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CLASSIFICATION PROBLEMS OF AN
INTERNATIONAL AGENCY WITH
PARTICULAR REFERENCE
TO
AREA PERSONNEL
(UNRWA - A Case Study)

By

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Acknowledgement	iv
List of Tables	viii
List of Charts	ix
Chapter	
I	INTRODUCTION
	A. Importance of Personnel Administration 1
	B. Importance of Position Classification 1
	C. Nature of the Classification Problem of UNRWA 2
	D. Plan of Approach of the Study 6
II	PROBLEMS OF CLASSIFICATION IN GENERAL
	A. Definitions 11
	B. Brief Account of the Historical Movement 14
	C. Approaches to Classification 19
	D. Incumbent and Position: Do they Mix? 24
	E. Uses and Significance of Classification 29
	F. Methods for Job Evaluation 32
	G. The Problem in Perspective 43
III	UNRWA - AN INTERNATIONAL AGENCY
	A. Background
	1. The United Nations Palestine Partition Resolution - 1947 53

	Page
2. The Relief Problem of the Refugees	54
3. Creation of UNRWA on December 8, 1949	56
B. Organizational Setup	58
IV STAFFING AN INTERNATIONAL AGENCY	
A. Basic Criteria for Selection of Staff	76
B. International Versus Local Recruits	76
C. Concept of Area Staff	79
D. Classification Plan	80
1. System up to 1960	80
2. The Need for Review	82
3. Public Administration Department Entrusted to Make the Survey	83
V PROBLEMS OF COLLECTING DATA	
A. Sampling	87
B. Questionnaire Method	88
C. Interview Method	91
D. Observation Method	93
VI TECHNICAL PROBLEMS	
A. Structure of Classes	96
1. Occupational Groups	96
2. Classes within Occupational Groups	97
3. Equating Occupational Categories	103
B. Class Specifications	109

	Page
1. Titles and Definitions	110
2. Typical Tasks	112
3. Minimum Qualifications	114
4. Work and Relief: Are they Compatible?	115
C. Installation of the Classification Plan	117
D. Continuous Administration of the Plan	120
VII PROBLEMS OF COMPENSATION	
A. Comparable Jobs in Outside Employment	126
B. The Compensation Plan as Related to the Financial Position of the Agency	131
C. Limited Opportunities for Refugees for Outside Work	133
D. Theory and Practice of the Local Salary Concept	134
VIII CONCLUSION	138
Bibliography	145

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Job Ranking - Ten Key Jobs	48
2	Job Factor Ranking - Factor: Skill	49
3	Final Average Job Ranking by Factor	50
4	Factor Comparison	51
5	Factors, Point-allocation, and Weights	52
6	Comparative Salary Analysis - Lebanon	136
7	Comparative Salary Analysis Survey Team findings and recommendation and UNRWA implementation - Lebanon	137

LIST OF CHARTS

Chart		Page
1	Organization of UNRWA - HQ - 1950	68
2	Organization of Typical District - 1950	69
3	Organization of Typical Area Office 1950	70
4	Organization of Typical Camp - 1950	71
5	Organization of UNRWA - HQ - 1962	72
6	Organization of Lebanon Field Office - 1962	73
7	Organization of Jordan Field Office 1962	74
8	Organization of Gaza Field Office 1962	75

Chapter I

Introduction

A. Importance of Personnel Administration

The two most important phases of management are good organization and good people. An organization cannot be completely successful without both. A good deal of useless debate has been expended in an attempt to determine whether organization or people is the most important factor. Actually, it is a combination of the two which governs the effectiveness of an enterprise.

Morale is important for the efficiency in an organization. Basic to the attainment and maintenance of the quality of high morale among the staff, is equitable treatment by their management. Discrimination and inequities are effective reducing agents of morale. Therefore, personnel policies should be designed to allow equitable treatment among the staff.

B. Importance of Position Classification

Sound classification plans are an indispensable tool of management. They assist in recruiting, examining, training, and compensating personnel, and in planning and organizing.

Sound personnel administration is a target of good

management and in order to make it possible for management to administer personnel policies and the principle of 'equal pay for equal work', there should be some guides to make the application and adoption of uniform policies possible. Such guides are best provided by a sound classification plan tailored to meet the needs of the particular organization.

