

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING FOR THE
DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN
RESOURCES IN LEBANON

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This is to certify that the
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Educational Planning for the Development
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George G. Murr

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of the requirements for

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Major professor

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ABSTRACT

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN LEBANON

by George G. Murr

Statement of the Problem

The study identifies and describes the development of human resources in Lebanon. The description includes: (1) the existing educational system in terms of its capacity in training for manpower, (2) national planning for education and (3) known manpower requirements.

The study was undertaken to determine: (1) the discrepancy between education supply and manpower demand, (2) the implications of this discrepancy to educational planning and (3) the need for adjusting education supply to manpower demand.

Design and Method of Study

The study is designed to provide a foundation of descriptive data that lend themselves to the nature of the problem. It is not meant to be 'hypothesis testing', though it has the potential of testing the validity of the underlying assumptions.

Essentially, the study is descriptive and analytic: descriptive in the sense that it includes facts and current conditions found in a specific situation, analytic in observing the facts, organizing them and evaluating the findings in the light of pertinent criteria.

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Relevant data and material were collected by two methods: (1) through the revision of current literature on educational planning with respect to known manpower requirements in Lebanon and other pertinent material on the human resource situation and (2) through personal interviews conducted with concerned authorities in the field of education and economics in Lebanon.

Collected data was screened through a comparative analysis of education supply and manpower demand.

Major Findings of the Study

The study has revealed that: Lebanon, in its present stage of social-economic development, is in need of skilled manpower at different levels and that education is the primary producer of manpower required by the existing economy.

The educational system in Lebanon is a mixture of public and private education, both sectors functioning separately within a broad national context.

There is no evidence of a well defined educational policy that coordinates the activities of public and private education.

The organizational structure of the educational system gives greater emphasis to academic education at the expense of vocational-technical education. The academic stream accommodating 87.4% of total student population on the secondary level is out of proportion to the 10.8% in the vocational-technical stream and the 1.8% of students at teachers' institutes.

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The Lebanese economy is demanding a higher caliber of manpower with a minimum of four years beyond elementary schooling coupled with saleable skills and experiences.

There is a noted discrepancy between education supply and manpower demands, demonstrated by shortages in the producing of manpower with vocational and technical skills and surpluses in manpower with academic and theoretical knowledge.

There are many attempts on the part of the Lebanese authorities to bridge the gap between education supply and manpower demand as demonstrated in the work of various standing committees on planning. But there is no evidence of integrating educational planning with overall national programs.

There is considerable lack of accurate and reliable statistical data, evidenced by the dearth of scientific research on population, manpower and economic growth.

On the basis of these findings, the study suggests a working policy for educational planning that takes into consideration the adjustment of education supply to manpower demand.

**EDUCATIONAL PLANNING FOR THE DEVELOPMENT
OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN LEBANON**

by
George G. Murr

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Recently, there has been an increasing interest in the study of educational planning with respect to the development of human resources. Trends in the fields of education and other social sciences show that this interest is becoming universal. Whether in the Eastern or Western World, underdeveloped or developed countries, national governments, supported by an increasingly enlightened and aspiring populace, are appropriating larger portions of their budgets to education. This is being done on the assumption that education plays a vital role in the social and economic development of a nation. Accordingly, educational planning for the development of human resources is being looked at as an indispensable process in relating education to overall national objectives. More important, trends show that this aspect of education is resulting in the opening of new horizons to educators, social scientists and politicians. Approached from such perspective, educational planning could be considered a focal point in the study of human resources, social and economic development and other areas related to this field. The increasing amount of current literature indicates the importance of this trend in education and social science.¹

¹ Among the many studies conducted in this field to mention very few: Educational Planning, by Donald Adams, editor, Syracuse University, 1964. Education, Manpower and Economic Growth, by Harbison, Fredrick and Myers, Charles New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964. "Estimating the Returns to Education," by E. F. Renshaw, Review of Economics and Statistics, Vol., 42, No. 3, August 1960. Economics of Higher Education, By Selma J. Mushkin, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1962.

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In line with these trends and views, it is the purpose of this study to concentrate on the examination and analysis of educational planning for human resource development in one of the newly independent countries of the Middle East, Lebanon.

The Nature of the Problem

Lebanon is a small mountainous country, located on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea. It achieved its independence in 1943. Soon after, Lebanon became a member of the Arab League and the United Nations. The country has an area of approximately 4000 square miles (about the size of the state of Connecticut) and a population slightly over two million people.² The population density is approximately 500 persons per square mile, the highest in the Middle East, with the exception of the Nile Valley in Egypt.

Politically, Lebanon is a parliamentary Republic based on universal suffrage. Legislative power is vested in a unicameral Chamber of Deputies which has a present membership of 99 deputies, elected by the people for a four-year term. The President of the

"Capital Formation by Education," by Theodore W. Schultz, Journal of Political Economy, Vol. 67, No. 6, December 1960. "Education and Investment in Human Capital," by Burton A. Weisbrod, Journal of Political Economy (Supplement) Vol. 70, No. 5, Oct. 1962. OECD Publications on Education and Manpower Planning in Some Mediterranean Countries, (Paris), 1960-64.

²Ministry of Planning. Central Directorate of Statistics, Bulletin Statistique Mensuel, (The Monthly Statistical Bulletin), Vol. 3, No. 1, March 1965. According to the Bulletin, Population of Lebanon in 1965 was 2,151,884. The last national census was that of 1932. Any demographic account after that date was based on estimates of the United Nations Statistical Service or local authorities. This area will be further investigated in Chapter III.

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Republic is elected by the deputies for a six-year term. The executive body is vested in the Cabinet, which is headed by a Premier, who, in his turn, is appointed by the President of the Republic.

From an economic viewpoint the country enjoys a relatively high standard of living in comparison to other countries in the Middle East. The per capita national income is slightly over 1000 Lebanese pounds -- about 350 U. S. dollars. This is the highest level among Arab countries with the exception of the oil rich states of Kuwait, Qatar and Bahrein.³ The major sources of income are derived from agriculture, industry, commerce, services and tourism.

The educational system in Lebanon, highly centralized under national control, is meant to serve many purposes, basically, national and individual. On the national level, the system functions as a unifying factor bringing together all the cultural elements in the society under one broad aim of national identification. This aim is being translated into practice through a prescribed national program of studies and an official language of instruction, which is Arabic.

On the individual level, the system is meant to provide the citizen with the proper knowledges and experiences to help him develop his potentialities and seek better opportunities in life.

In terms of control and support of education, the Lebanese educational system is the shared responsibility of both public and private sectors. Public education is the responsibility of the national government. Through the Ministry of Education, responsibilities

³U. S. Department of Commerce, "Market Factors in Lebanon, Overseas Business Report, March 1964, p. 1.

and duties are delegated and coordinated in the administration and organization of public schools. At the same time, the constitution of the country makes provisions for private education on the condition that it abides by the overall national policy and other pertinent rules inherent in the legislation of education.

Like many other emerging nations, Lebanon is undergoing a tremendous process of change and development. This process embraces almost all aspects of the society's life: social, cultural, political, economic, educational, and religious. Presumably this change has been introduced at a time when there was not adequate national planning to channel it in the proper direction. It is true that political independence was achieved in 1943, there existed however, a state of economic dependence, social immaturity and cultural conservatism. The national government did not have the sufficient resources, basically financial and human resources, to cope with the new situation and plan for change. Consequently, some sectors in the society progressed more than other sectors. This unbalanced progress resulted in many cultural lags and social stratification. This kind of situation was likely to result in many social, economic and educational problems requiring immediate solutions.

Confronted with all these problems the national government started seeking solutions that would lead to social justice, political stability, economic prosperity and equality of opportunities. Among the solutions to these problems education was given a top priority. It was conceived by the government authorities and all other groups in the country that the establishment of a sound educational system

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is the most permanent foundation for a modern Lebanese society. It was assumed that education would hopefully result in a more literate and enlightened populace qualified to seek better opportunities from life.

Accordingly, the Ministry of Education, as an official government institution, assumed its responsibilities in designing an educational system appropriate with the new face of the nation. In 1944, the Ministry embarked on various educational programs that were deemed feasible in providing solutions to existing school curricula and designed a new national program of studies to fit the situation. Upon the recommendation of these committees a new curriculum was built in 1946 and is still in effect at the present time. Similar measures were taken in other areas of the educational system affecting the certification of education, and the various streams in the educational structure. Thus, in successive years, the government was able to cope with the situation and to set the foundation for further educational policies and programs.

At present, the Lebanese educational system claims the accomplishment of many educational goals. Public schools provide education, both free and universal, to about 40% of the school age population on the elementary and secondary levels. Correspondingly, private schools provide education for the remaining 60% of school population on the above mentioned levels. Teacher institutes, raised from one in the forties to five in the mid-sixties, accommodate about 1400 student teachers and graduate each year about 300 potential teachers. Vocational and technical schools train the youth for

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skilled labor. Higher education offers professional and liberal arts education to those who are college bound. School facilities are being provided within the limitations of available funds.

However, a few questions may be raised at this point about the educational system in terms of its function to meet the competing demands from education and on its relation to the overall national objectives. Does the system provide youth with the kind of education that meets their interests, capacities and resources? To what extent is vocational and technical education adequate in providing students with the skills and experiences demanded by the market? Are teacher education programs efficient in training the demanded number of teachers needed in elementary and secondary schools? To what extent is higher education accessible to those who finish their high school education? Is the educational system, as it functions at present, adequate in meeting the social and economic needs arising in the various sectors of the society? To what extent is education related to overall developmental programs in the country? Do educational plans reckon with the major changes, scientific, technical and the like, affecting other institutions in the society?

Viewing the educational system through the socio-economic structure of the Lebanese Society the major question that may be posed in this respect is: to what extent does the present educational system in Lebanon meet the need for human resource development?

In order to answer the above question intelligently two main areas must be examined and discussed: the educational system in terms of its productive capacity--both quantitatively and qualitatively--in

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training for manpower and the economic system in terms of manpower requirements. The study of the educational system includes a review of the main developments in the field of education in Lebanon since independence. It calls for a description of administration and organization of education, the control and support of education (both public and private), the educational streams provided by the system, the composition and structure of student population and other pertinent aspects of the educational system.

In studying the economic system of the country relevant emphasis is placed on current and future trends in occupations, labor force and other areas of manpower requirements. Discussion of these trends require a description of the Lebanese economy in terms of major economic sectors, national income, natural resources, the employment situation and related aspects contributing to classification and illustration of manpower requirements in the country.

Once these two areas are thoroughly investigated, the next step is to compare and contrast the education supply on the one hand and manpower demand on the other hand. This phase of the study concerns itself with the analysis of the educational system in relation to the social economic situation of the country. How do educational plans relate themselves to overall national plans? What is the impact of state policy on educational planning? What adjustments can be made to meet social and economic needs? What educational streams should be emphasized? What should be the guiding policy in educational planning? How can education play an effective role in the development of human resources? The answer to these questions will form the core of this study.

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The Purpose of the Study

As was indicated above, the study raises a number of issues that may be conceived of as inherent problems in the Lebanese educational system. The broad purpose of the study calls for the examination of educational planning with respect to human resource development. Derived from this purpose is the identification and suggestion of ways and means by which the educational system can contribute more effectively to the achievement of overall national goals through short term and long range plans.

In studying the educational system of any country, with a view of recommending improvement and suggesting change, there is a tendency on the part of the planners to concentrate on structural modifications of the system. Such recommendations seem to be appealing because the changes suggested are tangible and can often be implemented readily, given the suitable political and economic power of a certain regime. This is not the position assumed in this study. Although administrative changes are important, they are not crucial in the development of human resources. The major point given emphasis in this study is the quality and functioning of education in producing a certain caliber of manpower that has a demand in the social and economic spheres of the society. It should be made clear at this point that education, by definition, has many functions. It cultivates the intellect, develops aesthetic feelings and broadens one's horizons. Some people acquire education as an end in itself. Others acquire it for gaining a better status in society: social, academic and otherwise. Still others acquire it as a means to occupational ends. All these claims are legitimate and

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socially desirable. However, it is the purpose of the study to concentrate on education, consistently as a developer of human resources. By this is meant the extent to which education provides the people of the country with the necessary skills, knowledges, and experiences that qualify them to fit into occupations and other economic and social opportunities both available and required in that country. Hence, the emphasis of the study is on what may be termed a "manpower-requirements approach." This implies the anticipation and foreseeing of the future occupational structure of the economy and the planning of education so as to provide the requisite number of personnel with the qualifications which that structure demands.⁴

The manpower requirements approach is not the only significant aspect in educational planning. There are human, spiritual, social and cultural dimensions that may be considered as constituent elements in the process of planning. These elements are not, and should not, be dismissed from any study dealing with the development of human resources. Hence they are used by the study as givens, and are referred to when necessary.

By a logical necessity, the study deals with certain problems that lend themselves to manpower planning, manpower requirements and other aspects related to the economic sphere in the Lebanese society. However, this is not the main purpose of the study. These aspects are introduced to serve as criteria or points of reference for the classification of underlying issues related to human resources. Thus,

⁴Herbert S. Parnes, Forecasting Educational Needs for Economic and Social Development, (Paris: OECD Publications, 1962), p. 15.

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when these issues are raised by the study, emphasis will be on current and future trends in the economic sphere that are likely to affect the educational process. The underlying assumption is that educational planning is closely related to other areas of planning in the Lebanese society. Thus the introduction of technology and automation in the industrial sector is most likely to incur deep changes in the inherent structure of the society. The same thing could be applied to the introduction of any innovation which is likely to result in anticipated social and cultural change. All these changes suggest the need for a flexible curriculum that provides both theoretical and practical education according to the arising needs of the situation. The effectiveness of an educational system in this respect depends on the degree to which it is cognizant of the new developments of the social and economic order and the extent to which it can adjust itself to the new situation.

In the light of these observations, the study will be limited to the examination and analysis of the following areas:

1. A description of the present educational system, its recent progress and plans for future developments.
2. Analysis of the productive capacity of the system in terms of student population and graduates.
3. An examination of existing educational plans and decisions affecting the process of educational planning.
4. A survey of the basic characteristics of the Lebanese manpower demand as being demonstrated

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5. A comparison and contrast between education supply and manpower demand as being demonstrated by specific indicators related to manpower requirements.

Because the scope of the study is wide and comprehensive, the study will be limited to the discussion of the educational system on the secondary level. This includes all education streams on that level, both academic and non academic, in public and private schools. However, a description of other levels in the educational system is presented in order to provide the reader with a comprehensive view of the system. Similar approaches will be followed in the discussion of the economic system.

Finally, the purpose of the study is to explore some of the conceptual and methodological problems involved in the assessment of educational and economic needs and to suggest alternative approaches that appear to be useful and feasible in the development of human resources in Lebanon.

Underlying Assumptions

The nature of the study, based on a descriptive analytic approach to the problem more than an experimental approach, makes it difficult to generate testable hypotheses. However, the study is based on certain assumptions that may serve as "guiding lights" in approaching the basic issues inherent in the problem.

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Underlying the whole study is one major assumption stating that the educational system, in terms of its productive capacity does not meet manpower requirements existent and arising in the economic and social spheres of the Lebanese society. Stated in a positive form the assumption implies a discrepancy between the educational system as a producer of manpower and the economic system as an employer of human resources.

Other minor assumptions include the following:

1. There is a discrepancy between education supply and manpower demand. This is evidenced in the fact that the national economy is not absorbing students after their graduation.
2. To date, there has been little planning in the field of education. Whatever planning exists is exclusively done under the pressure of immediate educational needs.
3. There is little coordination of educational planning with overall developmental programs in the country.
4. In contrast to an overstressed academic stream of education, vocational and technical education is understressed.
5. Incentives are insufficient to attract capable students to vocational and technical education.
6. There is an increasing awareness on the part of concerned authorities of the vital role of educational planning in the development of human resources.

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7. The success or failure of any plan, educational or other, depends largely on the attitude and orientation of the people.

These, plus other conceivable assumptions that may arise during the sequence of the study, are meant to provide tentative answers to questions that may be raised around the efficiency or feasibility of educational planning. Confirmation or refutation of these assumptions is pending the findings of the study.

Related Literature

The review of the current literature reflects the importance and seriousness of the problem. Not many studies have been conducted in the area of educational planning in Lebanon. However, the very few that have been accomplished so far suggest the need for educational planning as a primary condition to the achievement of educational goals. These studies point directly to the bearing of educational planning on future social and economic development of the country.

The most pertinent and authoritative studies conducted in this field are those being sponsored by the Ministry of National Education and other concerned educational authorities and agencies in the country. The significance of these studies inheres in their conceptualization of the problem and the visualization of goals and objectives that relate education to other developmental programs in the country, primarily social and economic programs. These studies, being compiled in the form of periodicals, brochures and monographs, attempt to examine educational planning in terms of aims and means.⁵ The studies focus

⁵Among these materials are the studies conducted by the

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on both the immediate and ultimate purposes of education and investigate the means through which these aims could be attained. They also relate education to the basic needs of the society. A significant contribution of these studies is the data they provide, in terms of statistical data with respect to major social and educational developments in the country.

Among other enlightening studies dealing with the social and economic development of Lebanon and the laying down of overall developmental plans are those conducted by the IRFED Mission to Lebanon.⁶ The Mission, composed of experts in the fields of education and social sciences, was sponsored by the Lebanese government and entrusted with the responsibility of examining the socio-economic needs of the country and the possibilities of national development. After a thorough study of the socio-economic situation, the Mission came out with many findings in light of which it presented suggestions and recommendations that would meet these needs. Furthermore, the Mission laid the foundation of a short-term national plan from 1964 to 1968 that includes target years for education and other sectors in the Lebanese economy. This plan was later adopted by the Ministry of Planning, with some modification as a guide line for a five-year national plan.⁷

Lebanese delegation to the "Regional Center for the Training of Advanced Personnel in the Administration of Education in the Arab World," (Beirut), 1961-63.

⁶ L'Institut International de Recherche et de Formation on Vue de Development (IRFED), Besoins et Possibilités de Development du Liban, (Two Volumes and Annex in French), (Beirut), 1961.

⁷ Ministry of Planning, The Five-Year Plan for Economic Development in Lebanon, (Beirut), 1965.

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One of the most up-to-date and illustrative studies that has a direct bearing on the problem was that conducted by the team sponsored by the Economic Research Institute at the American University of Beirut, Lebanon.⁸ The study emphasized the fact that serious thought had not been given, up to that time, to manpower planning or the balancing of manpower resources and requirements in Lebanon. It also made clear that the country was still in the early stages of economic development, and until recently offered little scope for the utilization of its rapidly increasing number of technical and professional personnel. Among the obstacles to manpower planning in Lebanon, the study indicates to the problems of relating a manpower program to the existing educational system, which was described as a non-coherent mixture of private and public education.

A series of related works which are of great value to this study are those initiated and sponsored by the OECD under the Mediterranean Regional Project.⁹ The purpose of these studies was to examine the social and economic situations of some European countries on the Mediterranean sea. The examination was to be included in reports prepared for the national governments of each country indicating the assessment of the educational needs of these countries until 1975 and recommending plans to meet these needs.

⁸ Simon Siksek, et. al., Preliminary Assessment of Manpower Resources and Requirements in Lebanon, Economic Research Institute, American University of Beirut, 1960.

⁹ Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, (OECD) A Series of Publications dealing with economic and social developments in six Mediterranean countries in Europe: Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Turkey, and Yugoslavia, (Paris), 1955-1963.

Due to the fact that Lebanon, by virtue of being a Mediterranean country, shares many traits with these countries, basically geographic and climatic; it is assumed that it also shares with them similar problems arising from the economic and social situations. Hence, from a comparative viewpoint, solutions, and suggestions addressed to educational problems in these European countries could be applicable, with some modifications, to their counterparts in the educational situation of Lebanon.

There are many other works of similar content which have been conducted in other countries that share some commonalities with Lebanon. It is sufficient in this respect to single out the Thai-USOM human resources study.¹⁰ The significance of the study inheres in the surveying of the socio-economic situation of Thailand and the assessment of the country's needs in the light of the overall social and economic goals of the country. In its methodological and systematic approach to the problem, the Thai Project can be of great value in the building of a methodology to the study.

In brief, it may be said in this respect that the progressively increasing studies in educational planning with respect to human resource development suggests that a remarkable work can be initiated and conducted in educational planning in Lebanon.

Definition of Terms

This study makes use of some particular terminology, concepts and notions which are defined within the context as follows:

¹⁰ Thai-USOM Project, Preliminary Assessment of Education and Human Resources in Thailand, 2 Vols., Report of the Joint Task Committee and Working Papers, 1963.

Educational Planning (like any other planning) is the process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future.¹¹

Educational Needs imply values and goals that happen to be held by a society and to the total amount of resources available for the pursuit of those goals. A country's "needs" for education depend upon the criteria selected and even then can be ascertained only in reference to a host of competing needs.¹²

Manpower Planning the total process by which there is achieved proper development and wise utilization of the human resources of a nation in attaining the objectives to which the nation has committed itself.¹³

Manpower Requirements the functional (occupational) composition of employment that will be necessary if certain social and/or economic targets are to be achieved. The concept is different from manpower demand in the sense that the latter is used as a schedule of relationships between quantities of labor and a series of possible wage rates. Thus, whereas "manpower demand" is used as an economic concept, "manpower requirements" is used as a technological one.¹⁴

¹¹Donald Adams, (editor) Educational Planning, (New York: Syracuse University, 1964), p. 9.

¹²Parnes, H. S., op. cit., p. 12.

¹³Siksek, S., et.al., op. cit., p. 24.

¹⁴Parnes, H., op. cit., pp. 17-18.

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Method and Plan of the Study

The study is descriptive and analytic in its nature. It is descriptive in the sense that it includes facts and current conditions to be found in a specific situation and under certain circumstances. It is analytic in that it observes the facts, organizes them and evaluates the findings in the light of pertinent criteria. Out of this analysis conclusions and generalizations can be deduced.

In its approach to the problem, the study is theoretical. Essentially, this approach implies the postulation of certain assumptions and principles that can be investigated and interpreted on a conceptual level. Relevant data and material were collected by two methods: first, through the revision of current literature in the fields of education and known manpower requirements in Lebanon and second, through personal observation and examination of the situation. To accomplish this part of the study, the writer conducted a three month study tour to Lebanon during the summer of 1965. Personal interviews were conducted with concerned authorities in the Ministries of National Education, Economy, Planning and other authorities knowledgeable on human resources. Primary sources were obtained from the above Ministries and offices related to them.

It should be made clear at this point that a study of this nature, in order to be valid and meaningful, has to be established on basic data and thoroughly examined information. Accordingly, all data related to the educational aspect of the study were primarily derived from the Statistical Bureau of the Ministry of Education in Beirut. Such data was updated to 1965. Similar data pertaining to

The sphere of economy was obtained from reliable sources in that area. However, one should be warned that the concept of "statistics" and "census," as is understood in the Western World, is something new to Lebanon. The scientific method is to a large extent an academic endeavor more than an accepted frame of reference for observing and evaluating data. Consequently, statistics upon which to base accurate estimates and forecasts are either difficult to obtain, and if obtained, are quite often close estimates and approximations to a given situation. Besides, costs fluctuate greatly from year to year in the same manner that Lebanese conditions are changing rapidly. For these reasons any forecasts about the scope of education or economy in Lebanon, five or fifteen years hence, are likely to miss the mark. However, such estimates, whether conceived as enlightened guesses or random projections to present conditions, are better than no estimates at all. It should be borne in mind that the nature of the problem posed by the study is quite thorny and intricate. The writer, by his own individual effort expects no more than to set the ball rolling, by letting the door of inquiry come wide open, for the real task calls for the ingenuity of experts in diverse fields of study. If the present study succeeds in stimulating a prompt and honest exploration of the problem and suggests some new lines of thought in that direction, then it will have served its purpose.

Based on the above considerations, collected data and material will be incorporated and organized in the following order:

Chapter I Introduction. A preliminary rationale to the problem including the nature, the purpose and methodology of the study.

- Chapter II** A general survey of the Lebanese educational system. The survey covers recent trends of the educational system, aims and philosophy of education, as well as administration and organization of education.
- Chapter III** The composition and structure of student population, including distribution of students by educational streams at all levels of the organizational structure of the system, with emphasis on secondary education.
- Chapter IV** The national planning for education. Discussion centers on existing plans, both short and long term, as approved and implemented, with reference to the impact of state policy on educational planning. Discussion is concluded by analysis and evaluation of these plans with respect to overall social and economic goals of the country
- Chapter V** Educational planning with respect to known manpower requirements. This includes a general survey of the Lebanese economy: its basic characteristics, the size and magnitude of the labor force and the economic and occupational distribution of the population.
- Chapter VI** Overall appraisal of the present human resource situation. This includes an analysis of existing educational capacity in the light of manpower

requirements as revealed in the previous chapter. Included also is a comparison between education supply and manpower demand.

Chapter VII Setting up a working policy for educational planning. This includes discussion of pertinent issues revealed by the study. Also a suggestion for integrating educational planning with overall national planning and adjustment of education supply to manpower demand.

Chapter VIII Conclusions and Recommendations.

CHAPTER II

A GENERAL SURVEY OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN LEBANON

The educational system in Lebanon, like many other educational systems in the world, functions to meet the competing demands arising from social, cultural, economic and political aspects of the society. These aspects influence, to a great extent, the aims and means of the system, govern its contents and its philosophy. Studying merely the machinery of the system: the administration and organization of education, the curricula, the teaching methods, and classroom procedures is meaningless without having all these aspects placed in a social cultural context.

Consequently, in order to understand, appreciate, and evaluate the meaning and function of the Lebanese educational system, it is essential to become acquainted with its history and tradition and to know something about the underlying forces that govern its administration and organization and ordain on it its unique status. Moreover, such an understanding provides an insight into the system and helps in the clarification of relevant issues affecting the process of educational planning.

It is the purpose of this chapter, then, to describe the educational system in Lebanon in terms of its administrative and organizational machinery. Special consideration will be given to the historic background of the system with respect to the social, cultural, and political developments that affected its growth and shaped its

purposes and philosophy. This does not mean, however, that the description will be thorough or comprehensive, which is beyond the limits of the chapter. It is rather a general survey with particular emphasis on those aspects of the educational system which are closely related to the development of the study.

Historic Background

The Lebanese society is characterized by many features which give it a unique position in the Middle East. Most of these features are derived from historical, geographical, social, and cultural factors.

In contrast to many homogenous societies, Lebanon is mainly characterized by the fact that it is composed of different communities that belong to various ethnic, racial, religious, and social groups, which in spite of their differences happen to live in a state of close geographic proximity and social-economic interdependence.¹ This state of interdependence was dictated by many factors, namely a network of common interests, protection from foreign invasion, and the maintenance of internal stability and security. Hence, all communities concerned came to an agreement, throughout the ages, upon a peaceful co-existence.

Historic developments, later on, left a direct impact on the culture of the society and its ethnic religious structure. Since the days of the Phoenicians, Lebanon was looked at as a refuge of different people and groups who sought liberty and safety in its mountains. This situation became a commonground after the Christian Era. Christians and non-Christians, Arabic and non-Arabic speaking communities came to

¹Albert H. Hourani, Syria and Lebanon, (London: Oxford University Press, 1946), pp. 121-129.

Lebanon as minority groups. Being aware of their differences, they were eager to preserve their identity and way of life. Each community governed the personal affairs of its members in accordance with its religious beliefs and traditional practices.²

These conditions were further reinforced by the geographic location of the country. Being located on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea at a central point between three continents: Asia, Africa and Europe, Lebanon had been the crossroads of many cultures and civilizations. Many of the invading powers whether coming from the East or the West left some of their remains in the country. Thus, we can find Phoenician relics side by side with Hittite cuniform, Egyptian hieroglyphics, Persian monuments, Greek Sculpture, Roman architecture, Arabic languages and Ottoman rules, all of which contributed to the heterogeneity of the Lebanese society.³

Another basic feature of the Lebanese society was that of autonomy. "The Lebanon has through the centuries enjoyed in part or in whole an existence of full or semi-independence. By its very nature, it was the last of the lines to fall into the hands of foreign invaders, and having fallen it was soon found expedient to allow it to persist in its autonomy."⁴ This situation was best demonstrated under the rule of the Arabs and the Ottoman Turks. The suzerainty of the Arab Caliphs and Ottoman Sultans was purely nominal and strictly

²Philip K. Hitti, Lebanon in History, (London: The Macmillan Press, 1957), pp. 3-10.

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid, p. 8.

confined to the collection of tributes and taxes. In succeeding centuries, the rights of the indigenous communities were further extended, especially so when the Ottoman Empire granted France some capitulations in the Middle East. Under the terms of these capitulations France assumed the responsibility of protecting the Christians in that area of the world. Later on, the autonomy of the Greek Orthodox and the different Catholic communities were confirmed and sanctioned by international laws and agreements.⁵

After the emergence of Lebanon as a new nation under French mandate in 1920, all existing communities maintained their legal rights by legislation. These rights were confirmed by the Constitution of 1926.⁶ In 1943, when Lebanon became an independent state, the practiced state of affairs became a tradition. All religious and ethnic groups maintained their judicial and political status, but within the framework of a nation-state. These groups stand in this order: Maronites, Sunni, Shia, Greek Orthodox, Catholics, Armenians, Druze, Protestants, and Jews.⁷ No single group has the opportunity to become a majority. There seems to be a constant balance of power between the two leading religious groups: Christians and Moslems.

This situation resulted undoubtedly in a unique political phenomenon. The whole political life in Lebanon is based on what may

⁵Nicola A. Ziadeh, Syria and Lebanon, (New York: Fredrick A. Praeger, 1957), pp. 31-36.

⁶Kamal, S. Salibi, The Modern History of Lebanon, (New York: Fredrick A. Praeger, 1965), pp. 166-168.

⁷Hourani, Albert, op. cit., pp. 121-125.

be called the "National Pact," which is a gentleman's agreement among the different communities to live together. The "National Pact" concluded in 1943, on the eve of independence, and may be compared to the "Mayflower Compact," defines Lebanon's personality in view of its special problems. By that definition, Lebanon is an Arab country with a presumed Christian majority.⁸

According to the terms of the "National Pact" political power is distributed among the various communities in relative proportion to the size of each community as described by the 1932 census. In the same manner, other public offices and positions were distributed among the citizens. Thus, the President of the Republic should always be a Christian Maronite - the Premier, a Muslim Sunni - the Speaker of the House, a Muslim Shí[^]a and so on In the Cabinet, as well as in the Parliament, all the seats are distributed in a proportionate manner, where the Christian-Muslim ratio should always be 6 to 5. This illustrates the numerical composition of the Parliament, which consists at present of 99 deputies.

Viewed from a social-economic perspective, Lebanon may be described as a "classed" but "open" society. Although social stratification is not classified according to a universally accepted method, as in the Western World and especially in the United States, there are some known determinants of social stratification. These are basically family background, real estate, income and education. This social composition was superimposed on the cultural - religious condition of

⁸Emil Lengyel, The Changing Middle East, (New York: The John Day Co., 1960), p. 185.

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the country and the value-orientation of the people. Communities, composed of certain religious and ethnic groups, became through successive historical developments, more influential elements in the social and economic composition of the country than other communities. For example, some Christian communities, by developing close affiliations with the West, prospered more than other communities which remained either isolate or non-committal.⁹ Social-economic discrepancy resulted in a different distribution of power, basically, political and economic power, a condition which is displayed at present by relentless contest among interest groups, political leaders, and demagogues for the achievement of more power and influence.

All these underlying forces were likely to leave a direct impact on the educational system by ordaining on it a unique status which is a mixture of all conditions: social, economic, ethnic, religious, and political. Hence, the educational system in Lebanon may best be described as a mixture of sub-systems reflecting a multiplicity of interests, aims, and objectives. Conventionally, the system can be classified under two main categories: public and private education. Public education is the responsibility of the national government through the Ministry of Education, and private education is the responsibility of individuals or groups outside the domain of the government. Whereas public education is free and universal, private education is mostly tuitional. Whenever private schools are non-tuitional they are

⁹ Hourani, Albert, op. cit., pp. 127-128.

entitled to receive subsidies from the government.¹⁰ With the joint effort of the public and the private sectors, education may be conceived of as a partnership between the two sectors. This view is endorsed by Article 10 of the Lebanese Constitution which stipulates that:

"Education shall be free insofar as it is not contrary to public order and good morale and does not affect the dignity of any of the several faiths or creeds (Mazaheb). There shall be no violation of the right of the religious communities (Tawaif) to have their own schools provided they comply with the general prescriptions concerning public instruction which is decreed by the state."¹¹

The basic characteristics of the educational system, among others, which shall be discussed in the following paragraphs are likely to overshadow any educational reforms or planning that may be envisaged by the educational planner.

The Aims and Philosophy of Education

When discussing the Lebanese philosophy of education it is very difficult to pinpoint one piece of legislation or delineate a single source book--say a yearbook--and say these are the contents of that philosophy of education. Basically these materials are non-existent per se. What may be found under "a philosophy of education" is deducted by inference from the different legislation of education, from scattered references included in the preamble of the national program of studies, from other state messages issued by the government and from the various

¹⁰Ministry of National Education, A Ministerial Decree on the Organization of Teaching Personnel in Private Schools, (Beirut: June 12, 1956), Art. 62.

¹¹The Constitution, (Lebanon: May 27, 1926), Article 10.

Ministerial decrees. All these sources combined, plus the existing theories and practices of education in the country, embody among themselves an unstated, but implicit philosophy of education.

Based on a free universal education, such a philosophy reflects a strong faith in the dignity of the individual and his right to a free access to education. By extending educational opportunities, there is the belief that an enlightened citizenry is apt to build a sound society. These views are consistent with the aims of education which emphasize the development of the productive and good citizen who knows his rights and is aware of his obligations.¹² Evidence shows that more than 85% of the country's population are literate.¹³ Trends indicate a strong commitment to education on the part of the people. Practically, all the Lebanese value education. This is expressed by their increasing demand for schools. These demands are met with the establishment of more schools and the preparation and recruitment of more teachers.

The underlying philosophy of education runs parallel to the social and cultural developments described in the previous section of this chapter. It may be summed up under two main views: national objectives and individual interests. On the national level, the system aims at the maintenance of political stability, the promotion of economic prosperity, and the observance of cultural unity. These objectives are strongly needed in a country composed of diverse religious

¹²Ministry of National Education, The Program of Studies, (Beirut), 1946.

¹³Ibid., Educational Statistics on level of literacy in Lebanon, (Beirut), 1965.

and ethnic groups. Based on these considerations, the educational system acts as a unifying factor bringing together all the cultural elements in the society under one national goal. This task is accomplished through a prescribed national curriculum and the usage of one common language of instruction.

On the individual level, the educational system is meant to provide the citizen with the proper experiences and knowledge that help him develop his potentialities and actualize his aspirations.

For the achievement of these aims, the educational system was organized along lines which are congenital with the nature of the Lebanese society and compatible with both national objectives and individual needs. In both theory and practice, the system reckons with the diversity of the cultural elements that constitute the society and with the multiplicity of the expectations and aspirations of the citizens. To cater to these competing demands, equality of educational opportunity is provided to all the citizens irrespective of their religious, ethnic, social and economic background. The system makes clear that education is obligatory and free at the primary level, free and optional at the secondary level, and available, with nominal fees, at the higher level. Every six year old child is accepted in primary schools, and all children, after obtaining the primary certificate of studies, are admitted to the first year of upper primary or secondary education. Successful graduates from these schools are qualified to pursue their education in higher institutes of learning or to enter vocational, technical, teaching or military schools in the country.¹⁴

¹⁴Lebanese Delegate to the Regional Training Center of Advanced Personnel in the Administration of Education, A Panoramic Survey of Education in the Lebanese Republic., Vol. 1, (Beirut), 1961.

However, a closer examination of the educational aims as being stated in the preamble of the program of studies would reveal that there are at least three distinct sets of aims: general aims, aims of primary education and aims of secondary education.

General Aims. Are basically concerned with the preparation of the whole man, the thoughtful citizen and the active member of society. Thus preparation rests on three foundations: spiritual, intellectual, and physical education.

Spiritual education is based on the idea of God and His relation to creation. It is based on the respect of human personality and the worthwhileness of the individual. It also takes into account "a hierarchy of values" from matter-to mind-to soul. It is based on the practice of the rights and duties of man.¹⁵

Intellectual education is based on the fostering of correct habits of thinking and reasoning. It is based on the observation and adequate evidence arrived at by empirical and logical methods. Such methods are meant to help the student tackle successfully the current problems of life.¹⁶

Physical education aims at strengthening the body through physical exercises and athletics. These practices are deemed conducive in the promotion of health and beauty in the youth.¹⁷

¹⁵ Ministry of Education, The Program of Studies, (Beirut: 1946), P.16.
¹⁶ Ibid.
¹⁷ Ibid.

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Aims of Primary Education. These aims are two fold: on the one hand, primary education is to be considered as an independent unit ending with the primary certificate of study. Presumably, this stage is considered to be terminal. It provides students with practical education that would prepare them for trades and vocations and other means of making a living. On the other hand, primary education may be considered a first step on an educational ladder leading to secondary and higher levels of education.

In either case, the broad purpose of primary education is to create within the individual an awareness of his place in society. This purpose implies the promotion of native aspiration and the cultivation of innate abilities of the child in order to develop an independent personality based on self respect. Translated in terms of behavioral patterns, these purposes imply the teaching of the history and geography of the country, with native language being the essential medium of instruction and communication. The basic knowledges of reading, writing, and arithmetic occupy a central position in the curriculum.

With respect to methodology, the program of studies states explicitly that the aims of primary education should be realized through methods compatible with individual capacities, especially during the early stages of the child's growth. The teacher should instill in his student the love of his country and foster within him a proud feeling of his nationality and the good deeds of his nation accomplished, especially those deeds that contributed directly to the improvement of the human society and world civilization.

The teacher also should take into account the theory of the "whole child" and use it as a guideline in his teaching. He should be aware of the integrity of the personality of the student. He should be able to channel all divergent methods in the educative process in a way where they converge into the broad aims of primary education.

Aims of Secondary Education. Taking a different tone and emphasis from elementary education, secondary education may be considered essentially an academic or liberal arts education.

The broad purpose of secondary education is to select and train the gifted youth of the country. It is geared toward the training of the intellect and orientation of the mind to carry out the major responsibilities in current life. Also it is meant to prepare the youth for professional and specialized education. Secondary education, in this sense may be described rightfully as college preparatory education.

Derived from these aims, methods of instruction at this level concentrate on the quality of teaching rather than quantity. Emphasis is placed on the theoretical and logical evidence more than the practical and pragmatic consequences of the act.

To achieve its aims, secondary education runs in two parallel lines: literary and scientific. Both branches end with the high school diploma--the Lebanese Baccalauréat, Parts I and II, which upon attainment, qualify the student to enter college.

Vocational, and technical education, and teacher education, though they run parallel to the secondary level, will be discussed separately.

Few observations can be drawn with regard to the aims of education that may help later on in the examination and evaluation of both

the aims and means of education and the establishment of some functional relationships between these two phases of education. Taken by their surface value, these aims in general sound noble and superb. They reflect a highly selected set of ideals and principles that the human mind ever aspires to attain. A closer examination of these aims, however, is likely to generate some questions about their validity and feasibility. First, to what extent are these aims implementable? or attainable? Are they merely a set of utopian ideas, to be considered, but never to be realized, or could they be translated into a workable program--say a curriculum? Is there evidence so far, at least in terms of observed behavior of the people, that these aims are being realized in part or in whole? Evidence so far indicates that there is a wide gap between these aims and the educational practices in the country and that whatever is prescribed in the preamble of the program of studies is not put in practice in terms of concrete behavioral conduct on the part of the teacher and the learner.¹⁸

The Administration of Education

The Lebanese educational system may be described as a highly centralized system. All matters of educational legislation, decrees, and laws are issued from one center--the central administration in the capital. Both support and control of public education are vested in one governmental agency, the Ministry of Education. Administratively, the Ministry is structured on a hierarchical line of authority that runs from the Minister of Education down to the maintenance personnel

¹⁸Najwa Assayed, Secondary Education in Lebanon: Aims and Means. (in Arabic) (An unpublished Masters Thesis), American University of Beirut, 1960.

