per cent. This situation possibly results from the fact that the faculty provides a programme more suitable for females than males in a social context. On the other hand, it may reflect that nursing as a professional career, is still not attractive to men, and the faculty in general is one of the lowest in terms of enrolment compared with others.

The Faculty of Education was opened in 1981-1982. However, studies in education started with the establishment of the university in 1966-1967 in the Arts and Science Faculties. The Faculty of Education prepares students to be teachers in intermediate and secondary schools. The faculty has been divided into four major departments:

- (1) Administration and Educational Planning
- (2) Comparative Education
- (3) Curriculum and Teaching Methods
- (4) Educational Psychology

399 students joined the faculty in its first year. In the following year 1982-1983, the number rose to 908, an increase of 168 per cent. In 1984-1985 the number of registered students increased to 2235. More details of the growth of student enrolment in the Faculty of Education are shown in table (9).

Table (7.2)

Student Growth in the Faculty of Arts

Departments	1966-1967			1983-1984		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Arabic	20	12	32	179	236	415
English	16	34	50	235	785	1020
History	40	32	72	296	249	545
Geography	72	30	102	486	350	846
Psychology	29	47	76	183	583	766
Philosophy	-	-	-	124	134	258
Sociology	-	-	-	168	405	568
Total	177	155	332	1672	2742	4418

Source: University of Kuwait in year 18, op.cit., pp.73-76.

Table (7.3)

Student growth in the Faculty of Science

Years	Kuwaitis		T	Non-Kuwaitis		T	Total
	Female	Male		Female	Male		
1966-1967	17	55	72	4	10	14	86
1967-1968	32	61	93	17	23	40	133
1968-1969	45	58	103	22	69	91	194
1969-1970	67	65	132	35	94	129	261
1970-1971	79	63	142	55	116	171	313
1971-1972	124	106	230	98	160	258	488
1972-1973	140	98	238	188	277	465	703
1973-1974	189	117	306	314	401	715	1021
1974-1975	221	103	324	370	474	844	1168
1975-1976	327	184	511	452	661	1113	1624
1976-1977	396	269	665	501	716	1217	1882
1977-1978	549	356	905	510	817	1327	2232
1978-1979	576	275	851	409	466	875	1726
1979-1980	603	295	898	359	420	779	1677
1980-1981	668	265	933	312	291	603	1536
1981-1982	729	288	1017	305	269	574	1591
1982-1983	857	434	1291	385	338	723	2014
1983-1984	855	569	1424	519	469	988	2412
1984-1985	931	578	1509	728	653	1381	2890

Source: Ibid., pp. 142-143.

Table (7.4)

Student Growth in the Faculty of Law

Years	Kuwaitis		T	Non-Kuwaitis		T	Total
	Female	Male		Female	Male		
1967-1968	15	36	51	1	4	4	56
1968-1969	21	67	88	2	15	17	105
1969-1970	33	86	119	4	19	23	142
1970-1971	44	98	142	6	23	29	171
1971-1972	71	108	179	13	27	40	219
1972-1973	84	113	197	32	35	67	264
1973-1974	88	105	193	20	44	64	257
1974-1975	84	102	186	29	59	88	274
1975-1976	77	117	194	58	88	140	340
1976-1977	104	169	273	86	139	225	498
1977-1978	105	144	249	43	73	116	365
1978-1979	142	217	359	42	58	100	458
1979-1980	213	263	476	36	52	88	564
1980-1981	183	292	475	39	57	96	571
1981-1982	217	383	600	31	42	73	673
1982-1983	250	469	719	40	48	88	807
1983-1984	268	587	855	43	47	91	946
1984-1985	286	635	903	48	59	107	1028

Source: Ibid., p. 205.

Table (7.5)

Student Growth in the Faculty of Commerce

Years	Kuwaitis		T	Non-Kuwaitis		T	Total
	Male	Female		Male	Female		
1967-1968	73	38	111	30	9	39	150
1968-1969	161	66	227	75	25	100	327
1969-1970	231	109	340	83	36	119	459
1970-1971	278	166	444	125	72	197	641
1971-1972	315	232	547	206	135	341	888
1972-1973	309	313	622	261	187	448	1070
1973-1974	326	326	652	252	187	439	1097
1974-1975	331	371	702	242	204	446	1148
1975-1976	389	394	783	310	245	555	1338
1976-1977	573	433	1006	368	295	663	1669
1977-1978	599	494	1093	283	263	546	1639
1978-1979	723	588	1311	296	155	451	1762
1979-1980	782	637	1419	214	174	388	1807
1980-1981	823	710	1533	214	174	388	1921
1981-1982	830	727	1557	157	143	300	1857
1982-1983	725	728	1453	147	136	280	1733
1983-1984	729	700	1429	164	151	315	1744
1984-1985	784	819	1603	208	166	374	1977

Source: Ibid., pp. 236-237.

Table (7.6)

The distribution of students among the Departments
of the Faculty of Engineering

Years	Electrical	Civil	Mechanical	Chemical	Total
1975-1976	38	65	24	-	127
1976-1977	57	163	39	45	304
1977-1978	44	245	37	72	398
1978-1979	83	322	55	122	582
1979-1980	119	398	80	146	743
1980-1981	168	438	116	208	930
1981-1982	196	432	138	234	1000
1982-1983	239	382	181	239	1041
1983-1984	257	365	192	256	1070
1984-1985	331	430	213	285	1259

Source: Ibid., p. 283

Table (7.7)

Student Growth in the Faculty of Medicine

Years	Kuwaitis	Non-Kuwaitis	Total	Kuwaitis %
1977-1978	70	30	100	57.2
1978-1979	118	40	158	66
1979-1980	165	60	225	63.6
1980-1981	199	72	271	63.8
1981-1982	245	88	333	64
1982-1983	270	112	382	58.5
1983-1984	289	107	396	62.9

Source: Kuwait University, Information Department, Annual Reports of, 1977-1978/1978-1979/1979-1980/1980-1981/1981-1982/1982-1983/1983-1984 (Kuwait University Press), [in Arabic].

Table (7.8)

Student Growth in the Faculty of Nursing and Allied Health

Years	Kuwaitis		Non-Kuwaitis		Total
	Female	Male	Female	Male	
1979-1980	52	4	26	9	91
1980-1981	77	6	49	21	153
1981-1982	74	9	51	22	156
1982-1983	82	18	73	32	205
1983-1984	110	17	54	20	201
1985-1986	139	19	64	24	246

Source: Kuwait University, Information Department, Annual Reports of, 1979-1980/1980-1981/1981-1982/1982-1983/1983-1984/1984-1985 [in Arabic].

Table (7.9)

Student Growth in the Faculty of Education

Years	Kuwaitis			Non-Kuwaitis			Total
	Female	Male	T	Female	Male	T	
1981-1982	169	156	325	11	10	21	346
1982-1983	525	339	864	31	14	42	909
1983-1984	909	493	1402	49	22	71	1473
1984-1985	1402	645	2047	140	38	178	2225

Source: Kuwait University, Information Department, Annual Reports of, 1981-1982/1982-1983/1983-1984/1984-1985, (Kuwait University Press), [in Arabic]

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE IN KUWAIT UNIVERSITY, LAW NO. 29/1966

The organizational and administrative structure in Kuwait University has been regulated by law number 29 passed in the year 1966. The law has 44 articles and was the first in the country to implement state control for the institutions of higher education. In Articles (1), (2) and (3) the law identifies the purposes of higher education and determines the faculties of learning. In regard to the purposes 'higher education is concerned to provide the country with specialists, technicians and experts in all branches of knowledge.' Further, higher education institutions should be particularly concerned about studies in Arabic and Islamic culture, and encourage relationships with other Arab and friendly universities and other centres of higher learning.

In defining the institutions of higher education, the law stated that: 'Institutions of higher education are, Faculty of Science, Faculty of Arts and Education, and a University Girls College. Moreover, it is possible to establish new faculties or terminate others by consulting the Council of Higher Education.' Each faculty of higher education should comprise a number of departments decided by the Ministry of Education after approval by the Council of Higher Education.

Articles (6), (7), (8), (9), (10), (11) and (12) deal with the organizational structure of the faculties of higher education. The Minister of Education is the chairman of the Higher Education Council and chancellor of the university, he authorizes the final decisions or

in some circumstances can request the faculties council and the sub-committees to study and report on matters that relate to the policies of higher education.

The Higher Education Advisor (the rector of Kuwait University) is appointed by the Minister of Education after approval by the State Cabinet. The rector must be a professor and have wide experience in university administration. Each faculty is managed by a Dean who must also be a professor, and may be required to manage more than one faculty.

Kuwait University Council:

The constitution of the University Council is described in Article (13) of law No. 29. The Minister of Education is authorized to form the University Council which should comprise the following posts:

- (1) The Minister of Education who is also president of the council.
- (2) The Rector of Kuwait University
- (3) The University Secretary-general
- (4) The Under-Secretary of the Ministry of Education
- (5) Deans of Faculties
- (6) Three representatives from the private sector
- (7) Three representatives from the government sector

The University Council meets monthly to study and report on the following matters: The Course plans, the duration of each course, and the examination rules. Regulate student admission according to each faculty's capacity, organize the student's social activities and sports, award academic degrees and diplomas, set the internal regulations for each faculty, determine the procedures for professional and staff appointments, and finally, administer financial affairs.