C. Nature of the Classification Problems of UNRWA

A good classification plan usually embraces all jobs available in the organization. Jobs will be defined and evaluated in light of the actual requirements of the organization. A classification system intends to make the application of the merit principle possible.¹ The job is created and defined and the requirements in terms of qualifications are established.² Only persons who meet the minimum requirements of the job will be selected and assigned to particular jobs. Each job will be assigned a place in the classification plan in accordance with its contents regardless of the incumbent. One uniform method and a single policy usually is used in preparing a good classification plan.³

In considering a classification plan for UNRWA, it

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1. O. Glenn Stahl, Public Personnel Administration (4th ed.; New York: Harper & Bros., 1956), p. 207.
 2. Ibid., p. 175.
 3. W.F. Willoughby, Principles of Public Administration (Baltimore; The John Hopkins Press, 1927), p. 246.

may not prove to be possible to draw a uniform plan that will fit the needs of the Agency in light of its nature and the special mission for which it had been created. Special problems that will meet classifiers should be carefully understood, analysed and compromised.

UNRWA as an International Agency operating in this part of the world, aspires to be regarded as a good employer on the local scene. In order to be able to apply good conditions of service, it ought to have good personnel policies and practices. There is an increasing recognition among theorists and practitioners that sound classification plans are useful aids in personnel administration. Theorists and practitioners, however, do not agree on the details of classification. Some advocate Ranking classification where persons are classified with respect to their personal qualifications and abilities; others advocate Position classification where the work of an organization is sliced and grouped according to contents of positions. Much useless debate has been expended on advantages and disadvantages of either of the two approaches.

In an International Agency we are bound to find

different opinions and attitudes. The classification approach as such, and to a varying degree, will be affected by the philosophy of classification that is dominant among the management. We may not expect a Ranking system if the influential management group do not agree with and believe in the idea backing it. It may be equally true that we do not expect to find a Position classification system where the management themselves are not believers in its theory.

In UNRWA, apparently the American philosophy of administration is prominent. Therefore, classification is position-oriented for the most part. This does not mean, however, that the Agency is totally ignoring the place of the Ranking system. In point of fact, it does recognize and appreciate its benefits in classifying some categories of employment. The teaching group constitute about 30% of the staff, and are classified according to the Ranking system.

Position classification may fit in nicely with

the needs of the Agency. Its usefulness, however, depends to a large extent upon the development of a good plan and its administration in terms of the requirements of the Agency.

Two years ago, the Agency decided to reconsider its classification plan to bring it up-to-date. The Survey revision was entrusted to the Department of Public Administration, American University of Beirut. The writer as a member of the team selected by the department to conduct the Survey who lived through all the stages of the project; feels that it is worthwhile to consider some of the problems encountered at various stages of the Survey. Such consideration may prove valuable since it will be the result of actual experience. The problems that will be discussed in this paper are of three kinds: prefatory problems, technical problems and related side problems. The nature of these problems and their definition are explained in the following plan of approach.

D. Plan of Approach of the Study

For convenience, the subject has been divided into eight chapters. In the First Chapter, a general statement on the importance of personnel administration, and a particular emphasis on the importance of classification in personnel policies is made.

The reader is introduced to the problems of classification in general, in Chapter Two. Technical terms that will be used in this study will be defined. The two distinct approaches to classification, the personal rank and the position concepts will be treated. The historical movement will also be traced briefly in order to orient the reader with the background of classification. The techniques for job evaluation will also be examined and a judgement passed on the efficacy of each technique.

The Third Chapter will give the reader some background on the Agency. In a brief form, its background will be traced from 1947, when the United Nations passed the Partition Resolution, up to the time of the Agency's creation in 1949.

In Chapter Four we shall discuss the staffing policy of the Agency. This policy will be compared to the UN criteria for selection of staff. In general and a brief manner, the classification system which served the Agency up-to 1960 will be discussed. The need for revision of the plan will be touched upon as a preliminary step before dwelling on the problems of classification in the following chapters.

Prefatory problems:- classification is a continuous process which begins at the time an organization decides to prepare a classification

plan and extends through maintenance of the plan. After a decision has been reached to embark on the development of a classification plan, the following questions will be raised: who will develop the plan? A team from within the organization or an outside team? Which positions are to be covered? What is the number of such positions? What types of samples are to be used in case of partial coverage of positions? What methods and techniques are to be used in collecting adequate information for classification purposes? The success of the plan will vary with the accuracy and validity of the answers provided for such questions. We shall examine in Chapter Five the answers provided for such questions by the Survey team.