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The Administrative Machinery

Essentially, the administrative machinery includes the various offices, departments and personnel that fall under the domain of the Ministry of Education. The person in charge of this machinery is the "Minister of National Education and Fine Arts." The office of the Minister is accountable to the Cabinet, which is, in its turn, accountable to the House of Deputies.

The Minister of Education is assisted by the Director-General who is appointed to this position for an indefinite term. The Director-General, though held directly responsible to the Minister, is the 'brain worker' of the machinery. Whereas the destiny and durability of the Minister is directly associated with that of the Cabinet which is a political body and influenced by the political atmosphere of the country, the Director-General is outside this body. He, in fact, gives the position a character of stability and durability.

Working closely with the Director-General and accountable, in turn, to his office are the eight directors in the Ministry of Education. These directors are in charge of the following offices:¹⁹

The Lebanese University

Primary and Upper Primary Education

Secondary Education

¹⁹Ministry of Education, Legislative Decree No. 26 concerning the Administration and Organization of Education, (Beirut), 1955.

Vocational and Technical Education

Teacher Education

The National Conservatory of Music

The National Library

The Antiquities

The central administration itself is divided into six subdivisions. These are:²⁰

Directorate-General of Education

Chief of the Cabinet

Educational and Cultural Affairs

Inspection of Instruction

Office of the Finances

Regional Administration

Regional Administration covers such responsibilities as the recruitment and appointment of inspectors for primary schools and supervisors for district offices. Besides that, regional administration is in direct charge of the supervision of educational affairs in the four administrative regions into which Lebanon is divided. These are:

Northern Lebanon, with Tripoli as its center

Mount Lebanon, with Ba'abdah as its center

The Biqa', with Zahle as its center

South Lebanon with Sidon as its center

As a matter of fact, there is a fifth administrative region in the country, which is Beirut, the capitol. Because the Ministry of education is located in that city, hence, the educational affairs of Beirut fall under the direct auspices of the central administration.

²⁰Ibid.

Figure 1, illustrates the administrative structure of the educational system in Lebanon.

In terms of relationship of the Ministry of Education with other government agencies and how decisions are made and followed up on policy level and work level, these aspects will be discussed in Chapter IV under the impact of state policy on educational planning.

The Financing of Education

The second related area that forms the vital nerve or moving power in the administration of education is finances. It was mentioned earlier that public education is both controlled and supported by the Ministry of Education. This involves, by definition, the financing of the system by revenues derived solely from public funds which are appropriated by the national budget. Hence, the expenditure of the Ministry of Education, which is about 15% of the national budget, is earmarked by government legislation. The Ministry distributes its budget among the various directorates and educational offices in a proportionate manner depending on recurrent expenditure and operational funds. Recurrent expenditure includes mainly salaries of personnel both instructional and administrative and other items that appear from year to year. Operational funds include the construction of school buildings, purchasing of new materials and equipment and other new investments in education. Extra appropriations for some educational areas are: research, publications, and scholarships. These are arrived at as a result of political atmosphere or emphasis on some areas in the system that require more investment, such as, extra appropriations to primary education in order to secure free and universal education to the increasing student

The Administrative Structure
of the Educational System

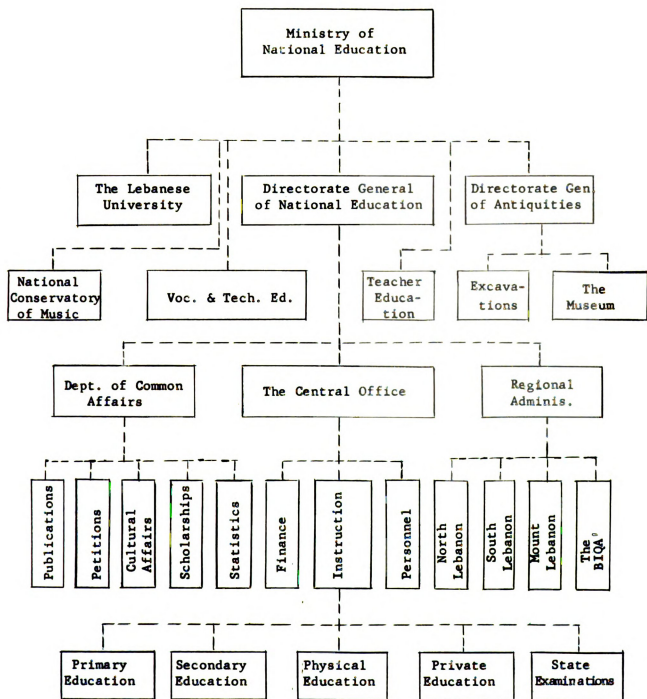


Figure 1

population at that level, and more investments in higher education for the provision of adequate personnel on administrative and professional levels. Table 1 illustrates the appropriations to education in relation to the total national budget. The distribution of educational resources among the directorates of public instruction is illustrated in Table 2.

Recent trends indicate closer cooperation between the Ministry of Education and the private sectors on the local community level. This cooperation is manifested in the joint efforts of both public and private sectors for the construction of school buildings. The Ministry of Education established in 1953 an independent treasury for that purpose. This treasury is financed by many revenues, mainly a 5% taxation derived from construction permits.²¹ Other sources contributing to that fund are derived from registration for public examination and nominal fees collected by public schools at the beginning of each scholastic year. Other sources are derived from anonymous donations.

This trend reflects, in fact, the spirit of partnership in the support and control of education. Local communities seeking the construction of a school building must provide at least the land for that and other maintenance expenses, while the Ministry takes care of the construction and operation of the school. Such trends reflect a move toward decentralization where local communities are having more say in the affair of education.²² Private schools represent the other extreme of a decentralized system of education.

²¹ Ministry of Education: Educational Legislation with regard to Independent Treasury for the Construction of School Buildings, (Beirut), 1953.

²² Ibid., Committee on Educational Planning. A Proposed Recommendation for the Decentralization of Education, (Beirut), 1965.

TABLE 1
 APPROPRIATIONS TO EDUCATION IN RELATION
 TO TOTAL NATIONAL BUDGET
 (IN LEBANESE POUNDS)*
 1951 - 1965^a

Year	Educational Expenditure	National Budget	Percent of Total
1951	9,762,837	90,051,120	10.84
1952	9,995,130	88,509,851	11.29
1953	11,687,903	96,308,967	12.13
1954	13,051,816	111,182,939	11.73
1955	16,274,935	132,376,965	12.29
1956	17,355,889	161,348,024	10.76
1957	21,220,209	192,466,137	11.02
1958	25,678,390	181,162,233	14.17
1959	28,007,145	198,571,296	14.11
1960	28,715,170	243,087,753	11.81
1961	36,374,451	269,260,306	13.5
1962	42,172,738	415,278,121	10.16
1963	56,223,900	425,400,000	13.21
1964	63,399,100	476,400,000	13.58
1965	74,233,600	514,790,000	14.45

*Each Lebanese pound (LL) is equivalent to \$0.33

^aMinistry of Finance, Annual Bulletin on The National Budget.
 (Beirut), 1957-1965.

TABLE 2

ALLOCATION OF EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES AMONG THE
DIRECTORATES OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN THE
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
1956 - 1962^b

	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965
Primary Educ.	11,319,658	14,350,396	18,961,105	18,391,579	18,929,012	23,335,853	25,747,466	31,863,200	34,696,500	40,960,500
Secondary Educ.	688,188	1,167,509	1,277,422	1,806,220	1,872,563	2,300,104	2,903,108	3,818,900	4,128,900	4,886,400
Vocational & Tech. Educ.	885,236	1,081,874	1,169,647	1,239,567	1,340,526	1,536,617	1,584,048	2,722,100	3,277,400	4,277,400
Teacher Educ.	261,554	340,764	297,754	417,578	454,725	1,032,451	1,492,622	3,146,000	3,617,200	3,608,900
Physical Educ.	298,891	383,619	343,634	1,531,064	558,898	835,301	984,568	1,640,500	1,806,300	2,264,900
Total Exp.	17,355,889	21,220,207	25,678,390	28,007,145	28,715,170	36,374,451	42,192,738	56,223,900	63,399,100	74,233,600

^bIbid.

The Organization of Education

The organizational structure of the Lebanese educational system follows two main branches: Academic and Non-academic.

Academic education extends on a continuum that runs from pre-primary and primary education and ends with higher education. By definition, academic education is college bound, though this need not be the case. Students who follow this stream are usually college oriented. However, at the end of each level of academic education students can make choices to either go through, or shift from one stream to the other, or leave the system altogether.

Non-academic education is primarily vocational and technical in its nature. It provides the student with the practical knowledges and experiences that qualify him to follow an occupation or a vocation appropriate with his training. Teacher education for primary schools falls under this category. There is another kind of education, which is a mixture of both academic and vocational education, which may be classified under adult education.

In the following paragraphs, the organization of education will be briefly surveyed and discussed under the following headings: Primary education, upper and secondary education, higher education, teacher education, vocational and technical education and adult education.

Figure 2 illustrates the organizational structure of the educational system in Lebanon.

Primary Education

In line with the broad aims and philosophy of primary education, this level is meant to serve a dual function: to prepare youth for

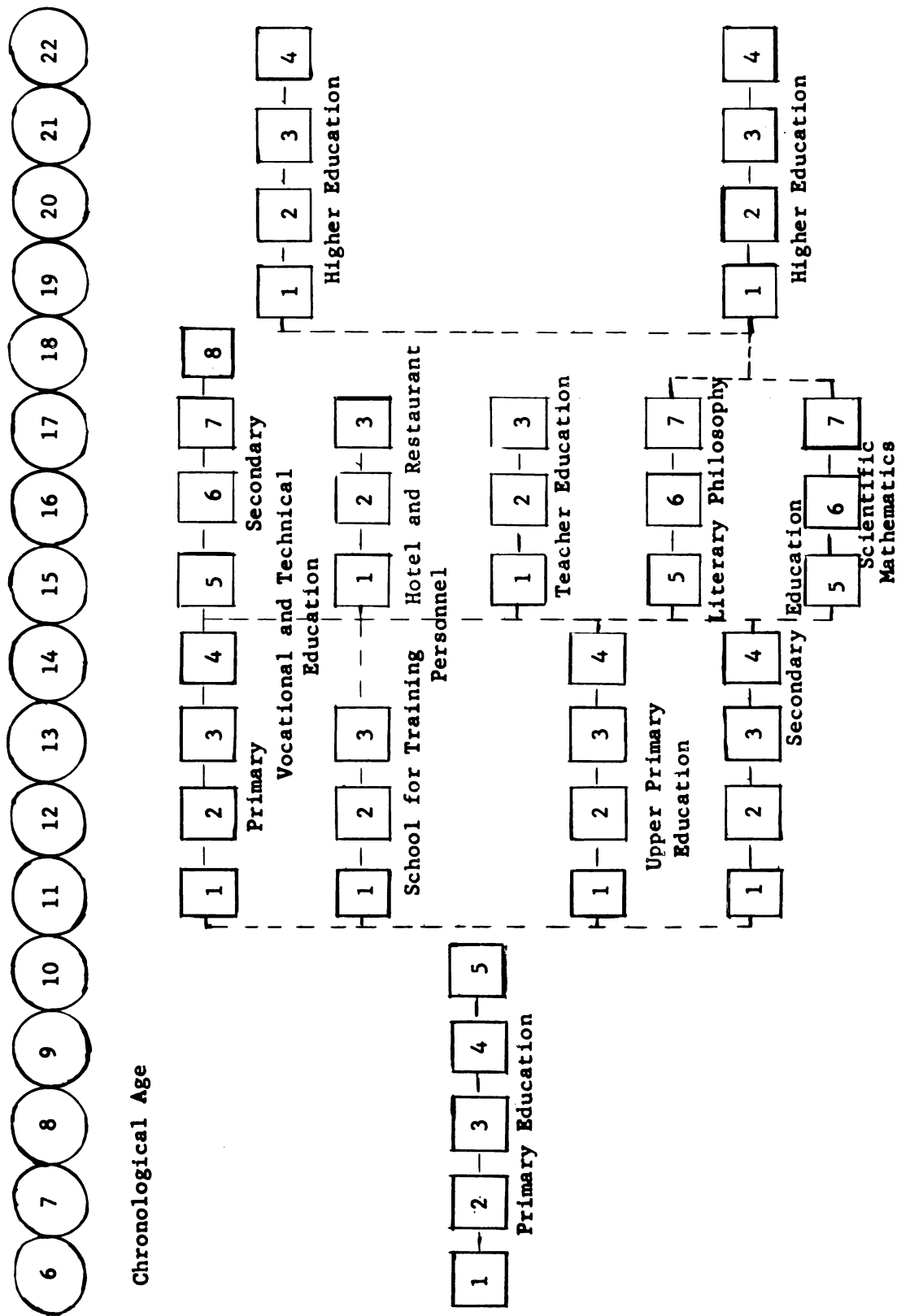


Figure 2 The Organizational Structure of Education in Lebanon

immediate life situations and to train for leadership and higher occupations. Students who are expected to leave the system at the completion of six years of schooling are provided with the basic knowledges of reading, writing, and arithmetic. They are supposed to be absorbed by the economy that requires unskilled and semi-skilled labor. For those who wish, and are able, to continue their education, the doors of higher levels of education are open to them.

The status of primary education is based on both legal and procedural foundations. Decrees number 6998 and 7002 dated October 1, 1946, govern the programs of studies and tests in primary schools.²³ Legislative decrees number 25 and 26 of 1955, define explicitly the role and nature of primary education.²⁴ These decrees stipulate that a primary school is to be established in every village and local district where there are thirty or more children of primary school age. The same policy applies to schools for girls, though the number required in this case should be fifty. If there is no girls' school, then girls to the age of twelve may enroll in the schools for boys. This shows that public education is separate (in terms of sex) and the education of girls is less emphasized than that of boys--as indicated by the minimum number of girls required for the opening of a public school.

Each public primary school has a principal in charge, sometimes called "director" or "first-teacher." The principal is assisted by one or two supervisors, depending on the size of the school and the number

²³ Ministry of Education, Government Decrees Concerning the Legislation of Education, (Beirut), 1946.

²⁴ Ibid.

of students. An average size school of 150 students has one principal, one supervisor and five teachers. Generally, the principal is in charge of administrative affairs. However, when the school has less than 12 teachers, he is assigned instructional duties. The same provisions apply to the function of the school supervisor.

From an organizational standpoint, primary education lasts five years (known as "sanats"). These years correspond to the first five grades in American elementary schools. Every school year at this level must correspond to a given age of the child. For example, a child of age six must be enrolled in grade one, age seven grade two, and so on. Nevertheless, this rule is not observed closely, especially in rural areas where children do not attend school regularly.

Another similar characteristic is the grade-pupil ratio. Theoretically, each grade should consist of thirty students. Practically, this rule is quite often overlooked. Due to the steady and progressive increase of student enrollment and the shortage of teachers and school buildings, it is not unfamiliar to find crowded classrooms that exceed the maximum limit per grade. This situation will be further explained in subsequent parts of the study.

School and state examinations are the crowning part of primary education. In general, pupils at this level sit for a school examination at the end of each term. The third term examinations, consisting of written and oral tests, cover all the material studied during the academic year.

More important than school examinations, are the external (state) examinations. Basically, these cover the major areas studied in school,

namely: arithmetic, composition, dictation, history and geography, nature study, drawing (for boys) and knitting (for girls). Successful candidates of state examinations receive in recognition, the preparatory primary studies certificate (Shahadat Al-Ibtidaiyyat Al-I'd'adiyyat).

On completion of this level, successful students are qualified to pursue their secondary education, to enter a vocational school or to seek a living.

Upper Primary and Secondary Education

This level of education, of 7 year duration, includes two overlapping levels: upper primary and secondary education proper. The upper primary level, of a 4 year duration, corresponds with the first four years of secondary education. However, students enrolled in upper primary schools are required to sit for a state examination at the completion of the fourth year, whereas students enrolled in secondary schools, per se, are not required to do so. The significance of this distinction is that upper primary education is meant to prepare students for vocational and technical education, teacher education, and those occupations that require 4 years of schooling beyond the primary level. Secondary education, on the other hand is college oriented, it is meant to prepare students for the professions and higher level of occupations that require a minimum of six years of schooling beyond primary education.²⁵

From an organizational view-point the 4-3 sub-levels of secondary education correspond to the American junior and senior high school. The first four years of that stage may be classified as general education.

²⁵Ministry of Education, Program of Studies, Preamble, 1946.

The remaining three years run in two courses: literary and scientific. After the completion of the sixth year of their secondary education students are expected to sit for a state examination, known as the Baccalaureate Part I. At the conclusion of the seventh year (the last year of secondary education) another state examination is conducted under two separate branches: philosophy and mathematics. This is known as the Baccalaureat Part II. Successful candidates in either Part are qualified to enter any higher institution of learning in the country.

From an administrative view-point, the inclusion of upper primary education under secondary education proper is likely to result in a technical misnomer which requires some clarification. Administratively, secondary education is controlled, like primary education, by a separate directorate headed by the director of secondary education. Legally, upper primary education falls under the jurisdiction of the directorate of primary education. By definition, upper primary education means a complementary stage of primary education proper. This situation is illustrated in the chart on the organization of education. (p.43)

Technically, the situation is resulting in many paradoxes and inconveniences which are subject to controversy and debate. For example, a student attending the upper four grades of a primary school is taught by a primary school teacher, who is at best a graduate of primary teachers institutes and at worst, has a secondary school diploma. Whereas, a student attending the lower four grades of a secondary school is taught by a teacher who has professional training in education and is a graduate of the Higher Teachers' Institute. Thus, the discrepancy in equalizing educational opportunities becomes clearly observable.

A question may be raised in this respect: who should sit for upper primary examinations and why? Some views are in support of making the examination obligatory for all students completing the fourth year beyond primary education, while others urge these examinations be dropped altogether.²⁶

Another question to be considered is the position of the upper elementary level in the educational system. Some views consider this level to be a residue of a dual system and should be eliminated altogether. A new organization structure, more consistent with the views and philosophy of education should be designed.²⁷ Other views hold to the support of this level, because it has been there.

Higher Education

Higher education is the last stage in the academic stream. The purpose of this stage is to prepare the youth for professional and specialized occupations, as well as to train for leadership. Higher education extends from two to seven years depending on the nature of the course of study or the selected field of specialization.

At present there are nine institutes of higher learning that are all located in the capital city of Beirut, or its environs. The institutes are:

The American University	established	1866
The University of St. Joseph	"	1875
Beirut College for Women	"	1924

²⁶Ministry of Education, Committee on Curriculum Development, A Proposed Plan for a New Program of Studies, (Beirut), 1965.

²⁷Committee on Educational Planning, Suggested Recommendations for the Organization of the Educational System, (Beirut), 1965.

The Lebanese Academy	established	1937
Middle East College	"	1939
Centre d'Etudes Superieures	"	1944
The Lebanese University	"	1951
Beirut Arab University	"	1960
Baptist School of Theology	"	1964

Among all these institutions, the only State University is the Lebanese University. The remainder are private institutions operated either by natives or by foreign agencies and missions. In this chapter the discussion will be focused on the Lebanese University as a representative of higher education.

The Lebanese University started in 1951 as a higher teacher's institute and a research center with the specific task of preparing teachers for secondary education. At that time, the program of studies contained basically general and specialized courses in education geared toward the teaching on a secondary school level.

This was the case until 1959. From that date on, the University grew at a more progressive rate. It expanded in terms of its student enrollments and its faculties and departments. In 1965 the Lebanese University had an enrollment of 5,230 students in comparison to the 100 students enrolled in 1951.²⁸ A similar growth took place in the different branches and course offerings. By 1965 the University had the following schools and institutes: The School of Arts, the School of Sciences, the School of Law, Economics and Political Science, Higher Teachers' Institute,

²⁸ Ministry of Education, Bureau of Educational Statistics, Statistical Data on Higher Education in Lebanon, (Beirut), 1965.

the Institute of Social Sciences and the Institute for Financial and Administrative Studies.²⁹ Admission to the Lebanese University is based on the Lebanese Baccalaureat Part II, plus a competitive entrance examination. The period of study ranges from four to five years. Courses are ended by a final examination and successful candidates are awarded a degree equivalent to the Masters Degree.

Teacher Education

Students planning a teaching career may enter primary teacher education schools (sometimes called normal schools) in order to teach in elementary schools, or enter the higher teachers' institute in order to teach in secondary schools.

Teacher education, in Lebanon, although started during the second decade of this century grew at a very slow and staggering pace. Until 1943 there was only one teacher institute located in Beirut, with an enrollment of less than 30 students.³⁰ Within a period of 20 years the number of institutes grew to five, with a student enrollment of about 1,500.³¹ Primary teacher education is the sole responsibility of the government as there are no private primary schools for teacher education.

Selection of students for teacher education is based on the upper primary certificate (the Brevet). In addition to that a student

²⁹ Ibid, Ministerial decrees concerning the Administration and organization of the Lebanese University, (Beirut), 1955.

³⁰ George Murr, An Analytic Study of Teacher Education Curricula in Lebanon, (in Arabic) an unpublished Master's Thesis, American University of Beirut, 1962.

³¹ Ministry of Education, Directorate of Teacher Education, Statistical Data on Growth of Teacher Education, (Beirut), 1965.

has to pass a competitive entrance examination. Once accepted and admitted to the institute, the student receives a monthly allowance of 90 Lebanese pounds. In return, he has to sign a four year contract for teaching in public schools. A violation of the terms of the contract results in the payment of all fees and expenses by the student.

The curriculum of primary teacher education is of three-year duration. It consists of academic (general) and professional (specialized) courses in education. Academic courses include languages, history, geography, and other courses which are general in their nature. Specialized courses include the history of education, child psychology, and other courses dealing with methods of instruction and other educational theories. Besides that, students are required to do practice teaching for a certain number of hours during their third year. Practice teaching is usually done at adjoining laboratory schools, or in any other primary school in the area.

Table 3 shows the contents of the Teacher Education Curriculum distributed on the three year program.

TABLE 3
WEEKLY TIME TABLE OF PRIMARY TEACHERS' INSTITUTES^c

Course	<u>Number of Hours</u>		
	1st. yr.	2nd. yr.	3rd. yr.
Arabic	8	4	2
French	8	4	2
History	1	1	-

^cMinistry of Education, Directorate of Teacher Education, Teacher Education Curricula, (Beirut), 1965.

TABLE 3
WEEKLY TIME TABLE OF PRIMARY TEACHERS' INSTITUTES (continued)

Course	<u>Number of Hours</u>		
	1st. yr.	2nd. yr.	3rd. yr.
Geography	2	2	-
Natural Science	2	2	1
Health Education	1	1	-
Physics	2	1	2
Chemistry	2	2	-
Mathematics	2	2	2
Music	1	1	1
Drawing	1	1	1
Moral Education & Civics	-	2	2
Physical Education	1	1	1
Sociology	-	1	1
Education (in Arabic)	-	2	6
Education (in French)	-	2	4
Child Psychology	-	2	2
Preparing Educational Materials	1	1	1
Home Economics (for girls)	1	1	3
Agriculture (for boys)	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>
Totals	33	33	33

Table 3 indicates that emphasis is being placed on general education during the first two years, whereas, during the third year emphasis is on specialized education.

The teacher education program is concluded with a final examination conducted by the directorate of teacher education. Successful graduates are required to teach one year on probation before they obtain permanent tenure.

Vocational and Technical Education

It is very difficult to present a thorough account on vocational and technical education in Lebanon. There are many impeding factors since this phase of education is still undergoing a transitory and experimental process. As will be disclosed in subsequent chapters, many reforms and modifications have already been introduced into these schools and other modifications are being contemplated by official authorities.

Another factor which makes the study of vocational and technical education quite thorny is closely related to the scope, function, and control of this kind of education. These schools, like their counterparts in the academic stream, are the shared responsibility of public and private sectors. Data on private vocational and technical schools, though obtainable, is quite elusive and questionable. Furthermore, the nature of courses given at these schools is wide in its scope. It ranges from the highly technical to the very practical, which requires a separate study by its own.

In line with the purpose of this chapter, a brief account will be presented in the following paragraphs concerning the nature and function of vocational and technical education. Further details will be presented when this area is discussed under subsequent chapters.

Administratively, vocational and technical education, falls under a special directorate, headed by the director of vocational and technical

education. The director is assisted by an advisory board composed of representatives from the Ministries of Public Labor, National Economy, Finance and the Union of Engineers and Industrial Workers. The board is under the chairmanship of the Director-General of Education.³²

From an organizational viewpoint, this phase of education may be classified under three main categories; vocational education, technical education and commerce education. In terms of their ascending order in the educational ladder these categories can be grouped under two levels: (a) primary and (b) secondary schools.

Vocational-Technical Schools on the Primary Level

Admittance to these schools require the primary certificate and the passing of a competitive entrance examination conducted and administered by the directorate of vocational and technical education. The period of specialization at this level extends from three to four years. The purpose of this level is to prepare students for various occupations that require basic skills in such fields as carpentry, blacksmithing, mechanics, chemical work, painting, radio, and car repairs.

The curriculum at this level includes courses that are in line with the requirements of the above mentioned occupations. In its nature, the curriculum combines between theoretical and practical education. On the theoretical level, the following courses are given: Arabic, French, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Mechanics, History, and Geography, Civics, and Moral Education. On the practical level, the courses include Industrial

³² UNESCO, World Survey of Education, (printed in France, 1955), p. 418.

Training, General Mechanics, Car Mechanics, Radio Repairing, Electrical Work, Aviation, Printing and Metal Work.³³

Vocational Technical Schools On the Secondary Level

This level is more oriented to technical education. As a matter of fact, secondary vocational and technical education is confined to one school with two branches both located adjacent to each other in the vicinity of Beirut. These are the School of Arts and Crafts, and the Training School for Hotel and Restaurant Personnel.

The period of specialization in the School of Arts and Crafts is of a four-year duration. Only students who have obtained the upper primary certificate (the Brevét) as a minimum are admitted, provided they pass a competitive entrance examination. Once admitted students may enroll in either one of the following programs: building and civil engineering, electro-mechanics, radio, television, industrial chemistry or topography.

The program at this level makes provision for students upon graduation to transfer to a higher institute of learning and pursue their specialization in a professional or technical education program.

The Training School for Hotel and Restaurant Personnel is the only school of its kind in Lebanon. Essentially, the program of the school is divided into two levels: a primary level of 3 year duration and a secondary level of 6 year duration. The primary level trains students for skilled work in hotels and restaurants. The secondary level aids at training hotel managers, chefs, and highly skilled personnel in that area.

³³The Ministry of Education, Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education, Curriculum of Vocational and Technical Schools, (Beirut), 1965.

It is noteworthy to say at this point that vocational and technical education is the center of debate and controversy and is being recently given more consideration by both official authorities and the public. Why this concern and attention? This will be further explored when discussing vocational and technical education with respect to known manpower requirements in the country.

Adult Education

It is more appropriate to say in this respect that there are adults attending training schools more than to talk in terms of adult education, per se, because adult education is a recent innovation in the country. Whatever adult education is available is exclusively the responsibility of private agencies and institutions. Hence, it is outside the domain of public education. Most of adult education programs are restricted to evening schools. These schools offer classes that correspond to and extend throughout secondary education. Courses prepare students, especially those who are unable to attend regular schools, for the Baccalauréat examinations and other occupations requiring high school education or its equivalent.

Evening school programs are very condensed, instead of the 30 weekly hours of secondary school program, there are 18 hours: three hours each evening, six days a week from 6:00 p. m. These courses include Arabic, a foreign language, mathematics, science, history and geography.

The main purpose of adult education is to assist those who wish to continue their studies until the high school level, and to qualify them for either promotion on the job or to seek better economic opportunities.

The major drawback of adult education as it is being carried on, is the lack of attention it receives from official authorities and the public.

This makes adult education lack a social status and recognition. Hence its standards tend to be low as demonstrated by their poor results through state examination.

Summary

In the light of what has been presented in this chapter it becomes readily apparent that the educational system in Lebanon is the outcome of social cultural and religious developments that prescribed its contents and governed its aims and philosophy.

The present educational system is the shared responsibility of governmental, lay and religious institutions. This fact demonstrates a unanimous agreement among the populace concerning the role and place of education in the society. Education is considered as a means of achieving national objectives and realizing individual aspirations. Hence, the aims and philosophy of education were the idealization of national goals and preparation for good citizenship. The curriculum was presumably meant to be the translation of these aims and objectives.

Being cognizant of the cultural diversity of the Lebanese Society, the administrative machinery of the system was highly centralized. The purpose behind that was the achievement of cultural unity, political stability, and economic prosperity.

In accordance with these principles one prescribed curriculum was put in effect, one major language of instruction to be followed by all the schools and external state examinations to be the universal rule in certification of education.

Patterned on this administrative design, the organization of education followed the same channels. Through a presumably one ladder of education

that runs from primary through secondary to higher education, educational opportunities were extended to all the citizens. However, each level throughout the organizational structure is crowned by a state examination. The same principles apply to vocational and technical education and teacher education.

Finally, it has been shown how students are channelled through the organizational structure of the educational system. Due to the importance of this area in terms of its direct bearing on the problem, it will be discussed further in the next chapter.

CHAPTER III

THE STRUCTURE AND COMPOSITION OF STUDENT POPULATION

Educational developments in Lebanon during the last two decades reflect an increasing growth of education through the country as well as an increasing concern among the populace concerning the role that education can play in the life of individuals and the society.

There is ample evidence in support of educational growth in Lebanon. From a quantitative aspect, statistics show that education is expanding in terms of increasing school buildings, student enrollments, teacher recruitment and appropriations of funds for the maintenance and operation of education. From a qualitative aspect, there is an urgent desire on the part of official authorities to seek means and alternatives for a better standard of education. This process involves the improvement of teaching quality, the revision of curricula, the determination of a desirable teacher-student ratio and student-classroom ratio.

All these views and trends are derived from the belief that education can play a vital role in the social and economic development of the country. This belief is coupled with other views that conceive of education as a main channel for social mobility, better occupations and a status-symbol. It is for these reasons that public and private sectors are competing among themselves to meet the increasing demand on the part of the public for education. Although the motives and objectives of each sector may differ, both agree, however, that the more

schools, the more teachers and the more students, the more likely the results to be better opportunities, more enlightened citizenry and a better society.

Having reached this stage of its development a few questions may be raised about the educational system with respect to its role and function. Does the educational system as it functions at present provide for better opportunities? Are the educational streams channelled in such a way to prepare youth for persistent life situations? Are the activities and policies of public and private sectors coordinated in relation to the achievement of overall national objectives? If so, does this coordination demonstrate itself in a systematic educational plan? If not, what evidence is there to show on what grounds each sector may lay its policy of action? Although these questions may not be answered fully in this chapter, it would be sufficient to use them as guidelines in pursuing the inquiry about the place of the educational system in the development of human resources.

Essentially, it is the purpose of this chapter to discuss the educational system in terms of its structure and composition and the distribution of student population on all the educational streams. The discussion involves logically a description of the quantitative aspects of education, namely the schools, the teachers, the students and their respective position in the system. It also involves the examination of the productive capacity of the educational system in terms of its accommodation to the population which is of school age and their placement in the appropriate streams. The discussion is carried at this level on two lines of reasoning. First, it is aimed

at furnishing as much background on the quantitative aspects of education, namely on student population. Second, the aim is to stimulate further thinking on the productive capacity of the educational system in terms of its preparing youth for known manpower requirements in the country.

Because the study is basically concerned with educational planning for middle level manpower requirements, emphasis is placed on the secondary level of education. This includes the academic stream, as well as the corresponding streams in vocational, technical and teacher education. The discussion does not exclude, however, the other levels of the educational system which will be included in order to present a full configuration of the educational scene.

Finally, in order to place student population in focus with the total population of the country, it is essential to present a brief demographic overview of the population and its distribution of age, sex and geographic regions. This presentation may be of great help in successive parts of the study in tracing population trends in the country and determining the size and magnitude of the labor force and other related factors on population.

A Demographic Overview

It is difficult to give an accurate figure on the present population of Lebanon. This is due mainly to the lack of vital statistics information. The few published documentaries on births, deaths, sex ratio and other ecological data are not accurate and at times may be misleading. Hence, this area has to be investigated with reference to the available data provided from primary and secondary sources and

it has to be assumed that such data is valid and reliable until evidence to the contrary is presented.

The last complete census officially conducted in the country dates back to 1932. At that time the total population numbered 793,426¹. Since then, various attempts have been made to assess the increase in population. These estimates in their majority have been based on administrative returns and data, both complete and incomplete, derived from the national registry and other official bureaus of census in the country. Recently the Directorate of Central Statistics, a semi-autonomous branch of the Ministry of National Planning, has been entrusted with the responsibility of coordinating and computing all statistical data pertaining to the different aspects of the society. Through a monthly bulletin issued by the directorate, ecological data is given in terms of marriages, divorces, births, and death rates in the various regions of the country. The latest figure on population according to the Directorate of Central Statistics as it was in 1965 is 2,151,884.² But no breakdown of that figure is given in terms of sex, age, or geographic distribution.

The most comprehensive data on population which are used as an authoritative source, though they date back to 1954, are those issued by the IRFED Mission. The Mission, in a pilot study conducted in 1959 and based on administrative returns from 1953, came up with figures on the growth and composition of population in Lebanon. At that time the

¹ Ministry of Interior, General Directorate of National Registry, Statistical Data on Population Growth in Lebanon. Beirut, 1965.

² Ministry of Planning, Directorate of Central Statistics, The Monthly Statistical Bulletin, Vol. 3, No. 1, (March 1965), pp. 8-9.

registered population was 1,416,570. This figure includes Lebanese nationals who have emigrated since 1924, but excludes resident aliens, such as Palestinian refugees who numbered 102,000 at that time, plus other citizens from neighboring Arab countries and other foreigners. The Mission's figure of 1,626,000 became universally accepted and may be considered the latest authoritative figure on population in Lebanon.³

Table 4 illustrates the geographic distribution of population on the five administrative districts (muhafazats) of Lebanon. The distribution takes also into consideration the rural and urban population in each district.

TABLE 4
ESTIMATED DISTRIBUTION OF RURAL AND URBAN
POPULATION OF LEBANON BY MUHAFAZAT, 1959.^a

Muhafazat	Rural Pop.	% of Total Pop.	Urban Pop.	% of Tot.	Tot. Pop.
Metropolitan Beirut	— —	0	450,000	27.7	450,000
Mount Lebanon	302,000	18.6	70,000	4.3	372,000
North Lebanon	188,000	11.6	150,000	9.2	338,000
South Lebanon	163,000	10.0	75,000	4.6	238,000
The Biqa	<u>163,000</u>	<u>10.0</u>	<u>65,000</u>	<u>4.0</u>	<u>228,000</u>
Totals	816,000	50.2	810,000	49.8	1,626,000

^a IRFED Mission, op.cit., Besoins et Possibilites de Development du Liban, Vol. 1, p. 47.

³ IRFED Mission, op. cit., Besoins et Possibilites de Development du Liban, Vol. 1., p. 47.

The table shows that the population is split almost equally between urban and rural communities. More than 50% of the urban population is located in Metropolitan Beirut. The largest rural population is found in Mount Lebanon, next largest is in North Lebanon. South Lebanon and the Biqa share an equal distribution of rural population.

The distributions of population by age group is shown in the following table.

TABLE 5

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION BY AGE GROUP: 1959^b

Age Group	Population	% of Total Population
0-4	203,250	12.5
5-11	300,800	18.5
12-20	341,450	21.0
21-34	292,700	18.0
35-50	276,400	17.0
51-60	97,550	6.0
61-Over	<u>113,850</u>	<u>7.0</u>
Totals	1,626,000	100.0

^bIbid., p. 48.

A striking feature of this distribution is revealed in the fact that more than 50% of the population is of 20 years of age and below. This shows that Lebanon is a young nation. It also indicates a population expansion evidenced by a high proportion of population among lower age groups.

As to the composition of population by sex, the latest estimate goes back to a demographic study dated 1944.⁴ Table 6 illustrates distribution of population according to age and sex.

TABLE 6
ESTIMATED DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION BY AGE AND SEX, 1944^c

Age Group	Males	Females	Total	% of Total Population
0-4	69,835	61,821	131,656	12.4
5-11	105,692	92,000	197,692	18.6
12-20	120,236	109,325	229,651	21.6
21-34	92,943	96,385	189,328	17.8
35-51	87,306	93,016	180,322	16.9
51-Over	<u>67,137</u>	<u>68,490</u>	<u>135,627</u>	<u>12.7</u>
Totals	543,149	521,037	1,064,186	100.0
	= 51	= 49	= 100	

^cJ. Gholl: "L'Evolution Demographique Libanaise," Travaux du Seminaires d'Etudes Economiques et Financieres, No. 1., Beirut, 1957-1958.

The table shows a sex ratio of 51, which gives males a very slight majority over females. However, comparing table 6 with table 5 in regard to age distribution it is observed that there exists striking similarities between the two. The difference in practically any age group tends to be less than 1%. Moreover, the same age grouping of population was followed by the two studies. The only exception was the division of the last age

⁴J. Gholl: "L'Evolution Demographique Libanaise," Travaux du Seminaires d'Etudes Economiques et Financieres, No. 1., Beirut, 1957-1958.

group by the IRFED study into two categories. This fact reveals a proportionate growth of population and consistent distribution by age and sex.

Growth of Student Population in Recent Past

Corresponding to the national growth of population, there has been a similar growth of student population in Lebanon. Recent trends in student enrollment reflect an unprecedented situation in terms of student population. Both public and private schools are undertaking tremendous measures to cope with an ever increasing flow of students.

The following statistical data derived from the Ministry of Education reflect the growth of student population in the last two decades on all educational levels.⁵

On the Primary Level

In 1943 there were in the country about 350 public schools with an enrollment of 23,000 students and 451 teachers. This compared with 1279 private schools that had 108,000 students and 3,985 teachers. The percentage of students in public schools in comparison to the total student population was 17%.

After twelve years, in 1955, there were 967 public schools with 80,567 students and 3,457 teachers in comparison to 731 private schools having 113,024 students and 3,764 teachers. Both systems combined had 1,698 schools, 193,591 students and 7,221 teachers.

In 1965 public primary schools totalled 1,050 with 141,129 students and 7,642 teachers, corresponding to 1,400 private schools with an enrollment of 194,560 students and 6,024 teachers. Combined, the two systems totalled 2,450 schools, 335,689 students and 13,666 teachers.

⁵Ministry of Education, Bureau of Educational Statistics, Reports on Educational Growth in Lebanon, (Beirut: 1965).

On the Secondary Level

Prior to 1949 there were no public secondary schools. This level came into existence after that date. In 1965 there were 246 public upper primary and secondary schools providing education for 26,720 students, compared with 206 private schools having 51, 178 students.

The growth of education in public and private sectors combined during the last ten years is illustrated in table 7.