Figure (7.1)

The line of authority in the Kuwait University
Administrative Structure, according to Law No. 29, 1966:

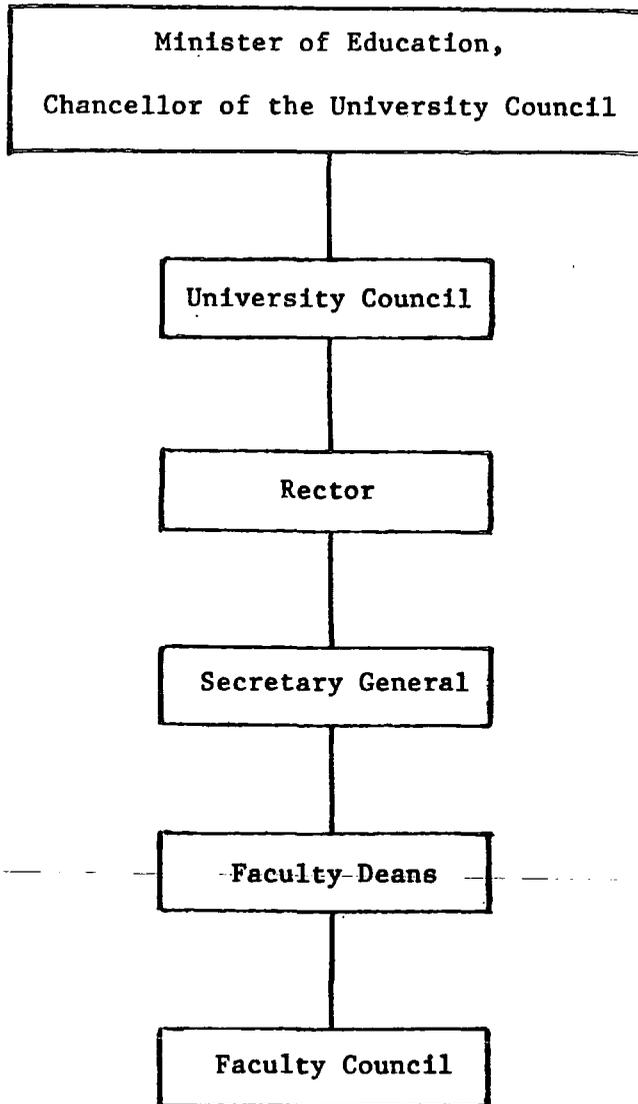


Figure (7.1)

These were the main provisions of Law No. 29 for the year 1966, which relate to the organization and administrative structure of Kuwait University's operations. The matter that need to be discussed further are: First, to what extent has Law No. 29 been adequate during the last twenty years? Second, to what extent will the Law be adequate for the future? There are those who believe that Kuwait University's recent problems, which will be discussed later, are the result of lack of vision and long term planning when the university was established in 1966. Cornell, for example, thinks that Kuwait University was opened too early, with the major part of the preparations being carried out only in 1965-1966. She pointed out that:

'there was insufficient time to develop an educational philosophy or to establish the lines of authority, the legal bases for university autonomy and academic freedom, or the policies regarding the positions of Kuwaiti and non-Kuwaiti teachers. Along with these many handicaps at the operational level,⁽¹⁾ the university itself was inadequate at the theoretical level.'

Steven and Al Ebraheem who was the first Kuwaiti rector of Kuwait University in 1975, also believe that Law No. 29 has contributed to the recent difficulties of Kuwait University. They describe the law as: 'too vague in many areas and too restrictive in others.'⁽²⁾ Furthermore, the Kuwait University Law was implemented by the first rector of Kuwait University who was an Egyptian. The Law might be suitable for circumstances prevailing in Ain Shams University in Cairo early in 1960's, where the concepts, functions and expectations of higher education were different. The Egyptian rector, after his installation in 1962, hired a number of administrators and librarians from the Egyptian Government to work in the Kuwait University. Less

(1) Cornell, M., op.cit., p.182.

(2) Steven and Al Ebraheem, op.cit., p.206.

than a year later in 1962-1963 the draft of Law No. 29 was ready to be presented to the Kuwait Government. This hasty preparation possibly contributed to the inappropriateness of the Law. The following discussion relates to the points raised above:

Kuwait University conformed to a pattern that had existed in the Arab world for a long time whose main function has been to prepare employees to work in government offices. This role for university education hampers most of the state's development plans in the Arab world, and has contributed very little to the progress of those countries.

Kuwait with its wealth and small population could benefit from the experience of other countries and select what seems most appropriate to its own economic and social needs.

Kuwait in 1960, as Dr Constantine Z state 'has no need for a university which would simply be a copy of any other Arab university.'

When the university was established, two faculties of pure sciences and arts were formed. The programmes which were followed in the two faculties were limited, conservative and drawn up in haste, with little relevance to the particular characteristics and needs of Kuwait society.

Law No. 29 in 1966 laid the foundation for the establishment of a university that was completely controlled by the state. In accordance with the Law, the rector, secretary general, and assistant secretary general of Kuwait University are appointed through An Amiri Decree, after approval by the Cabinet. Even the Deans and the chairmen of the departments are selected and appointed by the Minister of Education

It remains to consider whether the Law will be appropriate for the future. There is a tendency among the administrators and teachings staff in Kuwait University to accept the idea that Law No. 29 was and still is a stumbling-block to the expansion of the University. However, though this is widely agreed, there is no real pressure to change the Law. A group of enthusiastic Kuwaiti professors has criticized the Law in public lectures or in the daily newspapers. For example, Dr Tariq A the former chairman of the English Department in the Faculty of Arts, in an article published in the AlWatan Newspaper, wrote:

'Kuwait University in its recent organizational structure is not able to match the rapid change in society, and will not be able to do so in the future. Kuwait University needs to reconsider seriously its basic Law.' (1)

Dr M Almobark wrote in the same newspaper:

'Two factors may impede Kuwait University's progress. First, it is totally dependent on the state; second, it is governed by a weak Law.' (2)

The Teaching Staff Association in Kuwait University, which represents of the professors, has opposed Law No. 29. Dr Kh Abdulkareem, the chairman of the association, described the law as: 'opposed to autonomy and the principle of election and selection.' (3)

The Teaching Staff Society introduced an outline for a new Law which attempted to remove the weakness of the present Law and provide more adequately for the future development of university education in Kuwait. The projected Law emphasized the following areas:

(1) & (2) AlWatan Newspaper, 7.7.1984, p.5 [in Arabic].

(3) AlWatan Newspaper, 14.10.1984, p.6 (in Arabic).

(1) Creating a university totally free from intervention from other organizations. (Kuwait University is a scientific autonomous authority) (Article One).

(2) It proposed that in its academic and administrative structure, the university should be divided into three related levels:

The University Organization Level:

- The University Council
- The University Rector
- The Assistant Rector

The Faculty Level:

- The Faculty Council
- The Deans of Faculties
- The Assistant Deans

The Departmental Level:

- The Department Council
- The Chairman of the Departments

(3) The projected Law emphasized in most of its articles that there should be a set of norms that should be followed in the appointments to higher posts, or in the determination of the authority of the university councils or committees. For example, in the appointment of the Rector, article (11) suggests that three candidates should be selected by Kuwaiti professors, and that one of the three should be appointed by the University Council as rector for a period of four years.

Figure (7.2)

Kuwait University Administrative Structure as proposed by the
Teaching Staff Society in 1984

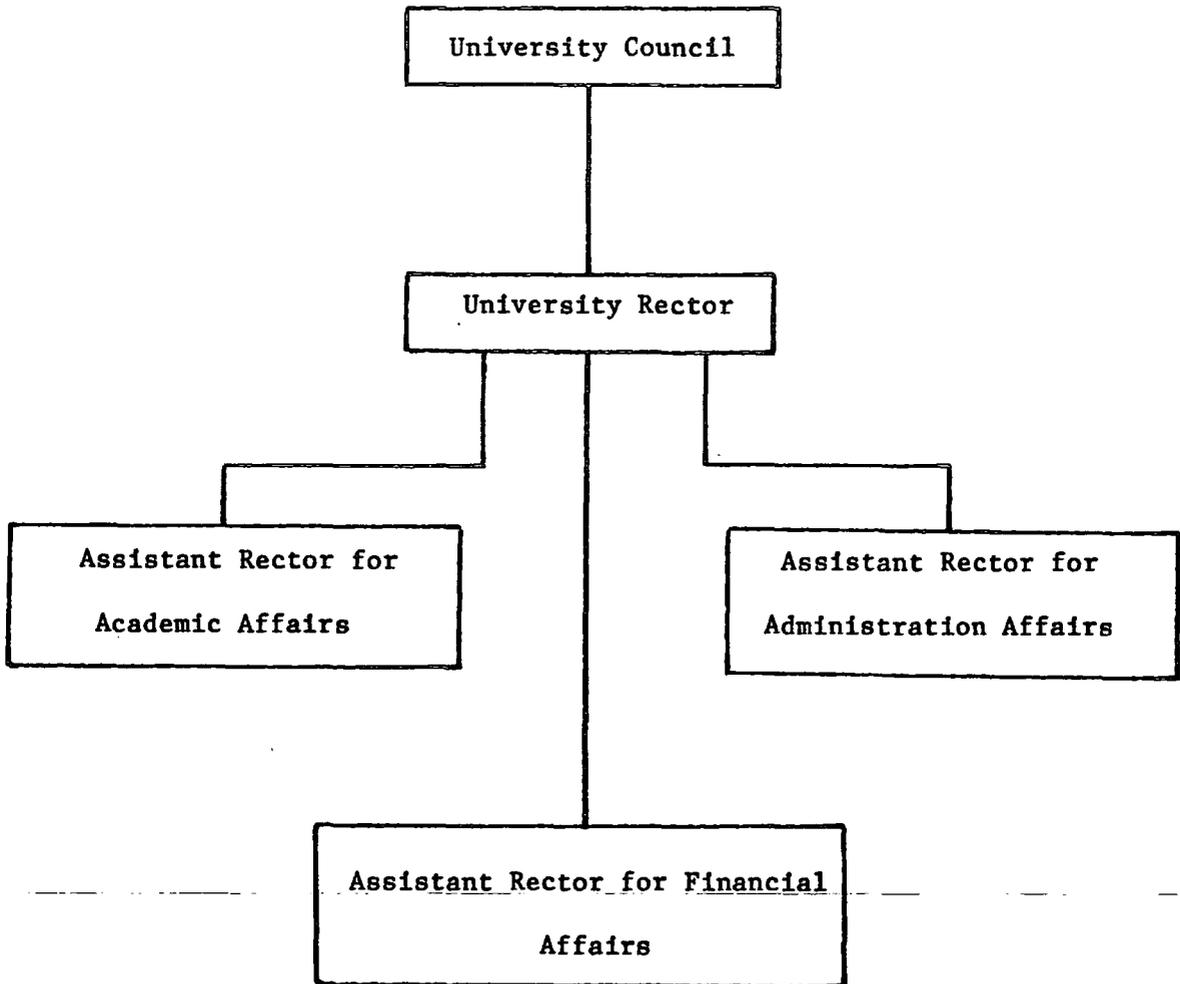


Figure (7.2)

(4) The projected Law is very much concerned with the teaching staff's rights, promotion and academic freedom. Articles (37) to (55) deal with this matter. For instance, Article (38) stipulates that 'freedom for scientific research is guaranteed for all teaching staff.'