Technical problems:- These strike the very heart of classification. Delicate questions

will arise and unless critically analysed, understood and then answered in terms of the purpose of the classification plan, may defeat the basic purpose. How many occupational groups can be distinguished in the organization? What are the criteria for the distinction? Should the classification plan contain many or few occupational groups? What is the optimum number of classes to be established within each occupational groups? Many? Few? What should determine the number of classes? How to prepare useful class specifications? General specifications? Too detailed, or what? Should classifiers be appreciably influenced by the incumbents qualifications? Or should minimum qualifications be established irrespective of other considerations? Who will administer the plan? What remedies are available for affected personnel? How can classification plans be kept current? Such technical questions will be examined in Chapter Six.

Related side problems:- One of the most significant uses of classification is to provide the raw material

for good compensation plans. The Survey was concerned with both classification and compensation plans; and since both are in a way complementary, it is useful to consider special problems that encountered the team in preparing useful compensation plans for the Agency. Facts that affected the plans were such things as: comparable jobs in outside employments, financial position of the Agency, the social and economic problems of the refugees and the theory and practice of the local salary concept. These problems will be discussed in Chapter Seven.

In the last chapter we try to weave together the threads of the argument. Much literature has been coming out of the press on the field of classification. The different ideas and opinions which creep throughout the literature are basically the same. Their aim is similar, rather, the tools are different.

Classification, whether position oriented or person oriented, is an attempt in organizing human effort in a society which is striving for the Good Life. The tools of classification are human inventions for maximization of human resources. They are not yet exact; they are still in the trial and error stage. Advocates of the Ranking system have not yet convinced us that their tools will give us the remedy. This is equally true of advocates of the Position approach. Between the two extremes there seems to be a hidden answer for which a lot of research and investigation have to be made.

Chapter II

PROBLEMS OF CLASSIFICATION IN GENERALA. Definitions:

Throughout the discussion in the following pages, reference will be made to some technical concepts that need to be clearly defined at this stage so that the reader understands them in their appropriate context.

The concept 'Classification' connotes two things. It first refers to the distinction between classified and unclassified employees in the service.⁵ The Civil Service Act of 1883 in the United States of America embodied this distinction.⁶ The second meaning is a modern one. It refers to grouping of positions on the basis of duties and qualifications requirements.⁷ In a given organization, classification may mean one of the two or both together. UNRWA is an example where it is used to connote the two things. It first means the division of employees into two broad categories,⁸ classified and unclassified. Under the unclassified category

5. Stahl, Op.cit., p. 183.

6. Ibid.

7. Ibid.

8. This applies only to local employees.

are included learners, apprentices, office boys and juniors (normally under 18 years of age), and unskilled and skilled categories.⁹ The rest of the staff are included under the classified category. Employees of both categories receive monthly salaries, but there is a difference in the eligibility for fringe benefits such as sick and annual leaves, increments and participation in the provident fund. Classification most often means the grouping of positions according to their duties and qualification requirements.¹⁰ Whenever reference is made to this concept in the following pages, it is intended to mean organizing positions into groups on the basis of duties and responsibilities and qualification requirements.

The 'position' concept implies an aggregate of duties and responsibilities that require the services of a single person.¹¹ In a given organization we may have a large or a small number of positions depending on the nature of the organization. In UNRWA we have about (470) classes (local

9. UNRWA, Staff Regulations: Applicable to Area Staff (Beirut, 1957), P. 2.

10. The Classification Survey of UNRWA conducted in 1959 by the Political Studies and Public Administration Department, American University of Beirut, aimed to establish this type of classification.

11. Norman J. Powell, Personnel Administration in Government, (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956), P. 322.

and International), each characterized by a certain content. The contents of a typist for example are "To type letters, memoranda and similar matter according to written, dictated or other information; to make typewritten copies of existing records; and to perform some routine clerical duties". The contents of the passenger-driver for example, may be "to drive a vehicle for the transport of passengers either boarding or leaving the car". A position may be vacant or occupied. The composite of duties continue to exist though there is no person to perform them.

All positions that are sufficiently alike or similar to warrant the same treatment are placed in one class.¹² In an organization we may have as many classes as there are groups of positions which are essentially similar. In UNRWA a 'class' refers to those positions that are essentially similar regardless of their location. We have for example a class of Stenographer, a class of Staff Nurse, a class of Personnel Officer, Medical Officer, etc. A class may contain one position, two positions, or more. In the class of Director there is only one position in the Agency, while there are something like 50 positions in the class of Secretary.