TABLE 7
GROWTH OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EDUCATION ON PRIMARY
AND SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVELS 1955-1965^d

Year	<u>Schools</u>			<u>Students</u>			<u>Teachers</u>
	Primary	Upper Primary & Secondary	Total	Primary	Upper Primary & Secondary	Total	Total
1955-56	1698	170	1868	193,591	27,405	220,996	7221
1956-57	1886	181	2067	208,490	30,062	238,552	7936
1957-58	1916	194	2110	211,477	31,180	242,657	8442
1958-59	2064	195	2259	217,706	33,144	250,850	9230
1959-60	2114	246	2360	235,340	41,364	276,704	10546
1960-61	2070	364	2434	265,191	45,457	310,648	11436
1961-62	2149	387	2536	278,783	49,770	328,553	12700
1962-63	2209	428	2637	291,700	53,519	345,219	14511
1963-64	2288	441	2729	310,601	60,638	371,439	16066
1964-65	2450	452	2902	335,689	77,898	413,587	18481

^dMinistry of Education, Bureau of Educational Statistics, Reports on Educational growth in Lebanon, Beirut, 1965.

On the Higher Education Level

Higher education experienced a similar process of growth, though along different lines. Prior to 1944 there were six private institutions of higher learning in the country. These were: The American University of Beirut (1866), The University of St. Joseph (1875), Beirut College for Women (1924), The Lebanese Academy (1937), The Middle East College (1939) and the Centre D'Etudes Superieures (1944). It was not until 1951 that the first state college came into existence. Today, the Lebanese University ranks first among other higher institutions of learning in terms of student enrollment. Beirut Arab University, established in 1960, occupies a fourth rank after the leading three Universities: The Lebanese University, The American University and the University of St. Joseph. Table 8 illustrates distribution of students in higher education.

TABLE 8

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS AMONG HIGHER INSTITUTES OF LEARNING 1964-65^e

Name of Institute	Number of Students
The Lebanese University	5230
The American University of Beirut	3250
The University of St. Joseph	2150
Centre D'Etudes Superieures	1270
Beirut Arab University	2950
Beirut College for Women	538
The Lebanese Academy	150
The Middle East College	15
Baptist School for Theology	17
Totals	15,570

^eIbid.

It should be noted that there are slightly over 3,000 foreign students attending Lebanese colleges.⁶ This leaves an approximate number of about 12,500 Lebanese students in higher education. There is a considerable number of Lebanese students who are studying abroad. Due to lack of data on these students they are not included in the study. The colleges offer among their departments and institutes, professional and technical courses in arts and sciences, medical sciences, agriculture, law, engineering, theology, oriental and occidental studies. Another striking feature about these colleges is their embodiment of comparative and divergent theories and practices of education on the higher level. Practically no other country in the whole area--and maybe the whole world--is so privileged to have in one city an American University side by side with a French University, an Arab University, and a Lebanese University. The existence of these universities in one geo-physical proximity offers a living example of comparative education.

On the Vocational and Technical Education Level

There were seven public vocational and technical schools in Lebanon previous to 1965. These schools have a total enrollment of 1,281 students. Three schools are located in the city of Beirut: the Vocational School, the School of Arts and Crafts and the Training School for Hotel and Restaurant Personnel. The remaining four schools are distributed respectively in the cities of Tripoli, Sidon, Zahle and Dair-el-Kamar. From 1955 to 1965, enrollment in public vocational and technical education increased from 580 to 1,281 students. The distribution of students among

⁶Ministry of Education, Bureau of Educational Statistics, Statistical Data on Higher Education in Lebanon, Beirut, 1965.

educational branches in these schools is as follows: Vocational schools, 706 students; School of Arts and Crafts, 334 students; and the Training School for Hotel and Restaurant Personnel, 241 students.

Related to this field of education is agriculture education. By 1965, there were in Lebanon four agriculture schools, three at the primary level located in three rural areas in the country, and only one school at the secondary level located in the city of Beirut. All schools combined had a total enrollment of 250 students.

Figure 3 illustrates the growth of student population in public vocational and technical schools during the last ten years.

Besides public vocational and technical schools, there are 25 private schools, native and foreign, that provide vocational and technical education. A great majority of these schools offer also commercial and industrial arts education. Combined together private schools had an enrollment of 5,090 students in 1965, which is four times the size of enrollment in public schools. More important, private schools offer a highly flexible and diversified program including nursing, mid-wifery, radio and television, mechanics, typography, bookkeeping, auditing, stenography, and the like. Most of these courses do not have counterparts in the public schools.⁷

Included under the private sector are schools which may be classified as avocational. These schools are primarily concerned with the teaching of languages, namely: Arabic, French, English, German, and Spanish. Other courses offered in these schools cover music, dancing, ballet, book-keeping, auditing and others. In 1965, these schools had a total enrollment of about 5,000 students, mostly adults. One may find in this sector also

⁷Ibid.

Growth of Student Population in
Public Vocational and Technical
Schools: 1955 - 1964

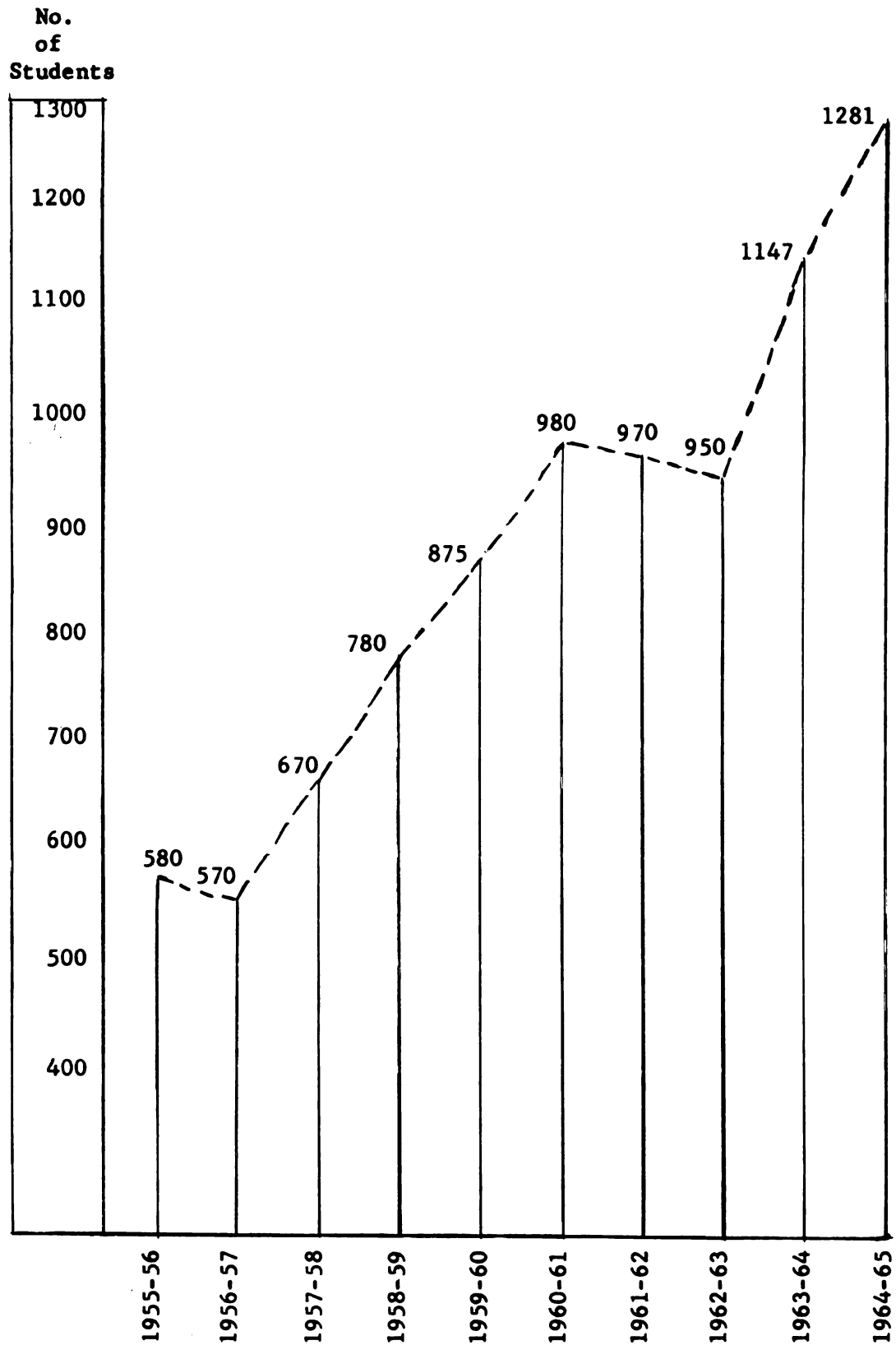


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other private agencies operating schools in civil aviation, wireless and other vocations. These schools have an enrollment of about 200 students.

In terms of the productive capacity of vocational and technical education in both public and private sectors, all these schools provide this type of education to about 13,000 students. The significance of this capacity will be discussed in subsequent parts of this study.

On Teacher Education Level

There were in 1965, five public teacher education institutes preparing teachers for primary schools with a total enrollment of 1,497 students.⁸ There are no private institutes in teacher education for primary level schools in the country. There are, however, private institutes that train teachers at the secondary level. These are the American University of Beirut and Beirut College for Women. Between these two institutes and the Higher Institute of Education at the Lebanese University teachers are trained for secondary schools.

There has been a considerable increase in student enrollment at the elementary teachers institutes during the last ten years. Students at these institutes had grown from 223 students in 1955 to 1,497 in 1965. Figure 4 shows this growth.

The Structure of the Educational System

In broad terms, the structure of the educational system is composed of three levels: elementary, secondary and higher education. Considering the upper primary level as a "de facto" level, overlapping or included in,

⁸Ministry of Education, Directorate of Teacher Education, Statistical Data on Student Enrollments in Teachers Institutes, Beirut, 1965.

Growth of Student Enrollment
At Primary Teachers' Institutes
1955 - 1964

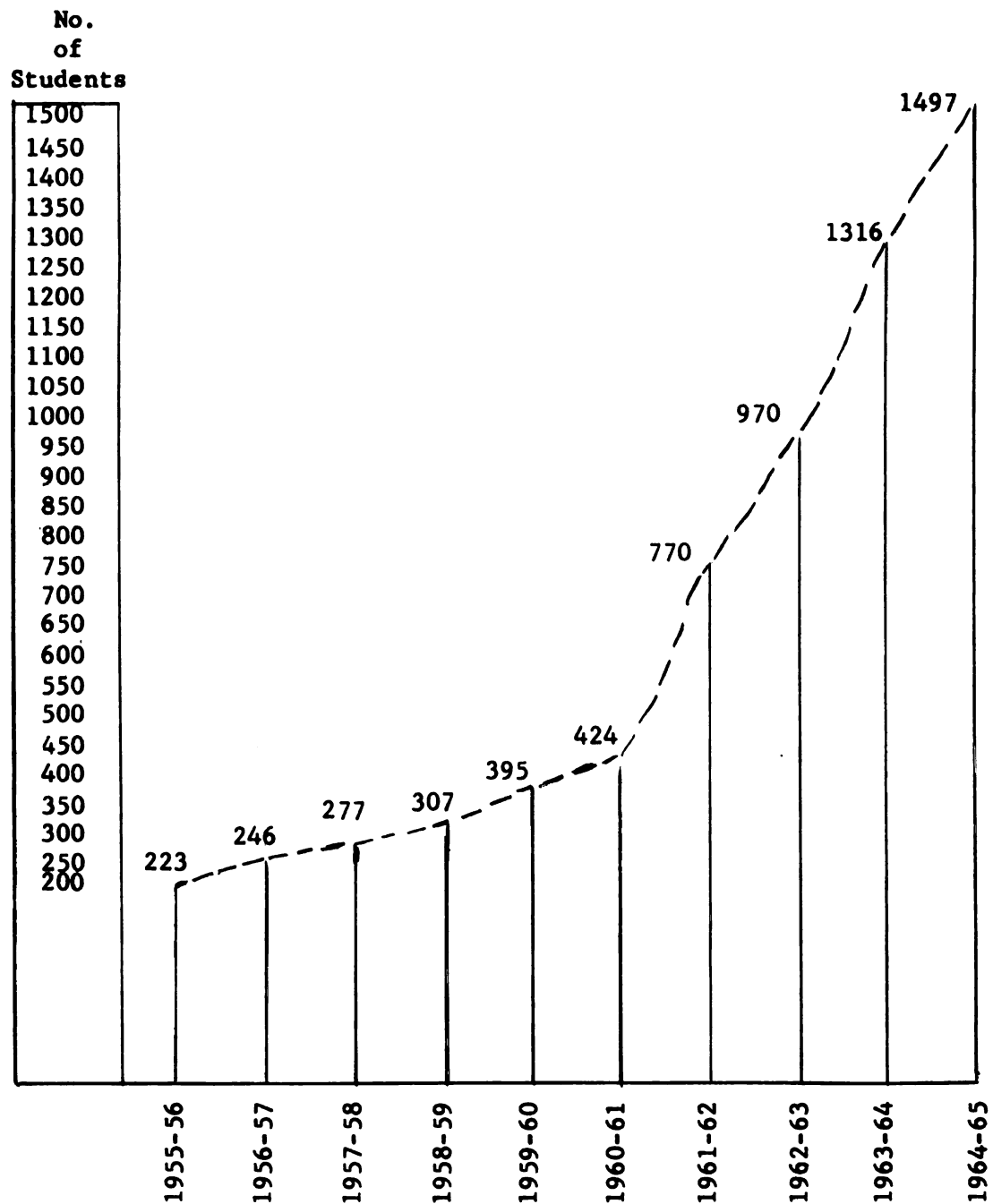


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secondary education, this would make elementary and secondary education three distinct levels of 5-4-3 years duration. Each level is culminated by a state examination and the state certificate is the "password" in the promotion process from one level to the next. The structure is illustrated in Chart 2 (page 43).

Essentially, the whole structure is superimposed on a pre-primary level of education, which includes nursery schools and kindergartens, confined exclusively to private education. It does not appear as an integral part of the structure though it is implicitly recognized as a sub-level pertaining to primary education.

The academic stream has been explained in the previous chapter. Following is a brief description of the non-academic stream, including vocational-technical education and teacher education.

Vocational and technical education parallels the secondary stream. Practically all vocational schools in the country, whether public or private, require the primary certificate (or its equivalent) as a pre-requisite for admittance. Public schools require, in addition to the primary certificate, a competitive entrance examination. Some private vocational schools are less restrictive in this sense. The school of Arts and Crafts in Beirut, and its prototypes in the private sector, require the upper primary certificate and a competitive entrance examination for admittance.

The period of study in vocational schools on the primary level is four years. At completion of his studies, a student is granted the "Certificate of Professional Aptitude." The period of study in the School of Arts and Crafts is also of a 4 year duration. Successful candidates are granted the "Baccalaureat Technique."

The Training School for Hotel and Restaurant Personnel is divided into two cycles with a three and six year duration respectively. The first cycle trains students for semi-skilled and skilled work in hotels and restaurants. i. e., chamber maids, bellboy, waiters and pastry workers. At the completion of this cycle students are granted a diploma known as "Brevét Hotelier." The second cycle of a six year period trains students in secretarial and managerial work, including the supervision of workers in restaurants and hotels. The cycle is crowned by a diploma known as the "Baccalaureat Hotelier."

Teacher education corresponds to the upper grades of secondary education. The period of study is of a 3-year duration. Teachers' institutes prepare students to become elementary school teachers. Successful candidates, who pass the final examination conducted by the Teacher Education Directorate at the end of the period are granted the teaching diploma. Graduate students from teachers' institutes have the first priority in the recruitment of teaching personnel for public elementary schools.

This is in brief a rough description of the organizational structure of the educational system in Lebanon. Throughout the educational streams and levels students are channelled in a very preordained way--everyone is expected to follow one stream or the other during his schooling years. In line with the educational aims and philosophy, the system is supposed to prepare youth in order to meet life situations. Whether the system in terms of its structure and composition is adequate enough to meet the continuous arising needs of the society is another question which will be discussed in the next chapters. Following this descriptive survey

of the organization of education let us examine how the students are channelled through these educational streams and who goes where.

Distribution of Students in the Organizational Structure

Viewing the educational system from a quantitative perspective, it becomes easy to obtain a clearer picture of the productive capacity of the system in terms of student enrollments at all educational levels. From the available data obtained from the Ministry of Education on student population, it was possible to determine the number of students in the academic stream, including both public and private schools. A breakdown of data by educational levels is shown in Table 9.

TABLE 9

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS IN THE ACADEMIC
STREAM BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL, 1964-65

Educational Level	No. of Students	% of Total
Pre-Primary	37,100	8.8
Primary	298,589	70.3
Secondary		
Lower Grades (1-4)	49,745	10.4
Upper Grades (5-7)	28,153	7.2
Higher	<u>12,500</u>	<u>3.3</u>
Totals	426,087	100.0

These gross figures shown in the table above provide a quantitative picture of student population at each educational level. A quick glance at the table points to the thick density of students at the primary level, which

comprises more than 70% of the total student enrollment. Between pre-primary and primary education combined there are 335,689 students, or about 80% of total student population. This leaves roughly about 20% of the student population distributed on secondary and higher education. This situation suggests that the great majority of students are frozen at the primary level. The contrast between primary and secondary levels, in comparison with the higher education level becomes strikingly clear. Out of the total percentage of student population, higher education claims less than 4%.

What do these figures represent and what is their significance in the process of educational planning? These figures as they are presented so far determine the location of student population on the educational structure. Their significance, however, becomes more meaningful when they are broken down by grade level. This next step involves the allocation of students by what may be termed "the educational pyramid." This implies the location of students through the system in an ascending order by grade which usually takes the shape of a pyramid. The base of the pyramid represents the first grade of primary education whereas the apex stands for the last year of higher education. All grade levels are distributed between these two extremes.

The classification of student population according to this order results in a more illustrative picture of student distribution throughout the organizational structure of the system. Figure 5 illustrates the combined student enrollment of public and private schools in the educational pyramid.

At first sight, the pyramid seems to have a normal shape. Closer examination, however, shows many variations in the pyramid. The most

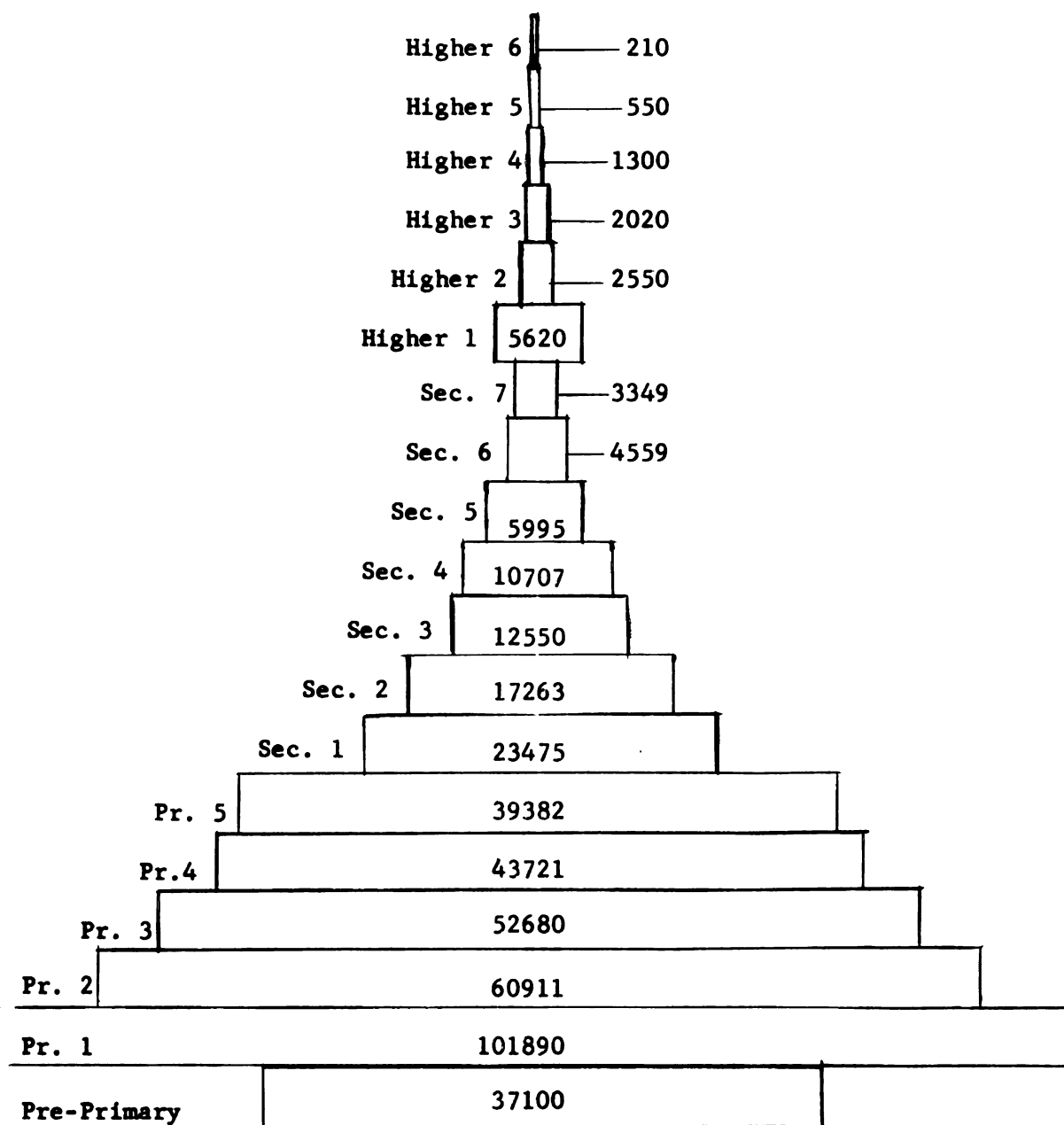


Figure 5. Public and Private School Enrollments 1964-65

observable variation that catches the eye is the very expanded first grade on the primary level. This grade, with more than one hundred thousand students, contains just about 22% of the total student population in the system. There are many explanations to this unique phenomenon. Basically, grade one acts as a storeroom to the system, especially in public schools. Because public education does not include a pre-primary level, hence all students for the first time under different ages and backgrounds are admitted (or stored) in that grade. Another factor responsible for the swelling of that grade is due to the promotion policy. Usually, a student, often attending regularly that grade is expected to be promoted to the next higher automatically. However, in practice, this is not the case. The level of retention in grade schools is relatively high in Lebanon. Aside from valid causes for retention, such as extensive sickness, mental or physical retardedness and the like, many students are retained due to academic reasons, namely academic achievement. Quite often a student may spend more than one year in grade one or other lower grades of the system. This explains in part why the committee on educational planning recommends that promotion on this level be less restrictive, at least in the first three grades.⁹

Another variation in the educational pyramid that may attract attention is found under the demarcation line between the elementary level and the secondary level. It is observed that there is a noticeable drop-out of students just across the line. About 16,000 students fade from the picture after the fifth primary grade. Where do all these students go? Presumably many of them enter vocational and technical schools. Some others follow other kinds of education, while the rest are absorbed in the economy, where they join the low-level labor force.

⁹Infra., p. 103.

Still another variation in the pyramid can be detected between secondary 4 and secondary 5, where the number of students is cut in half from one grade level to the other. What happens there is explained by the fact that secondary 4 marks the end of the upper primary level of education. Students, who leave the system at that time have many other alternatives to choose from. They either enter vocational or technical schools, enroll in teacher education institutes or enter the field of occupations at the middle level manpower.

Finally, there is another variation point between the end of the secondary level and the beginning of the higher education level. In contrast to what may be expected at this point, the pyramid is marked by a sharp increase in students. There is a sort of a "bottleneck" marked by a protruding shape of the pyramid. Why? Explanations are basically similar to the first grade situation on the primary level. The first year of college functions as the "storeroom" for higher education. It is not surprising to find hundreds of students claiming a college-student status, by merely signing for one course without even attending classes. This fact is quite compatible with the course offerings at colleges patterned after the French system of education. There, instead of following the conventional four years adopted by the Anglo-American system at the undergraduate level, courses are given separately and in isolation from one another. Thus, in order to major in law, or any other professional career, a student needs to study and pass a certain number of courses, known as "certificates." These range in number from four to seven depending on the field of specialization. The accumulation of the required number of "certificates" entitles the student to a college

degree usually identified as the "license" (after the French college degree which is equivalent to the Master's). It is no wonder then, to find a student spending five, ten or fifteen years in college before getting this degree. However, the pattern reflects a sharp decrease in the last two years of higher education where the pyramid reaches a very thin and sharp apex.

Another way to view the productive capacity of the educational system is in terms of students retained at each grade level. The best way to determine student retention is to examine how many students entering grade one will remain until the end of secondary seven. For example; from a thousand students, how many are retained until the last year of secondary school. Viewing all grade levels in primary and secondary education on a continuum from grade one until grade twelve one obtains a picture such as that presented in Figure 6.

The chart indicates that from 1,000 students only 33 reach the twelfth grade, a proportion which requires consideration when discussing educational planning with respect to manpower requirements in Lebanon.

Having explored the distribution of student population through the various levels, let us turn to the composition of students in the system.

The Composition of Student Population

In the light of presented data, it becomes more meaningful to focus on one particular area of the educational structure, secondary education. This level, including the various streams that comprise it, will be discussed in more detail at this stage of the study. It is assumed in this respect that secondary education provides the student with certain

Retention of Students at Primary and Secondary
School Levels - 1964-1965

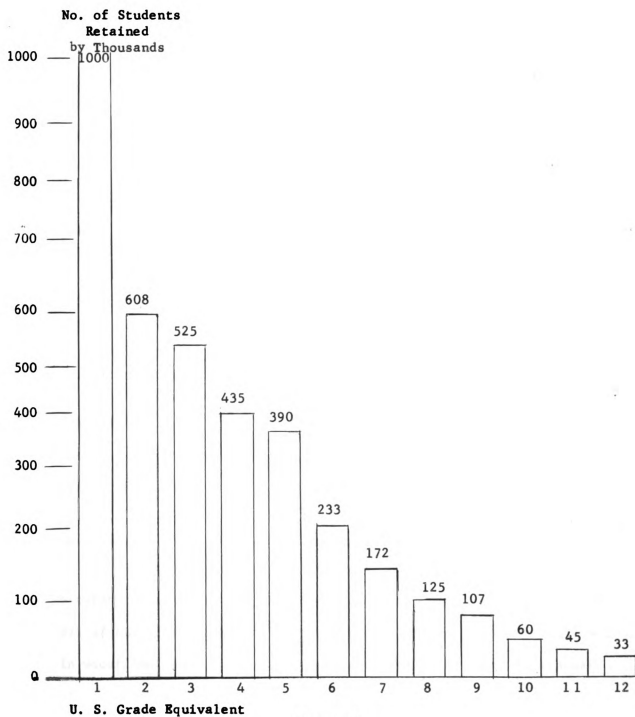


Figure 6

competencies that are deemed indispensable in meeting middle level manpower requirements. The discussion, however, will be confined to the descriptive aspect of the situation. The purpose is to furnish the background for the implications of the assumption in terms of the aims and functions of secondary education.

Viewed as a separate unit, secondary education includes the following streams: academic education, vocational and technical education and teacher education. Earlier parts of this chapter described recent developments of these streams. Presented in a quantitative form, Table 10 locates student population in each stream and its relative size to total student population on the secondary level.

TABLE 10
SECONDARY STUDENT POPULATION BY EDUCATIONAL STREAMS,
1964-65

Educational Stream	No. of Students	% of Total
Academic	77,898	87.4
Vocational and Technical	9,732	10.8
Teacher Education	<u>1,497</u>	<u>1.8</u>
Total	89,127	100.0

The table reflects a disproportionate size of student population between the academic and the non-academic streams. Whereas more than 87% of the students belong to the academic stream, only about 11% are in vocational and technical schools and less than 2% are in teacher education schools.

Another way to look at secondary education with all these streams placed in focus is through an educational pyramid, which is illustrated in Figure 7.

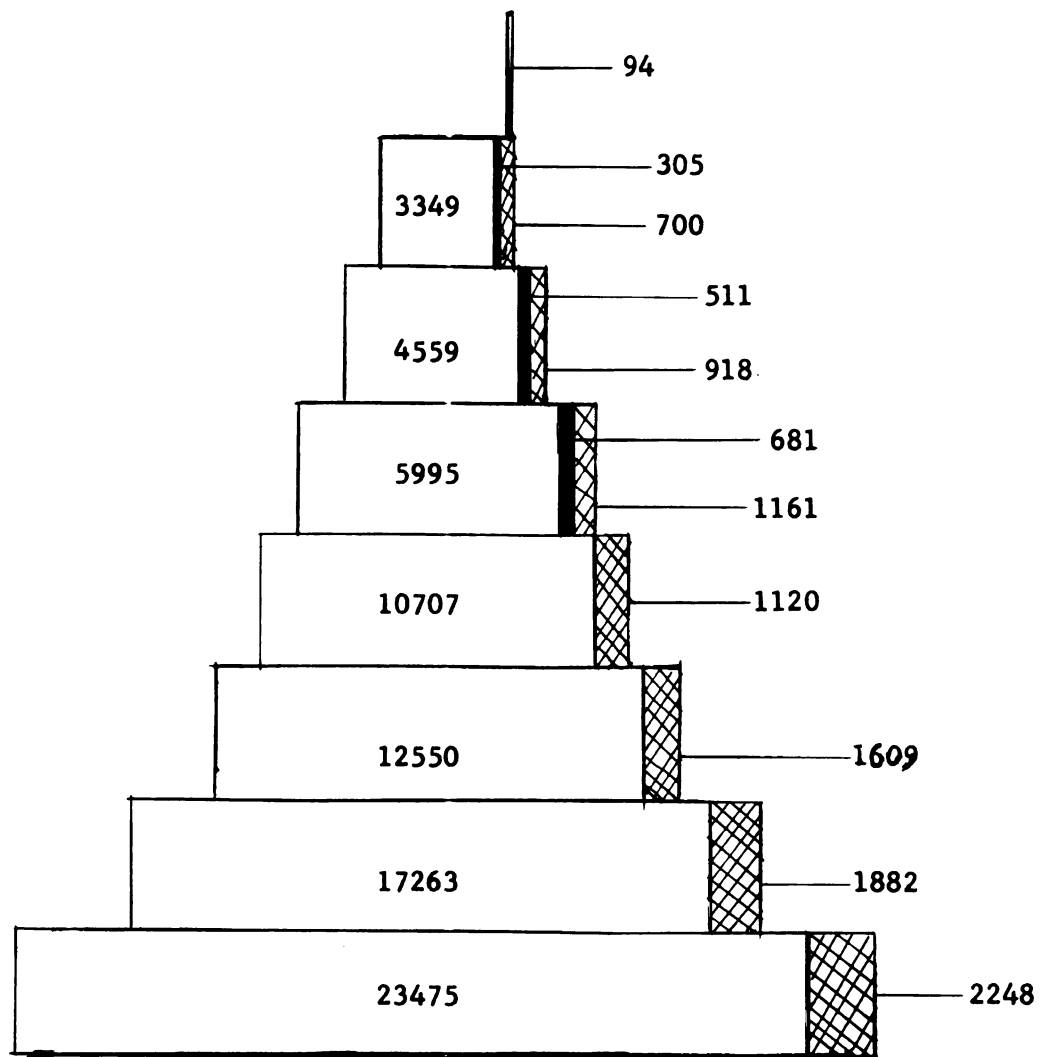
The chart points clearly to the large number of students in the four lower grades of the academic stream, in comparison to all other grades in the remaining streams. In fact these grades represent a combination of upper primary and lower secondary levels. Students at this level comprise the mainstream of the system. The sharp breakdown of student population that occurs between the 4th and 5th grades of the level shows that less than 55% of the students fade away from the academic stream. Where do these students go? As illustrated by Figure 7, there is a relative decrease in the upper secondary grades of the academic stream. There is at the same time a parallel stream of teacher education that appears on the scene. This means that some students leaving the fourth grade, which marks the completion of upper primary education, enter other streams in the system. But since the increase in the other streams is so insignificant in comparison to those dropping from the system, it means that those who leave the stream seek economic and occupational opportunities with four years of schooling beyond the primary level. Whether this amount of education is sufficient in meeting the requirements of manpower is another question that will be further discussed under a separate heading in the chapters to follow. It is sufficient in this respect to say that the composition of student population at the secondary level is limited to three types of education: academic, vocational and technical and teacher education. These three areas are considered by the study to form the basic dimensions of manpower supply on the middle level.

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**Student Enrollment at Secondary
School Level by Educational Streams
1964 - 1965**



General Education



Vocational Technical Education



Teacher Education



Figure 7

Summary

In conclusion, the findings of this chapter revealed many factors which were likely to shed some light on the educational system in terms of its function and operation. In terms of the productive capacity of the educational system in accommodating students through the various educational streams it has been noticed how students are being channelled and distributed. The "educational pyramid" illustrated the allocation of students on the successive educational levels. The corresponding educational pyramid on secondary education had shown that a great majority of the students are enrolled in the academic stream. This fact leaves the non-academic stream with a limited number of student population to train for existing manpower requirements in the country.

Whether the educational system as it functions at present is adequate and effective in meeting manpower requirements, and whether the existing educational policies reckon with the current trends and forces arising in the economic and social aspects of the society, all these issues will be examined and discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

NATIONAL PLANNING FOR EDUCATION IN LEBANON

The previous two chapters have revealed in a quantitative form the size, structure and composition of student population in the educational system. Along with these findings it was revealed that recent growth of education on all levels has had no precedent in the history of the country. The growth of student enrollments at schools was accompanied by a corresponding growth of total population. It was indicated also that the educational system through its administration and organization was set up in a way to achieve certain prescribed goals and objectives, basically national and individual. Among its various functions, it is assumed that the educational system plays a vital role in the development of Lebanon's resources. This role in its turn involves the setting up of educational policies, the making of decisions and the preparation of plans, all of which are to be followed up and accomplished within a certain period of time.

What are those policies and plans and who makes decisions--educational and otherwise--and how are these plans and decisions being passed and executed? What are the implications of the situation to educational planning with respect to the development of human resources? The answer to these questions involves the exploration of another area that has a direct bearing on the problem--the national planning for education.

In light of these findings and speculations it is the purpose of this chapter to examine the role of the Ministry of National Education

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in educational planning. The purpose is to examine specific measures taken by the Ministry in recent years for the realization and implementation of certain educational plans aiming at the development of human resources in the country. The examination involves both short term and long range plans. Because the state policy is assumed to have a direct influence on educational planning, this area will be investigated in terms of its functional operation with other agencies in bringing about decisions that affect the process of planning. The examination is preceded by a rationale that demonstrates the need for educational planning. It will be followed by an analysis and evaluation of the existing educational plans and their implications in the development of human resources.

The Need for Educational Planning

It has been indicated earlier that recent trends in the field of education suggest an urgent need for educational planning, particularly initiated and intensified by current developments taking place in all aspects of the human society. In this age, characterized by population explosion, technological advancement, space race and other aspects that have no precedent in the history of mankind, planning becomes a vital and indispensable step in the development of a nation's resources. "The consensus among administrators, planners and scholars is that the question today very definitely is not, to plan or not to plan, but the degree of rationality of the planning."¹

Applying the afore mentioned formula to the existing situation in Lebanon, its significance becomes readily discernable. The Lebanese society, as it has been indicated in chapter 2, is undergoing a tremendous

¹Donald Adams, (ed.). Educational Planning, (New York: Syracuse University, 1964), p. 1.

process of change that has affected cultural, social, political and economic aspects. All these areas suggest the need for wise and rational planning. It is sufficient in this respect to single out four specific areas where educational planning is most needed. These are: population expansion, social needs, economic-occupational needs, and increasing aspirational levels.

Population Expansion

Like many overpopulated areas in the world, Lebanon is experiencing a population "boom". Comparing the present population of the country, which is estimated at 2,151,884, with that of 1944 which was 1,064,186, it may be observed at a glance that the population has almost doubled in 21 years.² Projecting population growth at an annual rate of 2.2%, it is estimated that by 1970 the total population will be 2.5 million and by 1980 it will reach 3 million. This figure may seem small compared with larger populated countries, but in comparison to the 4,000 square mile area of Lebanon it makes the population density exceed 400 persons per square mile. This fact places the country among the most densely populated areas in the world.

In educational terms, the situation may be interpreted as an inevitable increase in student population. This presents the national government with the ever-existing responsibility of providing sufficient classrooms, adequate teachers, educational facilities, equipment and services. In all these instances, the situation calls for wise planning and sound decision-making.

²Supra., pp. 63-65.

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Social Needs

On the social scene, there are a number of needs which indicate an unbalanced growth of the social aspect of the Lebanese society. The result is a socially stratified society where some segments of the people became privileged and some others slip down to form a sub-culture of poverty. Studies in this area show that about 50% of the people are classified as poor with an annual income that ranges from LL 1200 to 2500 in comparison to 4% who are classified as rich with an annual income of LL 15000 and above. The remaining 46% of the people are classified as middle class with an annual income ranging from LL 5000 to 15000.³

This situation indicates that the potentialities of the country are placed in the hands of a social elite enjoying all conveniences of life whereas the other half of the society live in dire misery. Thus, instead of conceiving of one society in socio-economic terms, there are two societies, one comprised of the "haves" and the other of the "have-nots".

In order to cope with this problem, lest the social gap gets wider and out of control, the government is called upon to interfere. Any measure adopted in this respect requires wise and long range planning. From an educational view point the question is one of equality of educational opportunity. In deciding how to equalize educational opportunities for those who are not able to pursue their schooling beyond a certain level of education, educational planning becomes essential.

Economic - Occupational Needs

Current developments in the economic sphere indicate a progressive demand for personnel with higher level of education and qualifications.

³IRFED Mission, op. cit., Vol. 1., p. 93.

This demand is based on the assumption that most of the new occupations created by the introduction of machinery and automation require a certain caliber of personnel with a minimum of four years of schooling beyond the elementary education level. Studies on manpower need in Lebanon emphasize the necessity for the creation of 300,000 occupational positions in the country within the next fifteen years.⁴ The rising need for these occupations necessitates a corresponding demand for skilled, technical and managerial labor.

In educational terms this type of manpower demand calls for an adjustment of school curricula, methods of study, educational facilities, instructional materials and other related factors. Any adjustment of this sort calls for planning. Educational planning in this sense becomes essential in producing cultivated men as well as the training of employees, clerical workers, technical assistants and teachers.

Increasing Aspirational Level

Alongside the previous trends, there is another social-economic phenomenon, reflected in the aspirational level of the people and particularly the youth. Although it is technically difficult to implement concrete measurements in describing or explaining the intensity of aspiration, an abstract term, there are nevertheless some indicative criteria which may offer some explanation. For example, in a society where the educational system lifts individuals, as well as groups, from one social status to another, it can be assumed that education is highly valued. Education in this sense is not only considered as a symbol of social status but as a proper vehicle of social mobility, better jobs, more opportunities, and in the long run a better life. Thus, the higher the level of education

⁴Institute of Training Personnel for Development. Lubnan Indal Munataf (in Arabic) Lebanon at the Crossroads, (Beirut: 1963), p. 40.

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a person attains, the better jobs he aspires to obtain and the better life he expects to live.⁴

In the same token, it may be observed that in the Lebanese society, where education is conceived of as a status symbol as well as a vehicle for better opportunities, everyone aspires to obtain the maximum education he can afford. Parents want their children to have a better life than they themselves had. They want them to obtain better opportunities in life. At the same time the children are aspiring for better occupations and better standards of living. This situation is likely to result in more pressing demands for schools, for teachers and a better quality of education. For these conditions to be met properly there arises the need for educational planning. Planning in this sense includes counseling and guidance as well as identifying the means by which students are channelled into the proper educational streams, according to their interests and abilities on the one hand and in the light of manpower requirements on the other hand.