Kuwait University today is no longer a small university with a few hundred students and two or three faculties. The university at present is a large institution of higher learning, housing more than 15,000 students and includes nine faculties and many specialized departments. Such growth involves a qualitative as well as a quantitative change and we should expect that the function of university education would also be changing. Modern universities have a distinctive role that must be filled by both scholars and students. H Patrick Montague stated:

'like so many other great institutions, the university evolved as a mighty instrument designed by its very nature, not only to shape itself to the requirements of contemporary society, but to act as the corrective for a society which may be in process of losing its way.'⁽¹⁾

Kuwait University needs to reshape itself in order to become an integral part of the society, and to become involved in seeking solutions for the challenges and problems of contemporary Kuwait. Kuwait society today expects its university to undertake a specific mission and help to answer specific questions. Such a question would be, are the Kuwait social and economic challenges in the eighties different from those of the sixties? What is the nature of the difference?, and what are the

(1) The Historic Foundation of University, (an article by H Patrick Montague), The World Year Book of Education 1971/1972 (Evans Brother Limited, 1971), p.15.

appropriate expenses? Kuwait University can reasonably be expected to help provide answers to such questions and it has a responsibility to assess these challenges for the benefit of individuals and of society. Secondly, it should be Kuwait University's task to help in protecting democracy, which is the main achievement of Kuwait since independence. Also its mission should be to help in developing economic resources and in finding new alternatives to secure the economic future of Kuwait. Lastly Kuwait University has to evaluate the educational system, demonstrating its strengths and weaknesses in promoting change in the society. University education should be in a position to take on new structures and accept new responsibilities.

KUWAIT UNIVERSITY RECENT PROBLEMS AND VIEW OF THE FUTURE

It was stated in the previous chapter that there is no single optimum organizational pattern. On the other hand, as we expect more from organizations, we should expect them to experience problems in meeting these demands.

Kuwait University established, as we have seen earlier, in haste through a political decision in 1966, has undoubtedly experienced and is still experiencing serious difficulties. M J Roda, in his book, 'University Reformation in the Arabian Gulf' thinks that:

'It is too early for a university such as Kuwait to experience real problems and to call for reformation.'

Roda believes that:

'It is very usual for some great and old institutions like Oxford,

Cambridge and the Sorbonne to call for reformation, but it is unusual or unexpected from a new institution like Kuwait University.' (1)

Roda also believes that a university, or as he calls it the 'university phenomenon' in the Arabian Gulf countries suffers from two essential problems. First, the Gulf Universities are copied from other models. Secondly, they are functioning in a way that is inappropriate for the purposes for which they were founded.

In the next section an attempt will be made to examine some urgent problems that hamper university education in Kuwait in the present and may well impede its progress in the future.

The Problem of Autonomy and Academic Freedom:

The relationship between the state and the University has been a matter for argument throughout the history of universities. Should the universities be the servants of society; should they be autonomous; should they be politically neutral; should they be financially independent? Questions such as these, and others, have been debated for centuries but still lack definitive answers.

Kuwait University is an institution for higher education, founded, funded, and controlled by the state. These factors allow the state to interfere not only in policies and decision-making matters, but also in the academic life of the university. The idea of making Kuwait

(1) Mohammad J Roda, University Reformation in the Arabian Gulf, (AlRebain Press, 1985), p. 81 [in Arabic].

University an independent institution controlled by its own staff did not arise before the mid 1970's when the number of Kuwaiti professors increased and the notion of autonomy and academic freedom was introduced. For example, Dr M AlMohani, in his book: 'The University Administration', argued that:

'We need autonomy to guarantee free decisions, without the influence of political, economic, and social benefits.'⁽¹⁾

AlMohani, argues that Kuwait University has recently been influenced by four powerful groups. The Government which is looking for a university to provide propaganda for its political policies. The Ministry of Education which considers the university one of its public schools. The commercial elements who struggle for more intervention in university administration. And finally, the religious group, whose major concern is the university curriculum and the professors' attitudes, and whose strategy is to create a university to serve the groups ideology. AlMohani, in his analysis wishes to ensure that Kuwait University is not a servant of one group or one school of thought. He sees it as a university for all people and for all ideologies and attitudes.

It seems that it is only from the theoretical point of view that one can talk about autonomy and academic freedom in the institutions of higher education in Kuwait. Kuwait has a form of political regime where most decisions are centralized in state hands, making it very difficult to

(1) Mohammed AlMohani, The University Administration (AlResala Press, 1984), p.122 [in Arabic].

create an independent institution free from the influence of state authority. Second the Government is the only organization in the whole state legally and financially able to establish and operate a university. No other group or organization has this right. Further, the problems of autonomy and academic freedom are viewed in different ways. Dr M Roda pointed out:

'Kuwait University and other universities in the Arabian Gulf need to be free to be independent. Free to search for the truth and spread it among the people by learning and publications.'⁽¹⁾

Kuwait University needs to modify its policy in a way that allows it to accomplish its purpose as an agent of change in society. Members of the university, professors and students ought to be free to engage in any area of research, expressing radical opinions inside and outside their field of expertise. They must not be prevented from opening up new fields of knowledge or from pursuing fundamental research of their own choice.

The Problem of Admission:

When Kuwait University was established there was a fear that sufficient students would not be forthcoming and that therefore there was no urgent need to establish a costly university for a few hundred students. Today Kuwait University suffers from rapidly increasing enrolment which is considered one of its most serious problems. In 1966 the University of Kuwait started with 418 students in two faculties; last academic year,

(1) M J Roda, op.cit., p.246.

1984-1985, the number reached slightly over 15,000 and during the next five years it is predicted that the number of students will increase to over 25,000.

Why do secondary school graduates prefer the university? Statistics for the last three academic years indicated that more than 90 per cent of secondary school graduates who are eligible for higher education put university education as their first choice. The increase in the number of students admitted to Kuwait University is probably due to the following circumstances:

- (1) The number of students holding the Secondary School Certificate has increased remarkably from a few hundred in the mid of 1960's to more than 15,000 in 1985. X
- (2) The establishment of new faculties offering varied specializations has reduced the number of students who pursue their study abroad.
- (3) There is a belief among most Kuwaitis that study beyond secondary education must be in the university and not in any other type of higher education institution. This belief has perhaps resulted from the social circumstances of most Kuwaitis who are looking for the greater prestige which a university degree will guarantee with its undoubted benefits in a career and in social life. The school system largely reinforces this attitude. For instance, the secondary school curriculum in its two divisions, Arts and Sciences, puts much emphasis on preparing students for university education.

The admission policy in Kuwait University has to be determined by the university council, according to Article (14) of Law No. 29. In the beginning the university admitted all Kuwaitis graduating from secondary education. As the numbers began to increase the admission policy has been amended to require a certain percentage in the secondary final examination, not less than 55 per cent. In the mid 1970's the minimum percentage was raised to 60 per cent for the purpose of controlling the rapid increase in student enrolment. It has recently been stated that the acceptance of a student's application does not mean guaranteed acceptance by the university.

Even with the new restrictions the student body in Kuwait University continues to increase; it has tripled in less than seven years to become a real problem in terms of university capacity, teaching staff, and other academic matters. The real challenge to the admission policy came in 1984, when more than 5,000 students graduated from secondary education with more than 60 per cent in the final examination. In that year, the university administration faced a critical situation. When the registrar refused to admit all the 5,000 students, pressure came from the Government and the National Assembly both of whom wished to satisfy larger numbers of people. Finally, a political decision was made and the university admitted all the students. A large number of university professors and other interested groups have criticized the decision to admit 5,000 students in one term. They mostly blamed the political decision and demanded that the decisions concerning entry must be the responsibility only of the university administrators. On this occasion, Dr A Attmemi, wrote in AlWatan Newspaper:

'...Kuwait University at its present capacity is not able to house half of its students. Our problem in Kuwait University is that we do not plan for the future or make any predictions.'⁽¹⁾

In considering the problem of admission to Kuwait University, it is important also to look at the distribution of the Kuwaiti students among the faculties and see how far that distribution matches the real needs of the national labour force. In chapter six, when we discussed the problem of Technical and Vocational Institutions, we noted that in general these institutions suffer from low enrolment, and some of them are in danger of closing down in the near future. In Kuwait University where over-enrolment is the problem, the distribution of students in the two divisions, Liberal Arts and Practical Sciences, is another difficulty. In the academic year 1984-1985 approximately 64 per cent of the students in Kuwait University were in the Faculties of Arts, Law, Shari'a and Education; and 14 per cent in the Faculty of Commerce, Economic and Political Sciences. Only 21 per cent of the total students were in the faculties of pure sciences, Medicine and Engineering. This situation is probably due to two factors: First, there is lack of coordination between the admission policy in Kuwait University and the state economic policies, which implies that Kuwait University does not serve its society adequately, and a system of coordination between the university policy and the state policies has been urgently sought. Second, the public education system and the higher education system is another example of mis-coordination. School curricula and programmes orient students to the liberal arts subjects, and this tendency is strengthened by the teacher's attitudes. For instance, in 1984-1985,

(1) AlWatan Newspaper, 15.10.1985, p.12.

15,867 students graduated from secondary schools, with 72 per cent coming from the arts divisions.

The Problem of Teaching Staff:

The recruitment of teaching staff in Kuwait University is another difficulty that should be discussed. Since its establishment Kuwait University has depended on other Arab countries.* to provide professors and other teaching staff. Without this help from other Arab States Kuwait University would not exist or survive. This fact is threatening the future of university education in the country. There are two major reasons for this situation. In the context of the political relationship among the Arab countries which have recently suffered from instability, any political disagreement between the Government of Kuwait and one of the Arab states would probably lead to all the political and cultural agreements between the states being reconsidered. The 1978 peace agreement between Egypt and Israel is an example. Even that did not affect the cultural agreements between the two countries for economic reasons, however, that would not be the case with other Arab countries.