12. Ibid.

Different occupations may be identified in a given organization. All those positions that are identified under any one occupation, may be referred to as the 'occupational' group.¹³ Chemists for example constitute an occupational group. We may have a Chief Chemist, a Senior Chemist, a Chemist and an Assistant Chemist. These various levels within the occupational group are referred to as the 'occupational series'. The number in the series differs from one occupational group to another.

The different levels of difficulty may be designated by a grade given to the class. The number of grades varies according to the needs of the organization. UNRWA had a plan of 19 grades¹⁴ reflecting the levels of difficulty prior to 1961 when a new classification plan was implemented. A grade may cover more than one class. A Typist, a Driver, a Clerk, a Camp Leader and a Practical Nurse may be given the same grade, if they reflect the same level of difficulty.

B. Brief Account of The Historical Movement¹⁵

It was the Federal Government of the United States

13. Ibid.

14. At the Present time the Agency has 17 grades.

15. For extensive accounts of the early aspects of the Classification movement, see Civil Service Assembly, Position Classification in the Public Service, A Report to the Assembly by the Committee on Position Classification in the Public Service, Ismar Barauch, Chairman (Chicago: 1941) pp. 7-31.

of America which first faced the problem and felt the need for a classification of positions over a hundred years ago.¹⁶ In 1838 some clerical employees felt that their salaries did not preserve the principle of 'equal pay for equal work'. Those clerks insisted on equal treatment. Convinced of the logic of their request, the Senate passed a resolution instructing heads of departments to classify clerks according to the nature of their duties.¹⁷ Ever since, the problem continued to pose itself with varying degrees of acuteness. Practical application of position classification, however, did not take place until 1908. It was the Civil Service Commission of the City of Chicago who first tried to make practical application.

"The program for classifying positions on the new basis of duties and responsibilities was begun by the Civil Service Commission in 1908 and later carried out through its Efficiency Division aided by the Mayor's Municipal Efficiency Commission."¹⁸

The commission after experimenting with the idea decided to classify similar positions together to allow the same treatment. "This appears to be the definitive origin of

16. Stahl, op.cit., p. 185

17. Ibid., p. 186.

18. Civil Service Assembly, op.cit., p. 7.

what is known as a 'Class of Positions' ".¹⁹ In 1912 the council of the city of Chicago adopted the principles of classification developed by the Civil Service Commission.²⁰ In 1913, position classification plans for other cities²¹ were made by the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City.²² Other early studies were initiated in 1914-15.²³ Several jurisdictions²⁴ officially adopted position classification plans between 1915-20. Upon the recommendation of the congressional joint commission on reclassification of salaries in 1920, the congress passed in 1923 a Classification Act.²⁵ By virtue of the Act, a Central Personnel Classification Board was created. The Board reaffirmed two principles: the grouping of positions into classes according to their contents, and equal pay for equal work.²⁶ The Board, however, was abolished in October, 1932, and the Civil Service Commission took over

19. Ibid.

20. Stahl, op.cit., p. 186.

21. Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Portland, Oregon.

22. Civil Service Assembly, op.cit., p. 8

23. Ibid.,

24. Baltimore, Cleveland, Los Angeles, St. Louis, St. Paul, Seattle, New Jersey, Ohio.

25. Stahl, op.cit., p. 188.

26. Civil Service Assembly, op.cit., p.19

its authority.²⁷ Finally the 1949 Act completely replaced the 1923 Act. For the first time, the act made a clear distinction between establishing standards for ranking jobs and the actual ranking of jobs. The first task was entrusted to the Civil Service Commission, the second to the departments and agencies subject to the post audit of the commission.²⁸ A 1954 amendment abolished the former occupational service and instead it created a General Schedule consisting of 18 grades.

In England,²⁹ classification developed along different lines from those of the United States. The British philosophy of recruitment is different. They recruit young persons on the basis of competitive examinations based on broad classification tests. This system of recruitment and philosophy of personnel consequently required only a few broad classes. So we may say that position classification in the U.S. sense is not found in Britain. So far reference has been made to those significant factors from which the movement derived its acceleration. These factors are numerous. But for convenience the most significant of these will be touched upon.