Having established the grounds for the need of educational planning, we turn now to examine the role of the Ministry of Education in that field.

The Role of the Ministry of Education in the Process of Planning

It has already been established that the educational system in Lebanon is highly centralized and that the Ministry of National Education represents the legal authority on the national level in assuming full responsibility concerning all matters of public education. Besides these major functions, the Ministry plays different roles in the field of education.

⁴Burton R. Clark, Educating the Expert Society, (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1962), pp. 69-80.

With the cooperation of private institutions, it works toward the promotion and advancement of education, science and fine arts in the country, and in cooperation with other institutions and agencies in the country, works toward the achievement of the broad educational and national goals.

Thus, within its capacity, the Ministry of Education is assumed to play a compatible role in the planning for education. This role includes the preparation of various educational decisions and policies, as well as the laying down of specific plans to be accomplished within a definite period of time. What are these plans? How are they made? What specific measures does the Ministry take to put them into effect? How far has the Ministry progressed in accomplishing these plans according to a set schedule? To what extent do these plans address themselves to the social and economic needs of the country? The answer to these questions involves an examination which will focus basically on the analysis and interpretation of short term and long range planning and its pertinent factors.

Examination of the Present Educational Situation

It is very difficult to pinpoint any specific documentation on educational planning in Lebanon. The concept of planning is new to the country. This is evidenced in the fact that prior to the sixties any allusion to planning in educational terminology was very general and stated in broad terms of educational goals and objectives. Educational planning, as it was understood until recently by official authorities, and as it is demonstrated by the program of studies, lacks a clarity of meaning. It also lacks scope and direction. At no place in the curriculum

is there a clear-cut mention of a functional relationship between education and existing social economic needs of the country. Were there any mention with respect to the development of human resources and the investment in education it was stated in the form of general and broad educational goals. The evidence in support of these views is the curriculum itself, which has been in effect for the last twenty-two years without any modification or adjustment in light of the developments that occurred during that period of time in the society.

Based on these considerations the analysis of the existing educational situation in terms of plans, decisions and policies has to be generated and inferred from whatever data available in that field assuming that such data is both valid and reliable.⁵ Based on a quick revision of the literature in the field of educational planning, the existing situation may be summed up under the following needs.

There is a pressing need for the extension of educational opportunities to the remote and isolated villages in rural areas where there are no public schools, in terms of school buildings, teachers and instructional material.⁶ There is a corresponding need for the expansion of primary teachers' institutes to accommodate a larger number

⁵These sources include: statistical data derived from the Bureau of Educational Statistics in the Ministry of Education, Legislative decrees submitted by the Ministry of Education to the Cabinet, proposed educational plans conducted by the Educational Committee in the Ministry of Education and related educational reports prepared by the Lebanese Delegation to the Regional Training Center of Advanced Personnel in the Administration of Education in the Arab World, Beirut, Lebanon, 1961 through 1964.

⁶Ministry of National Education, Office of Cultural Affairs and Fine Arts, A Report On Recent Educational Plans in Lebanon, submitted to the Educational Committee in the Arab League during its 17th. Session held at Cairo, Egypt, March 9, 1965.

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of student teachers, whereby these institutes will reach a capacity of graduating 500 teachers a year. In order to provide for opportunities of professional growth there was an expressed desire for the expansion of in-service training sessions for those teachers who did not have the chance to obtain professional education.

In other educational areas there were pressing needs for school equipment and instructional material, namely audio-visual material which is non-existent in most of the schools in the country. There was as well an urgent desire for the publication and distribution of educational journals and materials in a systematic manner.

There was also a specific mention of an existing project of the organization of scholarship funds for specialization abroad, the expansion and development of higher education and the expansion and upgrading of vocational and technical education.⁷

For the convenience and purpose of the study all existing and conceivable educational plans will be classified and discussed under two broad categories:

Short term plans, those that are envisioned for the immediate future, basically for the next four to five years; and

Long range plans that extend beyond that period and embody far reaching plans beyond 1970.

Short-Term Planning

Short term planning as being conceived and practiced by the Ministry of Education may best be described as a series of decisions and policies set up to meet the immediate needs of the situation resulting from an increasing student population, shortage of teachers, scarcity of school buildings and dearth of school equipment.

⁷Ibid.

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In a recent study conducted by the Members of the Lebanese Delegate to the Regional Training Center in Beirut there was specific mention of educational planning including a description of the existing social economic situation in the country, a rationale for the need of planning and concluding suggestions and recommendations. With respect to short term planning, the study suggests a three year plan beginning in 1962.⁸

On the primary education level it was mentioned that there were at that time 107,800 children of school age in the country who were not attending schools. There were 700 villages denied any kind of elementary schools. In the light of this situation the plan suggested the construction of 700 school buildings and the recruitment of 3,600 new teachers. In addition to this, the plan estimated the expected growth of student population in the next five years to be 160,000 at an average rate of 32,000 students a year. This natural increase of student enrollment requires the recruitment of 5,500 teachers at the rate of 1,100 teachers per year.

As a matter of fact the Ministry of Education, being aware of this pressing need, had submitted in 1962 a proposal to the Cabinet requesting the appropriation of five million Lebanese pounds for the recruitment of 1,500 teachers and for the purchase of needed educational facilities.⁹

On the secondary education level the plan suggested the establishment of secondary schools that were needed in various regions of the country. Guided by the provisions of the plan, the Ministry of Education took specific measures in the appropriation of required funds for the

⁸The Lebanese Delegate to the Regional Training Center for the Training of Advanced Personnel in the Administration of Education in the Arab World, op. cit., Vol. 1., pp. 45-49.

⁹Ibid.

expansion of secondary education. At the same time measures were taken to upgrade thirteen upper primary schools and include them under the secondary education program.

On the higher education level, the plan requested the expansion of the existing programs at the college level, with special reference to the Lebanese University program. It was suggested in this respect that higher education should be more diversified with due consideration given to technical education.

With respect to vocational and technical education the plan indicated that in 1962 there were 800 students in vocational and technical education in comparison with 15,000 students in secondary education. In the light of this data, the plan calls for the expansion of the area of vocational and technical education so that by 1965 about 60% of the secondary school students should find a place in those mentioned schools.

In the field of teacher education the plan admits the inadequacy of the existing teachers' institutes in meeting the immediate need for primary schools. Hence, the plan suggests open recruitment of teachers on a provisional basis pending the establishment and operation of teachers' institutes. The plan in this respect specifies the need for 5,500 teachers within a 5-year period and recommends that the future capacity of teacher education should provide a minimum of 500 trained teachers a year.

These were, in brief, the provisions of the short term plan as being suggested by the members of the Lebanese delegate to the Regional Training Center. It is worthwhile mentioning in this respect, that practically all the members were either inspectors in the Ministry of Education, or had held administrative positions in the field of education.

Turning to another project designed by the Ministry of Education through its standing committee on educational planning, we obtain a similar picture of short term planning. The findings and recommendations of the committee are included in the form of working papers submitted to the Council of Ministers in the form of suggested proposals and recommendations for the modification and reconstruction of the educational system in Lebanon.¹⁰ Essentially, these papers include educational plans that are addressed to the immediate needs of the situation and are meant as well to introduce a radical change in the educational system including long range planning. The significance of the work in general inheres in presenting the most recent data on education and the estimation of future trends in terms of student enrollments and educational expenditures. Moreover, the work in its entirety represents the viewpoint of the Ministry of Education itself. The provisions of the plan, then, will be discussed with respect to both short term planning and long range planning of education in Lebanon.

The main provisions of the plan in relation to short term planning take into consideration the qualitative and quantitative dimensions of the educational situation. From a qualitative viewpoint, the planners decry the general standard of education, which is degenerating in successive years. "With the exception of some partial progress in secondary education and some sporadic accomplishments in some private schools." The planners maintain that, "schooling, which is provided to about 90% of the student population, is of a very low quality, both in public and private schools." ¹¹

¹⁰ Ministry of Education, Committee on Educational Planning, Working Papers on The Planning for the Extension of Education to the Various Regions of Lebanon, (Beirut: 1965).

¹¹ Ibid., p. 1.

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As for the underlying causes of the low quality of education, the planners mention such factors as the weak organization of the Ministry of Education, augmented by the poor training of school teachers and the ineffective role played by the Ministry in raising educational standards. The planners specify that out of 8,000 public school teachers, there are only 300 who are graduates of the higher teachers' institute and 800 who are graduates of primary teachers' institutes. The remaining 7,000 teachers do not have professional training. Beside this dubious image of the teaching force there is a corresponding deterioration in school buildings and dire need for educational facilities, primarily audiovisual materials.

From a quantitative aspect, the planners present the following data based mostly on the IRFED Mission works. Given a total population of 1,864,000 in 1965 and considering the distribution of population by age groups in line with the IRFED distribution, the resultant breakdown of population by age group is most likely to be as follows: population in the age groups between 5 and 11 years form 18.5% of the total population or approximately 344,400. Those between the ages of 11 to 15 years comprise 10% of the total population, or about 186,400. In educational terms this means that population between the ages of 5 to 15 years, whose total is 531,000, is supposed to form the school age population. How many of this number are actually in school? The planners refer to the educational statistics of 1963-1964 which show that total student enrollment in that year at both public and private schools was 316,000. This means that there are 215,240 youths who are of school age but who are not actually in schools. As the planners see it, the situation results in a very apparent and serious educational problem which requires an immediate and rational solution.

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The Committee on Educational Planning considers a number of solutions as candidate answers to the problem giving educational planning a top priority. The committee members suggest an educational plan aimed at the modification of the existing educational system including its organizational structure. The suggested plan is meant to serve the immediate needs of the situation and to furnish the grounds for the setting up of a long term project.

Regarding the immediate needs arising from the situation, the plan is basically concerned with the accommodation of all children of school age by the system on more equitable terms. Based on the assumption that an average class on the primary education level accommodates 25 pupils, this implies that the teacher student ratio should be 1:25. This formula is suggested by the planners in determining the number of teachers and classrooms required.

Evidently, the plan is confined to public education. It avoids the recommendation of similar measures for private schools on the assumption that this sector will take care of its own affairs. Other details included in the plan refer to the technical aspects of the implementation and follow up of the proposed recommendations. Whether the provisions presented in the plan are implementable or not, or whether the plan in its totality is feasible, realistic or out of proportion, these issues will be further analyzed and evaluated.

Long Range Planning

The examination of the role of the Ministry of Education in relation to the preparation of long range plans will be exclusively confined to the discussion of the concept as being manifested by the same works conducted

by the Committee on Educational Planning. Essentially, the plan to be discussed in the next few pages may be considered as a sequential continuation of short term planning. Any difference between the two phases is one of degree more than one of kind.

In its broad outlines, the long range plan calls for the reconstruction and reorganization of the educational system in a manner to meet the existing and anticipated needs of the country. Following are the main provisions of the plan and the justification on which they are based.

On the elementary education level, it was pointed out that this stage in its existing function is considered a separate unit, culminating with the primary education certificate. A considerable number of Lebanese youth leave the school system at this level and enter the world of economy and compete for occupations and other opportunities with a primary school level of education.

The planners criticize the system for being built on such grounds. They maintain that the basic education a child gets at that level would not wipe out illiteracy, nor provide him with the basic skills and knowledge for practical work. To support their views, the planners refer to the various studies, whose findings show that a person with primary education only, will revert back to illiteracy if his education is not reinforced by further schooling. For this same reason many nations of the world are extending compulsory education to include more years of schooling. Some nations namely: England, France and the United States, have compulsory education that includes the secondary school level.

The planners contend that in Lebanon, a student finishes his primary education at the age of 10. Can a child at this age decide what career or

occupation he should follow? This decision requires some degree of maturity and studies show that children at this level do not possess the needed maturity to enable them to make a wise decision.

On the upper primary and secondary levels, the planners present more criticism, most of which they infer from within the context of the existing curricula. According to the committee, this level of education as it functions, results in an undesirable duality of education for which there is no justification. This duality is demonstrated in the gap between the upper primary education and the lower grades of secondary education. This in effect lead to two separate educational streams: four upper primary grades that belong administratively and organizationally to the primary level proper, and a corresponding four lower secondary grades that belong to the secondary level proper, in a similar manner. Such an educational practice resulted logically in many untenable consequences. For example, it was very difficult to channel students at the outset of the upper primary stage. Moreover, there was no preparatory stage between primary and secondary education that would enable the school to guide the child into making choices or decisions. Apparently, there proved to be no significant difference between the two streams in terms of practical outcome.

The planners decry the rigidity of the curriculum at the upper secondary grades which is confined to three streams: literary, scientific and ancient languages that are culminated in the Lebanese Baccalaureat Part I and the two branches of philosophy and mathematics which are culminated with the Lebanese Baccalaureat Part II.

With respect to vocational and technical education, the planners criticize the existing program for being too rigid. They maintain that this type of education is confined to teachers' institutes, agricultural schools

and vocational and technical schools all of which are limited in quality and quantity. At this point, the planners refer to the findings of recent studies on the relationship between education and national economy which state emphatically that the school at all levels has a vital role to play in the preparation of manpower in order to meet the rising manpower requirements in the various economic and occupational aspects. They conclude that it is time to expand the aims of secondary education and prepare new educational programs that will be more functional in the preparation of manpower supply in accordance with the social and economic needs of the country.

In light of these criticisms, the Committee on Educational Planning recommends the following principles as a guideline for any future educational policy and as an outline for a new organizational structure of education:

1. The extension of universal free education until the age of 14 for all the youth in the country.
2. The reconstruction of the organizational structure to include the following levels:
 - a. Pre-primary. One year duration. Students at the age four to be admitted to this level on a voluntary basis.
 - b. Primary. Extended to five years, from grade one through grade five. Children five years of age are admitted to grade one. Promotion in the first two grades of this level should be automatic, with close observance of the child. After the third grade, the child should not be allowed to repeat a grade more than once. The committee suggests the elimination of the primary certificate of

education, which is to be replaced by a school certificate indicating that the child attended and completed the fifth grade. This certificate should qualify the child to participate in an entrance examination to the first grade of the succeeding educational level. Those failing this examination would be allowed readmittance to the fifth grade on the primary level.

3. Complementary (or intermediate). Of four years duration from grade one through grade four. At the age of ten, students will be admitted to grade one on the secondary school level. This level should replace both the upper primary and the lower grades of secondary education, and should be considered as a unified complementary school for all, and aims primarily at the close observation of students beginning with grade one, whereby they will be guided throughout their education in this level to make a sound decision with respect to the educational stream of their choice. Once they reach grade four, students will be able to choose one of three educational streams: theoretical general education, technical general education and vocational education. These streams will be more fully explained under the secondary level of education.
4. Secondary. Including the following streams:
 - a. Theoretical General. Of three years duration ending with the Lebanese Baccalaureat Part II (including both

the literary and scientific sections). Students who successfully pass the intermediate level, are admitted to this stream provided they pass a qualifying entrance examination.

- b. Technical General. Of three years duration, ending with the Lebanese Baccalauréat of Technique with all its branches. Students are admitted to this stream on a similar basis as the theoretical streams.
- c. Teacher Education. Of four years duration, ending with the Teaching Baccalauréat. The curriculum of this field should include both general and professional education. Students who pass the intermediate level are qualified to enter this stream and be enrolled in one of three areas:
 - (1). The teaching of general education
 - (2). The teaching of physical education and scouting
 - (3). The teaching of fine arts and home economics
- d. Vocational Education. Composed of two cycles:

Cycle 1. Of five years duration. Students who hold the intermediate certificate and do not wish to pursue their education further are admitted to this cycle. These students would be trained vocationally to meet middle level manpower requirements. This branch would be preceded by a preparatory year for those who failed the intermediate certificate.

Cycle 2. Of one year duration, admitting those who hold the Lebanese Baccalauréat Part II, but who do not

want to continue their higher education. This cycle should also be preceded by one year for those who failed the Baccalaureat examinations.

6. Higher Education. Including the following streams:

- a. General
- b. Technical
- c. Teacher - the teaching of general education
- d. Teacher - the teaching of technical education and vocational education.

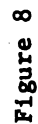
Figure 8 illustrates the proposed organizational structure of education.

The committee, in this respect, recommends a decentralized system of education centered around educational spheres; with larger spheres providing secondary education and smaller spheres--primary and intermediate education.

With respect to the implementation of the plan, the committee suggests that the required personnel be trained to supervise and guide the complete educational process during its transitory phase.

Finally, the committee suggests that the plan should go into effect starting with the academic year of 1967-1968.

Having surveyed the major provisions of both short term and long range planning and the role of the Ministry of Education in these areas, let us examine another related area where the state policy is involved in the process of educational planning.



The Impact of State Policy on Educational Planning

It is assumed that in a centralized system of education all educational affairs, especially in the public sector, are the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. The Ministry itself is but an agency in a more comprehensive political institution, the national government. The government, which is vested with constitutional authority and legal power, is assumed to have a direct impact on educational planning as well as on other decisions and policies involved in the educative process. Thus, any educational policy, no matter how simple, is directly or indirectly influenced by the state policy.

In chapter II it was indicated that the Office of the Minister of Education is directly related and accountable to the central government. There is ample evidence in support of the view that the influence of state policy permeates practically the whole educative process. From a constitutional viewpoint, it was mentioned earlier that Article 10 of the Lebanese Constitution defines the nature and function of education in the country. From a legislative viewpoint, it was shown also that legislative decrees govern and direct all educational practices.¹²

Perceived from another perspective, the state policy in Lebanon may be described as the manifestation of the social and political atmosphere of the country. This implies the embodiment of the vested interests of the various pressure and interest groups, political parties, religious organizations and all the social-cultural paraphernalia that constitute the fiber and matrix of the Lebanese society. It was indicated earlier in the study that Lebanon has a unique socio-political situation. This is evidenced in the fact that the "national-pact," which governs to a great

¹²The Lebanese Government, The Official Paper: Legislative Decrees Nos. 25 & 26 with respect to the Organization and Administration of Education, (Beirut: 1955).

extent the political life of the country is still in effect to the present day. Through the provisions of the "pact", the various political and administrative offices in the state are distributed proportionally among the various groups. Being superimposed on such a social cultural diversity, the total political situation is mostly featured by confessionalism, ethnocentrism, feudality, nepotism, and favoritism.¹³

Given this kind of situation characterized by the mentioned features, any outlook on educational planning, or other developmental plans in the country tends to present a dubious image to the planner. The situation as it exists does not lend itself to strong responsible leadership. Moreover, there is a sheer lack of statesmanship demonstrated by less wise official action.¹⁴ The underlying causes as suggested by one of the authorities on Middle Eastern Affairs are due basically to the lives lost in the first world war massacres, to emigration, or the lack of training facilities.¹⁵ Whatever may be the case, the situation is assumed to be the result of the various social and cultural forces that became embodied in the existing political regime, which in its turn becomes a causal factor to other conditions in the society.

Based on these considerations, it becomes more meaningful to focus on one particular aspect of state policy and establish a relationship between educational decisions and other national decisions. The discussion of this aspect involves primarily a description of the organizational structure of the planning machinery through the successive courses that educational planning follow on the administrative hierarchy.

¹³Arthur E. Mills, Private Enterprise in Lebanon, The American University of Beirut, 1959, p. 120.

¹⁴Ibid., pp. 120-120.

¹⁵Hourani, Albert, op. cit., p. 118.

Organizational Structure of the Planning Machinery

Essentially, the planning machinery shares many features with the administrative machinery of the educational system (Fig. 1, Chapter II). Both run on hierarchical lines of authority that flow from the upper echelons downward. Both are organizationally stratified throughout the hierarchy; and personnel that fall on any stratum of the structure report to the next higher office. All offices in turn are under direct control of a central office in the administration. The planning machinery however, as conceived by the study is more encompassing. It touches, in its nature and function, on more than one Ministry and agency that has a direct relationship with planning. Figure 9 illustrates the organizational structure of the planning machinery.

As indicated by the chart all the various branches of the machinery stem from one point of origin, the Parliament. The Parliament itself, embodying the legislative branch of the state, is representative of the people. Deputies are elected to office by universal suffrage. Next on the line is the Council of Ministers. This council represents the executive body of the State. It embodies the cabinet which is headed by a Premier. The Premier himself is appointed by the President of the Republic and is delegated with the authority of selecting the members of the cabinet. The cabinet is responsible and accountable to both the President of the Republic and the Parliament. The next step on the hierarchy is the Ministerial level. Each Ministry is presided over by a Minister who, in his turn is directly accountable to the Council of Ministers. The Ministry, with its various offices and departments, constitutes a semi-autonomous administrative unit which is organized on well defined

The Organizational Structure
of the Planning Machinery

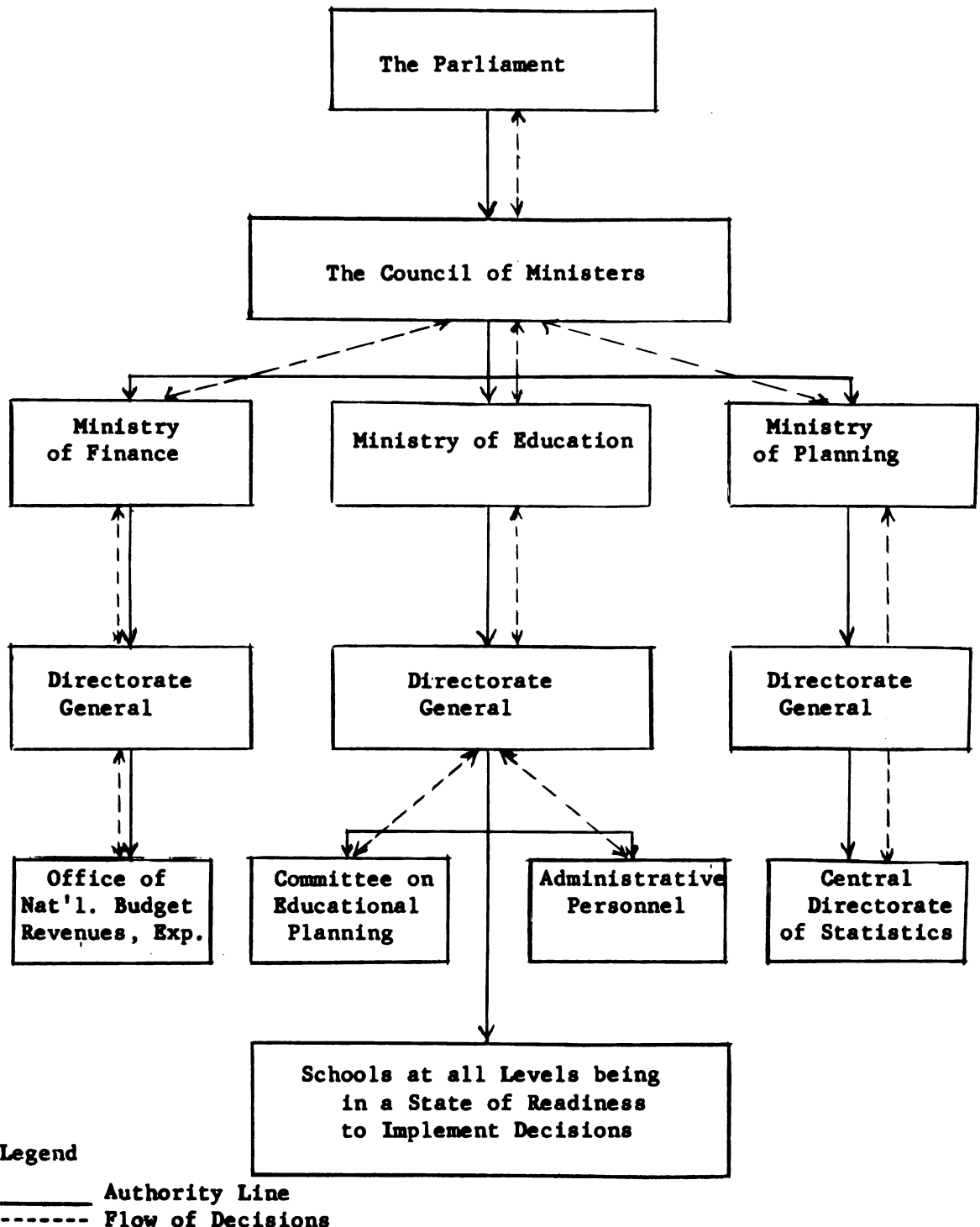


Figure 9

Organizational lines that run from the Minister down to the lowest echelons of the hierarchy.

The Ministries that have direct relationship to educational planning, as shown on the chart are those of Planning, Education and Finance. Although some other agencies and institutions on that level may have a relationship in the process of planning, however, they were not included in the chart. For the convenience of the study these three Ministries and their respective departments were selected to serve as concrete examples on the interrelationship of decisions and interests involved in the process of planning.

Closer examination of the chart would show two sets of lines: One set follows a vertical direction, the other a horizontal direction. The vertical lines stand for the line of authority which usually follow a one-way course from upward down. This is represented in the uninterrupted line on the chart. There is, however, another vertical line which is dotted, and which follows an upward course. This line represents decisions, studies, and findings of standing committees that are reported to the upper echelons of the hierarchy. The horizontal line may be called a staff line and represents the interdepartmental and/or inter-Ministerial relationship in the process of decision making. All these interrelationships in the planning machinery become more meaningful when they are placed in focus under the process of planning and the different levels that the process follows.

Planning on the Policy Level

Ideally, planning on the policy level involves the cooperative effort of personnel in the higher echelons of the administrative hierarchy

in the preparation of plans. Usually plans are prepared by special committees created for that purpose and delegated with the authority needed for the accomplishment of the task. Thus, from an administrative viewpoint, the Committee on Educational Planning, which was appointed by the Ministry of Education for the specific purpose of setting up educational plans, has defined duties and responsibilities. It observes the situation, collects the necessary data and prepares plans. The committee in turn submits the proposed plans to the Director General, who in turn makes his comments and remarks -- then submits the plan to the Minister. At this level, the Minister examines the plan from his own standpoint and in concert with the Ministers of Planning and Finance. These agencies study the plan in terms of available resources and in light of statistical data derived from the Central Directorate of Statistics. At the suggestion of these Ministers, the plan is submitted to the Council of Ministers, upon whose consent, goes through its last stage to the Parliament. Once the plan is passed by the Parliament, it becomes a law and retraces its path down the administrative hierarchy for implementation.

This exposure to the process of planning may be conceived as an oversimplification of the situation. This is true were the issue left at this level, however, there are many intervening variables that affect each step of the process. What happens in practice, as a matter of fact, is more complicated than what has been demonstrated in this hypothetical situation. Quite often, a plan takes from one to ten years from the time it is initiated before it is finally passed by Parliament. It is no surprise to find at times that some plans never see the light. As one Lebanese authority remarked, "if you want to kill a plan, appoint a committee to study it."¹⁶

¹⁶An Interview with an Inspector in the Ministry of Education, Beirut, Summer 1965. (see appendix, question 6)

What actually happens on the policy level may be explained under two different concepts: "educational decisions" and "political decisions." As a rule, an educational plan is initiated by some person inside or outside education. This is done, presumably, in light of a rising educational need. The proposed plan is considered under a certain set of conditions and criteria. Thus, when an educational committee studies a plan it considers all relevant factors and possibilities that have a direct bearing on the plan. Conceived from this viewpoint the plan is a matter of an educational decision. As soon as the plan is passed to the office of the Minister it becomes a political decision. It is assumed the decision of the Minister of Education is influenced by other decisions coming from pressure groups, from community leaders, and other factions in the society. There is ample evidence showing that a considerable number of educational practices are the result of political decisions.¹⁷ Similar measures are followed in the support of private schools and the provisions of financial subsidies to schools that operate under the pretense of being non-tuition.¹⁸

The significance of the situation in terms of its bearing on educational planning becomes readily discernible. Any educational plan on the policy level is directly governed and influenced by political decisions. It may be concluded then that the process of planning starts as an educational decision and grows into a political decision. This tendency is likely to be true on the work level of planning as well.

¹⁷The Lebanese Government, The Official Paper: Ministerial decrees concerning permits for the opening of Private Schools, Current issues of the Paper, (Beirut: 1964-65).

¹⁸Ministry of Education, Ministerial decrees with respect to the support of private education, (Beirut, 1965).

Planning on the Work Level

From what has been shown in Figure 9, it becomes apparent that the work level in the process of planning involves the lower echelons of the administrative hierarchy. The schools in this sense, including their administrative and instructional staff, are in a state of readiness to implement the approved plan. The teachers in the educational system, especially in public schools, are considered public servants and are treated as such. Public school teachers being paid by the state are also controlled by it. They have no right to form or join teachers' organizations or any other unions or parties, especially political parties. They are not allowed to have any other occupation or operate a business of their own as long as they are in the school system. They are expected to behave in a certain manner both in the school and outside.¹⁹

The situation dramatizes the line of authority on the administrative hierarchy. It shows that the impact of the state on educational policies is unchallenged. The clearly defined course that decisions follow from the higher echelons down the line indicates the upper hand played by the policy makers. It also suggests the process of planning as being a one-way process making educational decisions implied in political decisions. More important, the situation suggests that decisions being initiated and approved at the policy level are not shared with those at the work level. This means that all personnel in the lower echelons of the hierarchy are excluded from the decision making. Their share in the whole process is to carry out and implement decisions.

¹⁹ Ministry of Education, Internal By-Laws governing the Behavioral Conduct of Public School Teachers, (Beirut: 1955).

Looking finally at the planning machinery in retrospect, a few questions may be raised at this point. How are the various plans related to each other? What are the guiding principles for initiating and designing educational plans? Considering the existing administrative structure that channels its working personnel in the same manner that it channels the student population -- what happens to the individual initiative and the level of incentives? What should be the basic responsibility of the Ministry of Education in the process of planning and how should this responsibility be shared by its various departments and offices? All these questions require some analysis of the educational situation which will be concluded in the next part of the chapter.

Analysis and Evaluation of the Present Situation

After this exposition of the various educational plans reflecting the different viewpoints of official authorities both on the state level and on the Ministerial level, it becomes appropriate to conclude the discussion on the national planning for education with a brief analysis of the various plans as they relate to each other and as they bear on the concept of human resource development. The discussion implies a comparison among the educational plans as being presented in the previous sections of this chapter and their implications on the educational situation.

A Comparison Among Existing Educational Plans

Casting another look on the different educational programs, it becomes clear that they share many things in common as well as they differ in their conception, approach and estimate of the notion of educational planning.

First, it should be pointed out that all the different planners, irrespective of their differences, are in full agreement of the need for educational planning. This agreement has been demonstrated in the conscientious awareness on their part of the seriousness of the situation. They have supported their views by evidence derived from data on population trends, on student population and on objective diagnosis of the various educational needs of the country.

Second, all planners are in agreement with the primary role played by the Ministry of Education in the promotion and the sponsoring of educational plans. Whether they approve or disapprove of the existing educational policies, they do consider that the Ministry can play an effective role in the process of planning. This role is derived from the legal authority of the Ministry in the support and control of education.

Third, educational plans, whether short term or long range, are most likely to be influenced by the state policy which is to a large extent the expression of the predominating political atmosphere in the country. All plans in order to acquire legal recognition have to be either passed by the Parliament or the Cabinet.

Fourth, it can be readily observed that the existing plans differ in their scope, intensity and dimensions. Whereas short term plans are primarily concerned with suggestions and recommendations that address themselves to the immediate problems arising from the situation; long term plans address themselves to far reaching goals and objectives.

Finally, it may be said that short term plans in general have confined themselves to provisional educational decisions and policies to be accomplished within time not exceeding five years. Whereas, long

term plans were left "open-ended" in the sense that they did not set up target years for education that may be attained within a given period of time.

Analysis of Comparisons

The various plans present concrete evidence for the need of the modification and reconstruction of the educational system on different levels and degrees. This evidence was grounded in the pressing needs of the situation. Expressed in a numerical formula these needs meant shortage of teachers, school buildings, facilities, and funds for education.

The problem as evidenced at this level, was one of quantity rather than quality. It was focused on issues such as: how to recruit teachers? How to find school buildings that would accommodate the increasing number of students? and how to raise funds? Miserable schoolhouses, jammed classrooms and poor teacher qualifications were overlooked as being essential elements in the process of planning.

Another striking feature of these plans was the concentration of planners on the structural reorganization of the educational system. This tendency was mostly demonstrated by the long term plan which included a proposed organizational structure of the system from pre-primary to higher education, with each level being carefully defined in terms of scope and function.

However, in spite of the apparent merits of these plans, they do manifest many shortcomings. Basically, most of them were very general. There was no specific provision for the working policy that would state procedures, define goals and identify the means according to which the prescribed goals could be obtained. The over concern of the planners

for the finding of solutions to the immediate educational needs made them overlook the implications of their own solutions. For example, how did they come to determine educational needs outside the immediate aspects of the situation? What were the criteria for expanding vocational education programs or similar programs in technical education?

All these facts suggest that the planners overlooked economic social needs of the society in terms of manpower requirements and other occupational demands rising in the economic sector. If there were any mention of these aspects, they were stated in the form of generalizations, that expose a situation, but never explain it. Hence educational planning in this sense is assumed to be prepared in isolation of other developmental programs in the country. It is assumed also that the process of planning, as being conceived by the different planners and carried out by the responsible agencies in the country including the Ministry of Education, suggests the need for a guiding policy of educational planning, a policy that would help the planner to integrate educational planning with overall national planning.

Implications of the Situation

The situation as it has been presented in the previous sections of this chapter leaves many implications and raises many issues pertinent to education, to the state, to the Ministry of Education and to the educational planner.

To education, these implications may be stated in terms of educational priorities. Where should the emphasis be placed in suggesting recommendations for the improvement of an educational program? What educational streams should be emphasized and what other streams should

be de-emphasized? How can education be adjusted to the arising social-economic needs of the society.

The implications to society may be included under an overall encompassing policy that defines national goals and objectives and identifies the means for achieving these goals. It involves the coordination of all activities in the various Ministries and public agencies. It involves decision making as well. Is the state ready to play this role of statesmanship or leadership in the process of planning? Is the political atmosphere conducive for this purpose?

In similar measures where should the Ministry of Education stand on educational decisions? What kind of role should it play? To what extent should it delegate full authority to standing committees on educational planning? What is the role of the professional and of the expert in the process of planning? And on what level should educational policies be made and followed up?

Finally the planner is the one who is directly involved in the whole process. Is the educational planner in Lebanon fully aware of the social-cultural forces that influence education? Is he technically and professionally provided with the required experiences and knowledge in the field of planning? Does he have sufficient training in his field? Is he in a position to relate educational planning to other aspects on manpower planning and other developmental plans?

These are the minimum issues to be considered while contemplating the setting up of any educational plan. Most of these issues suggest the need for relating educational plans to other national plans. Thus, before considering a thorough appraisal of the educational system in terms of its capacity in the development of human resources, it is

appropriate to consider another major area that has a direct bearing on educational planning. This area involves some known manpower requirements in Lebanon and will form the topic of discussion in the next chapter.

Summary

It has been revealed in this chapter that there is an urgent need for educational planning in Lebanon. This need has been triggered by many developments taking place in the Lebanese Society basically: population expansion, economic and occupational needs and rising aspirations on the part of the people.

All these factors were likely to leave a direct impact on the educational system. The system itself became under direct questioning in terms of its preparing youth to meet new life situations. Several attempts were made suggesting new educational plans that would meet the needs of the situation. Most of these plans were carried under the auspices of the Ministry of National Education. The procedures followed in the designing and implementing of these plans were directly influenced by the state policy.

These plans in their totality expressed an urgent desire on the part of official authorities for the improvement of the educational system and the extension of educational opportunities to all the people of the country. The discussion was concluded by an analytic comparison of the existing plans.

It was indicated, finally, that the various practices in educational planning suggest the need for an objective appraisal and evaluation of the educational system in terms of training for the development of human resources. The appraisal requires an examination of a related area in the field of economy, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING WITH RESPECT TO KNOWN MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS IN LEBANON

The discussion in the previous chapters presented a descriptive account of the nature and function of the educational system in the country in terms of student enrollments and the planning for education. Essentially, these students form the potential of manpower stock which is likely to provide the needed competencies at different levels of manpower requirements in Lebanon. Moreover, it was disclosed that various educational plans, at both short term and long range intervals, are either being installed or are in the process of implementation. Presumably, these plans are conceived by the concerned authorities as prerequisites in a more comprehensive developmental process which is meant to serve the individual needs and, simultaneously, to cope with the overall social and economic objectives of the country.

Prior to any investigation of the validity of these assumptions, it is appropriate at this phase of the study to present a survey of the economic sphere in Lebanon. The purpose of this survey is to furnish basic data on manpower requirements in the country assuming that there is a functional relationship between educational planning and manpower requirements.

The discussion involves a brief presentation of the economic background. It also involves an examination of the existing labor force in

the country as to its composition and distribution according to age, sex, and occupation. This is followed by an investigation of the known manpower requirements in relation to professional competencies and other required skills. Special emphasis in the last part of the chapter is on middle level manpower requirements.

Due to the fact that the current literature in this area tends to overlap in substance and methodology, for the purpose of this chapter some basic sources will be exclusively used as authorities. The major source of information that will be adopted in this respect is the work of the IRFED Mission entitled, "Besoins et Possibilités de Développement du Liban," (Needs and Possibilities of Development in Lebanon). Other studies will be used when necessary.

An Overview of the Economic Situation

It is practically an undeniable fact that the geography of a country and its natural resources play a vital role in its developmental process. This kind of situation is closely related to that of Lebanon where the geographical position of the country, the size and the density of population were responsible in shaping its economy, and influencing its development. The following discussion is aimed at revealing the nature and structure of the Lebanese economy, namely the basic features of the economy, the major economic sectors and trends of economic growth in recent past.

Basic Features of the Lebanese Economy

Lebanon is characterized by many features some of which reflect a favorable, rather colorful, picture of economic prosperity, while

others convey a gloomy, rather dubious image of the country's economic situation. In either case, the dimensions of the Lebanese economy are directly influenced by the country's geography, its size, climate and the value system upheld by the Lebanese people.

Being of a relatively small area which is densely populated, Lebanon is faced with many handicaps that impose themselves on its economic growth. Moreover, this situation is more intensified by other unfavorable conditions which were likely to impede some conceivable developmental projects as heavy industry, oil production and the like. The fact lies in the absence or scarcity of natural resources which are considered to be preconditions for such projects. Thus, the country in general has very limited natural resources.

"Except for a pleasant climate and beautiful scenery, nature has been niggardly towards Lebanon. (The country) has not received even a small fraction of the large oil deposits, vast alluvial plains and broad rivers with which some of its neighbors have been endowed."¹

Consequently, these physical limitations were likely to have a direct impact on the people in terms of occupational activities. From a general viewpoint Lebanon is classified as an agrarian community in the sense that about half of the population derives its income, wholly or partly, from agriculture, and a little more than half lives in rural areas.² However, the continuous flow of population from the country to

¹Charles Issawi, "Economic Development and Liberalism in Lebanon," The Middle East Journal, Vol. 18., No. 3, Summer, 1964, p. 280.