The second factor that would make the danger probably is that Kuwait University is not the only university in the Arabian Gulf, there are some fourteen other universities all facing the same difficulties and

* The countries that provide teaching staff to Kuwait University are Egypt, Syria, Iraq, Lebanon, Sudan, and Jordan. There are also some from Western Countries like Britain and U.S.A.

the same problems. Mostly these universities depend on the same Arab countries to provide teaching staff which creates competition among the Arabian Gulf Universities to attract good teaching staff. Consequently, this competition has contributed in raising the salary scales and other benefits required by expatriate teaching staff and their governments which makes these universities very costly. For example: the expenditure on Kuwait University rose from K.D. 969,020 in 1966-1967 to K.D. 46,526,457 in 1984-1985. This means that the total expenditure increased almost 48 times over 18 years. (1)

To meet the problem of teaching staff Kuwait University started to encourage Kuwaitis to pursue higher education and return to work in the faculties of Kuwait University. In 1967-1968, thirty students were sent abroad to obtain PhD degrees in the fields of sciences, arts, economics, engineering and education. The number of student scholarships increased annually until it reached 234 in 1977-1978. However for some reason the number decreased in 1982-1983 to 171. This slow growth of Kuwaiti teaching staff, was accompanied by rapid growth in the student body.

(1) University of Kuwait in year 18, op.cit., p.459.

CHAPTER EIGHT

STRATEGIES FOR CHANGE IN THE EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION OF THE STATE OF
KUWAIT: Concluding Chapter

- Current Problems of Education Administration in Kuwait; Summary and
Discussion

 - Input-Output Relations in the Kuwait Educational System

 - Strategies for Change in the Administration of the Kuwait Educational
System: Suggestions and Recommendations
-

CURRENT PROBLEMS OF EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION IN KUWAIT, SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Ignoring educational problems and difficulties and neglecting them is much more risky and harmful than defining them and drawing public attention to the fact that something is seriously wrong in the educational system. In Kuwait, as in most third world countries, it is undesirable, for anyone to raise questions concerning defects in any governmental sector, whether economic, political or educational.

Through the last four decades, since school education came under state control, nothing has been done regarding the evaluation of the educational system in order to determine its strengths and weaknesses. Whether we provide good education or below average education, is difficult to decide unless we undertake serious research into the quality of the educational system in all its aspects.

Unplanned Educational Services:

'School education is a right for Kuwaiti citizen guaranteed by the State'.* By the beginning of the 1960's school education had expanded far beyond official government expectations. The Ministry of Education was responsible for providing school buildings, teachers, administrators, and many other instructional services. That was the

* Article 13 of Kuwait 1962 Constitution

main task of the Ministry of Education during the decade of the sixties (see Chapter Three). By the beginning of the 1970's the Ministry of Education came under pressure to increase the number of Kuwaiti children being provided with school education. In addition there was an increase of Arab immigrants who also looked for free education for their children. However in meeting these heavy demands the function of the Ministry of Education of providing 'educational services' has not changed. What has happened in the 1980's as a result of the unplanned growth of the educational services and the centralization of the whole educational process into one single organization is what can be called 'the administrative crisis in the Ministry of Education'. How can we define this crisis? And what are its most significant aspects? It was argued in Chapter Three of this study that there is one essential phenomenon that needs to be considered in any attempt to study the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the structure of the Kuwaiti Educational Administration. This phenomenon is the expansion of the Ministry hierarchy. Decision-makers in the Ministry of Education thought that by increasing the number of Ministry departments and employees and promoting more Kuwaitis to senior posts, they would satisfy their critics among the educated Kuwaitis, who called for real and effective reformation in the country.

The administrative crisis in the Ministry of Education is due to the following circumstances:

There is no clear definition of the Ministry of Education's role and limitations inspite of the existence of the jurisdiction decree. The

Ministry's responsibilities changed as time went on, for example in the fifties it was responsible for providing ten years of public schooling, from Kindergarten to secondary education level. This role expanded during the sixties to include secondary technical and vocational institution, and university education. In the seventies the Ministry of Education's role has become much more extended; taking over the responsibility for private schools, special education institutions and higher education. These various roles led to the creation of an over-complicated Ministry structure with too many tasks and functions.

At present one third of all government employees are in the Ministry of Education. Its administrative hierarchy has seven units headed by seven assistant under-secretaries, these units are also divided into 46 departments each in the charge of a director. Each department is divided into divisions and branches. The Ministry of Education at present operates more than 600 government schools and educational centres housing more than 400,000 students. The Ministry has to provide the school buildings, furniture, equipment, instructional materials, food and transportation. — In addition the Ministry of Education operates 200 private schools with more than 70,000 students. It is also responsible for special education institutions for the deaf, blind and mentally retarded. Furthermore, the Ministry has some dealings with the institutions of higher technical and vocational education. These institutions are funded and controlled by an organization with a structure based on that of the Ministry of Education. Finally, the Ministry of Education has control over university education. The Minister of Education is the chairman of Kuwait University and all

decisions and regulations have to be approved by him. In meeting these enormous responsibilities the Ministry of Education's recent structure has been overwhelmed by its administrative problems, completely preventing it from planning for the future of education in the country.

Centralization is another aspect that characterizes the Ministry of Education recent administrative structure. The decision-making processes are completely centralized at the top of the hierarchy, under the Minister who has political power and the Under-Secretary who is assisted by a number of Assistant Under-Secretaries, who need approval for their decisions from the Under-Secretary. Schools and institutions are run by headmasters under the direction of the Ministry's Under-Secretary.

X There is no regular procedures for delegating authority from the top of the hierarchy in the Ministry of Education to the bottom. The Under-Secretary can delegate part of his authority to the Assistant Under-Secretaries in certain circumstances. The Assistant Under-Secretaries may do the same and delegate some of their tasks to the Directors.^{*}

* Article (6) of the Civil Service Law, stated:

The Minister may entrust some of the functions vested in him under relevant laws and regulations to the Under-Secretary or Assistant Under-Secretary of the Ministry. The Under-Secretary of the Ministry may in turn entrust some of his functions assigned to him under relevant Laws and regulations to the Director of the Departments.

Source: Kuwait Government, Civil Service Law Document, (Al-Hadaf Printing Press, 1979), p.7.

However, delegation to the Directors usually depends on the personal relationship between the Assistant Under-Secretary and the Director; this situation has created two types of Director, one who is able to take decisions and implement his own policy, and the other with less power in dealing with the administrative matters of his department. This system is the result of a lack of any regular pattern of delegation.

Another defect that characterizes the Ministry of Education's recent administrative structure is overlapping and duplication of functions. Several departments were created during the 1960's and 1970's performing almost identical tasks. The researcher, during the course of investigation, has examined this similarity. An example is the Auto Information Centre and the Information Centre. Other examples are the Employment Department and the Technical Employees Department; the Registration Department and the Employees Registration; the Psychological Department and the Social Services Department. Finally, the Textbook and Curriculum Department and the Centre for Curriculum Research perform almost the same functions.

Qualifications and training are other problems that exacerbate the Ministry of Education's recent administrative difficulties. As a result of the Kuwaitization policy which was adopted by the Government at the beginning of the 1970's, a large number of unqualified administrators were promoted to higher posts either according to their seniority or as a result of personal relationships. Undoubtedly this situation has retarded progress in the Ministry. Throughout the last two decades the most inappropriate decisions have resulted from this policy.

Training is also another matter of concern in the Ministry of Education and very little effort has been made in the last few years to retrain senior Ministry staff and middle management employees. Kuwait University and the Arab Planning Institute attempted to help by offering programmes in management. However, reports show that the response to these programmes among top officials was not encouraging and that Assistant Under-Secretaries and Directors considered that they had sufficient experience and did not need to retrain. But they tended to send their subordinates to the training programmes.

Educational legislation in the Ministry of Education is a problem which needs to be considered. Effective rules, norms, and laws can contribute to the stability of the system and protect it from overlapping and duplication of functions. The Ministry of Education has not yet drawn up an educational law which is very necessary for the stability and effectiveness of the whole educational system. The Ministry of Education has only recently enacted the decree of the Ministry jurisdictions, the law of Compulsory Education, and the law of Eradication of Illiteracy. And these laws are, in some way, defective and it still is not decided how to apply them, nor to what extent the Ministry can enforce them. For instance, even with the existence of the Compulsory Education Law 30 per cent of children in the age group 6-14 are not at school. In spite of the Eradication of Illiteracy Law, there are more than 26 per cent of illiterates in the Kuwaiti population.

Problems Relating to the Trends Towards Decentralization,
In the Educational System of Kuwait:

Chapter Four analysed the trends towards decentralizing the educational services in Kuwait. The first school district was established in 1982 by Ministerial Resolution Number 30/80, to carry out two specific tasks; first to provide educational services in certain areas, and second to supervise schools and implement Ministry policy. The school district is headed by a Director who is responsible to the Assistant Under-Secretary of Public Education in the Ministry Central Office. The study of 'Ahmadi School District' suggests the following conclusions: There was a lack of preparation in handling the idea of decentralizing the educational services, and those who made the decision did not consider the possibility that more expansion in the Ministry administration structure meant more complexity and wastage of time, money, and human resources.

The school district system in its recent form has added more responsibility to the Ministry at a time when the Ministry urgently needed to streamline its structure and reduce its rate of growth. By 1980 the number of school districts had increased to five and subsequently the Ministry of Education budget was raised, the number of employees increased, more buildings rented as offices, more equipment and furniture purchased and other facilities introduced. In addition the Ministry of education established a new department, the Coordination Department, to secure standard practice among the five school districts. This department is under the control of the Assistant Under-Secretary of Public Education.

The Ministerial Resolution 30/80 which established the school district system, stipulated that, the school district should practice its role according to Ministry of Education policies, plans, and programmes, the school district should be strictly under the supervision of the Ministry. The implication here was that the Director of the school district must contact the Ministry frequently to obtain approval or advice, or suggestions, in solving any unprecedented problems. This requirement conflicts with the purpose of reducing centralization, which was a primary goal in setting up the school district system.

The establishment of Ahmadi School District in 1982 was an experiment, as Ministry of Education official sources stated. In my view it was a great opportunity for the Ministry of Education to keep the Ahmadi School District under intensive scrutinizing for a time in order to evaluate it and then to decide whether to extend the scheme or to terminate it. When the researcher raised a question concerning the evaluation of Ahmadi School District, the answer was that no evaluation had been done. One of the Ahmadi School District supervisors said 'I think it is a very successful enterprise, and as a result another school district has been established and three more will be established in the near future'.