27. Ibid

28. Stahl, op.cit., p. 188

29. For extensive treatment refer to Civil Service Assembly, op.cit., pp. 20-27.

Adoption of the merit principle seems to be the most significant factor that contributed to the movement. The right person for the right job, was its cry. It stressed competence. But merit appointments are not possible unless the recruiting department or agency knows exactly what is to be done and what type of person they need. Knowledge of the accurate nature of the position would facilitate the selection process.

"Logically, the merit system itself demanded some form of occupational classification."³⁰

The merit system was linked with another factor. At the end of the first decade of this century, efficiency was a general demand in government. Aims of position classification fitted nicely with the needs of efficiency. It aided in the administration and solution of personnel matters. It also facilitated organizational procedures.³¹

The principle of centralized financial control too helped in pushing the movement forward. Uniform job terminology provided uniform accounting. And uniform accounting is essential for centralized financial control.³²

30. Stahl, op.cit., p. 186.

31. Ibid.

32. Ibid.

Time and motion study had its share in giving impetus to the movement. The study went hand in hand with job analysis.³³ The aim of time and motion study was to devise efficient operational systems. This held to the consideration of specific tasks and steps in an individual's job. And so job analysis led to job evaluation. This was a logical result of the need for differentiating among various positions and giving equal treatment.

It can be said that today the principle of equal pay for equal work is among the most significant factors in the adoption of position classification in a given organisation.

C. Approaches To Classification

In a governmental, commercial, industrial, military or a non-profit private organization, there are individuals who co-operate in performing the purpose of the organization. A classification plan would help management put system and order into managing these individuals. Different organizations have different systems of organizing people. It is generally recognised that there are two different approaches, i.e. the "personal rank" and the "position classification"

33. Ibid., p. 187.

approaches.³⁴

The 'Personal Rank' approach is the old one. This system of classification is characteristic of military organizations. The Military system of classification does not provide standard titles based on duties and responsibilities involved in the position, but standard titles according to the attributes of the person.

"It should be pointed out, of course, that the military rank system can likewise produce standardised titles, but not necessarily on the basis of duties."³⁵

The essence of the idea in the 'personal rank' approach is that the individual and not what he performs is the focus of attention. In this system, status (pay, rank, privilege, etc.) adheres to the individual. The individual carries his rank wherever he goes. The person is being evaluated in connection with other persons in the organization. A Colonel who may be no longer physically able to lead troops into combat may be re-assigned to a post which does not require the same skill or ability. He is not, however, reduced to a lower rank, but he retains his rank as a Colonel and all the pay, rights and privileges of a Colonel. Movement

34. Ibid., p. 181.

35. Stahl, op.cit., p. 185.

of personnel is flexible under this system. A person is first recruited, then he is given an assignment. Ideally speaking the assignment should be commensurate with his capacities. This seems to be a highly logical arrangement. Indeed, no one can ignore the advantages of giving the individual work that utilizes his resources. But what if a given organization recruits a certain individual with particular qualifications for which there is no suitable work in that organization. Let us hypothesize that organization "X" recruited "Y" who is a Ph.D. holder. There is no suitable work for "Y" in the organization. "X" may retain "Y" and pay him a salary similar to that paid to other employees who have similar qualifications. In this case "Y" may be required to perform work which is not up to the level of his qualification. This means that the organization "X" is paying to "Y" more than his contribution to the objectives of the organization. On the other hand, this is loss of human resources due to misallocation. But if "X" were able to provide "Y" with work that utilizes his potential, the system then would fit in nicely. But logic says that organizations cannot always provide or tailor assignments to suit the particulars of any person. Under a complete monopoly when the state becomes the only employer and when it becomes in the ideal situation, possible to tailor and provide employ-

ment for all citizens, the "personal rank" system would be highly feasible.

The "position" approach is rather a modern one. It focuses attention on what is to be done rather than what can be done. The incumbent is given a status according to the relative worth of the position in the given organization. Under this system of classification, theoretically speaking, the Colonel in our previous example does not retain his status, instead he is assigned a new one that reflects the level of the new post. The idea of movement of personnel is contained in the system, but it seems to be rigid. It is not as flexible as it is in the "personal" approach. Here the position is first identified, and then a person is recruited for it. Hence, work is planned before. The idea of what kind of work it is going to be existed before recruiting a particular person. Once the organization changes, i.e. expands or shrinks, the particulars of some positions, at least, change and consequently the classification system has to be modified.