²Yusif A. Sayigh, "Lebanon, Special Economic Problems Arising From a Special Structure," Middle East Economic Papers, Economic Research Institute, American University of Beirut, 1957, p. 68.

the towns has already reduced the rural population to a half of the total. Recent trends indicate to more predominance of urbanism over rural life. This is evidenced in the fact that "the rural-urban distribution has been shifting steadily for a few decades with more and more villages to the urban centers, especially Beirut."³

The explanation of this phenomenon inheres partly in the topography of the country and partly in its geographical position. It should be noted in this respect that out of the total area of the country, which is estimated at about 2.5 million acres only 30% is cultivated and less than 20% is cultivable, whereas the remaining 50% of the area is practically wasteland consisting of mountains and swamps.⁴ This fact is contrasted with prosperous service industries, banking, insurance, commerce, transportation, and tourism, which account for an overwhelming 60% of the total national income. The national income derived from the agricultural sector is less than 20%.⁵ Hence, it is no surprise to find that some other studies qualify the assertion that Lebanon is primarily a country of trade and services.⁶

It becomes obvious then, that the limitations imposed by the topography of the country on the occupational activities of the people play a crucial part in its economic structure and development. In the

³Ibid., p. 69.

⁴U. S. Department of Commerce, "Basic Data on the Economy of Lebanon," World Trade Information Service, Part 1, No. 61-75, (1961), p. 4.

⁵The Arab World, "Lebanon's Unique Resourceful Economy," Vol. 9., Nos. 7 & 8, (July-Aug., 1963), pp. 10-11.

⁶Albert Badre and Associates, "The National Income of Lebanon," Middle East Economic Papers, Economic Research Institute, American University of Beirut, 1956, pp. 31-34.

same token, the geographical position plays a similar role, though on a different level. In this latter case, the future is more promising. By virtue of its location on the Eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea at a central point of trade routes that connect three continents--Asia, Africa, and Europe--Lebanon undoubtedly enjoys the benefits of this unique position. This fact is being demonstrated by revenues collected from trade, transit and tourism.

But were the topography of the country to be a curse on the one hand, it may be conceived a blessing on the other hand. At least two major features may be attributed to the influence of topography on the economic sphere. First, the existence of a range of mountains rising to more than 10,000 feet and running parallel to the sea coast from north to south establish a climate barrier which results in heavy precipitation in the country, especially on the western slopes of the mountains, ranging from 30 to 40 inches of rainfall every winter. This condition provides water for irrigation and non-irrigation agriculture. A second and equally important factor is the influence of this topography on the progressively growing industry of tourism in Lebanon. Accordingly, recent statistics indicate that somewhere between 285,000 visitors in 1953 to 901,000 visitors in 1955 had entered the country; this is a rise of 216% in three years.⁷ At present, more than a million visitors enter the country each year, who contribute to a noticeable increase of the national income. Hence, the assertion that "Lebanon is the Switzerland of the Middle East" is of tremendous significance in economic terms.

⁷William Persen, "Lebanese Economic Development Since 1950," The Middle East Journal, Vol. 12., No. 3, (1958), p. 289.

Another striking feature of the Lebanese economy is Lebanon's balance of visible trade. This balance has consistently reflected a ratio of 5 or 6 to 1 to the advantage of imports over exports.⁸

An examiner of the situation would expect under such circumstances a depreciation in the value of the local currency in relation to other currencies. But instead, there has been a marked tendency for the Lebanese pound to appreciate, where as in 1950 LL. 3.47 exchanged for one American dollar, the rate of exchange in December, 1961, had dropped to LL. 3.05 to the dollar.⁹

Thus, despite the great deficit in the visible balance of trade, the index of the balance of payments has indicated a surplus. The reason for that is due to many factors, basically to the continuous capital inflow on the country from many sources, such as foreign aid, capital from nearby oil rich Arab States, emigrant remittances and other donations.¹⁰

All these features are culminated by another feature which accords the Lebanese economy a unique position in the whole region. This is the free economic enterprise. Within the bounds of this economic practice a spirit of entrepreneurship fostered by private initiative preordains on the Lebanese trader the maximum of economic liberty, a condition provides enough incentive for economic enterprises.¹¹

⁸United Nations, Economic Developments in the Middle East, (New York: United Nations Publications, 1962), p. 72.

⁹Marwan Iskandar, "The Structure of Lebanon's Economy," Middle East Forum, Vol. 38., No. 4, (April, 1962), p. 37.

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹George Kent, "Beirut, City of Money and Mystery," Reader's Digest, Nov., 1964, pp. 25-36.

Major Economic Sectors

The lack of reliable data on the national income creates a number of statistical gaps in assessing the structure of the Lebanese economy.

The first systematic and empirical study conducted in this field was that of Albert Badre and Associates at the American University of Beirut, which is included in the Middle East Economic Papers, 1956, pp. 1-37. This study became a basic source of information to further studies for the next ten years to follow. With some modification and adjustment in the light of Lebanon's economic development, other authorities made similar strides to present an objective picture in terms of basic data on the structure of the Lebanese economy. Among these studies is that of the IRFED Mission on "The Needs and Possibilities of Development in Lebanon." Additional information on the major economic sectors is included in various bulletins issued by the Ministry of National Economy and the Central Bureau of Statistics in Lebanon as well as by the United Nations' "Economic Development in the Middle East" and U. S. Department of Commerce on "World Trade Information Service."

Basically, most of these authorities classify the economic structure under such categories as agriculture, industry, construction, real estate, transportation and the like. Such classification is based on the national income. The growth and development of the national income according to the major economic sectors is shown in Table 11.

TABLE 11
GROWTH OF NATIONAL INCOME OF LEBANON BY ECONOMIC SECTORS
1950-1957^a

Economic Sector	1950		1957	
	Income in Million LL.	% of Total	Income in Million LL.	% of Total
Agriculture	206	19.8	238	15.8
Industry	141	13.5	189	12.6
Construction	43	4.1	41	2.7
Trade	300	28.9	469	31.2
Finance	40	3.8	91	6.1
Transportation & Communication	44	4.2	80	3.3
Public Administration	72	6.9	108	7.2
Real Estate	96	9.2	139	9.3
Other Services	<u>100</u>	<u>9.6</u>	<u>148</u>	<u>9.8</u>
Total	1,042	100.0	1,503	100.0

^aIRFED Mission, op. cit., Vol. 1., p. 81.

The table shows that the total national income has increased by over 450 million Lebanese pounds during the seven year period. It also reflects the relevant growth of the various economic sectors during that same period.

Thus, it is shown that trade contributes as the major source of income. Trends indicate that the trade sector has increased from 28.9% to 31.2% during that period. Finance was the other sector which has almost doubled its growth from 3.8% to 6.1% of the total national income.

Whereas the remaining sectors maintained a proportionate growth, it is observed that the only sector which experienced a relative decrease during that period was agriculture. The table shows that the contribution of agriculture had decreased from 19.8% in 1950 to 15.8% in 1957. This phenomenon becomes of great significance when national income is related to labor force in the country.

Another way to view the economic situation is by observing the relative distribution of national income on the working population. Table 12 illustrates by numerical figures and percentages how the national product is distributed on the working population.

TABLE 12
NATIONAL INCOME DISTRIBUTION BY SECTOR
AND WORKING POPULATION - 1957^b

Economic Sector	Nat'l Pr. in Million LL	% of Total	Working Pop.	% of Total	Per Capita Nat'l Inc.
Agriculture	238	15.58	220,000	48.9	1,082
Industry and Handicrafts	189	12.60	54,000	12.0	3,500
Construction	41	2.70	33,000	7.3	1,242
Transportation	80	3.30	24,000	5.3	3,333
Trade	469	31.25	53,000	11.8	8,849
Finance	91	6.10	2,000	0.44	45,500
Public Adminis.	108	7.20	16,000	3.6	6,750
Real Estate	139	9.25	- - -	-	- - -
Other Sources	<u>148</u>	<u>9.85</u>	<u>48,000</u>	<u>10.7</u>	<u>3,083</u>
Total	1503	100.00	450,000	100.0	3,340

^bIbid., p. 55.

Table 12 shows that the working population in 1957 was 450,000. Out of this number roughly 49% derived their livelihood from agriculture. Comparing this percentage with the percentage of people deriving their income from trade or finance, the difference becomes quite apparent. As it is indicated in the last column, the per capita income derived from agriculture, in comparison to other levels of income derived from other sectors is the lowest one. This suggests the unbalanced distribution of wealth among the population of the country.

Trends and Implications of Economic Growth in Recent Past.

In tracing the trends of the economic development of Lebanon, it is essential to consider these trends in terms of the national income, per capita income, the state budget, and its distribution on the various ministries, and other related policies issued by official authorities.

In terms of national income, studies in this area report that in 1950, the national income amounted to 1,042 million Lebanese pounds. Divided by the population at that time, which was estimated at about 1,200,000, the per capita income was estimated to be LL. 800, or the equivalent of \$250, at the current rate of exchange.¹²

In 1957, the national income had arisen to LL. 1503 millions, with a per capita income of LL. 1000 or \$315.¹³ Since then, there was a proportionate increase in both income and population, which gives an average increase per capita of 2.1% per year.¹⁴

¹²Badre and Associates, op. cit., p. 3.

¹³IRFED Mission, op. cit., Vol. 1., p. 76.

¹⁴Ibid.

But this picture may not be representative to reality, because the figures reported are statistical and represent a given average of wealth. This suggests that in order to obtain a more representative picture of the distribution of wealth on the population, one has to go beyond this sheer division and focus on the actual distribution of wealth among the people.

It was shown roughly in the previous section that about 50% of the total population derive their living from the agricultural sector, whereas the income arising from that sector amounted to about 15% of the total national income. Correspondingly, the population involved in trade and commerce is less than 10% of the working population, but nonetheless, it acquires more than 30% of the national income, which indicates an inequitable distribution of wealth. Hence, the outcome is likely to be a pronounced social and economic discrepancy among the various economic sectors and their occupants. This situation opens many issues for further consideration on social economic development in the country.

Another significant trend in the economic progress in Lebanon is reflected in the tremendous growth of the various economic sectors within the last few years. Table 12 illustrated clearly this growth in comparison to the sectors of economy within a certain period of time. Similarly, if we trace the national budget, we find a corresponding growth as well. In 1951, the budget was LL. 90,015,000. In 1957, this figure grew into LL. 192,466,000. By 1960, it went up to a level of LL. 222,235,000. And by 1965, it soared to a record figure of LL. 514,790,000.¹⁵

¹⁵The Ministry of Finance, A Report on the National Budget, (Beirut, 1965).

In line with these trends, the Lebanese economy is characterized by a continuous move from a primary to secondary and tertiary economy. It has already been indicated that income from agriculture is overshadowed by the progressive increase of national income derived from industry, manufacturing, trades, finance and services.

Turning to other indicators on economic growth, a person may be able to generate from the available ministerial decrees and messages to the state a number of conclusions on the economic situation in the country. Usually, every new regime upon assuming power presents to the Parliament the policy which is to be adopted by that regime. For example, in its message to the state, the government that took office in August, 1960, after the national elections of that year indicated that it would encourage industry while at the same time safeguard Lebanon's commercial position. The report issued by the High Council of Customs stated that the government objectives were to encourage national industry by reducing import duties on raw materials and equipment and giving sufficient protection to certain industries without, however, discouraging imports of similar products.¹⁶

In a subsequent situation, it was proclaimed through a ministerial declaration issued in November, 1961, by the newly appointed government of Premier Rashid Karame that the regime will adopt the following principles in its economic and financial policies.¹⁷

¹⁶Middle Eastern Affairs, "Lebanon," Vol. 2., 1961, p. 78.

¹⁷Ibid.

"The declaration affirmed the principle of economic liberalism and private enterprise, but also committed the state to a reduction in the differences in levels of development of the various economic sectors, as well as in the living standards of the social classes. The social aspect of the declaration implied recognition of the fact that something had to be done to narrow the growing gulf between Beirut's affluent commercial and financial community and the bulk of the population. The government pledged to enact a social security program by stages, a vocational training law and a labor law recognizing collective bargaining and arbitration."

In fact, these declarations reflect the social-economic needs of the country. The merit of such policies inheres in reflecting the public authorities concern of recognizing existing problems and attempting to solve them within a given policy.

Other economic trends are reflected in the existing policies enacted in the various economic sectors, basically agriculture and industry.

The agricultural policy of Lebanon was based in recent past on the following criteria:

Acceleration projects for drinking water to all parts of the country

Development of road networks

Extension of electricity to all rural areas

Extension of agricultural credit

Developing adequate marketing facilities, and

Intensification of afforestation through the green plan.¹⁸

In the industrial sector, a number of projects were under consideration. Plans were in the making for building a glass factory to fill

¹⁸United Nations, op. cit., 1963, p. 23.

the gap between the existing level in domestic glass production of 2,700 tons per year and the average annual consumption of 7,000 tons. Also envisaged was a synthetic rubber plant to provide for raw material estimated at about 2,500 tons in 1963.¹⁹

All these trends indicate a progressive movement in the social and economic spheres. They imply, as well, quite a number of problems arising from the distribution of wealth, and other inequities.

Before an analysis is made of the situation, we will turn to the labor force in the country and examine its composition and structure in the various occupations and regions.

Labor Force and Manpower Distribution.

Among the essential givens in a country's human resource development, is the labor force, including all people who are economically active and productive.

A discussion of the economic structure is incomplete without the human element, the labor force; its dimensions, distribution and magnitude. In this section, an attempt will be made to discuss the existing labor force as to age, sex, industrial and occupational distribution.

Problems of Definition and Measurement.

In assessing and determining the size and magnitude of the labor force in Lebanon, one is likely to be confronted with many problems that arise from the economic and social situations of the country. These problems include: lack of vital statistics, lack of universal definitions, and identification and usage of measurement.

¹⁹Ibid., pp. 40-41.

Lack of Vital Statistics

The task of assessing the labor force would be easily determined provided certain basic data on population is available, such data including an exact census of the population and its distribution by age, sex or by region. In Lebanon, the lack of such data underlies the crux of the problem. This is primarily caused by the fact that not much research has been conducted in this field. Whatever data is available provides merely the outside or maximum dimensions of the labor force. At its best, this data serves as a guideline for a rough estimation of the labor force.

Lack of Universal Definitions

Another obstacle is the vague usage of operational definitions of the term in a universally accepted manner. As a matter of fact, it is assumed that there is no such conventional definition of the term. Practically all working definitions in labor force are arbitrarily determined by the operating social, cultural and economic forces in each society. It follows logically then, that data on labor force in different countries are not comparable.

The above assumption is supported by the evidence derived from various definitions that reflect different interpretations of the same concept. For example, in the United States, labor force is defined as:

"The sum of all persons reported to be employed during a certain specific week. The "employed" category covers all persons 14 or older who have jobs or business for pay or profit: including employers and self-employed, unpaid family workers in a store or on a farm who help produce a saleable product or service and employees of non-profit enterprises and government agencies. The "unemployed"

category includes persons 14 or older who have no jobs or business of the above mentioned sort and are seeking such employment during the survey week."²⁰

According to another definition, "Labor force is meant all persons who are working for an income, or who are desirous of working for an income."²¹

For the purpose of the study, labor force may be defined as all the persons who are economically active, in the sense they are potentially capable to produce. The concept includes both categories of employed and unemployed persons who fall within the age limits of 14 and 60 years, including both sexes. Further explanation of the term will be defined operationally within the context.

Another inherent problem underlying the concept is the methodology followed in identifying and using measurements to determine size of the labor force. What criteria should be used in an economy where the majority of the working population are indulged in agriculture, which is not fully drawn into the money or exchange system? Many Lebanese farmers work only during certain seasons and rest between these seasons. Under what category should they be classified? Seasonal employment? More important, it is worth mentioning in this respect that the Lebanese, especially those who live in the rural areas, derive their income from more than one source. e.g., a person may be a taxi driver,

²⁰C. D. Long, The Labor Force Under Changing Income and Employment, (New York: Princeton University Press, 1958), p. 42.

²¹Fawzi Saad-ed Dine, "Labor Force in the Sudan," Middle East Economic Papers, Economic Research Institute, American University of Beirut, 1958, p. 22.

a shop keeper and, at the same time, have a poultry farm. All of these occupations are contributing to his accumulated amount of income.

Under what category should this person be classified, part-time employment or self-employment? What about the disguised occupations, involving people who have a major occupation, as well as additional jobs from which they derive a second source of income. What measurement should be used to differentiate between the various levels and sources of income? In the absence of reliable data on the unemployed, what criteria may be used to differentiate between those who are actually employed and those who are potentially employable?

All these issues present a considerable number of insurmountable obstacles which are likely to reduce or minimize the efforts being focussed on that area. However, it is assumed that available sources and methodologies being used to assess existing labor force are valid and reliable, providing the error does not exceed the 10% level of confidence.

The Size and Magnitude of the Labor Force

It follows, from the above observations, that the assessment of the existing labor force in Lebanon is a "thorny" task. The task itself is more complicated due to the dearth of pre-established conventional and systematic classifications of labor force under certain categories. This implies that attempts undertaken in this respect are being done on arbitrary grounds. However, to guard against such arbitration, the study will draw from sources which may serve as indicators of the magnitude and size of the labor force. The discussion that follows is centered around certain dimensions of the existing labor force in

Lebanon, basically age, sex, industrial, occupational, and regional distribution.

By Age and Sex Distribution

In terms of age distribution, as was mentioned earlier, the adopted range for the working population falls between the ages of 14 and 60. It may be rightly questioned to what extent is that range representative of the population? Quite often, it is found that a considerable number of youth in the country under 14 are involved in a series of materially remunerating activities, such as working on the farm, taking care of cattle, selling papers, shining shoes, and the like. Similarly, one finds people beyond the age of 60 who are still quite active and work for a salary. In drawing a line around the minimal and maximal age limit, it is assumed that all people who are below the 14 age limit are either dependable or supposed to be in school, especially if the rules of compulsory education went into effect. Hence, by a process of elimination, this age group can be discounted from the labor force.

Similarly, the higher age limit was determined on the assumption that people beyond the age of 60 are supposed to be retired. However, the assumption may not be warranted, due to the fact that a considerable number of people are indulged in economic activities beyond that age. Nevertheless, that line of demarcation is meant to serve as a maximal age limit of the labor force.

Thus, within the bounds of these two age limits, a rough estimation of the external dimensions of the labor force in the country can be determined. Using again the 1959 age distribution of population and

excluding the age groups that fall outside these bounds, an approximate figure of 950,000 may be obtained representing those who are potentially active. However, the figure is not representative of the situation for many reasons. For example, as it will be revealed later in this chapter, a large proportion of women do not work, thus reducing the actual size of the labor force.

According to the IRFED Mission, the population that was potentially active in Lebanon totalled about 800,000 or roughly 50% of the total population. The age limits used by the Mission were 15 and 65.²² Further analysis of the size of the labor force follows under subsequent sections.

In terms of sex distribution of the labor force, there is no ample data to the relative percentage of females to males. The only indicators available present a rough picture of the situation.²³ In a more recent study conducted by the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs on demographic and social characteristics of salaried workers in Lebanon for 1963, it was revealed that salaried workers totalled 98,853: 83,278 males and 15,575 females. It may be deduced from these figures that the percentage of females in the salaried occupations does not exceed 15%.²⁴

By Industrial Distribution

The diverse studies in this area present different estimates on the economically active population in the various economic sectors.

²²IRFED Mission, op. cit., Vol. 1., pp. 54-56.

²³Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, Statistical Data on Distribution of Labor Force According to Age and Sex, (Beirut: 1959).

²⁴Ibid.

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It has been shown in previous parts of this chapter that according to the IRFED estimates, the economically active population was placed at about 450,000. A more detailed distribution of working population by economic sectors is illustrated in Table 13.

TABLE 13
DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING POPULATION
BY INDUSTRIAL SECTOR* - 1959^c

Industrial Division	Employers or Self-Employed	Employees	Total
Agriculture	125,000	95,000	220,000
Mfg. and Construction	12,000	75,000	87,000
Trade, Banking & Transportation	26,000	53,000	79,000
Services - not government	20,000	28,000	48,000
Government services	--	<u>16,000</u>	<u>16,000</u>
Total permanent working population:	183,000	267,000	450,000
Casual & Temporary	--	<u>130,000</u>	<u>130,000</u>
Combined Total:	183,000	397,000	580,000

*Figures presented in the above table exclude the armed forces.

^cIRFED Mission, op. cit., Vol. 1., p. 55.

In another study conducted in the area in 1960 on the distribution of working population by industrial sectors, the working population was estimated at 610,000. The findings of this work is illustrated in Table 14.

TABLE 14
DISTRIBUTION OF LABOR FORCE - ACCORDING
TO INDUSTRIAL DIVISION, 1960^d

Industrial Division	No. of Workers
Manufacturing	40,000 (in est. with 5 workers or more)
	20,000 (in est. with less than 5 workers)
Building & Construction	20,000
Agriculture	300,000
Trade, Banking, Services and Professional	153,000
Transportation	30,000
Government	17,000
Armed Forces	10,000
Unemployed	<u>20,000</u>
Total	610,000

^d Siksek, et. al., op.cit., p. 32.

It should be mentioned that the above table includes the armed forces, estimated at about 10,000 and the unemployed estimated at about 20,000. Were these figures to be excluded from the picture and were the findings of this study to be compared with those of IRFED, the results would be almost identical. Thus, both studies place the active working population by industrial distribution at about 580,000.

In light of the data presented in the above tables and in relation to the total population in Lebanon, a few observations may be drawn in this respect.

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First, that population potentially active is estimated at about 800,000 and corresponds to about 50% of the total population.

Second, that population actually active ranges between 28% and 36% with a rough average of 32% of the total population. This is a rather low percentage in comparison to that of other countries. In some selected countries, percentages of economically active population are as follows:²⁵

Ceylon	(1946)	39.2
Egypt	(1947)	35.5
Iraq	(1947)	27.7
U. S. A.	(1950)	39.9
United Kingdom	(1951)	46.2
Belgian Congo	(1953)	50.6

The explanation of the low percentage of economically active labor force in Lebanon lies in the high ratio of children and dependents, and the low ratio of working population among women.

Third, that a relatively high percentage of the Lebanese are either employers or self-employed. According to IRFED, the ratio of this category of working population to the category of employees is 1:2.

Finally, in spite of the fact that Lebanon is conceived as a country of trade and services, it is still equally true that about 45% of the population work in agriculture in comparison to 18.5% working in industries and handicrafts and 32.5% in other services. This indicates that the agricultural sector predominates other sectors in terms of working population.

²⁵International Labor Office, Year Book of Labor Statistics, (Geneva: 1955), p. 6.

By Occupational Distribution

Various attempts have been made to arrive at a breakdown of the employment into occupational activities. In the 1942 census, all the people that were counted were asked about their occupations. The result showed that 754,200 out of a total population of 1,004,199 had no occupation.²⁶ This fact may suggest that 75% of the country's population were unemployed. However, there are many interpretations, namely, that the employed preferred not to declare their occupation to the census authorities, or that the farmers who formed a high proportion of rural population considered themselves to be unemployed, if employment were understood to imply a regular salary.

Since 1950, the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs required each establishment in the country to file with the Ministry an annual report containing information about the people employed in their establishments, their age, sex, religion, marital status, number of children, date of employment and date of leaving the establishment. However, from a total number of 31,184 establishments in 1959, only about 3,000 supplied the data. The total employment in these establishments amounted to 36,984, thus not all files were brought up to date and, therefore, some inaccuracies exist in the data given.²⁷

A more detailed breakdown of the working population in accordance with the various occupational activities is best shown in Table 15.

²⁶ Sıksek, et. al., op. cit., pp. 32.33.

²⁷ Ibid., p. 35.

TABLE 15
OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF LABOR FORCE^e

-1958-					
<u>Type of Work</u>	<u>Industry</u>	<u>Trade</u>	<u>Finance</u>	<u>Services</u>	<u>Grand Total</u>
Engineers	126	33	1	54	214
Engineer Aides	4	2	-	-	6
Mechanics	480	427	11	336	1,254
Foremen	235	66	29	454	784
Accountants	137	285	95	295	812
Draftsmen	37	4	-	65	106
Blacksmiths	360	67	-	77	504
Clerks	1,976	2,856	1,114	2,413	8,359
Executives	190	180	132	431	933
Experts	93	77	3	75	248
Plumbers	18	7	-	23	48
Machine Operators	44	6	-	93	143
Electricians	217	78	-	236	531
Skilled Workers	2,600	443	-	2,380	5,423
Carpenters	346	112	-	115	573
Doctors	7	-	-	20	27
Teachers	1	-	-	735	736
Nurses	2	-	-	235	237
Missionaries	1	-	-	32	33
Unskilled Workers	6,692	2,160	413	6,748	16,013
Totals:	13,566	6,803	1,798	14,817	36,984

^e Ibid., p. 36.

In another study in this area, the working population was classified into five major categories: professional and technical, administrative, clerical, skilled and unskilled.²⁸ Percentages derived from surveys on occupational activities of working population in 3,000 establishments in the country are shown in Table 16, presenting a broad indication of the occupational distribution in some selected industrial sectors of the economy.

TABLE 16
DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING POPULATION ACCORDING
TO SELECTED OCCUPATIONAL ACTIVITIES^f

Category of Worker	Industry	Trade	Finance	Services	Average %
Professional & Technical	2.0%	1.7%	0.2%	8.2%	4.4
Administrative	2.4	6.8	12.6	4.9	4.7
Clerical	14.6	42.0	62.0	16.3	22.6
Skilled	31.7	17.7	2.2	25.1	25.0
Unskilled	49.3	31.8	23.0	45.5	43.3

^f Ibid., p. 12

This table reflects the contrast between professional and technical categories on the one hand, and that of unskilled labor on the other hand. With the exception of services the former category never exceeded the 2% level, while that of unskilled labor was being 45 and 50% in both sectors of industry and services. The category of administrative personnel reflects a low

²⁸ Joint UNRWA-ILO Survey Mission to Arab Countries, Mission Report on Lebanon, (Beirut: 1962-1963).

percentage in all four sectors and especially in the industrial, where it is expected more managerial personnel is needed. Clerical and skilled labor occupy an average position. However, the table reflects a low percentage of skilled labor in both trade and finance. Comparing the average percentage of all categories according to sectors, it is indicated that the upper two categories occupy the bottom scale in terms of labor magnitude.

By Regional Distribution.

According to this classification, the working population is examined in terms of its distribution in the regions, or administrative districts of the country.

In 1961, the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs conducted a survey including 21,131 establishments located throughout the country. After arranging these establishments according to regions, it was found that more than half of these establishments were located in the capital city of Beirut, and less than half were distributed among the four remaining regions. Table 17 illustrates the regional distribution of the labor force.

This table shows that 12,119 establishments, 57% of the total, are located in Beirut and 4,400 or 21% - located in Mt. Lebanon. This leaves fewer than 5,000 establishments or 22% of the total located in the remaining three districts. Distribution of labor force by districts follows roughly the same proportionate distribution.

The concentration of industrial and manufacturing establishments in Beirut and other urban centers in the districts explains in part the influx of rural population to the cities in pursuit of jobs and occupations.

TABLE 17
REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF LABOR FORCE, 1961⁸

District	No. of Establishments	No. of Salaried Employees	Salaries (LL. 1,000)
Beirut	12,119	62,165	178,566
Mt. Lebanon	4,400	31,412	68,591
North Lebanon	2,511	10,840	28,480
South Lebanon	1,068	4,138	8,384
Beqā	<u>1,033</u>	<u>3,578</u>	<u>5,455</u>
Total	21,131	112,133	289,471

⁸Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, Statistical Data on Employment in Lebanon, (Beirut: 1961).

The Employment Situation in General

The difficulty in assessment of this situation arises, in part, from the fact that public and private organizations have not joined efforts in establishing employment services and placement offices. They do not cooperate in tabulating data on employment, which could have been a source of information in this respect. The five employment offices, located exclusively in Beirut, are private and act independently of each other and from government agencies. Their major activity is placement of workers for employers, including oil companies and contractors, most of whom operate outside Lebanon.²⁹

Other studies and surveys conducted in this area indicate that unemployment is less chronic in comparison with that of under-employment

²⁹ UNRWA Mission, op. cit., p. 13.

in the country. In a sample survey made by the Social Affairs Service in 1947, the number of unemployed stood at approximately 20,000. Later, in 1956, the same authority placed the number at 25,000.³⁰ In another study conducted in 1960, it was indicated that 20,000 unemployed was a possible figure at that time.³¹ In the light of the limited data, a rough estimate of the unemployment stands at 30,000 persons, which constitutes about 5% of the actual active labor force in the country.

It is assumed in this respect that under-employment presents a more pressing problem to the social-economic structure than unemployment. Although the assumption lacks the support of concrete evidence, however, there are many indicators which confirm this trend. First, it is assumed that a sizable segment of the labor force is not fully employed and in many cases can be completely withdrawn from the labor market without any noticeable effect on the gross national production. It is sufficient to refer in this respect to the findings of the IRPED Mission on casual workers. In 1959, there were 130,000 workers or 22% of the total labor force that were classified as casual and temporary workers with no particular occupation. These people, who may be considered actually employed, may be simultaneously considered potentially unemployed. They, in fact, do not have saleable skills to depend on as a basic occupation.

Second, indications show that the operating placement offices in the country share one major complaint. They all express the difficulty in placing the workers with insufficient practical experience.³²

³⁰Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, Social Affairs Service, Statistical Data on Employment in Lebanon, 1947 and 1956.

³¹Siksek, et. al., op. cit., p. 32.

³²UNRWA Mission, op. cit., p. 13.

Third, in the study conducted by the Economic Research Institute at the American University of Beirut in 1960, the findings revealed a number of discrepancies between manpower supply and requirements.

These discrepancies were reflected in the following fields:³³

In the field of agriculture, it was found that there was a current need for specialized technicians with at least an M.S. degree. But the study recorded a surplus of technicians in this field with a secondary education only. Since 20 graduates a year had created this surplus, great caution was recommended in evaluating current needs in this category.

In the engineering field, it was felt that in the absence of an effective economic development program in the government sector, no shortages were expected. On the contrary, it was anticipated that an increase in engineering graduates from local or foreign universities was likely to cause a surplus in that field. Unless industry starts employing engineers on the technical and executive level, there was expected to be more supply than manpower demand on the engineering level.

In the health sector, the study found that there was a demand for physicians, nurses, public health technicians, which was likely to increase in the future. The greatest demand was expected to be in the field of nursing. A demand was also expected in the field of pharmacy.

In the field of teaching, the demand for 3,000 teachers was estimated for the coming four years, particularly if elementary education in Lebanon were to become compulsory. It was recommended in this respect that teachers' colleges be set up in each of the administrative districts of the country.

³³Siksek, et. al., op. cit., pp. 46-48.

A final observation derived from the IRFED study suggests the difficulty of laying down any precise training requirement program in the absence of specification and classification of the working population, by trade or occupation. This study, therefore, recommended that the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs should add to its survey forms some questions relating to occupations and the qualifications needed by the workers.³⁴

All these indicators are of great significance to this study, primarily because they pinpoint the discrepancy between education supply and manpower demand. Moreover, they all suggest and emphasize the necessity of institutionalization of developmental programs that handle instrumentally and efficiently the available manpower resources in the country.

Known Areas of Manpower Requirements

Thus far, it has been indicated that the socio-economic structure of the country suggests the need for certain competencies in the various sectors of the economy, e.g., the need for professional technical competencies in industry, trade, services, and the like, as well as the need for skilled and unskilled labor in these and other economic sectors. This phenomenon was demonstrated implicitly in the previous sections of this chapter.

In order to investigate the known competencies, skills, and experiences available in the country and examine their implications in terms of human resource development, a certain methodology has to be followed. In

³⁴ IRFED Mission, op. cit., Vol. II., pp. 208-218.

the following sections, these skills and competencies will be discussed under three main categories: high level, middle level, and low level manpower requirements, with special emphasis on the middle level manpower requirements.

High Level Manpower Requirements

High level manpower requirements is defined by the study as those known areas in the social economic sphere of the society demanding certain competencies and knowledges on the professional and technical levels. This category includes such fields and disciplines as engineering, medicine, law, teaching and other scientific domains.

All the above mentioned fields are considered to be essential variables in the development of any country. In this respect, where does Lebanon stand? What are the available human resources in the country at this level? What measures are being taken to adjust education supply to known requirements on this level?

Current studies in this area indicate that the situation is generally acceptable. The country as a whole enjoys an average cadre of professional and technical personnel. The indicators as demonstrated in the fields of engineering, health, science, and teaching are in support of this view.³⁵

In the field of engineering, there were about 1,500 engineers in Lebanon in 1959. Some 300 of them work abroad, while 100 foreign engineers were employed in the country. According to the Syndicate of Engineers in Lebanon, which has a membership of 870 engineers, the classification of engineers by occupation was as follows:³⁶

³⁵ IRFED Mission, op. cit., Vol. 1., pp. 70-73.

³⁶ Ibid., p. 71.

	Beirut	Tripoli	Total	%
Construction & Public Works	656	54	700	80
Industry	118	18	136	15.5
Agriculture	25	8	34	4.5
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	800	70	870	100.0

In the health sector, the IRFED Mission reported that there were in 1959 about 1,450 physicians, 451 dentists, 332 pharmacists, 964 nurses, and midwives and 29 health inspectors in Lebanon.³⁷ Apparently, there was one physician for every 1,125 persons which the report considers to be a relatively acceptable situation. This figure, however, represents only a statistical average which does not square with the existing situation. The distribution of physicians in the country tends to present a disheartening picture which is likely to result in a very unbalanced situation between the capital city and all the remaining districts. Table 18 shows the distribution of the Medical Corps by the administrative districts.

The inequity of medical distribution in the regions of the country is more pronounced in comparison with that of engineering. More important, the concentration of health centers and services in the City of Beirut at the expense of the remaining districts is likely to result in numerous social and health problems, which present many obstacles in the face of future developmental programs in the country.

³⁷ Ibid., pp. 71-72.

TABLE 18
REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF MEDICAL CORPS.
1960^h

District	<u>Number of Physicians</u>	
	1959	1962
Beirut	894	1,072
Mount Lebanon	213	259
North Lebanon	180	197
South Lebanon	82	85
Biqā	<u>71</u>	<u>78</u>
Total	1,440	1,691

^hIbid., pp. 71.

In the field of science, it was found that there were 100 chemists (20 of whom were foreigners), 12 biologists (all foreigners), 10 geologists (8 foreigners), 50 mathematicians (20 foreigners), and 10 statisticians (5 of whom were foreigners).³⁸

The situation reveals a number of deficiencies in this field. For example, from a total of 150 scientists and specialists 65 of them were foreigners (i.e. 45%). This suggests a need for specialization in this area and the adjustment of higher education to meet the demand arising in this field.

As mentioned earlier, there were 395 secondary school teachers with professional training in public schools and a similar number in private schools. In light of increasing enrollments in secondary schools, the situation suggests the education and training of more secondary school teachers.

³⁸Ibid., p. 72.

Middle Level Manpower Requirements

This concept is defined by the study, as the needed competencies and skills requiring a minimum of four years of secondary schooling. Under the classification are found such occupational requirements as technical, clerical, and skilled labor.

Viewing manpower supply in Lebanon within the bounds of the above definition, one is likely to be confronted with many difficulties because there is no official source at any level, representing an exact breakdown of data by occupational classification. Taking into consideration the limitations of the situation, the following discussion concentrates on the same selected sectors in the Lebanese economy, namely: industry, trade, services, and teaching. It is assumed that these sectors include the major areas related to middle level occupations.

In the industrial sector, current data shows that about 64,000 workers and employees were involved in industry and manufacturing activities. It was estimated, also, that about 45% of the labor force in this sector were classified under the categories of clerical and skilled personnel.³⁹

Further trends in the industrial sector reflect a rising need for trained labor on the engineer aide level, foremanship, and technical levels. In commerce and services: two related sectors, the UNRWA survey reported a number of findings in the distribution of working population in these sectors. Table 19 illustrates the distribution of workers by sex and establishment.

³⁹ Ibid., p. 55.

TABLE 19

MIDDLE LEVEL MANPOWER DISTRIBUTION IN THE SECTORS
OF COMMERCE AND SERVICES-1959¹

Major Industry	No. of Estab.	<u>No. of Salaried Employees</u>		
		Male	Female	Total
<u>Commerce</u>				
Wholesale & Retail	7,706	21,194	1,869	23,063
Banking & Finance	218	2,897	527	3,424
Insurance	48	506	143	649
Real Estate	<u>86</u>	<u>234</u>	<u>34</u>	<u>318</u>
Total	8,058	24,881	2,573	27,454
<u>Services</u>				
Community	1,197	6,024	5,792	11,816
Business	611	1,900	322	2,222
Recreation	843	2,871	233	3,104
Personal	<u>2,021</u>	<u>6,692</u>	<u>858</u>	<u>7,550</u>
Total	4,672	17,487	7,205	24,672

¹UNRWA Mission, op. cit., p.11.

The figure on services precludes government services, which were estimated to have 17,000 employees. This brings the total working force to approximately 42,000 salaried employees in the services sector. Commerce and services sectors combined have a total of about 70,000 employees that may be classified under middle level manpower. However, this figure excludes independent workers in these two sectors, which was estimated at about 58,000 employers and self-employed persons.⁴⁰

⁴⁰UNRWA Mission, op. cit., p. 11.

Various trends indicate that commerce and services tend to play the key role in the Lebanese economy. This was demonstrated in terms of the national income derived from these sectors. Furthermore, these sectors possess the most absorptive capacity of middle level occupations requiring skilled and technical competencies: typing, shorthand, accounting, auditing, formanship and the like. Findings in these areas suggest the need of training for middle level manpower.

Lastly, in the teaching field there tends to be an abundance of statistical data on the teaching force. However, most of the data represents gross figures on teachers in public and private schools at the various educational levels. There was on the other hand, limited data on the breakdown of figures into sub-divisions, e. g., elementary teachers, upper elementary, and secondary teachers. The total number of teachers in public and private schools in 1965 was estimated at 18,481.⁴¹

A breakdown of these figures into elementary and secondary educational levels follows:

	TEACHERS		
	<u>Elementary</u>	<u>Upper Elem & Secondary</u>	<u>Total</u>
Public Schools	7,642	1,710	9,352
Private Schools	<u>6,024</u>	<u>3,105</u>	<u>9,129</u>
Total	13,666	4,815	18,481

Comparing the number of teachers, shown in this breakdown, with the number of students in Table 7, Chapter III (p.67), the situation suggests a rising need for teachers especially on the elementary level.

⁴¹ Ministry of National Education, Bureau of Educational Statistics, Statistical Data on the Teaching Force in Lebanon, (Beirut: 1965)

This need is likely to increase if the educational system has to accommodate the students of school age, not enrolled in school.

Are teacher's institutions, especially at the elementary level, adequate enough in training teachers to meet this need? To what extent are provisions being made to cope with future needs in the teaching field? These issues will be examined further in subsequent parts of the study.

Low Level Manpower Requirements

This classification is defined by the study as the skills that require a maximum of elementary schooling. Broadly speaking, low level manpower includes the unskilled labor in the country. Statistically, this category, as previously pointed out in this chapter, comprises the highest percentage in the fields of agriculture, industry and services. All these sectors have an absorptive capacity of taking care of the largest portion of semi-skilled and unskilled workers.

It is sufficient in this respect to concentrate on one sector of the economy: agriculture, and determine the significance of that sector in terms of low level manpower requirements.

It was shown earlier in this chapter that agriculture absorbs about 220,000 permanent farmers and 100,000 part-time farmers. This means that people working in agriculture, full or part-time, account for slightly over 50% of the total labor force in the country. Almost all of those involved in agriculture possess the minimum of technical and saleable skills. This situation is likely to pose many implications. For a country whose economy is derived in the most part from trade and services and whose labor force depends almost entirely on agriculture,

there is evidently a kind of unbalanced situation. The IRFED study pointed out that the working population in agriculture get the lowest income, whereas, those working in trade and finance get the highest rate of income.⁴² This situation was evidenced by the relative decline of the agricultural sector in terms of national income. All these indicators suggest emphatically that serious consideration should be given to the evaluation and planning for economic development based on the recognition of such realities of the situation.