The trend towards decentralization in its current form increased the burdens of school administration by doubling supervision. Individual school administration according to the new structure should be responsible to the school district. However, the Ministry central office still controls the budget, curriculum, textbooks, appointments, maintenance services, and storage. School administration must contact

the Ministry in any of the above matters and also needs to contact the school district in other matters such as inspection, examinations, or student transfers. This kind of duplication of supervision has created delays in school administration. The interview with a group of school administrators in Ahmadi School District concluded: 'the confusion is particularly great when the school administration receives some instructions from the Ministry regarding a specific educational matter and receives different instructions from the school district concerning the same matter'.

The Ministerial Resolution 30/80 does not mention the possibility of cooperation or coordination within the school district. In decentralizing the education services, as has been done in some countries, it is agreed that local autonomous bodies are best suited to control and administer education. In the form of decentralization in the Kuwait education system, the local authorities are still far from being part of the decision and policy making process.

Finally, a detailed examination of the school district system jurisdictions might well produce evidence that individual school administrators can do the work of the school district more effectively, if they are given the appropriate authority. Perhaps it can be concluded that so long as the main power remains in the hands of the Ministry Central Office, there is no purpose in establishing a school district system. The situation in my view is due to lack of vision and careful preparation.

Problems Relating to the Individual School Administration:

Though school administration is considered the most important single unit in the whole educational system, Kuwait school administration has recently experienced serious difficulties:

It is not an educational administration appropriate to the circumstances. Writers in the field of education administration insist that school administration must devote itself to dealing with educational matters in the schools. In Kuwait, the individual school is engaged in a non-instructional role. It is immersed in what can be called clerical work instead of being involved in its natural role as an instructional facilitator. This situation is the result of the lack of power and freedom assigned to headmasters.

Headmasters of schools who are assisted by one assistant, have to follow the directions of the Ministry of Education. The Ministry determines the plans for the school, its policy, curriculum and textbooks, the length of school day, the number of weekly periods, the timetable, pupil examinations and promotion procedures. Headmasters must work under this limitation, even in handling a specific problem he or she has to await a decision from the Ministry. This lack of authority does not promote effective leadership. Most heads who have been interviewed complained about this system and agreed that: 'We waste more than two thirds of our time in reading through and signing papers'.

Heads of schools among their innumerable responsibilities, are also responsible for assessing their teachers twice a year. Some heads rely

on a teacher's experience or reputation, while others visit teachers in their classrooms for a few minutes once a year. Teachers complain about this system and think assessment should be left to the supervisors who also visit classrooms and have more opportunity to work with teachers and advise them on ways of improving their performance.

Also, headmasters have seldom much time to implement experiments in developing their schools. If they do, they must first obtain permission from the Ministry of Education. The permission is only given after the proposal has been approved by the senior officials. Because of these long procedures most heads prefer to close their doors and do not allow new developments to enter their schools. On the other hand this certainly creates what can be called a 'school without personality' as was stated in Chapter Five: 'visiting schools throughout the state gives one the impression that there is one pattern of school, nothing is individual and all schools are the same in terms of the philosophy that must be adopted, the arrangement of the building, the classrooms, the textbooks and the curriculum, the teaching methods the examinations, and much more'.

This limitation in the power and authority of the school has affected in general the role of the individual school in society. The school in Kuwait educational system has one single task, which is preparing pupils for the end of the term examinations, promoting those who pass and holding back those who fail. This primitive role of the school undoubtedly needs to be changed.

The problem of school administrator's in-service training has also been discussed. It was noted in Chapter Five that 'promotion to the rank of Head depends mainly on the number of years served as a successful teacher and other personal characteristics'. Nevertheless a good teacher is not necessarily a good administrator. When the Ministry of Education developed a programme to train heads and their assistants, it became clear that in-service training would be meaningless if not accompanied by real changes in the head's power. The situation has been described as follows: 'in the in-service course the heads are trained to utilize scientific management techniques, to develop good relationships with their staff, and to share with their staff in decision-making. They also learn how to develop the school budget, how to set the school goals and curriculum and how to use the new evaluation techniques. That is in theory, what about in practice? When the headmasters and the headmistresses return to their schools and to readily they are not able to do these things. The Ministry's laws, decrees and resolution do not allow them to do so'.

In other aspects school administration suffers from disturbance and instability. Many of the decisions and ministerial resolutions relevant to the school are changed from time to time without consulting the heads' opinions.

For instance, examination rules and student discipline rules have been changed three times within the last four years. In addition the Ministry of Education contradicts its own instructions. For example, at

the beginning of each scholastic year the Department of Student Affairs informs each head that he must not accept new students in excess of his school capacity. A few weeks later a new notification is sent to schools to change the admission policy and accept new students. Heads of schools are in a difficult position, they have to rearrange the school timetable, the size of the classes and the teachers' loads. That was one example of school administration disturbance. There are many others such as, teacher transfer from one school to another, shortage of teachers in some schools, delay over school materials and textbooks, and delay in school maintenance services.

Finally, the individual school in the Kuwait education system has a unique problem concerning the teaching staff. Teachers from different countries, cultures, political backgrounds and aspirations are expected to work together under one curriculum and one set of school objectives. This heterogeneous teaching force has undoubted consequences for the unity of the school as a social institution and affects the pupils' attitudes and values.

Problems Relating to the Administration of Post-Secondary Education:

Post-secondary education is essential for the advancement of any contemporary society, but in Kuwait we are still not sufficiently aware of its importance and its needs.

Technical and Vocational institutions in Kuwait have recently faced serious difficulties:

The 1960's type of technical institution (four years after the intermediate level) has failed. The investigation shows that the limitations of these institutions stem from the educational system as a whole. For instance, the most significant problem, the image and status of 'hands on' technology workers in society, stems from the relationship that existed between general education on the one hand and technical education on the other. In the 1970's a new model of post-secondary education was developed, to prepare a qualified cadre of manpower for meeting the development needs of the country. In the administrative context, the Department of Technical and Vocational Education was established by the Ministry of Education to be responsible for operating and controlling the institutes of technical education. This administrative structure was not compatible with the new strategies for developing the technical institutions. In 1982 the Department of T.V.E. was replaced by the Public Authority for Applied Education and Training (PAAET). The PAAET was established to remove technical education from the direct control of the Ministry of Education. Nevertheless, the general policy and the budget remain under Ministry control.

The question of autonomy in higher education institutions was earlier discussed. These institutions need to be free to grow, free to decide their own general policy within the framework of national directives, free to manage their budget and to develop their curriculum and programmes.

Law Number 63/82 does not allow this to happen. Reading through Articles (2), (3), (4), (5) and (6) indicates that the Ministry of

Education continues to intervene in the work of these institutions, which conflicts with their desire for autonomy (see Chapter Six).

Moreover, the future of these institutions is uncertain. The State authority, the PAAET and the institutes' governing bodies should work together to set up a suitable system to answer such next questions as: What control should be exercised, by whom and how extensive should it be? What is the future of the existing institutions? Do we need to reconsider their specializations and entrance requirements? When should we start vocational training, before or after secondary education? And finally, how should public education relate to technology, industry and commerce? Answering these questions is essential for promoting the effectiveness of this important sector of education. Neglecting them will delay the aim of building an advanced society.

The investigation in Chapter Six shows that the six existing institutions of technical education suffer from a number of difficulties which are due to administrative inefficiency. The following are some examples: There is the problem of high drop out rate, approximately one student out of three dropped out from the six existing institutes between 1978-1984.

The seven existing institutions have not yet attracted a sufficient number of students. Graduates from secondary education prefer university education. For example, in the scholastic year 1983-1984, only 30 per cent of the secondary graduates chose the institutions of technical education.

There is also the problem of the low rate of output. In 1983-1984, only 1,751 students graduated from the seven existing institutes and more than half of them were from the Teacher Institutes. This slow growth in the number of graduates raises questions concerning the value of these institutions.

Problems Relating to University Education:

The research reported in Chapter Seven shows some evidence that the current administration of university education is not adequate to achieve the goals of this type of education. Kuwait University was founded in 1966, funded and controlled by the State. It is regulated by Law Number 29/1966. This Law gives much power to the State authority. The policies, budget and other academic activities are all controlled by the state. Law Number 29 has been described as: 'too vague in many areas and too restrictive in others'. 'Two factors may impede Kuwait University's progress, first it is totally dependent on the state; second, it is governed by a weak Law'.

This law was copied from an Egyptian model, designed for a university that is completely different in terms of the society that it serves, and the role and function that were postulated for higher education in general. Early in 1970's the main role of Kuwait University was to receive secondary school graduates accommodate them in various faculties and award them a degree at the end of a four year course. Kuwait University has been seen as conforming to a pattern that had existed in

the Arab world for a long time whose main function was to prepare employees to work in government offices. That conception conflicts with the primary goal of university education as an agent for change in society.

In this context a question is raised as to whether Law Number 29 is appropriate for the future? There is a growing tendency among the administrators and teaching staff of the university to reject the Law, seeing it as an obstacle to the expansion of the University's productivity and effectiveness. Further analysis defined three urgent problems which face university education in Kuwait. First, the problem of autonomy and academic freedom; second, the problem of admission; and third, the problem of the teaching staff.

INPUT-OUTPUT RELATIONS IN KUWAIT EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM:

In the next section an attempt will be made to examine the effectiveness of the educational system in Kuwait by seeking input-output relations. Writers in the field of educational economy agree that educational effectiveness is not an easy matter to quantify. A generally accepted definition of effectiveness is that 'A school may be said to be effective to the extent that there is congruence between its objectives and its achievements. In other words, it is effective to the extent that it accomplishes what it sets out to do'. During the course of research for this study the question of the effectiveness of the educational system was examined, by identifying its input which comprises a large number of students, school buildings, teachers, curriculum and textbooks, higher education institutions and expenditure on educational services.

The investigation has shown that there is a significant gap in the input-output relation, or in other words there is little congruence between educational objectives and their achievement. The following are some examples of their disharmony.