A given organization is built around a purpose. In order to bring about the purpose of the organization, division and sub-division of the work will have to be done. These different means entail different tasks which altogether

make the purpose. A position then can be viewed as a segment of an organization.³⁶ This is a logical corollary of narrow specialization of labour and sub-division of responsibility. These small segments of the larger whole have to be co-ordinated in order to give a meaningful whole. Position classification as such provides an effective tool of co-ordination.

Some basic assumptions seem to underlie the concept. The first one is the possibility of disentangling the individual from the position.³⁷ The value of this assumption is in its utility in focusing attention on what is relatively objective and highly significant - the facts of the position. In the next section, validity and truth of this assumption will be examined. The second assumption is that it is always possible for a given organization to find candidates that suit the needs of the particulars of positions as defined by the organization itself.³⁸ This is not always possible when there is full employment. The third assumption is that the values of uniformity and objectivity, are overwhelming.³⁹ Both values are desired, but how much is a matter of degree.

36. Stahl, op.cit., p. 175

37. Powell, op.cit., p. 342

38. Ibid., p. 343.

39. Ibid., p. 344.

Different organizations attach different degrees of importance to the same value. The fourth assumption is that we have adequate methods and techniques for objective job evaluation. The efficacy of the developed methods is not yet absolute. Their reliability is rather a matter of degree. At best, an arbitrary judgement cannot be avoided. The writer takes the view that so far job ranking that warrants mathematical precision is an ideal that has not been applied in practice.

D. Incumbent & Position: Do They Mix?

"Among the technical requirements of a satisfactory personnel system, none exceeds in importance that of effecting a systematic classification and standardization of all positions covered by the system. Such a classification and standardization of public employment constitutes, indeed, the starting point or the basis upon which the whole personnel structure must rest."⁴⁰

"The practice of evaluating the job primarily, and the man only secondarily, has given rise to many complaints by the agencies regarding their inability to attract and retain outstanding men in executive and specialized positions."⁴¹

The above two quotations suggest to us a paradox.

40. Willoughby, op.cit., p. 246.

41. Hoover Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of Government, Task Force Report, Federal Personnel; A Report to the Congress, (Washington: 1949), p. 48.

In the first quotation the person occupying the position is neglected. We can imagine that in a given organization there are various desks. For each desk there is a particular assignment. He who sits behind a desk is automatically placed accordingly, i.e. he is given a status by virtue of occupying that desk. This is reasonable provided that he who sits behind a certain desk is able to perform exactly what is required. If he is able to perform more, this would be misallocation of human resources. Inefficiency and waste of resources are the result. Although this may not concern the particular organization, since it is only interested in its own objective, in the final analysis this concerns the society at large. On the other hand if he who sits behind a desk is not able to perform what is assigned to that particular desk, this means inefficiency. The assignment probably would shrink to a certain quality and quantity around the incumbent. The organization after all is concerned with efficiency. A classification system that neglects the individual does not serve the purpose of the organization in some cases. The writer takes the view that we can establish a position classification plan, a rigid one, that does not allow room for the attributes of the person. But such a system defeats the purpose for which it has been established. A feasible classification system cannot and should not separate between the

position and the person. Particular duties may reflect not an unusual fact that an organization has been unable to recruit an incumbent who is able to perform the duties of the job. The contents of a position, especially in the upper echelons are what they are because the incumbent is who he is and because he has the qualifications and abilities he has.

"Where the nature of an individual's work is such that his qualifications can leave an imprint on it, the job can be created or changed around the individual."⁴²

The problem becomes so serious in positions which are of a creative or a scientific nature, i.e. in situations where the man makes the job.⁴³ If a research institute employs a chemist to conduct research, the possibility of arriving at new discoveries and formulae are directly dependant upon the personal attributes of the chemist. Two chemists may have had the same training and experience, but their mode of thinking and their ability to pursue research with an analytical mind may be different. I do not believe that a classification system based on grouping of similar positions intends to neglect the individual. Most organizations provide in their salary scales step increases in recog-