Furthermore, it was indicated by one of the studies conducted in this area that agriculture does not require as much manpower on the low and middle levels as it does on the higher level. The study revealed that the public sector of agriculture does not absorb more than 200 employees with technical skills. These skills were provided in the agricultural schools in the country, basically, the American University of Beirut and the public agriculture schools. Hence, it was suggested in this respect that a change in the curricula of these schools would better equip the graduates for field work in private enterprises and agriculture extension.⁴³

Finally, indications show that the concerned authorities in the country, basically the Ministries of Education and Agriculture, are expressing their awareness and concern of the intensity of the situation. As a matter of fact, these agencies were in the process of preparing a series of decisions and policies aiming at the improvement of agricultural and vocational education.⁴⁴ But to what extent do these decisions and

⁴²IRFED Mission, op. cit., Vol. 1, pp. 54-55.

⁴³Siksek, et. al., op. cit., p. 57.

⁴⁴Ministry of Education, Directorate of Technical and Vocational Education, Panorama de L'Enseignement Technique, (A Survey of Technical Education), (Beirut: 1965), pp. 86-88.

policies square with the facts? What should be the productive capacity of the training institutions to meet existing and anticipated requirements in this area? How to upgrade vocational education to make it seem more lucrative to the student? These are the minimum issues reflecting the impact of the situation on human resources at this level.

Summary

To sum up the diverse points and ideas presented in this chapter, it becomes evident that the manpower requirements situation in terms of economic trends, occupational activities, and the labor force poses many implications and has direct bearing on educational planning.

Essentially, the endeavor was made to shed as much light as possible on the underlying forces governing the existing social-economic situation and influencing possible direction of manpower requirements in the country. Also, an attempt was made to prepare the groundwork for further analysis of human resource development in terms of manpower requirements vis-a-vis education supply.

The main concern in this chapter was focused on such areas as: the basic features and constituent sectors of the Lebanese economy, the size and magnitude of the labor force and some known manpower requirements that are assumed to be of direct relation to the problem.

It was indicated, many times, that the Lebanese economy, although predominantly agrarian in terms of the people's livelihood, is showing a tendency toward industrialization and other services. There is a definite transition from a primary to a secondary and tertiary economy. This trend is demonstrated by the important relevance of economic sectors

in terms of occupational requirements, demanding a minimum of four years of secondary schooling beyond elementary education. It was further noted that there is marked shortage of manpower supply on the higher and middle level.

The situation calls for an overall appraisal of the educational system in terms of meeting manpower requirements, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER VI

OVERALL APPRAISAL OF THE PRESENT HUMAN RESOURCES SITUATION

One of the major assumptions posed by the study is that there exists a pronounced discrepancy between education supply and manpower demand in Lebanon. This implies that the educational system in its present capacity does not meet the social-economic needs of the country as demonstrated by certain known manpower requirements.

The previous chapter has indicated that these requirements, rising from the various sectors of the economy--industry, commerce, finances and services--call for adjustments on the part of the educational system. The underlying assumption is that education provides the skills, knowledge and experience required by certain occupational activities on varying levels and degrees.

To determine the correlation between education supply (in terms of graduates) and manpower demand (in terms of economic-occupational requirements), it is necessary to make an overall appraisal of the present human resource situation in Lebanon. The purpose of this chapter is to appraise and evaluate the educational system in terms of its productive capacity of manpower that is needed at certain levels of the economy. The discussion of the various dimensions of the human resource situation will focus on the following points:

1. Examination of some economic areas requiring middle level manpower competencies.

2. Tracing of recent trends in the economy influencing the training and preparation of manpower.
3. Assessment of the educational system, both quantitatively and qualitatively.
4. Analysis of comparisons and contrasts between education supply and manpower demand as being demonstrated in certain areas of manpower requirements.
5. Suggestion of the need for the modification of the educational system and recommendation of necessary adjustments in the system to meet economic and occupational demands.

A final point which should be made clear in this respect is that the study reckons with the difficulty in determining precisely, at any level, the economic needs of the country. Hence, it is sufficient for the purpose of the study to establish some trends that will serve as frames of reference in the evaluation of the educational system with respect to manpower requirements.

Economic-Occupational Demand for Middle Level Manpower

The previous chapter brought home the fact that the Lebanese economy, at its present stage, is undergoing an unprecedented process of change in its structure and composition. This change was mostly manifested in various economic trends, such as the acceleration of industry, the prominence of the financial sector as a result of foreign trade and the practice of a 'laissez-faire' economy based on individual enterprise.¹

In the economic sphere, trends indicate a continuous move from a primary to a secondary and tertiary economy. This movement is likely to

¹Issawi, Charles, op. cit., pp. 279-292.

have a direct impact on the labor force. Until recently, the manpower factor in Lebanon was conceived of in terms of unskilled labor.² But in an economy moving more and more towards industrialization and services, it is assumed that the new type of labor force is to be composed primarily of a larger proportion of skilled and technical workers provided with the necessary knowledge and experience required by the job. In the industrial as well as in the technological realm such knowledge and experience is considered extremely important in making decisions on the process of production, distribution of products, utilization of capital, as well as in the improvement of the quantity and quality of the end product.

Another equally important factor in a changing economy is the new nature of the industrial market which differs drastically from the traditional barter economy. Whereas in the old market, products were traded on an arbitrary supply-demand basis; the new market depends primarily for its success on the pattern of cost-price, quality of product, distribution and transportation of products.

How, where, and by whom are these knowledges and skills produced and developed? Through what processes are they channelled? Who should be held accountable for their investment, the state, the various institutions in society, or other groups and individuals? How should available manpower be placed in vacant positions and what kind of plans for future manpower development should be made? It is agreed that knowledge and skills reach the market through schools, vocational and technical institutes, at home and abroad, foreign expertness, and other sources.³ All these institutions are supposed to channel manpower in accordance

²Mills, A., op. cit., p. 11.

³Ibid., p. 37.

with existing and anticipated economic needs. Funds are invested in the development of human resources on similar grounds as they are invested in natural resources. Related literature to the field shows that the returns from education are equally, if not more important, than the returns from other investments.⁴

In the light of these observations, where does the human resource situation in Lebanon stand? To what extent do these assumptions hold true with respect to manpower development? What is the impact of existing trends on the labor force in terms of qualifications? All these questions involve an examination and evaluation of the present human resource situation in terms of manpower demand and education supply.

Increasing Demand for Qualified Manpower

The term "qualified manpower", as it is used in the study means a designated caliber of labor force possessing certain technical and vocational competencies superimposed on a minimum of nine years of schooling.⁵ Thus, qualified manpower is demonstrated through the performance of certain activities in specified sectors of the economy such as industry, trade and services on some level of proficiency. The following examination is guided by the above criteria. The findings in the previous chapter have pointed out very clearly that the unbalanced distribution of the labor force in Lebanon was the result of an uncoordinated growth of the various economic sectors. Indicators suggest that Lebanon suffers from an overabundance of unskilled labor contrasted with a sheer dearth in qualified manpower. The Lebanese economy in general is handicapped by the

⁴Patricia Sexton, Education and Income, (New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1961), pp. 13-15.

⁵Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Myers, Education Manpower and Economic Growth, (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1964), pp. 15-16.

lack of skilled labor. The labor force situation may be described as an inverted mushroom with the mass of unskilled labor at the bottom and a very small group of trained and partially trained leaders and risk takers at the top. There is almost a denuded series of middle ranks which are supposed to form a stratum between the other two classes.⁶

This kind of distorted image of the labor scene was likely to place the economic system, especially the industrial sector, at a double disadvantage. On the one hand, the system lacked qualified personnel to fill in the creative and organizational upper levels which are found in Western countries. These levels, as well as the supervisory level, are virtually absent in the Lebanese economic sphere. On the other hand, the economy lacks a strong skilled level upon which all the superior levels in the hierarchy rely for quality of performance.

Consequently, the labor force situation, operating under such handicaps, is likely to suffer, not from the sheer bulk of unskilled labor, but more so, from the scarcity of skilled labor. Usually, the simple skills can be learned on the job. But this is not the case with skilled labor, which requires re-training preceded by a certain amount of formal schooling. All these requisites are not provided except through manpower producing institutions. Thus, the entrepreneur who considers opening up a factory is not particularly worried about the task of turning an unskilled worker into a semi-skilled one. He is, however, concerned with the problem of recruiting skilled men.⁷

⁶Mills, A., op. cit., pp. 36-48.

⁷Ibid., p. 43.

Similarly, an observer may find in other technological areas that entrepreneurs are becoming more convinced that low paid unskilled labor still forms a liability rather than an asset in modern industry. This view is explained by the fact that the nature of the new highly competitive market, requires the production and distribution of commodities under the best possible conditions in terms of quality and price. This type of market requires a caliber of labor force which is knowledgeable and competent to perform such tasks.

The advent of technology was directly accountable in intensifying the demand for qualified manpower in Lebanon. The new technology differs from traditional practices in its structure and implementation. The difference adheres primarily to the methodology incurred by the new technology. This methodology requires a certain level of "know-how", which implies a scientific method. To what extent is the Lebanese society entrenched in this method? To date it can be assumed that Lebanon is still at a stage of evolution where its culture and philosophy are not yet imbued with the scientific outlook.⁸

Another factor closely associated with the scientific method, and which lies at the heart of technological advancement, is the spirit of research. For an industry, to be flexible and successful, it requires research. Research in its turn calls for investigation, analysis and experimentation. All these factors are assumed to be not well established in the Lebanese society.

It may be generalized then that there is an observable gap between industrial development, requiring certain preconditions--basically a

⁸
Ibid., p. 44.

scientific method--and a traditional value system which is still predominant in the Lebanese society. It is true that there are some break-throughs of technological change in the indigenous culture. Nevertheless, the level of resistance to this change may be easily observed in the existing way of life of the people. This is demonstrated by the fact that the leaders of the communities, especially in rural areas, do not perceive the significance of science in modern life. This social pattern and value orientation is still closely related to the pre-scientific and pre-industrial environment which was a legacy of the Ottoman rule. The cultural foundations are not conducive to the growth of a strong indigenous core of technical training and research.⁹

Appraisal of Manpower Stock by Economic-Occupational Qualifications

The evidence so far supports the view that the new developments in the economic sphere do have a direct impact on the quality of the labor force in terms of training and sophistication. These same developments have their influence on the distribution and reshuffling of the labor force on the various economic sectors in relation to the demand of these sectors for different levels of qualified manpower.

This economic phenomenon calls for a re-orientation and readjustment of manpower in accordance with the exigency of the new situation. Recent economic trends reflect the gradual predominance of the trade and service industries over the agrarian economy--at least in terms of national income. Corresponding trends in population growth, a higher standard of living,

⁹ Ibid., p. 38.

coupled with mounting aspirational levels, suggested an increasing emphasis on skill-oriented employment and white collar jobs.

What impact do these trends have on the occupational structure of the economy? What evidence is there to demonstrate the demand for qualified personnel in the various economic sectors? What qualifications are required at each occupational level? In order to understand the implications of the economic situation in terms of occupational qualifications as it stands at present and as it may be projected into the future, it becomes necessary at this point to examine the size and magnitude of the labor force in terms of its distribution in some industrial sectors. Once this step is accomplished, it is followed by an exploration of future occupation trends as being estimated and projected by known authorities on manpower development in the country. Essentially, the data presented in this part of the chapter is derived from the same sources referred to in Chapter V, namely the IRFED Mission and the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs.

The IRFED Mission, in the study on the social and economic needs of Lebanon made an estimate of the labor force for 1957. From this estimate, some projections were established indicating the possible growth of working population from 1957 to 1975. Table 20 illustrates the employment situation in 1957 and future projections in relation to distribution of working population in some selected industrial sectors.

TABLE 20
EMPLOYMENT TRENDS BY INDUSTRY
(IN THOUSANDS)^a

<u>Industrial Sector</u>	<u>No. of Laborers Employed</u>			<u>Increase</u>	
	<u>1957</u>	<u>1975</u>		<u>in %</u>	
		<u>Min.</u> <u>Proj.</u>	<u>Max.</u> <u>Proj.</u>	<u>Min.</u>	<u>Max.</u>
Agriculture	220	265	318	21	45
Manufacturing	54	101	121	87	124
Construction	33	42	47	27	43
Transportation	24	39	45	58	87
Commerce	53	68	76	28	43
Other Services	<u>66</u>	<u>107</u>	<u>115</u>	<u>54</u>	<u>74</u>
Total	450	622	722	37	60

^aIRFED Mission, op. cit., Annex., p. 41.

The table at a glance shows that all sectors of the economy, excluding agriculture, reflect the tendency of increasing manpower requirements. It is also observed that manufacturing and services are estimated to have the highest manpower growth. This situation is of extreme importance in estimating future trends of manpower requirements.

In another study done by the UNRWA Mission in this area, the same labor situation was approached from a different perspective. The study included an estimated annual growth of labor force which was used as a formula for projecting labor force from 1960 to 1975. Table 21 illustrates the estimated growth of working population by economic sector.

TABLE 21
ESTIMATED INCREASE IN EMPLOYMENT
1960-1975^b

Economic Sector	Est. Rate of Growth %	Perm. Employees 1960	New Jobs Expected 1960-1975	Sector-wise increase %
Agriculture	4.0	220,000	79,500	36
Manufacturing	6.0	54,000	44,100	82
Construction	4.0	33,000	11,600	35
Trade & Banking	4.0	55,000	20,950	38
Transportation	6.0	24,000	19,400	81
Public Administration	5.25	16,000	4,000	25
Other Services	6.0	<u>48,000</u>	<u>38,600</u>	80
Total		450,000	218,150	

^bUNRWA Mission, op. cit., p. 15.

The table reflects a comparative annual rate of increase among the various economic sectors ranging from 4% to 6%. It is shown that the highest rates are expected to occur in the sectors of manufacturing and other services. Comparing Table 20 with Table 21, both present identical figures of labor force, and their projections are practically similar. Both indicate to the expected increase in the sectors of manufacturing, trade and other services.

Assuming that such trends are valid, what would be their implications on manpower requirements in terms of occupational qualifications? Looking at the same situation from another perspective, the implications become more indicative of the occupational differentiation of manpower

stock. Table 22 presents a different picture of labor force according to occupational qualifications which follow the same projections.

TABLE 22
MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS BY OCCUPATIONAL
QUALIFICATION 1960-1975^c

Class of Workers	Mfg.	Const.	Trade Bk.	Trans- portation	Services	Total
Prof. - Tech.	882	511	330	854	3,493	6,070
Administration	1,058	545	1,526	912	2,087	6,128
Clerical	6,439	2,621	9,149	4,384	6,944	29,537
Skilled	13,980	2,900	3,437	4,850	10,693	35,860
Unskilled	<u>21,784</u>	<u>5,023</u>	<u>6,508</u>	<u>8,400</u>	<u>19,383</u>	<u>61,055</u>
Total	44,143	11,600	20,950	19,400	42,600	138,650

^cIbid.

The table reflects a quantitative contrast between professional and technical occupations on the one hand and unskilled labor on the other. It also shows that the upper echelons of these occupations are very scarce in comparison with the lower occupations. What do these figures suggest to the manpower planner as well as to the educational planner? What educational priorities shall be given in the curriculum for the training of manpower in an economy where there is more demand for skilled labor on the managerial and technical levels?

In light of the given data, a few observations may be made. First, economic-occupational trends indicate a relative increase of manpower required by representative economic sectors at different occupational levels.

Second, these trends show that the need for clerical and skilled work, which corresponds to middle level manpower, is most likely to increase in the future, as being demonstrated by the ascending increase of these occupations in the different economic sectors. Third, in comparing the different classifications of work, it is assumed that each occupational level requires a compatible level of competencies, as demonstrated in the previous chapter. By inference, then, it may be said that there is adequate supply for manpower demand on the low level. Most of these workers, once available, could be trained on the job.

It may be said, on the other hand, that existing manpower supply does not meet manpower demand on the higher occupational levels, since the demand on these levels is preconditioned by a minimum of educational preparation which ranges from six to twelve years. Finally, it may be concluded that there is a pressing need for more training and more education. Whether in agriculture, industry, or services, there are minimal requirements in terms of educational achievement and pre-service training that have to be provided. In order to know whether existing educational institutions are training human resources to meet these occupational needs an examination of the educational system is required in terms of its productive capacity of graduate students at the different educational levels.

Present Educational Capacity with Respect to Manpower Requirements

Previous parts of the study dealt with the productive capacity of the educational system in terms of student enrollment at all educational

levels in the academic stream.¹⁰ Based on previous data, the attempt in this section is to examine existing manpower producing institutions, quantitatively and qualitatively, and to determine their capacity in terms of graduates on each level within the various educational streams. The next step is to determine the potential capacity of these institutions in terms of teacher-student ratios, the quality of the teaching personnel, school buildings and other qualitative aspects related to these institutions.

Quantitative Appraisal of the Educational System

Presumably, Lebanon claims the highest literacy rate in the Arab World.¹¹ Through the combined efforts of its educational institutions, more than 85% of the country's youth, of school age, were accommodated in schools. Educational trends and policies show that plans are in the making to provide equality of educational opportunity to all the youth of the country in the few years ahead.

Apparently this situation reflects a bright and promising picture of the productive capacity of the educational system, but does the present situation reflect this image? To what extent is the system geared to the training of manpower stock to fill the vacancies available or expected in the economic sphere? What caliber of graduates do these institutions produce on the various educational levels and in the various educational streams?

In the academic stream, the system provides education to slightly over 426,000 students ranging from pre-primary to higher education. Educational trends based on student enrollment and average increase in

¹⁰ Supra., Chapter 3, pp. 66-85.

¹¹ IRFED Mission, op. cit., Vol. 1, p. 59.

population show that by 1970 there will be approximately 600,000 students in primary schools only.¹² A proportionate increase will take place on the secondary and higher education levels. In terms of graduates from the academic streams Table 23 shows graduate trends in the last five years on the primary, higher primary and secondary levels.

TABLE 23
GRADUATES FROM ACADEMIC SCHOOLS
1960-1964^d

	1960	1961	1962*	1963	1964
<u>Primary</u> (Etudes Primaire)	16,022	17,005	15,718	20,860	18,414
<u>Upper Primary</u> (Brevet)	2,267	3,467	3,386	3,921	7,361
<u>Secondary</u> (Baccalaureat Part I)					
Literary	370	444	732	875	1,110
Scientific	1,000	919	822	1,088	813
<u>Secondary</u> (Baccalaureat Part II)					
Philosophy	307	321	396	618	434
Mathematics	<u>308</u>	<u>358</u>	<u>410</u>	<u>496</u>	<u>343</u>
Totals	20,274	22,514	21,464	27,858	28,475

*First Cycle - Those who passed the June examinations.

^dMinistry of National Education, Center of State Examinations, Statistical Data on the Results of State Examinations, (Beirut: 1965).

From a general outlook, the table shows a progressive growth of graduates at all levels, with the highest growth at the end of primary education. The increase of graduating students at this level is at the rate of 2,000 per year. By tracing the academic stream through upper

¹²Ministry of National Education, Committee on Educational Planning, A Proposed Plan for the Reorganization of the Educational System in Lebanon, (Beirut: 1965).

primary and secondary levels, it is easy to discern the lower rate of graduates at both levels, particularly at the secondary level, where it reaches a kind of 'bottleneck' with an increase of less than 100 graduates a year.

How can such a situation be explained? Comparing the normal increase of student population, especially on the primary level, and the number of graduates, there are some intervening variables that need explanation. In reviewing the results of the state examinations one striking phenomenon seems to be a basic factor in the channelling process of student flow on the educational ladder, which is the high degree of failure of students in the last year of each level. This is explained in Table 24 in terms of percentage of successful graduates at the same educational levels and during the same period of time.

TABLE 24
GRADUATES FROM ACADEMIC SCHOOLS IN PERCENTAGE OF
TOTAL CANDIDATES, 1960-64^e

	1960 %	1961 %	1962* %	1963 %	1964 %
<u>Primary</u>					
(Etudes Primaire)	64	68	54.5	64.5	51.19
<u>Upper Primary</u>					
(Brevet)	47	53	42.	28.	65.5
<u>Secondary</u>					
<u>Baccalaureat</u> Part I					
Literary	37	28	23.	20.5	29.
Scientific	43	28	12.	20.	25.5
<u>Baccalaureat</u> Part II					
Philosophy	40	33.5	21.5	30.	30.
Mathematics	50	35.5	24.5	40.	38.5

*First Cycle: Those who passed the June examinations.

^eIbid.

The high proportion of candidates failing in state examinations demonstrates the high selectivity of the educational system. Even at the primary level no more than 65% of the candidates in any year passed the state examinations. From Primary Five to Secondary One (or upper primary) promotion is supposed to be automatic, however, more than 35% of the student population at this level are detained because of failure in the state examinations. Similar bottlenecks are formed at the end of Secondary Four, Secondary Six and Secondary Seven. These students, though having studied a certain number of years at the secondary level, are considered unqualified to pursue further education or even be admitted or accepted to certain jobs without a state diploma. Hence they may be classified as drop-outs.

In vocational and technical education, it is more difficult to calculate graduate trends on a nationwide level. The difficulty stems from the fact that private institutions, in quantity and quality, play a predominant role in manpower training. In 1965, there were 44 institutions in the country involved in technical, vocational and commercial education. From this number only 11 institutes were public, while the remaining 33 were private.¹³

In the public sector, the distribution of the manpower producing institutions follow this order:

One Technical School

Five Vocational Training Centers

One Training School for Hotel and Restaurant Personnel

Three Primary Agriculture Schools

One Secondary Agriculture School

¹³Ministry of Education, Bureau of Educational Statistics, Statistical Data on Vocational and Technical Education in Lebanon, (Beirut: 1965).

All these institutions combined provide training in technical and vocational skills for about 1,200 students.

Graduation trends in the technical school from 1955 to 1964 inclusive are illustrated in the following table.

TABLE 25
TECHNICAL EDUCATION GRADUATES
ACCORDING TO SPECIALIZATION
1955-1964^f

Field of Specialization	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1964
Electricity	4	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mechanics	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Electro-Mech's.	-	-	9	6	13	9	9	11	13
Civil Engrg.	3	5	13	12	13	14	9	11	8
Indus. Chemistry	3	3	4	-	-	1	2	-	5
Topography	-	-	-	16	8	7	6	5	6
Electronics	<u>-</u>	<u>-</u>	<u>-</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>13</u>
Total	13	14	26	37	40	39	36	38	45

Note: 1963 was omitted because there were no graduates that year.

^fMinistry of Education, Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education, Panorama de L'Enseignement Technique, (Beirut: 1965), p. 42.

This table shows in general that technical education is progressing precariously. There are some gaps which even indicate a regressive trend. For example, student enrollment in electricity and mechanics fell sharply after 1956. The situation suggests that students wanting to specialize in these fields have to do so through private institutions. The only area where there is an observable indication of progress is that of civil engineering.

Based on the facts presented in the table, does the situation imply that technical education is not wanted? Or, does this demonstrate some kind of inadequacy in the operation of technical education? Evidence reflects a weakness in the program. In order to rescue technical education from a catastrophic ending, the concerned authorities suspended the whole program during 1963 and enacted a new policy aimed at saving the image of the institution and regaining the confidence of the public. As a result, the period of training in the technical school was raised from four to five years. A new center was built in the vicinity of the capital city and was equipped with modern laboratories and other facilities. Graduates from the technical school were granted a degree entitled "Baccalauréat in Arts and Crafts." Moreover, government authorities are planning to overhaul all technical education programs and expand this type of education throughout the country.¹⁴

Similarly, graduate trends in public vocational schools were as moderate as in the technical school. Table 26 reflects the productive capacity of these schools in terms of graduating students from 1960 to 1964.

A quick glance at Table 26 shows that some courses: auto mechanics, metal work, printing, commercial design, weaving and radio-electricity, are exclusively offered in the vocational school at Beirut. This leaves the program in the other vocational centers limited to four areas: general mechanics, carpentry, blacksmithing, and electricity. By tracing the progress of the two courses of carpentry and blacksmithing through the years, one finds that the number of graduates in these courses is on the

¹⁴Ministry of Education, Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education, Panorama de L'Enseignement Technique, (Beirut: 1965), p. 42.

TABLE 26

GRADUATE TRENDS IN PUBLIC VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS
1960-1964⁸

Locale*	Field of Specialization					1960					1961					1962					1963					1964				
	B	T	Z	S	D	B	T	Z	S	D	B	T	Z	S	D	B	T	Z	S	D	B	T	Z	S	D	B	T	Z	S	D
General Mechanics	3	5	4	1		7	3	6	7	5	6	9	4	2	5	3	2	4	7	4	5	4	3	3	4					
Carpentry	1	1	-	-		1	1	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	5	1	-					
Blacksmithing	-	4	1	5		5	-	-	3	1	3	8	5	3	5	1	4	-	4	2	5	2	4	3	3					
Electricity	13	3	5	5		11	7	3	5	3	2	5	6	8	6	10	10	3	6	4	7	6	4	7	2					
Auto Mechanics	6	-	-	-		9	-	-	-	2	14	-	-	-	3	5	-	-	-	2	7	-	-	-	4					
Metal Work	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-					
Aviation Mech.	15	-	-	-		9	-	-	-	-	11	-	-	-	-	6	-	-	-	-	10	-	-	-	-					
Printing	1	-	-	-		3	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-					
Commercial Design	2	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-					
Weaving	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-					
Radio Electronics	8	-	-	-		13	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-	9	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-					
Totals	49	13	10	11		58	10	10	15	11	55	22	16	14	20	35	16	7	18	12	48	12	16	14	13					

*B = Beirut

T = Tripoli

Z = Zahle

S = Saïda

D = Dair-el-Kamar

⁸Ministry of Education, Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education, Panorama de L'Enseignement Technique, (Beirut: 1965), pp. 18-19.

decline. If the trend follows this path in future years, most likely these two courses will be discontinued. What will be left in these centers is a meager program confined to two areas of specialization: general mechanics and electricity.

The situation suggests that vocational education, in its present status, is in jeopardy. The very few graduates in the limited areas offered by the program are far from capable of meeting the rising needs for vocational skills. An underlying factor in the discrepancy between the output of skilled manpower and manpower requirements on the middle level can be traced to the inadequacy of the public sector in carrying on a sufficient manpower training program that provides the youth with the necessary skills needed by a market more oriented by technology. Can the vocational education image be rescued before it is too late? Are the concerned authorities aware of these trends?

In fact, there is evidence that government authorities are fully aware of the seriousness of the situation.¹⁵ What will be the repercussions of the situation in the absence of a strong vocational program? Why isn't vocational education as much in demand as academic education? What is the role of the private sector in sharing the responsibility in the promotion of vocational education programs in the country? All these questions will be given further consideration in subsequent sections of this chapter.

Upon examination of the school for training hotel and restaurant personnel, one finds that there is only one institution in the whole

¹⁵Ministry of Planning, The Five-Year Plan for Economic Development in Lebanon, (Beirut: 1965), pp. 35-36.

country, located near Beirut. That institution provides skills in hotel and kitchen management for less than 250 students. Graduate trends for 1956 through 1964 are reflected in Table 27.

TABLE 27
GRADUATE TRENDS IN HOTEL MANAGEMENT SCHOOLS
1956-1964^h

Specialization	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964
<u>First Cycle</u>									
Service Work	18	22	28	22	13	13	15	19	28
<u>Second Cycle</u>									
Service	4	8	8	9	12	16	5	8	-*
Kitchen	3	5	2	2	3	3	3	3	-*
Pastry	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-*

*No diplomas -- a transitory period program from 2 to 3 years.

^hMinistry of Education, Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education, op. cit., pp. 58-59.

The above table illustrates the number of graduates from the hotel management institution. Does this meet with the needs of the country in this area? According to the director of the institution, the need is for 100 times as many as are being graduated each year.¹⁶

Moving finally, to agriculture education, there are four public centers that offer this type of education in the country: a secondary school located in Beirut and three primary schools located in the regional centers. Table 28 reflects graduate trends from these schools from 1957 through 1964.

¹⁶

An Interview with the Director of the School for Training Hotel and Restaurant Personnel, (Beirut: Summer 1965).

It is evident from the table that there is slow progress in agriculture education. Whether the very few graduates from these schools do meet the demand in the field of agriculture or not has to be proven through the existing requirements in that field. According to the study on Preliminary Assessment of Manpower Resources and Requirements in Lebanon, it was found that there is no demand for graduates from agriculture schools on the secondary level. There is, however, a demand for college graduates in that area.¹⁷ On the other hand, official authorities are aware of the demand for graduates from agriculture schools on the primary level. For that reason the whole program was suspended in 1964, to be resumed in 1966 on new lines. Eight new centers were planned to be opened in various regions of the country, providing the students with a more flexible education that meets the demand of the agricultural sector.¹⁸

TABLE 28
AGRICULTURE EDUCATION GRADUATE TRENDS
1957-1964¹

School	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964
Beirut (Fanar)	18	14	22	12	21	9	9	3
Ghazir	6	8	5	1	8	13	10	-
Bechmezzine	5	5	4	3	8	5	14	-
Tell-Amara	<u>13</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>29</u>	<u>-</u>
Total	42	37	41	23	48	38	62	3

¹ Ministry of Education, Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education, op. cit., p. 87.

¹⁷ Siksek, et. al., op. cit., p. 57.

¹⁸ Ministry of Planning, Recommendations of the various committees on Planning for Economic Development, (Beirut: 1965).

It may be concluded from the given data on vocational and technical education that the productive capacity of the different institutes in this field is far from meeting the manpower requirements. Concerned authorities in the Ministries of National Education, Planning, Agriculture, Labor and Social Affairs are reevaluating the programs of these institutes in terms of manpower, social and economic requirements. Plans and policies are being made to revamp vocational education. Trends indicate that a considerable expansion is expected to take place in this area in the foreseeable future. This was demonstrated in the suspension of the complete vocational education during 1963-64, so that the planners would have the chance to reconstruct and redirect the program in accordance with the social and economic needs of the country. Also, it may be noted that official authorities are pushing for the expansion of vocational education throughout the country. This is evidenced by the fact that more vocational schools have been recommended, to be established in all regional districts. Thus it is expected that by the end of 1969 the number of technical-vocational schools operated by the government will be doubled. But whether this growth in the productive capacity will meet the need rising from the economic sphere or not has to be determined through a comparison between education supply and manpower demand. This issue will be discussed in the next subheading of this chapter.

In the private sector, vocational and technical education falls under these categories:

Twelve Technical-Vocational Schools

Ten Commercial and Industrial Arts Institutions

Five Schools of Nursing

Five Language Centers

One Music Teaching Center

These institutions offer technical, vocational and clerical skills to more than 5,000 Lebanese youths and adults. The language centers teach foreign languages, mainly English, French, Spanish, and German to roughly 2,500 people. It is difficult to present an accurate breakdown of the graduates from these institutions due to the lack of data available on these schools. However, it is estimated that at least 1,000 graduate each year from the various branches. It is also difficult to make an estimate of the future progress of private institutions, due to the fact that very little is known about the plans of private entrepreneurs with regard to the establishment of new schools in that field. It is understandable, however, that private education does not fall under the jurisdiction of public policy, though it is affected by it. Hence, the growth and development of private vocational and technical education is unpredictable. In light of available data, it has been proven that existing schools pride themselves on the significant expansion and gains they achieved in terms of student enrollment and graduates. The diversity of programs in private vocational schools present the best testimony of their success in adapting to the pressing needs of the situation.

For example, most of the commercial and art institutes offer such courses as auditing, typing, shorthand, bookkeeping, designing, advertising, and the like. All such courses are not offered by public institutes. Moreover, the majority of the programs in the private institutes cater to the needs of the youth, who, upon graduation, seek clerical positions and office work. Thus, the flexibility and

dynamicity of the private institutes in this field tend to overshadow their counterparts in the public sector. This situation reflects the trends that are taking place in vocational and technical education.

In the field of teacher education, there is enough evidence on the inadequacy of the existing teacher education institutions in meeting the pressing demand for trained teachers. An examination of the situation shows that there are five public institutes that provide professional training for elementary school teachers. There are no private institutes in this field. Student enrollment in public institutions reached 1,497 in 1964-65, the highest since these institutes began operation. But a look at the number of graduates in that same year, shows that only about 300 students had graduated.¹⁹ At the same time, it has been shown that the natural increase in student enrollment calls for five times as many graduates each year. Are the educational authorities aware of these facts? Undoubtedly they are. There are recommendations to increase teacher institutions by at least two in the near future.²⁰ The Committee on Educational Planning had suggested the expansion of teacher institutes to include all the regional districts in the country. Can this be done? How much time and money do such plans require? All these issues have to be considered in the evaluation and appraisal of teacher education. So far, evidence shows that teachers' institutes do not meet the existing demand for teachers of primary education. This need has been met mostly through the recruitment of unqualified, untrained teachers.

On the secondary school level, it is assumed that secondary schools do not experience the same difficulty being felt in elementary education. This is basically due to the limited number of students at the secondary

¹⁹Ministry of Education, "Development of Teacher Education Institutes in Lebanon," La Revue Pédagogique, Vol. 5., No. 1, (Oct., 1965), pp. 32-34.

²⁰Ministry of Planning, op. cit., p. 35.

level and the efficiency of teacher training institutes. Existing institutes for training secondary school teachers are competent in meeting the needs in that area. At present, there are three institutes that prepare secondary school teachers: the Higher Teachers' Institute at the Lebanese University and two private institutions included in the department of education at the American University of Beirut and Beirut College for Women. Combined, these institutes graduate about 300 teachers a year in various areas of specialization. Added to that figure more teaching personnel is being recruited from outside the teaching profession, mostly lawyers and university graduates. However, if secondary education were to be expanded in order to accommodate the expected increase of students promoted from primary schools, then there will be a need for more secondary school teachers. Are there provisions for such an expansion? Chapter IV referred to the recommendations being presented by the Committee on Educational Planning for the establishment of twenty-eight public secondary schools. Trends show that schools on this level are gaining more momentum, especially in the private sector. In that sector, the situation calls for more trained teachers than public schools.

To date, private institutes recruit their teaching personnel from within and outside the teaching profession. Because secondary school teachers are mostly subject teachers, the situation becomes encouraging for any person with a knowledge of certain subject matter to enter the teaching profession. At the same time, private secondary schools, being governed by a shortage of teachers on the secondary level, are compelled to recruit their instructional personnel from outside the field of teaching. This situation is likely to result in a degeneration of secondary education.

Comparatively speaking, public schools are better off than private schools since most of their teaching personnel are graduates from the Higher Teachers' Institute and are equipped with training equivalent to the Master's level. In order that secondary education becomes universal and compulsory it requires continuous upgrading and evaluating in light of the rising needs of the country. The first step in this program should be the preparation of competent teachers for public and private schools. This issue must be determined in relation to teacher-student ratio, quality of instruction and the broad purpose of secondary education in the preparation of youth for life situations.

Qualitative Appraisal of the Educational System

Having examined the productive capacity of the educational system from a quantitative point of view, an attempt will be made to appraise the system from a qualitative viewpoint. Ideally, qualitative appraisal should be based upon some criteria that delineate the adequacy or weakness of any system in terms of its output and all other pertinent procedures that govern the education process. Quite often such criteria cannot be established. This is due mainly to the fact that valid measures or indicators are extremely difficult to obtain. However, the value of such an appraisal inheres in the evaluation of the existing educational practices in light of related theories in the field of education. This implies that there are some readily quantifiable measures which can be used in the evaluation of the qualitative function of the educational system. It is sufficient in this respect to discuss three such measures: Teacher-student ratios, the quality of teaching personnel and the operation and maintenance of school buildings.

Teacher-Student Ratios

Previous findings of the study showed that in 1965 there were a total of 18,481 teachers in Lebanon at the elementary and secondary levels in both public and private schools: 9,352 teachers in public schools and 9,129 teachers in private schools.

Correspondingly, there were in the same year, 413,587 students at these levels: 167,849 in public schools and 245,738 in private schools. Logically, the existing student-teacher ratio can be derived by dividing the number of students by the number of teachers. Were this formula to be applied to the educational situation from a global viewpoint the result would be an ideal one since it does not exceed 1:24, which is highly desirable even among advanced nations. However, a closer examination of the situation reveals some inequalities which make the ratio far from what one may expect. At least three sub-divisions can be delineated: distribution of students in public and private schools, elementary versus secondary school distribution and regional distribution of students.

By comparing teacher-student ratios between public and private schools the discrepancy becomes readily discernable. Whereas, in public schools there are 9,352 teachers to 167,849 students, there are 9,129 teachers to 245,735 students in private schools. This unbalanced distribution of students in the two sectors results in 1:18 in public schools compared with 1:27 in private schools. This situation reflects a double standard in the educational system which is far from being coordinated, at least in terms of teacher-student ratio.

Examining the same ratio in terms of educational levels: elementary and secondary -- it was found that according to the 1965 data on student

population there were 13,666 teachers for 335,689 students in elementary schools and 4,815 teachers for 77,898 students in secondary schools. This results in the ratio of 1:25 in elementary schools and 1:18 in secondary schools, a situation which is apparently desirable, but is not necessarily true, because it implies the same discrepancies demonstrated in public versus private schools.

Looking finally at the regional distribution of teachers and students, the situation becomes completely tilted. Educational statistics reveal that more than 35% of the teachers and students are located in Beirut and vicinity. The remaining 65% are distributed among the remaining four regions in the country.²¹ Whereas the city schools are organized in such a way as to maintain a relative teacher-student ratio; this situation is far from being so in the rural areas. Due to factors such as transportation facilities, mobility of population and availability of teaching personnel, city schools maintain a balanced distribution of teachers and students. The absence of the same factors in rural schools result in an unbalanced situation. Quite often the one room school in rural areas is jammed with fifty to sixty students attending more than one grade and having only one teacher.²²

In brief, such an unbalanced situation in student-teacher ratio suggests the need for wise planning whereby through the combined efforts of the public and private sectors, the standard of education would be more coordinated and balanced.

²¹Ministry of Education, Bureau of Educational Statistics, Statistical Data on the Regional Distribution of Students and Teachers in Lebanon, (Beirut: 1965).

²²Ministry of Planning, Committee on Multi-Purpose Activities, Educational Equipment in Private Schools, (Beirut: 1964).

The Quality of the Teaching Personnel

It is very difficult, in terms of educational qualifications, to determine the quality of the teaching personnel in Lebanon. This difficulty stems partly from the dearth of studies made in the field and partly from the lack of agreement on universal criteria to be accepted as determinants of that quality. Whereas in some other educational systems teaching qualifications are determined by a minimum of academic and professional education, state certification and other criteria of teaching competencies; this is not the case in Lebanon. It has been found in previous parts of this chapter that the existing teacher institutions graduate the minimum number of trained teachers to fill the increasing demand for teaching personnel in elementary schools. This shortage in teaching personnel requires both public and private schools to meet this pressing need for recruiting teachers from outside the teaching profession. The only criterion being used in the recruiting process is what may be termed aptitude examinations.

Consequently, the situation can be described as being far from desirable. Based on a supply-demand basis, private schools recruit their personnel in terms of their limited school budgets, demonstrated by a low salary scale. The recruited teachers, on the other hand, being forced by economic needs for employment and the financial remuneration they get from the job, accept the position temporarily; once they are 'in' they try to push for higher salaries. The repercussions are manifested in a series of strikes, collective bargaining on the part of the teachers and compromise and promises on the part of the private school managers. The teachers, being at a disadvantage due to the absence of legal sanctions such as

permanent tenure, regular promotion, social security, and a strong teaching organization, tend to yield, but not convincingly.