1. Educational Wastage:

Wastage in education has two different aspects, human wastage and material wastage. In the Kuwait educational system wastage of both kinds is considerable. A number of studies and reports bear evidence of this phenomenon. For example, the most recent study by Mostafa

El.Shalakani, showed that:

Educational wastage (failures and repeters), at the intermediate and secondary level is substantial in that each student at the intermediate level takes on average 5.35 years to graduate. The normal length of the intermediate level is four years. At secondary level the average wastage varies between males and females and between one section and another (Literature and Science) students in the science section take an average of 5.7 years to graduate. Students in the literature section take an average of 5.5 years to graduate. The normal length of the secondary level is four years. (1)

Another study of wastage in the institutions of higher education (failed and dropped-out) showed that:

The average educational effectiveness in the institutions of higher education (Technical and Vocational) ranged from 22 per cent in Kuwait Institute of Technology to 73 per cent in the Teacher Institutes. Educational effectiveness in this context means the number of students who graduated after four semesters as a percentage of the total number of students in the same group. The average failure rate varied from 17.5 per cent in the Teacher Institutes to 39.1 per cent in the Business Institutes.

(1) Mostafa El.Shalakani, Measurement of Wastage in Education, among Kuwaiti students, Journal of the Social Sciences (Kuwait University, 14:112-113, Summer 1986) [in Arabic].

The average student drop-out was from 9.2 per cent in the Teacher Institutes to 42.8 per cent in the Kuwait Technology Institute. The average wastage in the Institution of Higher Education was between 26.7 per cent in the Teacher Institutes and 78 per cent in Kuwait Institute of Technology. (1)

2. Slow Improvement of the Illiteracy Rate:

Another measure of the effectiveness of the educational system in Kuwait is the illiteracy rate. The assumption here is that an effective educational system should virtually eradicate illiteracy. In Kuwait efforts to achieve this were made early in the sixties by establishing adult education centres. In 1982 a law to eradicate illiteracy was enacted. However, the rate of illiteracy declined very slowly. For instance, in 1957 more than half of the Kuwaiti population was illiterate. In 1985, 26.4 per cent were still illiterate. There is another aspect of this problem which is even more serious. It is the children of school age (10-19) who are not in school. According to the 1985 census, 6.29 per cent of Kuwaiti males and females in the age group (10-14) were illiterate, and 9.6 per cent of the males and females in the age group (15-19) were illiterate. In the age group (20-24), which should comprise the labour-force, 15 per cent were illiterate in 1985. These examples indicate that the educational system in its most recent

(1) Kuwait Ministry of Education, Department of Technical and Vocational Education, Failed and dropped-out in the Higher Education Institutions, (Unpublished Report, Ministry of Education, 1981), pp.79-83 [in Arabic].

form does not effectively create an educated society. There is no need for further evidence to prove that there is something remiss in our educational system and that it is necessary for policymakers urgently to return the system for the advantage of both the individuals and of society.

3. Kuwaiti Contribution to the National labour-force:

The final measure of the educational system's output in Kuwait is the Kuwaiti contribution to the labour-force. According to the 1985 census, Kuwaiti males comprised only 36.1 per cent of the total labour-force, females only 13.8 per cent. In the professional and technical occupations Kuwaitis comprised 23.8 per cent. In the administrative and managerial occupations they comprised 37.7 per cent and in the production sectors 4.7 per cent.

These figures clearly suggest the following conclusions:

(a) There is no effective relationship between the objectives of the educational system and its output. The labour-force is a good example, there is no indication that even in the long term Kuwait will reduce its dependence on imported labour and be able to produce adequate numbers of appropriately skilled Kuwaitis.

(b) The educational system in its present form is not equipped to change backward-looking values such as those relating to professional work or those relating to the role of women in society. For example, in

the scholastic year 1984-1985, 49 per cent of the total number of students in the public schools were females, and more than half of the Kuwaiti students in the University were females. Nevertheless, females formed only a very small proportion of the national labour-force.

Another test of the effectiveness of the educational system would be to examine the relationship between the goals of education and the attitudes of people towards subjects such as, technology, production, employment, religious life and politics. The result would almost certainly show a similar mis-match.

STRATEGIES FOR CHANGE IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE KUWAIT EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Suggestion and Recommendations

In this last section there will be suggested some strategies for changing the administrative structure of education in Kuwait; for promoting its effectiveness, for reshaping its functions, and remedying its deficiencies. It is not possible to suggest solutions for all the difficulties, however the following suggestions and recommendations with their short comings - are put forward as a contribution to the future reform of the educational system in the country. The strategies are proposed first for the organization and structure of the Ministry of Education, secondly for the local educational district system, thirdly for the individual school administration. And finally for changes in the administration of the institutions of higher education.

1. In Public Education:

The essential function and role of the Ministry of Education should be changed from being an executive organization to being a planner and policy-maker organization. The Ministry structure should be simplified to encompass three basic tasks: Educational Planning and Research, Curriculum and Textbook Research and Educational Expenditure Affairs.

It is proposed that the structure of the Ministry should be as follows:

The office of the Minister of Education should be headed by a Minister who is a member of the Cabinet and of the National Assembly. The office should be advised by three consultative committees, for planning, curriculum, and expenditure.

The Department of Educational Planning and Research:

should be headed by a Director and have two divisions, Planning and Research Division and Secretarial and Computer Division. This Department should particularly deal with the following tasks:

(1) Planning* best starts with the identification of needs. An educational need is defined as the measureable gap between current outcomes and desired or required outcomes. Therefore, an evaluation of the whole educational system should be made. Accurate and detailed information about school structure, student growth, teachers, administrators, curriculum, examinations and supervision should be obtained. Then an assessment of the projected needs of schooling in accordance with the goals of education in the country should be made.

* Roger A Kaufman, answered the question: What is planning? A plan is a projection of what is to be accomplished to reach valid and valued goals. It includes the elements of: identifying and documenting needs. Selecting among documented needs those of sufficient priority for action. Detailed specification of outcomes or accomplishment to be achieved to each selected need. Identification of requirements for meeting each selected need, including specifications for eliminating the need by problem solving. A sequence of outcomes required to meet the identified needs. Identifications of possible alternative strategies and tools for accomplishing each requirements for meeting each needs, a listing of the advantages of each set of strategies and tools.
Source: Roger A Kaufman, Education System Planning, (Prentice Hall, 1977), p.16.

(2) This Department should include staff who are specialists in the areas of statistics, the economics of education, the planning of training programmes for educational personnel and in educational mapping.

(3) This Department should embark upon a comprehensive survey of the existing public school levels (Kindergarten, Elementary, Intermediate, and Secondary) with particular reference to the need for buildings, furniture, and other educational facilities.

(4) It would be the task of this Department to establish a system of coordination and cooperation with the local Boards of Education in each school district, to study and undertake research in matters relevant to the schools, such as, their administrative structure, leadership, examination results and school maintenance.

(5) A centre for research in education and a library should form part of this Department. Data concerning all matters of schooling should be available in this centre. The centre should communicate with local centres and institutions of research and study, such as the School of Education in Kuwait University, the Gulf Arab State Education Centre, and Arab Planning Institutes and other international institutions for research.

The Department of Curriculum and Textbooks:

would be headed by a Director who should be a specialist in curriculum and design and research. Teams of administrators and researchers should be carefully selected from among those who have experience and training in curriculum design. There should be two divisions in this Department, a Curriculum Design and Research Division, and Secretarial and Computer Division. This Department's main tasks should include the following:

- (1) To review the current school curriculum at each school level, to study the syllabus and its relevance to the goals of education in the state.
- (2) To assess students' needs and interests at each age group at the different levels and to identify the resources available in society that can be used by the individual school to improve the students' ability for learning.
- (3) This Department should develop a common point of view or philosophy — concerning what is to be emphasized in the education of children and young people. It would be its responsibility to adapt school life to students and the way in which they learn and to select appropriate subject matter and provide experiences for the students according to valid principles so that they learn worthwhile material in the most effective way.

(4) This Department should define the basic principles that support curriculum designs; this Department should answer the question: What are the theoretical principles that should determine the kind of education to be provided? Curriculum change might well be based on the notion;

- that students should be taught to solve problems by scientific procedures, and curriculum improvement itself should be effected scientifically, that is, valid and reliable data should be assembled in support of any curriculum change that is proposed.

- Society and the environment should be a major source of ideas for the curriculum. According to this view, the school owes its existence to the society that has fostered it, and the social context is a proper matter for study.

(5) A system for coordination with the local Boards of Education in each school district should be established in this Department to implement the policy developed in the curriculum and textbook department.

Expenditure Affairs Department;