42. Stahl, op.cit., p. 177

43. Task Force Report, op.cit., p. 48

niton of satisfactory performance. Even those organizations which adopt salary scales without step increases, usually award bonuses in recognition of the quality of performance of the individual. After all, job specifications, which provide the raw material of the classification plan, mention in detail the qualification requirements of the job. This is as if evaluating the person and the job together. Position classification supplemented by proper recruitment in a given organization, considers both the incumbent and the position. Harold H. Leich argues that in the U.S. Federal government a classification system whether based on ranking the man or the position does not in fact ignore either of the two aspects. Instead, the man and the position in the various plans are both considered. Leich however, does not propose that all classification plans adopted by all organizations have the same mixture of the two aspects, i.e. the position and the man.⁴⁴ Instead, he believes that in classification systems the two aspects are present, but they vary from one organization to another.⁴⁵ Some classification plans tend to stress and focus attention on the man, others stress the position. This will depend upon the particular classification

44. Harold H. Leich "Rank in Man or Job? Both!" Public Administration Review, (XX, Spring 1960), pp. 92-99.

45. Ibid.

philosophy of the adopting organization in terms of its needs and requirements.

A good personnel administration system provides a happy marriage between the man and the position he is occupying. If position classification is supplemented by a good program of selection and recruitment, each position will be occupied by an incumbent whose qualifications and abilities, and personal attributes match with the requirements of the position.⁴⁶ In this case, the rank of the man coincides with the rank of the position he is occupying.

"Under good personnel management in either system, the rank of the man matches the rank of his job."⁴⁷

If UNRWA has a messenger position for which it needs to recruit a person, it will be guided by the specification of the job. The specification may be something like: "To distribute mail to various offices at specific hours of the day; to deliver agency's mail to the post office; to run into office errands; to make simple records and obtain receipts for delivery; to perform other related tasks." The qualification requirements of the position may be "primary education, working knowledge of Arabic and English, and one year exper-

46. Ibid.

47. Ibid., p. 92.

ience in related work." If UNRWA redruits a person with similar qualifications and appoints him to the position, it is as if the Agency gave the rank to the person. Of course, implied here is that qualification requirements of the position were carefully designated. It seems in order to say that position classification supplemented with proper selection and appointment does not neglect the person.

The paradox of the two quotations is not a real one. In the final analysis the individual and the position - at least in a latent way - are being evaluated.

E. Uses & Significance of Classification

"In general terms, the objective of a duties classification is to lay the foundations for equitable treatment of public employees by the accurate definition, orderly arrangement, and fair evaluation of positions in the public service, in the interest of the government as well as its employees."⁴⁸

The report by the Special Committee on Public Administration problems mentioned the orderly classification of positions as a criterion for good personnel administration.⁴⁹ Besides facilitating personnel administration, classification is an effective management tool. Some of its uses are the following:

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48. Lennard D. White, Introduction to the Study of Public Administration (4th ed.; New York: MacMillan, 1955), p. 353.
49. United Nations, Standards of Public Administration: A Report by the Special Committee on Public Administration Problems (New York: 1951), p. 21.

1) Equal pay for equal work⁵⁰

Providing equitable treatment is a primary objective of any classification system. Equally treated employees are satisfied employees. Satisfaction means willingness to work and perform their share of the total load. It also means efficiency which is a basic principle of good administration.

2) Organization⁵¹

Position classification provides a comprehensive tool of co-ordination. It defines lines of authority and responsibility, and it facilitates planning. Good organization means good planning, and the systematic arrangement of work among the jobs and the individuals. Good organization means also an orderly arrangement of work assignments.

3) Selection⁵²

Appointing the right man to the right job is a cardinal principle of the merit system. But in order to do so, what is to be done should be known.

50. Political Studies and Public Administration Dept., American University of Beirut, Public Personnel Administration (Selected Readings, 1958), p. 85.

51. Ibid., p. 86.

52. Ibid.

Knowledge of the facts of the position will tell us what type of a person and what qualifications the person should have in order to perform the job. This provides a tool of selection and appointment.

4) Performance Rating⁵³

A valid performance rating depends on knowledge of what work is done and how well it is done. Raters need a criterion to know these factors. These are provided by position classification.

5) Training⁵⁴.

A sound training program is that one which has a clearly defined purpose. A given organization trains its individuals to be able to accomplish its objectives. The training needs would be discovered and met by the analysis of jobs that are clearly defined in a classification system.

6) Common Understanding⁵⁵

Accurate definitions of assignments as established by a classification system provide common understanding among

53. Ibid.,

54. Ibid.,

55. Ibid.,P.85.

employees of the organization; and provide a common understanding in the sub-ordinate-superior situations on what is to be done.