The implications of such a situation are likely to influence the quality of the teaching personnel and the morale of the teachers by facing them with strenuous conditions under which they have to function. All these conditions tend in turn to affect the educational standard in the country and thwart future plans geared to the promotion of educational qualifications which are set for the achievement of prescribed social and economic goals.

The Quality of School Buildings

Moving finally to another area related to the quality of the educational system, school buildings show ample evidence that this area is far from being desirable.²³ A considerable number of these schools lack the basic condition of heating, lighting and ventilation. Others are old and shabby and could be classified as educationally 'obsolete' and useless. Other evidence is derived from the development of school buildings. A quick review of the history of public education within the last ten years shows that the number of students has almost doubled whereas the number of school buildings has increased by less than 100. Were we to estimate a classroom-student ratio at the average of 1:30, we find that many of the schools do not meet this criterion. This fact is more pronounced in rural areas, where the one room school is jammed with a minimum of 50 students distributed over three or four grades. Private schools are not in a better position. The 1400 schools existing in 1965 had to accommodate a student population of more than 245,000. An average school building consists of five to six classrooms. This makes the classroom-student ratio

²³ Ibid.

1:30, which appears quite normal. However, the study conducted by the Ministry of Planning on private school buildings and equipment showed that these schools suffer from the lack of school facilities and from the obsolescence of school buildings.²⁴ The reason in both cases, public and private schools, is that most of these schools were not built for educational purposes. They were mansions rented by the Ministry of Education or private agencies and improvised into school buildings.

Other trends in this area indicate that at the present rate of natural increase in student population, based on a 1:25 classroom-student ratio, there will be a need in the next five years for 8,000 additional classrooms.²⁵ This means that the average growth of school buildings should proceed at the rate of 1,600 classrooms per year, or 250 schools. This suggests that the concerned authorities and the taxpayers have to meet this pressing need lest the whole educational system suffer the detrimental consequences of shabby schools, inadequate facilities and crowded classrooms.

Comparison Between Educational Supply and Manpower Demand

Having examined the productive capacity in terms of graduating students and the quality of the educational system, and having at the same time investigated current trends in manpower requirements in terms of economic-occupational demand and other qualifications, it is time to compare and contrast these two phases and determine where they do meet and where they divert. The discussion of these two areas involves comparisons between education supply and manpower demand at the various educational

²⁴Ibid.

²⁵Ministry of Education, Committee on Educational Planning, op. cit., p.4.

levels. It involves, as well, the determination of discrepancies between education supply and manpower demand as being demonstrated in terms of shortages and surpluses of education supply in relation to manpower demand.

Overview of Comparisons on Various Educational Levels

An overview of the total human resource situation with its two dimensions of education supply and manpower demand is likely to provide a structure composed of the following categories. On the educational scene there are two main streams: the academic and the non-academic. The academic stream is composed of four main levels: elementary, upper elementary, secondary and higher education. The non-academic stream includes vocational and technical education and teacher education. On the manpower scene, the structure may be classified under three main categories or levels: high, middle and low. The high level includes professional, technical administrative and managerial personnel. The middle level includes occupations that fall under skilled and semi-skilled labor, such as clerical, salesmanship and service. The low level comprises all other levels classified under unskilled labor, such as farming, casual work and the like.

Described in a diagramatic form, the situation would take the form presented in Figure 10 on the next page.

Ideally and logically, the relationship between education supply and manpower demand is established on horizontal lines. That is to say, that primary education takes care of the bottom category on the manpower side, upper primary and secondary education takes care of the middle level manpower demand and higher education provides the high level manpower category with the required personnel.

Relationship of Education Supply to Manpower Demand

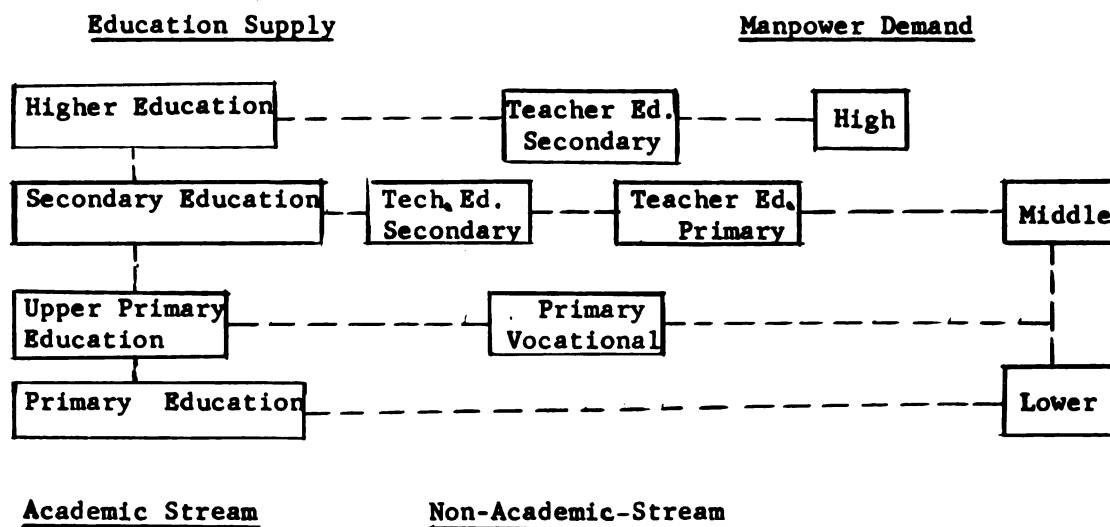


Figure 10

Actually, this may not necessarily be the case. Quite often we find that low level manpower, such as in the field of agriculture and other casual work, is manned by a labor force with no schooling whatsoever. This labor force may include adults as well as children, and men as well as women. Thus, there is no causal relationship between primary education and low level manpower. The question is which one is the rule and which is the exception to the rule? It is assumed that the lower the level of education one achieves, the lesser the chance he has to move on the occupational hierarchy. It also assumes that the level of education one attains qualifies him to fit a compatible level of manpower demand.

Earlier discussions in this chapter revealed how knowledge and expertness reach the economic sector. It was also revealed that certain

types of occupations require certain types of knowledge and skills, and that the nature of modern industry based on technology requires a more sophisticated knowledge imbued in scientific research usually not required in a traditional agrarian economy. The question in this case becomes whether the manpower producing institutions in the country are turning out the proper type of manpower to meet the rising need in the economic sphere, basically in the industrial, manufacturing, trade, financial and service sectors.

It is assumed in this respect that the institutions of higher learning are in a position to meet the high level manpower requirements. At the same time, it is assumed that elementary schools provide the volume of labor force for the low level manpower requirements. Whether these assumptions are valid or untenable is another question which is beyond the scope of the study.

The basic concern of the study is to focus on the middle level manpower requirements and its counterpart of secondary education, technical-vocational education and teacher education. The assumption which has to be examined in this respect states that there is a discrepancy between education supply and manpower demand on this level. Confirmation or refutation of this assumption requires an examination of various data in each sector and a comparison of findings in that given perspective, so that the discrepancy may be determined by matching education supply with manpower demand.

Discrepancy Between Educational Supply and Manpower Demand

It has been shown in earlier parts of the study that the secondary population in 1965 was 89,127 students distributed as follows: 77,898 in

the academic stream, 9,732 in the vocational-technical stream and 1,497 in teacher education. In terms of graduating students from these streams, it was shown later that 9,061 students graduated in 1964 with higher primary certificates (Brevéts) and secondary school diplomas (Baccalauréat Parts I & II). About 7,361 graduated from lower secondary grades, while the remaining 1,700 graduated from higher secondary grades.

In the vocational and technical streams, the total number of students in public and private schools in 1964-65 was estimated at 9,732. Graduates from public schools in June 1964 did not exceed 150, whereas, graduates from the private sector were estimated at 1,000. This means that all vocational, technical and commercial schools in the country, excluding industries and institutions which train their personnel on the job, graduate less than 1,200 students to fill the middle level manpower requirement.

In the field of teacher education, it was shown that the five operating teacher institutions in the country with a capacity of about 1,500 students in 1965 did not graduate more than 300 teachers in that same year, whereas the need for primary school teachers in 1965 was five times that number.²⁶

Comparing the productive capacity of vocational-technical schools and middle level manpower, we find similar discrepancies. To obtain a clear idea of the demand on middle level manpower, the UNRWA study revealed that the average increase of yearly labor, clerical and skilled, was estimated over 8,800 persons.²⁷ This precludes the teachers, whose increase per year, in public and private schools was estimated at 2,200. The implications of the situation become self-evident. In order to meet the

²⁶Ministry of Education, A Ministerial Decree concerning the appointment of 1,100 teachers, La Revue Pédagogique, op. cit., p. 32.

²⁷UNRWA, op. cit., p. 17.

need rising from these sectors, the manpower producing institutions in the country have to graduate a manpower stock of 1,100 persons per year at an average rate of increase ranging between 4% and 6%.

In tracing graduation trends of students in vocational and technical schools for the years 1963 through 1967, the UNRWA Mission to Lebanon disclosed the figures in the following table which correspond closely to the data given above.

TABLE 29
GRADUATION TRENDS FROM VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL
SCHOOLS - 1963-1967^j

Year	Total Graduates
1963	913
1964	1,523
1965	1,879
1966	2,195
1967	2,576

^jUNRWA, op. cit., p. 18.

In other parts of the UNRWA study, graduates were classified according to the major occupational categories for the same period of time.

Comparing the education output derived from Table 30 with the average increase of economic demand derived from Table 22 in this chapter, the difference becomes clearly observed. Were these comparisons to be applied to each major educational stream, the discrepancies would be clearly discernable between the educational output and manpower demand.

TABLE 30
CLASSIFICATION OF GRADUATES BY OCCUPATIONAL
QUALIFICATIONS, 1963-1967^k

Occupational Qualifications	Output of Graduates, 1963-67
Professional & Technical	3,813
Managerial	112
Clerical	1,446
Craftsmen	406
Service Workers	3,116
Farm Workers	<u>193</u>
Total	9,086

^kIbid., p. 19.

The differences reflect an observable shortage in vocational-technical education and relative surplus in academic education.

Surplus in Academic Education

It was found out that the system had produced 9,061 graduates in 1964-65. Practically all students graduating from academic schools, with the exception of those entering vocational and technical schools and teacher education institutes, are, as a matter of fact, provided with a general education. This type of education may be considered as college preparatory. From a human resource standpoint, there are several possibilities open to a high school graduate, normal entrance into college if he can afford to do that, or use of his education as a tool for an occupation. What usually happens is that a very small percentage of secondary school students pursue higher education. The market, on the other hand, does not absorb all graduates.

In this sense, the academic stream forms a bottleneck after grade twelve. This phenomenon is explained by the number of students who do not find a position compatible with their educational achievement. This does not mean, however, that academic education is not functional, but rather it is indicative of the fact that general education, as being operated, seems uncoordinated with manpower requirements. Potentially, all students in this stream have the opportunity of becoming productive citizens and highly cultured individuals. But the way the system operates fails to prepare them for the proper type of vocation, so what is expected to be a rewarding experience to the individual turns out to be a frustrating one to both the individual and the state.

Thus, in the absence of a purposeful, well-coordinated secondary school education, graduates from the system, instead of becoming valuable assets to the country and the economy, become liabilities and potentially unemployed. The existing situation in secondary education suggests that this area has to be redefined in terms of social aims and means. It has to be closely related and coordinated with the other streams in the educational system, which allows a student to shift easily from one stream to another.

Deficit in Vocational-Technical Education

The discrepancy between the education output and the manpower demand on this level has been so far clearly established. The 150 graduates from the public institutions, coupled with the 1,000 graduates from the private sector, are far from meeting the need arising in the industrial, manufacturing, trade and service sectors. As a matter of fact, the present institutions do not meet the minimum manpower requirements.

There is ample evidence in support of these assumptions. According to the director of the School for Training Hotel and Restaurant Personnel, the hotel industry in Lebanon requires at least 1,000 workers a year. The only institution in the country providing such training graduates less than 50 students a year.²⁸

Similarly, recent trends in the economic sector reflect a progressive demand for trained manpower from the rapidly expanding airlines, banks, oil industry, insurance companies, hotels, and trading companies.²⁹ It is true that these manpower requirements are being met, but at a very slow pace. Available literature on manpower training tells us that the training of skilled and technical personnel takes from two to five years beyond the high school level. Thus, it takes two years to prepare a worker in agriculture, three years to train a worker in hotel industry, four years for an automobile mechanic and five years to train an assistant engineer or a surveyor.

Quite often the whole process of manpower development is impeded by the existence of financial handicaps. The lack of funds stands prominently as a stumbling block in thwarting all kinds of plans directed in this area. It is here that the initiative of the national government is felt and needed, not only in rescuing the situation but also in making manpower development a national issue involving every member of the society, especially those who have the capital.

There are other factors that impede the training and preparation of manpower in the vocational areas. Most of these factors are social and cultural. One basic reason why the educational system in the country

²⁸Ministry of Education, an interview with the Director of the School of Training Hotel and Restaurant Personnel, (Beirut: Summer, 1965)

²⁹Mills, op. cit., pp. 44-45.

has been oriented toward white collar jobs, the professions, civil service and commerce but not manual work is that the culture as a whole values these occupations more than manual labor. In Lebanon, commerce and services enjoy a high social status in contrast to that of manual work and industry.³⁰ Thus, graduates from colleges and even from high schools, shun industry as a career. By the same token, qualified engineers and technicians consider themselves on a par with lawyers, doctors and administrators. They do not expect to 'soil' their hands. Consequently, this prevailing social and individual philosophy is likely to slow up the manpower producing rate. All these factors, coupled with relatively low return in vocational education, tend to stifle the motivational level on the part of the potential candidates planning to enroll in vocational schools.

All these issues underlying vocational education, suggest the need for a serious consideration in upgrading vocational-technical schools in the country. They suggest the need for a thorough reevaluation of existing programs and curricula in vocational schools in light of the requirements of the economic market.

Deficit in Teacher Education

The fact that there is a pronounced shortage in the area of teacher education need not be emphasized in this respect. Previous sections in the study revealed that the productive capacity of teachers' institutes in preparing trained teachers, especially on the elementary level, lags far behind the rising demand for teachers. Thus, whereas operating teachers' institutes in the country do not prepare more than 300 teachers per year for elementary schools, which barely meets 50%

³⁰ Ibid., p. 46.

of the demand in public schools. The actual demand rising from the private sector is double that amount.

Evidence shows that existing primary institutes had graduated 300 potential teachers altogether in 1965. These institutes are expected to graduate 400 students in 1966 and 450 in 1967.³¹ Will the productive capacity of teachers' institutes meet the pressing need for teachers? Official authorities do hope that it will; current developments in primary education suggest that it will not unless teacher education is organized in the light of growth and development of primary education.

Implications of the Situation to Education Planning

In the light of the previous findings, it becomes clearly observed that there is a wide gap between educational supply and manpower demand. It has been shown that whereas there is a surplus in the academic stream, there exists a shortage in the vocational-technical and teacher education graduates. This discrepancy indicates the existence of wide gaps between education, as a producer of human resources, and the known manpower requirements in the country. This situation has many implications. In terms of manpower training institutions, the question would be how to accelerate their programs. Similarly, in terms of industrial institutions, the shortage calls for the installation of on-the-job training programs. It is sufficient in this respect to single out two relevant implications in terms of educational planning, centered around two main questions: what educational streams should be emphasized? What streams should be de-emphasized?

³¹Ministry of Education, La Revue Pédagogique, op. cit., p. 32.

Educational Streams to be Emphasized

By a logical necessity, one has the tendency at this stage to rush into conclusions and state that non-academic education should be given more emphasis than academic education. In fact, there is ample evidence in support of this view. All trends indicate the serious concern for the expansion of vocational-technical education. However, the discussion of these streams needs to be considered with deep concern whenever the reconstruction of the educational system is involved. The study favors an expansion and upgrading of non-academic education. With respect to what has been presented in the study it is sufficient to draw some remarks and observations with the hope that they may serve as a guideline in future educational policy. These remarks, stated in question form, are related to vocational technical education and are derived from similar studies in this field.³²

1. What is the existing position of vocational education in the total educational structure? What are the future trends in this area with respect to the growth and development of the educational system?
2. Policy-wise, what proportion of the secondary students should be in vocational and what proportion in non-vocational streams? What is the proper balance for a country the size of Lebanon, at its present stage of development?
3. Practically, what would be a reassuring percentage expectation for moving students into vocational streams?

³²The Thai-USOM Human Resources Study, op. cit., pp. 32-33.

4. What is the meaning of the slow progress of vocational education in contrast to academic education?
5. What is the educational and social-economic significance of the fact that academic streams are increasing at a much faster rate than vocational streams?
6. What evidence is there about the rate of unemployment among vocational graduates? How does it compare with unemployment among academic stream students?
7. Is there any evidence to indicate anything about the relative return on the investment in academic and vocational education?
8. At what level should vocational education be given in order to achieve the maximum return on educational investment in that field?

By the same token, similar questions could be raised on teacher education, or any other educational stream in the system.

Educational Streams to be De-Emphasized

The statement that some educational streams have to be emphasized or de-emphasized is a relative one. The question that follows logically is in relation to what? A misconception may rise in this respect, especially if the stream to be less emphasized is academic. This should not be interpreted to mean that technical education should be expanded at the expense of academic education. Academic education is as vital and important as vocational education, especially in a country like Lebanon on its way to economic and educational growth. The arguments for either kind of education are abundant, and the validity of one argument should not necessarily negate the validity of the other. The question becomes, what kind or what aspect of academic education should be promoted and what kind should be demoted?

The findings of previous parts of the study have suggested the need for academic education on the secondary level. This need was emphasized by the rising conditions in the fields of technology, industry and services, all of which require higher standards of basic education that go beyond elementary schooling. Essentially, the whole economy in its present stage of development suggests the need for a greater manpower stock, which is provided with basic knowledge in communication skills, arts, sciences and the applied sciences.

Essentially, what is criticized in academic education is its orientation and organization. From a traditional viewpoint, this stream was meant to be college preparatory. Students enrolled in this stream looked forward to entering universities and professional schools. Historically and culturally, these students formerly came from a certain social class and their preparation on the secondary level was academic in its nature. Academic education in this sense was meant to provide them with the knowledge and skills to qualify them for the pursuit of higher learning.

To be consistent with its orientation nature, the educational system was organized on dual lines: education for the masses and education for the classes. Education for the masses was confined to the elementary level, which was, by definition, a terminal stage. Later, when education acquired a new status and became free and universal, enrollment began to flood the academic stream at the secondary level. The result was a 'bottleneck,' congesting the last year in secondary education. What intensified the situation were the 'closed doors' of the higher institutions of learning. Many of the high school graduates reached this stage after graduation, only to find they could not pursue higher education due to financial and academic reasons. The result was an unbalanced growth of the educational streams,

resulting in a congested stream of academic education and an almost vacant stream of vocational and technical education.

Consequently, the situation suggests a balancing among the various educational streams. It suggests a readjustment of the whole educational system, at least through its organizational structure. This reorganization implies a proper channelling of the students in the streams that are designed in light of manpower demand. Moreover, the whole situation involves a sound policy of educational planning. This phase will be discussed fully in the next chapter.

Summary

From what has been presented in this chapter, it can be concluded that there is a pronounced discrepancy between education supply and manpower demand. That educational institutions are not providing required manpower rising in the economic sphere is due primarily to the fact that the educational structure is organized in such a way that more emphasis has been placed on the academic stream, minimizing the importance of the vocational and technical streams.

The underlying reasons that spelled the discrepancy were basically the advent of social-economic change into the country, accompanied by complex technological innovations introduced into industries, manufacturing and other sectors of the economic sphere. All these innovations required the type of personnel possessing some sophistication in the technical skills and familiarity with the scientific method. The whole educational system at that time, including vocational and technical institutions, far from being imbued in the scientific knowledge, which implies research and experimentation, fell short of coping with the new situation. The few personnel that graduated from these institutions filled only a small segment of the vast range of vacant positions created by the new innovation and the rising demands of the economy.

This unbalanced situation between education supply and manpower demand was demonstrated in a dire shortage of technicians, supervisors, foremen, skilled workers, and a whole host of saleable skilled labor on the middle level manpower. Official authorities, as well as political and administrative leaders, were aware of the seriousness, as well as the implications of the situation. Private enterprise and free entrepreneurship were in full operation side by side with public authorities, but they were not in a position to solve the intensity of the situation, though they did alleviate it.

The implications of the situation suggested a re-modification of the educational system, where a coordinated structure and a well balanced curriculum could be reached. This kind of reorganization would require some adjustments, whereby the academic stream has to be less emphasized and more consideration be given to the vocational stream.

Other solutions were also suggested. But where would these solutions leave the educational system? To what extent can the system adjust itself to the rising social-economic demands of the society? What can or should be done, educationally and economically, to establish an overall developmental program whereby manpower supply will meet manpower requirements in the foreseeable future, and in the long run, of the country's future? In other words, what policy of action should be followed? Can a working policy on educational planning in Lebanon be established? All these questions which will be discussed in the next chapter stimulate serious consideration for the setting up of a working policy on educational planning.

CHAPTER VII

SETTING UP A WORKING POLICY FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Previous chapters have indicated many causes underlying the gap between education supply and manpower requirements. The discrepancy between these two aspects was clearly shown by either excesses or shortages in the education sector (in terms of graduates) to meet existing and anticipated needs rising in the economic sector. Implied throughout the study was the assumption that educational planning is inadequate in training human resources to meet rising needs required by the economy.

At the same time, the study indicates that educational planning has not been closely related to, or integrated with, overall national development plans. As a result of the uncoordinated activities between the Ministry of Education and concerned agencies governing the economic aspects in the society, such as the Ministry of National Economy, the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, the Chamber of Commerce and Industry, human resources have been wasted. Besides the excesses of the graduates in the academic stream and the shortages in the vocational and technical streams many other factors indicate the unbalanced situation between education supply and manpower demand, which is likely to result in a problematic situation that requires immediate solutions, lest the repercussions prove detrimental to both the individual and the society.

The relevant questions that may be raised in this respect are: how can these problems be solved, or rather to what extent can they be solved?

Are there ways and means to test the efficiency of the productive capacity of educational institutions? If so, by what standards? If not, what are other possible solutions?

Ideally, many solutions can be envisaged, such as establishing administrative machinery within the Ministry of Education and related agencies concerned with human resources which can be trusted with the task of formulation, implementation, and evaluation of plans. Before such recommendations and suggestions can be posed, the purpose of educational planning should be made clear. To what extent is such planning implementable? The nature of these speculations involve the setting of definite targets, the calculation and projection of the population and its needs, the calculation of expenditures, and the provision of resources.

In order to furnish some tentative solutions to these problems it is the purpose of this chapter to establish some operational relationships between manpower requirements and manpower supply. This implies two main endeavors: first, an estimate of future manpower requirements based on the given data related to this area; second, an analysis of future manpower supply in terms of educational and occupational qualifications.

To accomplish these endeavors, two other complementary facets are required: a comparison between education supply and manpower demand with respect to some given criteria in the economic sphere (such as given sectors in the economy), and the estimation of current and anticipated expenditures on the development of human resources.

Prior to the investigation of the above mentioned areas, it is necessary to examine educational planning as it is related to national planning.

Educational Planning with Respect
to Overall National Planning

It has been implied throughout the study that educational planning could not be conceived of in isolation from other developmental plans in the country. Through a series of interviews conducted by the researcher in Lebanon during the summer of 1965, it was found that planning, whether educational or national, is occupying top priority among official circles in the country.¹ This fact is demonstrated by the expanding activities and responsibilities of the Ministry of Planning, whose domain touches on all ministerial programs, and whose task is to coordinate the various activities sponsored by the departments and official agencies in the fields of education, construction, finance and services.

In line with this expansion, the Ministry of Education felt the need for the establishment of a special educational planning committee. Authorized by a ministerial decree December 11, 1963,² the committee was entrusted with the task of reviewing existing educational plans and recommending new programs, taking into consideration the educational, social, and economic needs of the country.

In addition to the Ministries of Planning and of Education, many individuals and various interest groups who own and manage private enterprises in the different sectors of the society are concerned with planning. Their planning, however, is primarily conceived and interpreted from within their private interests. Their basic concept of planning is relative, and the grounds on which judgment is based and decisions are made tend to be

¹See Appendix A.

²Ministry of Education, Official Documents with Respect to the Establishment of a Committee on National Planning, (Beirut: Jan. 1964).

subjective. This situation is very likely to result in a wide discrepancy and a clash of interests between the public and private sectors. If not properly channelled, the consequences of such a situation would be confusion and chaos, which is hardly conducive to wise planning.

The exigencies of the situation call for a concert of efforts between the private and public sectors. The cement of these efforts is best derived from the overall national objectives which serve as guidelines for any planning activity. Hence, for educational planning to be functional and meaningful, three criteria must be closely considered: the establishment of a working theory of educational planning, revision and evaluation of existing educational policies and integration of educational planning with overall national planning.

The Need for a Working Theory of Educational Planning

Findings in the previous chapters of this study, basically Chapter IV, suggested the need for a working theory of educational planning. By definition, planning conceived as a "process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future" should possess a predictive and explanatory power. Speaking in terms of prediction and explanation, we are essentially theorizing. "A theory is primarily an operational tool by which the scientist (in this instance, the planner) undertakes to perform three operations: description, prediction and control. As he undertakes these operations, he establishes certain criteria by which he evaluates his work objectively, reliably and coherently."³

A working theory in educational planning makes public the work of the planner, because he bases his assumptions on public terms. In other

³Daniel Griffiths, "The Nature and Meaning of Theory," a lecture given at the NCPEA, Macomb, Illinois, 1960.

words, he states his assumptions in the light of an objective reality and not as a personal feeling. Objectivity in this sense requires that the planner let others 'in' on what he is doing and share their views in terms of what can or should be done under a certain set of conditions.

A theory then, far from being a personal view or opinion, is an assumption, or a set of assumptions from which a set of empirical laws (principles) may be derived.⁴ It provides the conceptual tools or apparatus to describe a situation as it exists in the light of given data, to explain relevant factors affecting the situation and then to predict consequences of action. For that reason a theory is always based on an "if . . . then" sequence, e.g. if a certain line of action were followed, then a certain set of consequences are anticipated to follow. Consequences in this sense are causally related to antecedents.

Assuming the above observations are valid, a working theory of educational planning in Lebanon would serve as a guideline for building sound educational policies, as well as explaining the relationship of education to other sectors in the economy. For such a theory to be of maximum effect certain factors have to be considered:

First, the nature and role of education in a developing country. What are the urgent needs of the people education-wise, in relation to the social and economic needs of the country? What educational priorities should be established as a result of this situation?

Second, the nature of the economy, including natural resources, foreign market, transportation, production and distribution of material.

⁴Daniel Griffiths, Administrative Theory, (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc., 1959), p. 28.

Third, the major economic trends in terms of the transition from a primary to a secondary and tertiary economy, including major changes in the economic structure.

Fourth, the status of education in the social economic structure of the country and the role education can play to affect that structure. This includes the role of education in the transformation of the society through the development of human resources.

Fifth, derived from the previous item, the consideration of the socio-economic structure of the society in terms of allocation of national income, the distribution of wealth among the people of the country and the relation of the rural to the urban community.

Sixth, the consideration of resources, natural and human, and the appropriation of funds in terms of expenditures on education and the investment of areas (economic, social) which are likely to reinforce the process of planning.

Last, an educational theory serving as a guideline in setting target years for education.

Re-evaluation of Existing Educational Policies

Given a certain socio-political and economic situation, it is assumed that there is a functional relationship among various policies pertaining to the different aspects of the situation. For example, a policy dealing with income taxes in the national economy is likely to leave a direct effect in the field of education, at least as far as the financing of education is concerned. Similarly, an educational policy aiming at expanding educational

facilities is likely to affect the financial sector in terms of providing funds to meet the required needs.

Thus, given the nature of the Lebanese society, governed by a 'laissez-faire' economy, private entrepreneurship and rugged individualism; certain consequences are expected to follow: basically, competition, confusion and corruption. As one Beiruti Parliamentarian puts it "corruption is the Lebanese way of life, and it is no use to fight against it."⁵ All social and economic symptoms indicate the Lebanese society is suffering from irregularities and maladies which have been gnawing its body for a long time. Most of these diseases and disorders were inherited from the Ottoman rule and were perpetuated by nepotism, favoritism, feudalism and other socio-economic isms.

Confronted by such a situation, the newly elected President of the Republic, Mr. Charles Helou, accepted the challenge and took it on his own to shake up the whole administration. Being aware of the saying that "the fish starts rotting from its head," the President did not lose much time coping with the situation. Borrowing the "social-justice s  bre" from the judiciary branch of the government, his first move was against the judiciary itself. "At the President's prodding, the Supreme Judicial Council last December fired 13 prominent judges whose 'irregularities' were well known. Soon after, the diplomatic service was reshuffled and many ambassadors were shaken down. Similar measures were taken in the various government Ministries, the customs, the police and the military."⁶

If this was the case in the state at large, similar irregularities are expected in the field of education. According to an enlightened

⁵Time Magazine, Vol. 87., No. 6., (Feb. 11, 1966), p. 30.

⁶Ibid.

authority in this area, it is stated that "the lack of coordination between education and manpower demand has been carried to such an extreme that even government employees who are given scholarships for advanced training abroad often find, upon their return home, that no one, including the government, requires their newly acquired skill. Sometimes, also, they find, to their bitter disappointment, that their old jobs themselves are no more available to them, having been filled during their absence by younger people."⁷

This anecdote, if it tells anything, tells the story of a disorganized, ill-planned situation, where decisions are made according to personal whim, than to rational considerations. This same situation is reflected in the various phases of the educational system that range from sheer day-to-day school practices to the aims of education. The best example may be found in the national program of studies, which for the last twenty years has been a focal point of debate. All concerned authorities are convinced that the curriculum is getting obsolete, in substance, form, and procedure. The subject matter used in the 40's is no longer applicable in the mid 60's. The function of education is no longer confined to the eradication of illiteracy but rather to the development of a productive and enlightened citizenry. All such points are under consideration with respect to the appraisal of the existing curriculum, but not much has been done during all these years. The same can be said about the external state examinations, the validity of student retention in elementary grades, certification (especially the primary school certificate), and the supremacy of liberal arts education at the expense of vocational and technical education and teacher education.

⁷Paul Klat, "Economic and Manpower Planning," Middle East Economic Papers, Economic Research Inst. AUB, 1960, pp. 55-64.

The question that may be raised in this respect is, how are the schools supposed to play their rightful role in the development of human resources in a growing country like Lebanon? The handicaps that impede the process are more numerous than the promoting factors. Underlying the whole process is an attitudinal, or value orientation of the people themselves including the decision-makers. The concept that education has a vital role to play in the economic and human development -- is relatively new in Lebanon. Until recently, education has been conceived of as self-betterment, and self-betterment is a personal private concern. Being interpreted from this angle, private education would be considered the right type to fit such a philosophy. Public education conceived of primarily, as governmental responsibility did not acquire the status attributed to private education. A major factor responsible for the failure of public education to achieve full status as a developer of human resources, is that education, intentionally, has never been conceived of as a discipline or investment in the total scheme of national development. This fact is reflected in the conflicting goals and policies concerning the position of education in the society. It is further demonstrated by the competing demands of the public from education. Each individual expects the school to cater to his individual needs and interests. What intensifies the situation is that the government, as an official agency in support of public and private education, has no definite word as to the function of education in the Lebanese society.

If the situation is to be salvaged, a thorough re-evaluation and reappraisal of the educational system in terms of its aims, means, methods, curricula and all the paraphernalia related to the educational process is

needed. This re-evaluation should be guided by the urgent needs of the country and the overall national objectives.

Integrating Educational Planning with National Developmental Planning

Essentially, educational planning does not function in a vacuum, neither does it serve a single purpose excluding all others, unless it is considered specific, as in the case of religious, physical or national patriotic education. In broader terms, education as a discipline, is meant to serve the ever-growing needs of a society. Every society has made a commitment unto itself to provide its members with a respectable standard of living. This to be accomplished through the development of individual potential by providing equal opportunities, the increase of national income, adequate production and efficient distribution of products.

To accomplish these tasks, a nation sets certain social, economic and political goals that meet with individual needs and interests and respond to national aspirations. Once the goals are defined and clarified, a corresponding set of means is established for the achievement of these goals. Throughout the whole process, there should be planning on a national level. It was indicated in Chapter IV that the state, through its various branches, sets up what may be termed a 'state policy'. The group at the legislative level is called the decision or policy makers, whereas the people executing the decisions are the working personnel. The 'middle ground' is occupied by interpreters of laws and rules, service men, administrators and middle men.

Where does the Ministry of Education fit into this national scheme? From an organizational point of view, the Ministry represents the executive

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branch of the state. By definition there is a line-staff hierarchy through which decisions are passed and channelled, until they are put to work. Thus, through the collaboration of the Ministries of Finances, National Planning and Civil Service, plans are carried out and executed by authorized personnel.

So far this situation conveys a static image of a pre-ordained society. Nothing is said about who initiates decisions, who pushes them ahead and who influences whom. As a matter of fact such a speculation addresses itself to a pertinent issue: the power structure of the state. The nature of the study does not respond to this question fully, though it refers to it implicitly. The issue at this level goes beyond what is, what could, or should be the case. It implies, by inference, who should decide on what and why!

To achieve the educational goals delegated to it, the Ministry of Education should be flexible, efficient and far reaching. Considered as a state organism, there should be a functional and operational relationship between the Ministry of Education and the concerned agencies and authorities in the state that have a direct influence on education. Specifically, there should be close cooperation between the Ministry of Education and Ministries of Finances, Planning, National Economy and other concerned agencies, such as the Civil Service and the Chambers of Commerce and Industry.

Similarly, the educational planning committee branching out from the Ministry of Education should work closely with the Ministry of Planning at policy level and working level. The purpose behind this committee would be to make a continuous study and examine existing policies and proposing

educational plans, on short and long term levels, which are likely to meet the educational needs as well as the manpower requirements. Through close cooperation with the Ministry of Planning, reliable data may be obtained with respect to economic needs. Decision makers of this committee propose questions of primary order, as to what should be done, whereas the working staff deals with issues of secondary order as to how to do it. The working personnel would be concerned with developing data, research and information needed for short and long term educational planning. Periodically, personnel at the policy level should review what is being done at the working level.

Finally, educational priorities can be established within the general scheme of national plans. A few examples may be cited.

First, data on enrollment trends, including teacher-student ratio, sex ratio, age distribution and the like.

Second, the economics of education, including educational costs and expenditures.

Third, the planning of education: short term and long range plans.

Fourth, examination of competing demands of education.

Estimating Future Manpower Requirements

Any estimate of future manpower requirements involves a number of factors which are closely interrelated and interdependent. These factors include available data on the existing economic situation in terms of major industrial sectors, occupational stratification, natural resources, national income and the like. Related factors to the educational system involve corresponding data on aims, means, needs and problems of education. Beyond these two major phases, an estimate of manpower requirements is determined

to a large degree by the state policy and the overall national objectives the state has committed itself to achieve.

In terms of methodology there are many factors which may undermine any estimate and raise doubtful questions as to the validity, relevancy and feasibility of that estimate. Hence, there is always the existing danger in estimating a future situation, that the said estimate may miss the designated mark or target date. Concomitant conditions, such as financial limitations imposed by the economy of the country, the prevailing social, political and cultural atmosphere, and many other relevant factors are likely to leave a direct impact on any estimate and affect its future course. This means that a planner must always be aware of these pitfalls and make provisions for any contingency.

How to arrive at a working policy in estimating future manpower requirements in light of these observations? What should be the guidelines in the interpretation of the data presented in the previous parts of the study? How should projections of the size and range of the labor force at a certain level of manpower requirements be established? In discussing these issues two steps will be followed closely: the procedures for estimating future manpower demand, and analysis of future manpower requirements.

Procedures for Estimating Future Manpower Demand

Earlier findings of the study indicated that in establishing estimates of any situation, certain steps have to be followed. For example, in estimating the existing labor force in the country for a certain year the essential steps are: 1) know the number of workers for that year, and 2) subtract withdrawals from the labor force because of illness, marriage,

maternity leave, and death. Any future estimate of the labor force requires a knowledge of new workers replenishing the labor force in each successive year and the rate of increase during the successive years.

Derived from studies conducted in this area, the following procedures may be suggested as guiding principles in estimating future manpower requirements:⁸

- . prepare a current manpower inventory for the base year classified by branch of industry and occupation.
- . use an occupational classification system that differentiates as far as possible among occupations requiring different levels of education and at the highest levels, between scientific and general education. The universally known occupational classification is that listed in the "International Standard Classification of Occupations" which includes four broad classes:⁹

Class A All occupations for which a university education or an advanced teachers college degree, or its equivalent would normally be required.

Class B Occupations for which two or three years of education beyond the secondary level (12 years) may be required.

Class C Occupations for which a secondary school education (either technical or academic) or its equivalent would normally be required.

Class D All occupations not included in Class A, B, or C.

⁸Parnes, op. cit., pp. 19-25.

⁹Ibid., As derived from F. A. Harbison "Manpower Assessments, A Preliminary Outline of Objectives and Methodology," OEEC (July 1961). (mimeographed). p. 26.

- . forecast the size of the total labor force for a given period of time or "target year", say 1970 or 1980, and intervening periods at four or five-year intervals.
- . estimate total employment in each sector and branch of the economy for the target years. This estimate should include a breakdown of various occupational categories in terms of quantity and quality of labor involved at each occupation level. It should also include an authoritative description of gaps in the economy that are existent at each level, but are not filled due to lack of trained or competent personnel.
- . convert the data on manpower requirements by occupational category into data on requirements by educational qualifications. Although many occupational categories are so broad in nature, as in management and other administrative occupations, that they do not seem compatible with educational qualifications, however, this step is essential in setting educational plans for producing a certain caliber of personnel.
- . make periodic computations between existing and anticipated labor force on the one hand and the annual outflow on trained manpower from the various preparation institutions in the educational system.
- . determine approximate manpower required in each occupational category at different intervals of time, especially at times when trends and innovations divert the course of certain occupations, e.g., impact of I. B. M. machines on auditing, bookkeeping, stenography and other related occupations. Compute

these trends with student flow in different educational streams. This step is exceedingly crucial in the adjustment of education supply to manpower demand. If drastic changes are anticipated in the economy, appropriate measures should be taken education-wise in order to keep the educational system ahead or abreast of developmental events in the aspects of the society.

- . evaluate manpower requirements. See that what is being required within the given period of time has been implemented. In light of the findings determine shortcomings or drawbacks and correct them during the process of execution.

All these principles need not be followed as a check list lest they become mandatory and result in a stereotyped rigid outline of taxonomical imperatives. At the same time the planner has to be warned against the fact that no matter how much a policy of action is explicit and well detailed there is always the fear that such a policy may not address itself to any particular situation. Conditions differ from one country to another and from one region to another within the same country. Thus, whatever may be true of an occupational situation in metropolitan Beirut may not be necessarily so in the Biqa Valley or in North Lebanon. In this sense any given policy is not meant to be a panacea, neither should it be conceived of as a document of generalities. It should serve the purpose it is set for: a guideline or frame of reference for action. At all times the planner must use first and foremost his experienced judgment. He should look at the situation objectively and depend on his common sense as well as on statistical data and the findings of related research conducted in the field.

It is assumed that any estimate involves some guess work but the significance of an estimate is merited in whether the guess is an enlightened one or not. A realistic estimate is that which takes into consideration the realities of the situation with all underlying factors and relevant trends. To be sound and feasible, an estimate should be based on a scientific method. Among the prerequisites of this method is an objective observation of the situation based on valid and reliable data. It should also take into consideration future developments of that situation.