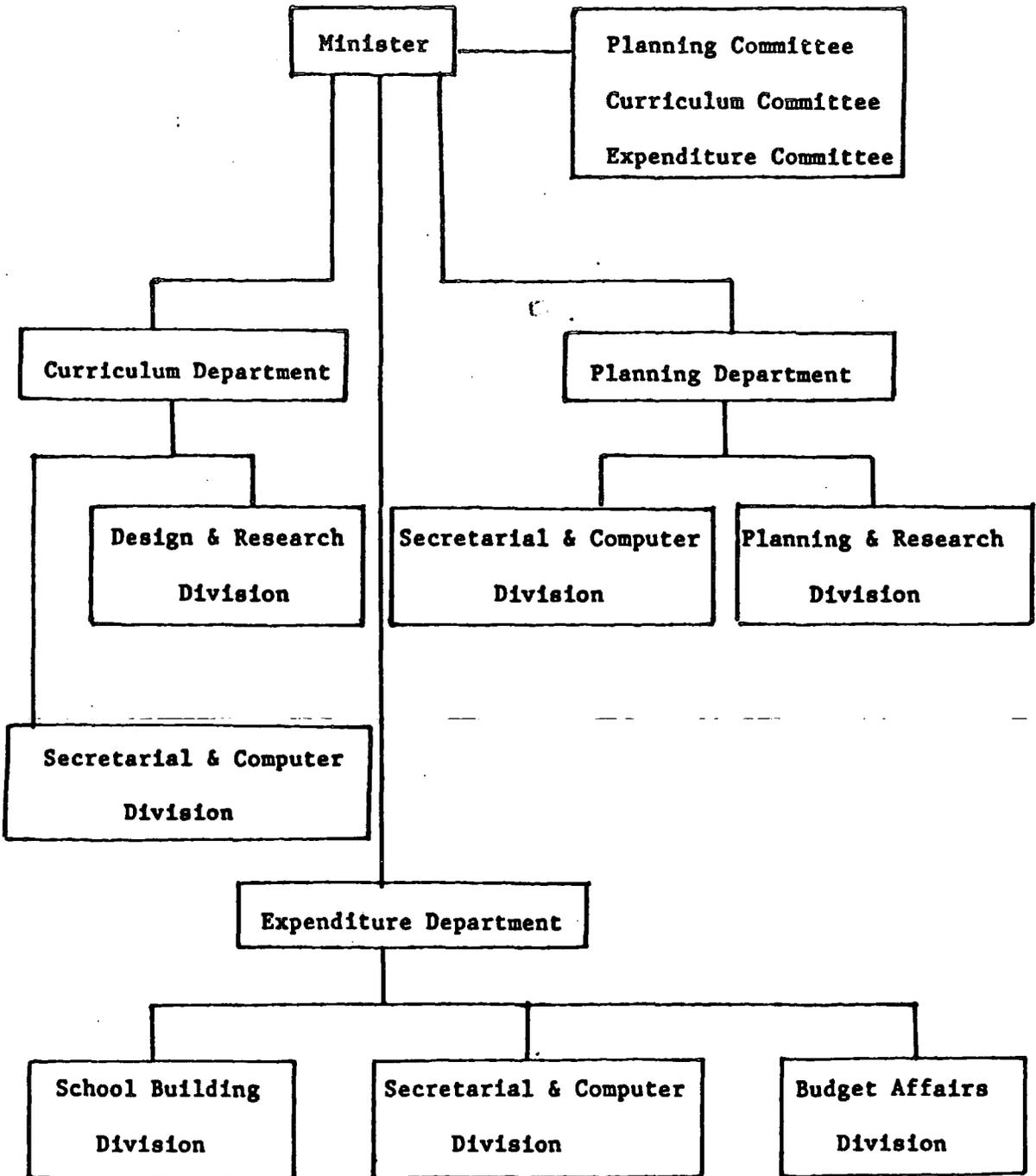
This Department should be headed by a Director who is a specialist in budget design and business administration. Teams of administrators should be selected carefully from among those who have experience and training in the Finance of Education. Three divisions should be

established in this Department. These are the Budget Affairs Division; the Secretarial and Computer Division, and the School Building Division. This Department should have the following responsibilities:

- (1) It should estimate the education budget for each scholastic year and make a projection for some years in the future.
- (2) It should forecast the student population and school building needs in each school district, and allocate the annual budget according to the size of the district.
- (3) School location and building design should be carried out by this Department. The Division of School Building should in all these matters be responsible for establishing contact with the Boards of Education in school districts.

Figure (8.†)

A proposed hierarchy of The Ministry of Education
Administrative Structure



Second: Changes in the School District System:

The school district system or trends towards decentralizing educational services in Kuwait need to be reorganized so as to involve local people in the process.* The present organization of the school districts prevents effective local participation in the running of the schools. The following changes might help to bring the school and the local community into closer partnership.

- (1) a Law to establish a Board of Education in each school district should be enacted setting out the rules, jurisdictions and functions of the Board in each school district. Members of the Boards should be selected locally from among those who have experience in educational matters.

- (2) The local Board of Education should be empowered to administer and operate the public school programme in its area and to form a bridge between the Ministry of Education and the school district office.

* The participation of parents in governing the school system in England and Wales. The Education Act 1980, stipulated in Section 1-5 the following: the governing body of every county, voluntary or special school maintained by a local education authority would include at least two parents of registered pupils at the school. In the case of voluntary school, one of these parents should be a 'foundation governor, but all other parents on governing bodies, elected by parents of registered pupils at the school, would be known as parent governors. Source: Maurice Kogan and others, School Governing Bodies, (Heinemann Educational, 1984), p2.

(3) The specific tasks of the Boards of Education might be:

- to select and appoint the Director of the school district and to establish the general outlines of the school district administrative structure.
- to select and recruit teachers, headmasters, and other school staff.
- to draw up the school district budget by estimating the needs of the area and work in liason both with the Expenditure Department in the Ministry of Education.
- to participate in curriculum design and development by working with the Curriculum Department in the Ministry of Education.
- to be responsible for school maintenance and innovation, equipment and instructional materials, transportation and food.

The School District Office:

This is the second tier of the administration of the school system in the district. It should be organized to meet the needs of each individual school. Divisions for Kindergarten, Elementary, Intermediate and Secondary education should be established. The supervision of schools and policies to implement the work of the office should be the responsibility of the Director and his subordinates. The School

District Office should be accountable to the Board of Education in the district. Communication between the School District Office and the Ministry of Education should be made through the Board of Education.

The tasks of the School District Office should essentially be to work with the individual school to facilitate its assigned role:

- (1) The School District Office should develop a system of supervision the work of the individual schools. This system of supervision should include the work of school administration (instructional and non-instructional function), the work of teachers (classroom instruction and out-of-class activities), and the student's achievement and progress by testing their skills, knowledge and their examination results.

- (2) The School District Office will need to develop a strategy to involve parents in the school programme. A Parent-Teacher Association should be established for each school and a programme of activities should be organized to create cooperation between school and parents for the benefit of the children. Parents could help in voluntary work in the school. For example they could help weak students in some areas of the school curriculum, they could support the school in the purchase of materials and they could participate in school events and occasions.

- (3) The School District Office should be responsible for developing an in-service training programme for school heads and teachers. A training centre should be established in every school district. The training centre would provide courses in teaching methods, supervision, evaluation techniques, educational technology and administration. Teachers would attend a training course at least once every three years to refresh their knowledge and learn the latest developments in their field. School administrators also need to attend courses in management, student discipline and teacher rating and supervision.
- (4) Evaluation of school effectiveness is also the responsibility of the School District Office. Evaluation is necessary because it is impossible to build an educational programme without it, the people in the district have a right to know how effective their schools are. Therefore a programme of school evaluation should be organized once a year to measure specific areas of the school's activities. Each School District Office has to develop its own evaluation techniques. Experts might be hired and appropriate research institutions might be consulted. Evaluation of school effectiveness should cover all aspects of school operations such as, school buildings, class size, school objectives, teaching methods, teacher qualifications, student achievement, and the school's relationship with the local environment.

Third: Change in Individual School Administration:

The individual school is an agent of the state responsible for implementing its educational policy. Within this general principle, individual schools should have considerable freedom and flexibility in handling their assigned roles. Future development in the school role would be facilitated by the following changes:

(1) School administration at the Kindergarten and Elementary levels should be reorganized by reducing the number of administrators. There is no need for the post of Assistant Headmaster. Some schools at these two levels have two assistant heads. His or her role in the present structure is nebulous and ill-defined. At the Intermediate and Secondary levels, where the size of school is much larger, the need for an Assistant Head is apparent. On the other hand, the number of other staff also needs to be reconsidered, as most schools are over-staffed on the administrative side. Most girls' schools have between four to six secretaries and a number of telephone operators.

(2) School heads should have more freedom and autonomy in drawing up their internal school policy and also in participating in decisions that relate to the whole educational system. The power of heads of schools should be clearly defined.

- The heads' authority needs to be put on a legal basis and his or her relationship with the Ministry of Education, the Board of Education, and the School District Office precisely established.

- Internal school policy should be the complete responsibility of the heads and their teachers. No other body should be entitled to interfere in these matters.

- School heads and their teachers should be responsible for the internal organization of the school, the length of the school day, the number of periods per day, period distribution per teacher, class size, examinations, student discipline, and school events and occasions.

- Heads of schools and their teachers should work as a team in school decision making. For this purpose, the school administration council should be extended to include teachers and perhaps student representatives at the secondary level.

- Teacher evaluation and rating should be done internally by school heads and a team of supervisors. Individual schools should develop their own supervision system for the benefit of their teachers and students. A report on each teacher should be sent periodically to the School District Office.

- (3) The school should be an agent for change in its local community. Its role should be extended beyond its boundaries to serve the community and to be served by it. Individual schools must have programmes to involve parents and to make them feel that school can help them as it helps their children. The following are some suggestions to involve the school more fully in community life:

- A Parent-Teacher Association should be established in every individual school. This association could meet regularly to discuss and advise on some school matters, such as curriculum, student discipline, instructional materials and equipment, and school evaluation.

- Parents could support schools financially to fund some programmes and activities, such as computer facilities, a school cafeteria, a school theatre, and school transport.

- The school could arrange educational trips to community services such as: hospitals, police headquarters, governors offices, and industries. In these trips students could meet professionals in their work situations and learn by observation; also teachers could take lessons in different places such as Museums, Zoos, Hospitals and Public Libraries.

Recommendation:

The preceding suggestions regarding the three stages of public education (The Ministry Organization, School District, and Individual School Administration) are intended to redistribute power and authority and create new channels of communication and decision-making within the three stages, and so increase the efficiency of the educational system. However, to implement these changes will not be easy. Therefore, the following steps are recommended:

(1) A National Committee for Education Reform should be set up. The Committee should include specialists in education, economics, social affairs, culture, business, industry, legal affairs, the private sectors, and the governmental sector. The members of the Committee might be elected or appointed by the Government and the professional associations. The National Committee would need authority for taking decisions and making changes, so that no other groups in the country could object to or interfere with its work.

(2) The National Committee should examine the following educational issues:

- The administrative structure of the Ministry of Education should be reconsidered, particularly its over-complicated hierarchy and over-centralized decision-making processes and the number of employees and departments that exceed its needs, and ministry administration costs, which absorb a large proportion of the total educational expenditure should be scrutinized.

- Existing educational legislations and regulations, such as the Law of Compulsory Education Number 11/65, the Law of Eradication the Illiteracy Number 4/82, and the Decree of Ministry of Education Jurisdictions, need clarification and amendment. These educational Laws and other regulations need to be amended to match the new demands and changes in society. Other specifically educational legislation should be discussed and introduced; such as, a Law of Public Education, a Law of School Administration and a Law of Boards of Education.

- The school system in its current form is also a matter of concern in terms of the ladder of education, the period of compulsory education, the need to recognize the Kindergarten level as an optional level, and the possibility of organizing comprehensive secondary education.