Analysis of Future Manpower Requirements

Guided by the methodology discussed in the previous section, it becomes more meaningful to analyze the given data on manpower requirements in Lebanon within a framework that combines theory with practice. The analysis that follows is basically generated from the assumption that a shift from a primary economy (characterized by manual work and unskilled labor) to a secondary and tertiary economy (characterized by production, distribution of products and materials, and rendering of services) requires a higher level of educational qualification and a longer period of preparation. In order to understand the implications of the economic situation as it stands now and moves into the future, it is necessary to build a groundwork with concrete data on the size and magnitude of the labor force in terms of its distribution on some industrial sectors. This step, to be followed by the exploration of future economic trends, is estimated and projected by authoritative sources on manpower development in the country. Essentially, the data

presented in this part of the chapter is derived from the same sources referred to in previous chapters, especially in Chapter V, namely the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs and the IRFED Mission.

In its study on the social and economic needs of Lebanon, IRFED Mission made an estimate of the labor force in the country for 1957 (Table 20, p. 170). From this estimate some projections were derived with respect to possible growth of the labor force from 1957 to 1975.

It is noted that projections were based on two possibilities: minimal and maximal. In both trends, the estimated growth in the agricultural sector occupies the lowest rank in comparison to the aspiring estimate of future growth in the manufacturing sector, showing a minimum increase of 21% in an 18 year period at an annual average of 1.2% against the estimate of 87% minimum increase in manufacturing, four times as high with an increase of 5% per year. Maximum projections give manufacturing a prominent position in terms of an average annual increase of 7%. Commerce and other services reflect a progressive increase of employment capacity. All these trends support the view of a transitory economy from agriculture to industry and services. The trends suggest that an increase of the labor force in the manufacturing and services sectors requires a corresponding increase in personnel competent to fit into the expected requirements demanded by these sectors.

The findings of the IRFED Mission are congruent with the findings of the UNRWA Mission study as indicated in Table 21, page 171.

A comparison of Tables 20 and 21 reflects an agreement between the two studies on the annual increase of the labor force at an average of 4%. Both tables indicate that the proportionate increase in the

sectors of manufacturing and services will gain predominance over other sectors, especially agriculture. The anticipated growth in these two sectors suggests an increasing volume of business activity and an expanding economy requiring more working personnel.

Provided such trends prove to be true - what kind of manpower would they call for in terms of occupational qualifications? How would all these trends influence educational planning? What is likely to be the situation in the near future? To look ahead into the future and determine what the situation will be ten, fifteen or twenty years from now, requires a projection of the present situation.

The projection of labor force in terms of occupational classification is the most difficult task, especially in a society where the labor force ranges from self-employment to under employment and complete unemployment. There is no universally accepted method for projecting requirements for specific occupations or occupational categories.¹⁰ However, many approaches have been followed according to different methodologies and procedures.¹¹

In previous chapters of the study, occupations have been classified under five major categories: Professional - technical, administrative, clerical, skilled and unskilled labor. According to this classification, the labor force in Lebanon was estimated at 138,650 in 1960. Table 22 (page 172) had illustrated occupational breakdown of the labor force in some selected sectors of the economy indicating to future trends in those occupations.

¹⁰Parnes, op. cit., p. 21.

¹¹Harbison and Myers, op. cit., pp. 187-208.

The data presented in other tables on working population (Tables 13, 14, & 15) give a sample picture of the labor force at a given period of time which may serve as a base line for future projections. As a matter of fact, what is needed here is some solid evidence of manpower requirements in order to furnish the grounds for further comparison with manpower supply from existing educational institutions in the country. Assuming the given data is valid, it becomes possible to prepare an inventory of manpower according to branch of industry and occupation. Once the size and magnitude of the labor force is determined, it becomes relatively easy to set up projections by applying the yearly manpower replacement rate at 4%, suggested by the Director of Technical and Vocational Education in Lebanon.¹² This process is illustrated in Table 31.

TABLE 31
AVERAGE YEARLY REPLACEMENT REQUIREMENTS ESTIMATED
AT AN ANNUAL RATE OF 4%, 1960-1975

Occupational Classification	Mfg.	Const.	Trade & Bnkg.	Transp.	Services	Total
Professional- Technical	43	58	36	42	210	389
Administrative	52	62	154	45	125	438
Clerical	315	298	941	217	417	2188
Skilled Craftsmen	685	330	377	240	643	2275
Unskilled Labor	<u>1065</u>	<u>572</u>	<u>692</u>	<u>416</u>	<u>1165</u>	<u>3910</u>
Total	2160	1320	2250	960	2500	9200

¹²John 'Ak1, "L'Evolution Probable du Marche du Travail au Liban." A report on the development of labor force in Lebanon, (Beirut: 1964).

Adding these figures to the average annual requirements in the labor force estimated between 3% and 6%, pending the nature of occupation, the result would be as shown in Table 32.

TABLE 32
ESTIMATED AVERAGE ANNUAL MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS
BY OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION

Occupational Classification	Mfg.	Const.	Trade & Bnkg.	Transp.	Services	Total
Professional- Technical	102	92	58	99	443	794
Administrative	123	98	256	106	264	847
Clerical	744	473	1551	509	880	4157
Skilled	1617	523	606	563	1356	4665
Unskilled	<u>2514</u>	<u>407</u>	<u>1126</u>	<u>976</u>	<u>2457</u>	<u>7980</u>
Total	5100	2093	3597	2253	5400	18443

At a closer examination of the above data, a few observations may be drawn. First, the existing trend in the labor force shows an average increase of about 18,500 persons per year. Though this reflects a modest estimate compared with the total labor force in 1960, estimated at about 600,000, its significance, however, reflects the proportional distribution of workers by occupational qualifications.

Second, manpower requirements in Lebanon, as indicated through the various estimates, reflect the potential absorptive capacity of the industrial sector as compared with a declining rate of increase in the agriculture sector. This economic phenomenon suggests the orientation and training of an

increasing number of personnel to fit the growing industry. According to the Director of Vocational and Technical Education, "for the industrial working population to keep pace with the demographic increase of the country, it has to rise at an annual average of 2.3%." In his opinion, 'agriculture is certainly in no position to absorb extra manpower, and other non-industrial sectors do not seem to offer any sure prospects.' These speculations led the Director to suggest an expansion in the industrial field equivalent to an increase in the working population estimated at 7% per year in order to prevent an unemployment crisis.¹³

Finally, the various data given on manpower requirements suggest the need for more training and education. Whether in the field of industry, manufacturing or services, there are minimal requirements in terms of educational achievement and pre-service training. To achieve a standard of living compatible with human dignity, the Lebanese society must first introduce a major change in the midst of its economic and social structure. It must plan for the requirements needed by a more complex industry based on machinery and automation. Evidence shows that there is a demand for all kinds of occupational activities requiring a certain caliber of personnel with minimal requirements of education and preparation. Are the educational institutions in the country producing the required personnel? What is the existing productive capacity of these institutions in terms of graduates? What are the future needs? To answer these questions it is necessary to examine manpower supply in terms of the existing productive capacity of the educational system and possible future trends.

¹³ Ibid.

Estimating Future Education Supply

Adopting similar measures and procedures to those followed in discussing manpower requirements, it becomes relatively easy to examine the educational system in terms of manpower supply. In order to present an approximate estimate of future manpower supply, at least three steps are involved: First, the need to trace graduation trends in the recent past; second, a breakdown of graduates by educational qualifications and; third, an analysis of future manpower supply under a given set of conditions.

Overall Estimate of Graduation Trends on the Secondary School Level

It was mentioned earlier that the educational system in Lebanon accommodates approximately 440,000 students. About 426,000 are in the academic stream and the remainder are enrolled in non-academic schools; vocational and technical and teacher education institutes. In Chapter III a detailed description was presented on student population in terms of its structure, composition and distribution in the various educational levels. From a quantitative viewpoint, the given data presented a clear picture on the number of students and their position in the system.

Another way to view the productive capacity of the system is by determining the number of students graduated from the system each year at the various educational levels. By tracing recent growth of the system in terms of the number of graduates, and projecting the whole picture into the future, a temporal dimension would place the whole system in larger focus and provide the planner with some frames of reference on which he may base his estimates.

The educational pyramids (see Figures 5 and 7, pp. 78 and 85 respectively) illustrated the distribution of students in the academic and non-academic streams. At the end of each educational level there is an expected turn-over in the proportionate number of graduates. It is presumed that graduating students will be absorbed by the economy at the various occupational levels. It is essential to examine the educational system in terms of graduates in the different academic streams and establish some relationship between student population (in terms of enrollments and graduates) and the existing manpower requirements in the country.

On the academic level it has been shown in Chapter VI (pp. 174-177) that graduate trends, though they reflect a relative growth in the recent past, this growth was suppressed by many factors, namely the high selectivity of the system through state examinations.

Table 23, p. 175, has shown that graduates at the primary level progress at a very slow rate of growth in comparison to student population at that level. Graduates at the upper primary level did not increase until 1964, when the number of graduates almost doubled. On the Baccalauréat Part I level, there seems to be a negative correlation between graduate trends of the literary and the scientific branch, which is demonstrated in a progressive decline of graduates in the scientific stream. This decline becomes of extreme importance when compared with the manpower demand in certain sectors of the economy requiring technological and scientific knowledge. It is also noted that graduates of both branches of Baccalauréat Part II: philosophy and mathematics, did not show any significant growth during that period.

Moving on to vocational and technical education a similar picture is obtained in terms of graduate trends, and is illustrated in Table 33 covering a ten year period. Because there is no available data on graduates from private schools, the analysis will be confined to graduates of the public sector.

TABLE 33
GRADUATE TRENDS FROM PUBLIC VOCATIONAL-
TECHNICAL SCHOOLS COMBINED 1955-1964^a

Type of School	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964
<u>Vocational</u>	125	94	94	109	121	83	104	127	158	103
<u>Technical</u>	13	14	26	37	40	39	36	38	--	45
<u>Hotel & Rest. Personnel</u>										
First Cycle	--	18	22	28	22	13	13	15	19	28
Second Cycle	--	7	13	10	11	15	19	9	11	--
<u>Agricultural</u>	--	--	<u>42</u>	<u>37</u>	<u>41</u>	<u>23</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>38</u>	<u>62</u>	<u>3</u>
Total	138	133	197	221	235	173	220	227	250	179

^aMinistry of Education, Directorate of Technical and Vocational Education, Panorama de L'Enseignement Technique, (Beirut: 1965).

A mere look at the table conveys a very slow growth of graduates from public vocational and technical schools. The combined annual output of these schools, which ranges from 100 to 250, is far from meeting the rising needs in the economic sectors requiring these kinds of competencies. Evidence shows very little progress during the last ten years. It was indicated in the previous chapter that the existing vocational and technical schools, as they are functioning at the present time, have been in operation

for at least two decades without much modification or change, until 1964, when public authorities became fully concerned about the inadequacy of these schools. Accordingly all programs in these schools were suspended and the whole system was reevaluated and overhauled. Similarly, if the area of teacher education is examined, it is noticed that although there has been some growth of graduates in recent past, the increase, however, is far from matching the corresponding demand for trained teachers.

Analysis of Future Capacity of the Educational System

The discussion of future educational capacity can be done by tracing recent growth of education in terms of student enrollments, increase of teaching staff, budget increase to education and other related factors, and by projecting these trends into any given period in the future. Such projections usually follow three courses: maximal, minimal and optimal. Maximum projections always aim high, taking into consideration maximum possibilities under certain given circumstances. There is always the possibility of population increase, of improvement in certain standards and increase in available funds. Minimum projections follow the other extreme, possibility of the shortage of funds, scarcity of sources and the like, becoming the guiding principles in setting up projections. Optimum projections follow a 'middle of the way' approach, based on a combined average of the other two projections.

Another method of establishing projections in student growth is by determining the overall growth of the population, then computing the number of certain age levels and comparing those of school age with those attending school. Finally, one might build projections that take into consideration all demographic trends in the country.

All these approaches are acceptable and widely used by educational planners. Because it is beyond the scope of the study to build future projections of education, it would be sufficient in this respect to consider some basic factors that may help such projections. First, what would be the future capacity of the system given the existing set of conditions: number of schools, teachers, students, a certain budget and other quantitative aspects? Second, what would be the future capacity of the system if certain conditions have to be met, as coping with manpower requirements at different levels of qualifications and competencies?

The answer to these questions involves the tracing of recent trends in education and projecting them into the future. Given the number of students and graduates at various educational levels for the base year of 1965, it is possible to derive the rate of growth and graduates from previous years, and to estimate future growth at different target years such as 1970, 1975 or 1980.

Based on the above observations, the School of Arts and Crafts will be used as an example in tracing the growth of secondary technical education. According to previous data, this school has grown in the past ten years at the pace shown in Table 34.

TABLE 34
GROWTH OF SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION
1955-1964^b

	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1964
No. of Students	62	80	120	130	133	150	175	240	334
No. of Graduates	13	14	26	37	40	30	36	38	45

^bIbid.

This table indicates that prior to 1963 the rate of growth in student enrollment progressed at an annual increase ranging from 10 to 30 students, at the average of 20 students per year. The annual increase of graduates proceeded at a much lower rate, at the average of three graduates a year.

According to the new policy, aimed at upgrading vocational and technical education, put into effect in 1963, the image of this school is likely to be transformed. This transformation is evident in the quantitative difference of student population between 1964 and the previous years. The year 1964 is thus more appropriate to be used as a base year. Henceforth, a projection can be arrived at by the adoption of the previous formula of expected annual increase of students and graduates. Similar methods can be used in considering the projection of other educational trends.

Any kind of education projection should be closely related to the social economic needs of the country. Thus, in projecting vocational or technical education, the guide line should be derived from the known manpower requirements. If the need for the next five to ten years calls for a certain number of assistant engineers then the educational planner should anticipate that future need and build his curriculum likewise. All relevant factors in terms of the training period, the personnel involved in the training, recruitment of students and funds should be considered.

The complete plan calls for the integration of educational planning with other developmental plans in the country. The methodology to be followed involves an adjustment of education supply to manpower demand.

Adjusting Educational Supply to Manpower Demand

In light of previous findings it becomes evident that there is a discrepancy between education supply and manpower demand. This discrepancy was demonstrated in terms of surpluses and shortages of education supply with respect to the requirements of the economy. The situation calls for the planning of education in such a way that education supply will meet manpower demand. In suggesting a policy for action along these lines, it is essential to compare education supply and manpower demand at middle level occupations, to determine the discrepancies or differences between supply and demand and to transfer manpower requirements into educational data.

Relating Education Supply
to Manpower Demand

Reviewing the previous data on manpower demand and education supply, it becomes possible to appraise the educational system with respect to its productive capacity as compared with the graduates required at certain occupational levels. The comparison between the two dimensions is illustrated in Table 35.

TABLE 35

COMPARISON BETWEEN EDUCATION SUPPLY AND MANPOWER
DEMAND BY OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION

Occupational Classification	Education Supply	Manpower Demand		Difference
Professional-Technical	3,813	794	+	3,019
Administrative	112	847	-	735
Clerical	1,446	4,157	-	2,711
Skilled (craftsmen)	3,522	4,665	-	1,143
Unskilled (laborers)	8,000	7,980	+	12

These figures provide approximate estimates of education supply and manpower demand; they are of significant importance in delineating the quantitative discrepancies between the two dimensions. It is readily discernible that there is a noticeable excess of education supply in the professional and technical level, whereas, there are shortages on the administrative, clerical and skilled occupational levels. The unskilled labor classification is usually filled by the 'dropouts' and students who leave school after their primary education.

Assuming that the high and low levels of manpower demand are taken care of by the education supply, this leaves the middle level, the most critical area, posing a wide gap between education supply and manpower demand. Also assuming that as a country moves from an agricultural to an industrial economy, there is likely to be a gradual increasing demand for personnel of higher levels of training. Primary education, adequate at one time, becomes less utilitarian as more people with higher levels of training are required.¹⁴

If this tendency becomes the common pattern characterizing manpower requirements in the near future, and if the educational system maintains its pace of graduating students at the current rate, it is expected then that within a five year period the discrepancy between education supply and manpower demand will become wider. There may not be a surplus of graduates on the higher education level if the economy becomes in a position to absorb the college graduates. The deficit on the middle level manpower requirement is expected to be higher, if the educational system maintains a relatively low rate of producing graduates from secondary schools. The wide gap between manpower demand and education

¹⁴The Thai-USOM Human Resources Study, op. cit., p. 25.

supply is likely to be intensified. The future situation becomes more evident with respect to manpower producing institutions. If these institutions do not double their efforts to meet the expected manpower demand, the consequences then are likely to be more detrimental to both the individual and the society. The question is, how and under what conditions should the educational system function in order to fill the wide gaps between the needs of the economy and the supply from the schools? The answer involves many points of consideration, namely, the transfer of manpower requirements into educational data and identification and allocation of educational resources to put educational plans into a working program.

Transferring Manpower Requirements into Educational Data

It has been found that certain occupations require specific knowledges, experiences and skills which are acquired either in school, on the job, or through personal endeavor. Since the school in this instance, is being considered as the legal institution providing the citizen with the necessary knowledge and competency that qualify him to pursue further opportunities in life, it becomes logically valid to consider the school as playing a primary role in the development of human resources. The question that keeps recurring is, how could or should the school play that role? The school has many functions, primarily transference of the cultural heritage, preparation for occupations, promotion of national ideals, plus an indefinite number of competing and conflicting functions. These functions are basically universal

and the educational system in Lebanon is on a par with these goals. However, in playing all these roles, the schools in Lebanon were never used intentionally to produce a certain number of personnel to fit certain positions in the society. Education was free and the individual was free to choose the career he wished. Any prescribed rules concerning what each one should learn was considered a violation of the rights of the individual.

Consequently the whole concept of planning, being conceived within such a perspective, was interpreted to be as imposing and in turn binding. Only recently, current developments and innovations began to require planning in the field of education and the consideration of various plans under one unified and all-embracing national goal. Thus, the modern economy with its emphasis on machinery, automation and other techniques, began to require a certain caliber of personnel with a minimum amount of training. The question, then, in educational planning is: how to transfer these manpower requirements into educational data or how to quantify a certain economic need into a certain number of students that require a corresponding number of teachers, classrooms, and other educational facilities?

Re-examining the educational situation in this light, it is evident that there is a pressing need for manpower at the middle level. For example, in the field of teacher education there was an urgent need for trained teachers. This need was quantified in the number of teachers required implying the construction of a certain number of teachers' institutes, the recruitment of educators for the training of teachers and the allocation of funds to meet all these needs. The situation in

this respect, suggests the setting up of a policy for manpower training. Such a policy would include the identification of goals and means of the development of human resources, the allocation of funds, and the placement of administrative personnel to be entrusted with the operation of manpower training institutes. The policy calls as well for establishing educational priorities such as, what kind of education is most needed and what are the necessary means required to meet this need.

Similarly, but on a more complex level, other areas of manpower requirements could be transferred into educational data. There are many formulas that could be adopted to determine how many skilled workers, engineers or surveyors are needed within a period of time. Once these needs are quantified, the question becomes one of setting up working programs and putting them in action. Essential to all these programs and policies is the financial aspect which is considered the moving power of planning.

Setting up a Financial Policy for Educational Planning

In order to realize any plan, one basic ingredient is required: finance. Without finances all planning is a matter of sheer speculation. The financing of education implies the distribution of resources in such a manner that would result in the realization of the proposed aims and objectives.

It was mentioned, under a sub-heading of Chapter II, that the financing of public education is the sole responsibility of the central government. In some areas, as in school construction, local communities

contribute their share. It is sufficient in this chapter, to discuss the current expenditures on education and allocation of resources according to educational priorities.

With respect to current expenditures, it has been mentioned that the Ministry of Education is allotted about 14% of the total national budget. (see Table 1, page 40). The distribution of these funds on the various directorates of public instruction in the Ministry has been illustrated in Table 2, page 41.

In tracing the distribution of the budget on the different directorates it is noted that primary education consumes more than 50% of the budget, secondary education ranks second, followed by vocational and technical education, teacher education and physical education. It is also noted that the appropriation for teacher education has been doubled in the last three years, after which it maintained a steady pace. A similar pattern occurred at the vocational and technical education level. This suggests that these two areas have captured the concern of official authorities in the last few years.

In light of this situation, one may conclude that the financing of education takes place according to priorities. The question that may be raised is, how should educational resources be allocated? The usual accepted pattern is to breakdown educational resources into two categories: recurrent funds and operational funds. Recurrent funds are the expenditures that recur every year, including salaries of employees, maintenance cost and pertinent items. Operational funds are basically allocated to construction of school buildings, the rental of housing and other items that occur at different intervals of time.

There are many ways to allocate financial resources. A financial policy should be based on educational priorities. This principle involves the appropriation of funds to the educational areas which are deemed indispensable and essential in the promotion of educational practices that are closely related to the development of manpower resources. Thus, if primary education is to be extended throughout the regions of the country, the next step is to decide how much should be allocated for each child per year. In 1962 the expenditure per child in public elementary schools was 182 Lebanese pounds to correspond with 808 Lebanese pounds per child in public secondary schools.¹⁵ Analogously, if teacher education, vocational or technical education should be expanded what financial policy should be followed? A financial policy should take into consideration all educational needs and related factors underlying the process of human development.

Summary

The aim of this chapter was to present a rationale for educational planning. It was made clear that an educational policy should be pre-conditioned by an educational theory of planning. It was also suggested that existing educational practices be examined and evaluated in light of social economic goals.

The discussion placed particular emphasis on integrating educational planning with overall national planning. For educational planning to be valid and functional it has to be worked in relation to other developmental programs in the country.

¹⁵The Lebanese Delegation to the Regional Training Center of Advanced Personnel in the Administration of Education, op. cit., Vol. 3., p. 87.

Derived from this major observation an endeavor was made to establish the grounds for the setting up of a working policy in education which is based on a manpower requirement approach. Inherent in this policy was the suggestion that necessary adjustments should be made in relating education supply to manpower demand.

Although there was no attempt made to lay down the details of projecting future manpower requirements and manpower supply, some basic principles were suggested as guidelines in the formulation of a working policy in educational planning. These include the building of future estimates that enable the transfer of manpower requirements into educational data and allocation of funds for the preparation and training of human resources.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From what has been presented in the previous chapters, it may be concluded that education plays a vital role in the development of human resources in Lebanon. This fact has been demonstrated in a nationwide movement for the extension of educational opportunities to all the people. The movement itself testifies the significance of education in the development of the country's human resources.

In its approach to the problem, the study has pointed out the social, cultural forces that ascribed to education a unique role in the transmission of the cultural heritage of the country. Economic and political developments made education the key channel for economic opportunities and political leadership. Thus, through its growth and development, the educational system in Lebanon was a manifestation of all societal forces.

At present, the educational system reflects an ever increasing demand on the part of the people for education. One of the most impressive features of the social aspect in Lebanon is the relentless demand for education. This phenomenon is evidenced in the mushrooming of schools and the increase in student enrollments. Wherever one travels in the country, north, south, east or west, he is most likely to find people asking for more schools and more teachers. Thus, it may be duly said, that education is compulsory in Lebanon. This does not mean, however, that education is enforced by the government or required by legislation.

To the contrary, it is the people who put pressure on the government and its institutions to provide education for their children. The educational movement in the last few years is an unequivocal testimony to the increasing demand of the people for education.

In response to this urgent demand, the Lebanese government has followed what may be termed an "open door policy" in education. This policy implies the establishment of as many schools as possible. Because the government, due to its limited resources, was in no position to carry out its commitments in providing education for the people, it gave full support to the private sector in turn for its cooperation in this endeavor. Thus, education, as exercised in the country in terms of support and control, is based on the shared responsibility of both public and private sectors.

In terms of its function as a developer of human resources, education meant different things to different people. Two prevailing viewpoints were singled out in the study: the viewpoint of the individual and that of the nation. Conceived from an individual viewpoint, education meant a status symbol, better economic opportunities and better chances in life, in general.

From a national viewpoint, education meant a better society, including an enlightened citizenry, technically skilled people and well trained leaders. It is self evident that the Lebanese society cannot prosper or even endure unless its members are enlightened. The achievement of this aim requires a minimum level of general education. This is why the Lebanese Constitution, according to Article 10, stipulates a free universal education. This fact also explains why primary education is given first priority in the educational system.

In terms of skilled people, the educational system is expected to produce an adequate and competent number of technically skilled men and women who are trained to perform the various specialized and technical tasks required in a modern economy. The recent introduction of machinery and technology has required a certain caliber of manpower, competent to operate and manage this machinery. Similar economic occupational activities were created in the various sectors and spheres of the society that require skilled artisans, assistant engineers, surveyors, typists, mechanists, teachers and a whole host of skills on that level.

In educational terms these needs suggested a certain function of education which is inherently vocational and technical. To respond to this pressing need, the manpower producing institutions in the country were called upon to make certain adjustments. Programs of public vocational and technical schools were modified and upgraded. In the private sector corresponding programs offered a variety of courses. The endeavor of these institutions, though commendable, did not bridge the gap between education supply and manpower demand. The productive capacity of manpower training institutions, in quality and quantity, is far from meeting the social-economic needs of the country.

In terms of leadership, education meant the training of professional and liberal leaders to direct the affairs of the country. There was a need for statesmen, legislators, administrators and other personnel who fit this category of manpower. These manpower requirements call for a minimum of two years of training, beyond secondary education. This situation suggested the need for higher institutions of learning in the country. Hence, colleges and universities were established to provide

professional and technical training required by the economic, social and political spheres of the society. Whether higher institutes of learning are producing the adequate number of personnel to meet the social-economic needs of the country is an issue which is beyond the scope of this study and is left open for further inquiry.

The findings of the previous chapters pointed out that the educational system did not follow a smooth preordained course. The discrepancy between the demands of the social-economic situation and the existing educational practices resulted in serious problems requiring rational solutions. Among these problems which face the Lebanese government at present are: 1) the coordination of public and private education, 2) the need of relating expanding educational opportunities with the need for improving the educational quality and 3) the training and preparation of adequate personnel to meet manpower requirements in the country. The solution to these problems requires the identification and recruitment of both material and human resources. This brings into focus the need of keeping the expenditures on education within the bounds of the economic resources of the country. All these problems are of extreme significance in the process of educational planning. In this respect the planner should be fully aware of the limitations of the situation which tend to present many threats that may thwart the plan at any stage in the process of its design and implementation.

Another major problem having a direct affect on planning is that of research. The study has pointed to the urgent need for a comprehensive manpower survey. Among the basic prerequisites for this survey is an accurate and up-to-date census. Including all pertinent data, this survey

is required to furnish an accurate basis for estimating the type and number of skilled workers needed at different levels in the economy. Lebanon's population, more than any other country in the Middle East, has been variously reported. The present estimates of the population have ranged from 1,625,000 to 2,275,000. The difference of 600,000, amounts to one third of the total population. Hence, for an effective plan, there is a need for sound and reliable data on the existing resources of the country, including human and material, lest the whole process becomes a matter of sheer speculation.

The major resource of Lebanon, as that of any country, is its human resources: its men and women, its boys and girls. No reform is conceivable unless it aims at the cultivation and development of human resources. Therefore, a major task in the development of Lebanon, economically and socially, rests in the hands of the schools. Lebanon's schools, public or private, deserve the best efforts and sacrifice of the people and leaders in order to render these schools more effective agencies for social-economic development. Lebanon needs a school system which concerns itself with the pressing problems of the country, such as understanding the rights and responsibilities of the citizenry, building all-around personalities and more positive intelligent attitudes in dealing with economic and social problems of living, deemed as required in a modern nation. Lebanon, needs a school system which trains the youth in the necessary skills to fit into occupations required by the modern economy.

With such schools, eventually, the country will be able to build a modern system of free universal education that will be accepted and

implemented by the combined efforts of the central government and the local communities.

Another concluding remark which should be given top priority in the educational system is the concept of investment in education. Money invested in commerce, industry and other enterprises could be invested in education as well. Investing in the education of youth from ages six to sixteen or eighteen is an essential step in building a sound future for social-economic advancement of the country. Primarily this investment is a long range measure for the economic returns which will not be felt for at least ten or twelve years. It should be noted that the youth, between ages six and sixteen, constitute at least 25% of the total population of the country. Once educated and trained, the future dividends they render surpass any gains derived from other investments.

Investing in education should not be understood as an investment in youth alone and should not be exclusively confined to this category of the population. There is another segment of the population in the country, in whose hands the real prosperity and welfare of the Lebanese society is actually vested -- the adult population. Most of these people are in real need of special and general training. Basically, they need and deserve immediate and careful attention if their efficiency is to be improved. Such efficiency would inevitably result, in the long run, in the increase and improvement of economic productivity. Thus, adult education becomes absolutely essential for a country, like Lebanon, which is faced with the responsibilities of independence in a modern rapidly changing and highly technical world.

In light of these remarks and observations, the study suggests a thorough examination of the educational system in terms of its capacity in the development of human resources and recommends the reconstruction of the existing system in accordance with the pressing socio-economic needs of the country. The following recommendations may be summed up under three major aspects: educational aims, the administration of education and the organization of education.

Educational Aims for Lebanon

In line with the findings of the study, it is recommended that the educational system should be guided by far reaching goals that address themselves to the present and future needs of the Lebanese society. The present age, characterized by automation, space race and rapid change, requires an educational system which is flexible and dynamic. Hence, for education to be functional it is called upon to prepare youth for change. This implies that the emphasis of the curriculum should be on problem solving methods more than sheer knowledge of the subject matter. To play a more effective role in the development of the country's resources, the educational system should aim at the achievement of good citizenship, civic responsibility, effective communication and economic deficiency.

Good citizenship evolves around the development of human character and personality. This implies the preparation of the country's youth to realize their capabilities and find their place in society. It is often stated that a country is as strong and advanced as its individual members are mature and enlightened. The curriculum should emphasize the elements

derived from the cultural heritage of the society, namely the history and geography of the country, the humanities and social sciences.

A manifestation of good citizenship is civic responsibility-- accepting one's duties and responsibilities toward his country and his fellow citizens. The educational system should emphasize civics and social sciences to provide the youth with a complete understanding of the governmental system, the reason for taxation and a knowledge of the rules and regulations that govern each citizen.

Effective communication: given the heterogeneous nature of the Lebanese society, which is composed of many social and religious groups, the educational system should aim at the development of social understanding, religious tolerance and peaceful coexistence and cooperation. This involves the development of one's abilities to share ideas with other people outside of his immediate group. Literature, social studies, music and art become essential for the realization of this aim.

Economic efficiency: the new social and cultural developments of the country require a knowledge of the production and consumption of goods and a knowledge of the occupations in terms of source of income. Some young Lebanese, now attending schools, will become technicians, others will become workers in the social sciences, the arts and the new fields created by technology; while others will follow long established vocations in business, industry and other services. For education to meet all these needs it should provide varied fields of specialization, particularly those that lend themselves to social realities and appropriate social demands that meet the individual needs and develop democratic values.

The Administration of Education

The administrative machinery should be structured on both staff and line hierarchical order. In terms of policy making, the Ministry should work in close cooperation with other Ministries and agencies that have direct relation to education. All educational plans on the Ministerial level should be well coordinated with other national plans. Educational decisions should be based on expert knowledge and extensive research. These decisions should be worked out by special committees far from the influence of political decisions. Once approved and ready for implementation, educational decisions should go through the line of authority to the working level. Throughout the process of implementation and follow-up of an educational plan, there should exist a functional and cooperative relationship between authorities on the policy level and those on the work level.

The administrative machinery for educational planning should be basically centered around the following offices:

Central Ministry of Education

- . Technical advisory branch on supervision and research
- . Bureau of Educational Research and Statistics
- . A higher council on education consisting of representatives from different educational institutes in the country.
- . Bureau of Educational Planning consisting primarily of standing committees for that purpose and other committees representing national economic planning, civic welfare committees, representatives of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry and other agencies that have direct relationship to development programs in the country.

Regional Administrative Centers

By virtue of their distribution in different regions of the country, these centers should be administered on a decentralized basis. Their primary function is to act as intermediary units between the Central Administration and local communities.

Inspection and Supervision

- . inspectional staff to be thoroughly trained and imbued in both general and professional education,
- . special training institutes to be organized in all regions. These institutes should serve a dual purpose: act as training centers in producing new Cadre, and function as in-service training centers through which incumbent inspectors, principals, administrators and teaching staff are trained in line with modern educational thought and practice.

The Organization of Education

There should be a unified national educational system organized along the following lines:

Pre-primary education

- . of one year duration. Students to be admitted to this level at the age of five on a voluntary basis.

Primary Education

- . of a five year period, extending from grade one to grade five. Children to be admitted to grade one at six years of age and should complete this level at the age of ten.

Promotion from one grade to the next higher in this level should be automatic. Emphasis at this level should be on the overall growth of the child including his physical, emotional, mental and social growth and development.

At the completion of grade five, students should be promoted to the next higher level in the system after they pass a school examination. State examinations on the primary level should be eliminated.

Intermediate Education

- . of a four year duration following primary education. The grades at this level to be numbered six through nine. Students to be admitted to grade six at eleven years of age and are expected to complete grade nine at age fourteen. The primary purposes of this level is to orient and guide the students in choosing the proper career that suits their interests and capacities and meet with the social economic needs of the country. Primary emphasis should be placed on counseling and guidance.

At the completion of grade nine, students are expected to pass both a state examination and school examination. In light of the results of these examinations, students would be channelled in the different educational streams at the secondary level.

Secondary Education

- . of a three year duration, covering grades ten, eleven and twelve. This level to be divided into four main streams: academic, general, vocational-technical and teacher education.

Academic Education

- . of a three year duration ending with the secondary school diploma (and be called as such instead of Baccalauréat), should be college preparatory in its nature. The curriculum should consist of basic courses that prepare students to follow professional and technical education on the higher education level.

At the completion of grade twelve, students are required to sit for both state and school examinations. The results of these examinations will determine the students' future career

General Education

- . of a three year duration ending with the secondary school diploma. The purpose of this level is to train students who are not planning to enter college and who have not decided on a career of their choice with saleable skills and experiences, during their intermediate schooling. The curriculum at this level should be general in its nature.

At the completion of this level, it is expected that graduate students will be able to fill

occupations requiring general education. It is assumed here that on-the-job training of these graduates becomes relatively easy.

Vocational-Technical Education

- . of a three year duration ending with the secondary school diploma in vocational-technical education. At this level students are trained in the different vocations required by the economy. These vocations cover the whole gamut of skills ranging from primary agriculture education to highly technical education, surveying, or radio-television mechanism. The courses in this stream should be, by nature, flexible and diversified. Students wishing to change from one stream to another, at this level, during their first two years, should be allowed to do so provided they can do better in the stream of their choice.

At the completion of grade twelve students should sit for both state and school examinations. Successful candidates should be qualified to enter colleges if they wish to do so, others should be absorbed by the economy soon after their graduation.

Teacher Education

- . of a three year duration ending with the secondary school diploma or teaching certificate. The purpose of this stream is to prepare and train

students to become teachers in the primary schools. However, successful candidates may be allowed to continue in higher teachers' institutes and become secondary school teachers.

Higher Education

- . of a minimum of four years duration ending with a Bachelor's Degree. Higher education is meant to train professional leaders required by the various institutions in the country. In terms of human resource development, the programs of study at higher institutes of learning should be highly diversified and sophisticated to meet high level manpower requirements.

Continuing Education

- . of a period ranging from three to six years, depending on the conditions of the situation, and ending with an aptitude certificate in a given vocation. The purpose of this level is to provide those who did not have the chance to pursue formal education with the required skills that suit their interests and capacities. This type of education is both general and basic. It need not follow the organizational ladder of the educational system according to a given order, however, it should have a prominent place in the system.

These are in brief the main provisions that should be considered in the reconstruction of education in Lebanon.

In conclusion it should be mentioned that for the educational system to be most effective and functional, it must preserve the best in the cultural heritage of the people by responding to their social-economic needs and enriching their value system. To meet these needs and achieve the prescribed goals, there should be some priorities established in education. So far we have seen that greater emphasis has been placed on primary education. The justification of this policy was quite convincing. By the same token, and in light of existing pressing needs, what priorities should be set next? Once the educational system moves in that direction, then it could be said that education is becoming more effective in fulfilling its function.

Appendix A

(A QUESTIONNAIRE ON EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN LEBANON)*

استمارة عن التخطيط التربوي في لبنان

- ١ - ما هي ، في رأيكم ، غاية التخطيط التربوي ؟
- ٢ - من الذي يخطط للتربية في لبنان ؟ وهل هناك لجنة او هيئة عليا لتنسيق مختلف اعمال التخطيط ؟
- ٣ - الى اي مدى يتمتع المخطط بصلاحيه التنفيذ ؟
- ٤ - في رأيكم ، الى اي درجة تمتقدون ان التخطيط التربوي يجب ان يرتبط بمخططات عامة في البلاد ؟
- ٥ - يقال ان التخطيط ذو شقين : الاول يتعلق بالموارد المادية او الطبيعية ، والآخر يتعلق بالموارد البشرية ، في رأيكم اي الشقين يجب ان يعطى الاوليه في لبنان ، ولماذا ؟
- ٦ - حسب خبرتكم السابقة ، ما هي العوامل التي تعتبرونها لازمة لانجاح التخطيط التربوي في لبنان ، وبالتالي ما هي العقبات التي تعترض عملية التنفيذ ؟
- ٧ - الى اي حد تعتقدون ان لبنان ما يزال بحاجة الى خدمات الخبراء الاجانب في حقل التخطيط ؟
- ٨ - كثيرا ما نسمع ان لبنان هو بلد " النشاطات والجهود الخاصة " ، اي انه يتبع سياسة تسرف بال Laissez Faire في مختلف القطاعات ، فهل تعتقدون انه يمكن انجاح المخططات التربوية في لبنان دون المساس بهذا المبدأ ؟
- ٩ - ان الدستور اللبناني (المادة العاشرة) يسمح بحريات التعليم مع بعض الشروط ، فهل يتعارض هذا المبدأ في رأيكم مع جهود الدولة في تنفيذ المخططات التربوية ؟
- ١٠ - ما هي آمالكم وأمانيكم في مستقبل التخطيط في لبنان ؟

* Translation into English on next page.

TRANSLATION OF THE ARABIC QUESTIONNAIRE
ON
EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN LEBANON

1. Generally speaking, what is the aim of educational planning in your opinion?
2. Who plans for education in Lebanon? Is there a special committee or higher authority that coordinates among the different plans in the country?
3. To what extent does the educational planner have the authority in executing his plans?
4. In your opinion, to what extent do you think educational planning should be related to and/or integrated with overall developmental programs in the country?
5. It is presumed that planning consists of two major aspects: one deals with material or natural resources and the other deals with human resources. Which aspect-would you think-should be given priority in Lebanon and why?
6. In the light of your previous experiences, what are the basic factors that would be considered indispensable (or necessary) for the success of educational planning in Lebanon? In turn, what are the major obstacles that impede the process of planning and execution of educational plans?
7. To what extent do you think that Lebanon is still in need of the assistance of foreign experts? Can we say that there is at present - or will be in the near future - a national planning committee competent to set forth educational plans, so there will be no need for outside experts?
8. Quite often we hear that Lebanon is the country of "private enterprise," i. e. it follows a "Laissez Faire" policy in all aspects of life. Do you think educational planning - or any kind of planning - can succeed without the suppression of the above principles?
9. According to Article 10 of the Lebanese Constitution, education is free provided the various schools in the country abide by the general rules and regulations and refrain from infringement on the freedom of other communities. Do you think such stipulation contradicts or thwarts the efforts of the state in setting and executing overall educational plans in the country?
10. What are your hopes and aspirations with respect to the future of planning in Lebanon?

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