- Curriculum and textbooks constitute another area that should be examined by the Committee as the school curriculum in its present arrangement is inadequate to meet the stated objectives of education. The recent changes and innovations that have been adopted in the area of the school curriculum should be vigorously implemented.

- The National Committee needs to review the current goals of education. These goals which were hastily established ten years ago need to be reformulated in terms more appropriate to the current aspirations of Kuwait society.

- ~~Supervision or school inspection is an important area that~~ suffers from deficiencies. The Committee should find ways of improving school supervision by adopting new programmes in each school district, and make the Boards of Education responsible for selecting and appointing supervisors.

- The National Committee should examine other educational issues and take clear decisions in such matters as, headmasters' power and authority, teacher qualifications and training, educational costs and expenditure, and the school district system.

- (3) In so doing, the National Committee should be able to consult administrators, teachers, students, representatives of professional and public groups, parents, business leaders, public officials and scholars. The Committee should also be able to request participation from centres of research in the country or assistance from international associations.
- (4) In addition the Committee should constitute a number of sub-committees of specialists on educational matters. For example, there could be a sub-committee for educational legislation, and a sub-committee for the formulation of educational goals. These sub-committees should work separately and report their findings to the National Committee.
- (5) The National Committee should present an annual report to the Government and the Committee for Educational Affairs in the National Assembly. The report should be published and made available to the public. Both the Government and The National Assembly should set up working parties with participation from the Ministry of Education to implement the new strategies and changes.
- (6) The National Committee should meet once a year to review the performance of the educational system and to suggest what is appropriate for its development and progress.

II. In Higher Education:

First: Strategies for Change in the Administration of Post-Secondary Education:

Suggestions

In the investigation of the problems of the institutions of technical and vocational education in Kuwait it was apparent that the way in which public education is considered has contributed to the problems of these institutions both in the past and at present. Children in elementary schools learn mostly by recitation and memorization. At the intermediate and secondary levels their studies are largely theoretical and practical work does not form a significant part of school life. In the light of this the public school curriculum must be reformed so that children will accept vocational preparation for their own benefit and the benefit of society.

In changing the administration of post-secondary education the following suggestions might be considered:

- (1) A study should be conducted by a group of experts to assess the value of the existing institutions, their admission policies, their administration, their contribution to the development of the country, and their present defects and difficulties. The study should be based on consultation with teaching staff, parents and students concerning their aspirations and their expectations of this kind of education.

- (2) The Public Authority of Applied Education and Training (PAAET) should be an independent body dealing specifically with general policy and the budget. The PAAET should be headed by a Director who would be selected and appointed by the Government for a specified number of years. This appointment should be approved by the National Assembly.
- (3) A Higher Council of Technical and Vocational Education should be established as an advisory body, selected nationally to represent various sectors and interest groups. The Council might meet annually in a general conference sponsored by the State and open to the public. The Higher Council could deal with the following:
- To discuss the general policy of technical and vocational education such as matters relating to the cost of this kind of education and the attitude of the state towards it. They should also consider the whole question of authority and academic freedom that should be assigned to PAAET and individual institutions.
 - To review the laws and regulations that control the relationship between the State and PAAET and between PAAET and the individual institutions, and suggest changes or amendments.
 - To present studies, reports and statistics to show the progress of the institutions of technical and vocational education, their needs and specializations for the national labour-force, student admission and success rates, teaching staff quality and predictions for the future.

- To advise in the area of curriculum and training by inviting specialists in various fields to lecture or to hold public seminars.

- At the end of the Higher Council of Technical and Vocational Education session a report should be submitted to the State Authorities, PAAET and the individual institutions.

(4) In the matter of the administration of the individual institutions, considerable power and authority should be given to the Directors and their teams of administrators. The following are some suggestions which might help to achieve this:

- Every institute should be an autonomous unit in terms of its internal policy and programmes. The Director of the Institute who is selected and appointed by PAAET should be completely responsible for choosing his team of administrators, for the internal organization which would include admission procedures, length of course of study, teaching appointments and promotions, supervision and evaluation, and selecting the appropriate curriculum for students in their different fields of studies and training.

- Channels of communication between PAAET and the institutions of technical and vocational education must be established on a simple but legal basis. The Director of the Institute should communicate with PAAET in particular areas. First in the area of general policy which should be within the framework of state policies, and,

second in the area of the budget which should be discussed and prepared initially by the institute administration and then approved by PAAET. PAAET should have a right to inspect and evaluate the input - output relations of every institute to ensure that the general policy is implemented. A division or department should be established within PAAET to exercise this responsibility.

Recommendations:

- (1) A Law of post-secondary education should be passed detailing the structure of control for this kind of education. This Law should determine the limits of authority that should be held by the state, PAAET, and the individual institution. In addition the requirements of this law must be obligatory so that none of the above organizations would be able to disregard them.
- (2) The Law should emphasize the power of the individual institution to regulate its own internal system within the framework of the general policy, so that all programmes and activities could be organized without the need to obtain prior agreement from an external authority.
- (3) Post-secondary education must be attractive and readily available to those who graduate from secondary schools. In this context the following changes are suggested:

- Institutes should be re-named 'colleges' as the word institute has become associated in the minds of Kuwaitis with the technical and vocational institutions of the sixties. This type of institution has failed as the research in Chapter Six showed. The existing institutions should therefore be re-named as, for example, Teacher Colleges, Business Colleges, Colleges of Technology and Nursing Colleges.

- The period of study in the colleges should be extended to more than four semesters. For example, two degrees might be created. First a two year diploma to prepare assistant-technicians and second a Bachelor's Degree to prepare technicians for higher managerial posts. In addition higher post-graduate degrees might be established in the future.

- The colleges should be co-educational as is the case in Kuwait University. There is no need to separate the sexes in different buildings, as in general public schools. Co-education will be beneficial for many reasons. First, it will save money-as the need to duplicate laboratories and libraries will be eliminated, and the number of staff needed will also be reduced. Second it will emphasize to the students that there is no difference between their treatment and that of students in the university.

- The scale of salaries and other benefits should also be revised, currently, the graduates of post-secondary institutions earn less than those who graduate from the university. Therefore, to secure equal prestige for those institutions the salary scales should be increased.

- Students of technical colleges should be free to form their own scientific associations and unions and they should have support from the colleges authorities to become involved in such activities.

Second: Strategies for Change in Administering University Education:

Suggestions

It is necessary for Kuwait to give more attention to the important role that can be played by university education. Universities are viewed as a key factor in promoting change in the society. If they are well organized they will be able to develop and contribute to the achievement of their society's aspirations.

The crisis in university education in Kuwait is that its rapid growth has not been accompanied by appropriate improvement in its organization and administration. It is an essential task for the state authority and for the Kuwait University members to rethink the purposes and aims of university education and to address questions such as what are the real needs of university education? The following strategies are suggested to improve the administration of Kuwait University:

1. Kuwait University should be an autonomous body funded by the state and controlled by its staff. A new Law should be passed to define the powers of the State and the University Authority, and state that the general policy is the responsibility of the Board of Trustees under the national framework.

2. The proposed Law should determine the stages of administrative structure of Kuwait University and recognize the need for two different boards. The first is a Board of Trustees or a Planning Board whose main tasks are forming policies and making plans. Members of the Board of Trustees should be selected from among those who have experience in university education. It might be formed as follows:

Kuwait University Rector, three faculty Deans elected by the University Professors and other teaching staff, nine teaching staff members representing the University's faculties, and five members representing the government appointed by the Cabinet.

The second is a University Board or an Executive Board: This Board should implement the policies of the Board of Trustees. The Executive Board could be composed of the following:

The Rector of the University, three assistants to the Rector for administration, academic and budget affairs, and the faculty Deans. The Executive Board could form sub-committees to study and make proposal on specific matters relating to academic or administrative affairs.

3. The Law should also establish the procedures for the appointment of the University Rector. This appointment should be the responsibility of the Board of Trustees. The candidates for Rector

should be University Professors with experience in academic and administrative affairs. Once the Rector is appointed, he should select his assistants and his administrators, and serve for a specific number of years.

4. The new Law should also state the procedures for selecting and appointing the Deans of faculties from among the experienced members of the faculty. The faculty council should select two candidates, one of whom should be elected by the faculty members for a period of two years. The faculty council must be the highest level of administration in the faculty, it should be authorized to plan for the internal structure of the faculty and implement the general university policy. The council should be composed of the Dean and the chairman of the departments in the faculty.

5. The Law should guarantee scholars academic freedom and the members of the University, professors or students, should be free to engage in any area of research, and to express their opinions freely inside both their field of expertise and on other matters.

Recommendations:

Any strategies to change the administrative structure of Kuwait University have to be implemented sensitively because changes such as these need great preparation. The State authority has to be aware that a university is widely considered as more than simply a place of

learning. It is a place where individuals can be educated to share in building their own society. However, universities cannot achieve this mission if they are not well organized and have much administrative autonomy and academic freedom. In other words an awareness of the value of university education should lead the State authority to initiate urgent reform of Kuwait University. Secondly, a national committee for university reform should study the present administrative difficulties of Kuwait University. Members of the committee might be selected by the Government from inside Kuwait University or from outside it. The committee should employ a number of techniques to collect information such as interviews, questionnaires and observations that will help in reaching appropriate decisions. The committee's proposals should be presented to the Government and the Educational Committee in the National Assembly. An executive committee should be established in Kuwait University to implement the new strategies after the Laws and Governmental decrees have been enacted.

Finally, it is suggested that the following research should be undertaken:

1. The measurement of input - output relations, a study of school system effectiveness in Kuwait.
2. An evaluation of in-service training programmes for headmasters and teachers in Kuwait Schools.
3. School expenditure in Kuwait education and its relation to the State national revenue and expenditure.

4. A study of existing institutions of technical and vocational education and their contribution to the national labour-force.
5. A study of the purposes and aims of the school district system in Kuwait, and their relation to the trends towards decentralization in education (A comparative study).
6. A study of the headmaster's job satisfaction and its relation to their selection and preparation in Kuwait.
7. A study of the relationship between the school curriculum and the goals of education in Kuwait.
8. A study of the decision-making processes in the three stages: the State, the Ministry of Education and the School District.

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