7) Morale⁵⁶

Pay differences that do not reflect real differences in work levels negatively affect the morale of employees. Position classification provides equal pay for equal work; thus it provides a positive potential for maintaining good morale among employees.

A good personnel program cannot be established and maintained without a classification system. It is hard to see how a sound personnel program can be developed and administered without the aid of a position classification plan.⁵⁷

F. Methods For Job Evaluation

As an alternative to the American Classification hypothesis, various methods for job evaluation emerged. Three of such methods are widely used: (1) The Ranking method (2) The Factor Comparison method and (3) The Point Rating method.⁵⁸

56. Ibid.

57. Stahl, op.cit., pp. 184-185

58. J.L. Otis and R.H. Leukart, Job Evaluation (2nd ed.; New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954), p. 65.

(1) The Ranking Method:

Raters using this method make comparison on the basis of whole jobs⁵⁹ in order to determine the relative worth of each job. In other words, the job is not broken into different factors in the process of evaluation.⁶⁰ The writer does not accept the idea. Therefore, analysis of the method seems in order. My first question is how a rater would determine the relative worth of each job? A simple answer would be: by comparing the whole jobs. My second question then is how a rater can compare whole jobs? Let us suppose that a rater is trying to evaluate the positions of a driver and a typist. He cannot say that a driver's job is equal to a typist's job because they are equal. This would be an absurd answer. It is only expected from the man of the street or at least from the non-expert in position classification. It is the idea of the writer that a classifier, before placing a driver's job as equal to a typist's job, at least in his mental process, has examined the contents of the job. It is possible that his mental process would operate in the following manner. A typist operates a typewriter in order to type letters, memoranda, statistical tables, perform some routine clerical work, etc. A driver drives a car or a passenger vehicle for the transportation of individuals; helps

59. J.A. Patton and C.L. Littlefield, Job Evaluation (Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1957), p. 86.

60. Ibid.,

individuals boarding or leaving the car. A typist needs to know how to type, needs to know English and needs to have some secondary education. On the other hand, a driver needs to know how to drive a car, he needs to have a driving license, he needs to be able to do some minor mechanical repair; knowledge of the English language is not essential, primary education is sufficient.

These mental processes have taken place before the rater made a decision to place the two jobs on the same level. In fact in this process, the rater had been considering factors. He has been unscrewing the various parts to have a neat look at them. It is correct that factors here have been considered in a general way. But in the mind of the rater, at least in his sub-conscious, a weight is given to each part of the job and then the resultant of these weights is compared for the two jobs. The Political Studies and Public Administration Department of the American University of Beirut used the ranking method in preparing a classification plan for UNRWA.

"The classifying committee used the ranking method of classification for its appropriateness to the situation,"⁶¹

In order to arrive at a reliable evaluation of the

61. Political Studies and Public Administration Department, American University of Beirut, Position Classification and Compensation Survey. (March, 1960), p. 4.

relative worth of each position, raters need to know the basic duties and qualifications requirements of each position. In the absence of these, raters depend on memory. But memory is not always helpful. It may fail them to recognize certain important aspects of a position that gravely affect its evaluation.

Raters first should select some key positions. It is preferable to select those key positions with going rates which are in alignment with those of similar jobs in the local market.⁶² The rater then determines their relative worth. It is a useful practice to rate jobs more than one time, twice or thrice would give better results. Also, it is recommended that the different ratings, i.e. the first, second, third, etc., be between intervals of time. The average of the two or three ratings would determine the relative worth of the job. The accuracy of rating will also depend on the number of raters and their expert knowledge. A committee of raters will give the benefit of pooled judgment. Once the key positions have been evaluated, the remaining jobs on the basis of descriptions are then compared with the key positions and ranked in their proper level. Table No. 1 shows how job ranking of ten positions by a committee of

62. Patton, op.cit., p. 86.

five members would proceed. More accurate results may be obtained if ranking is based first on a departmental basis, then combined with an over-all ranking. This same procedure was used in ranking positions in the UNRWA classification plan. The first ranking included all positions in the different fields of operations at different locations.

"In the process of analysis and ranking, due consideration was given to the comparative evaluation of positions internally and externally. The internal evaluation involved an analytical comparison of each position within an occupational group with every other position in that group.

The external evaluation, on the other hand, involved an analytical comparison of each position in an occupational group horizontally with the rest of the positions in all other occupational groups in the different fields."⁶³

It is apparent from the discussion that the efficacy of the method and consequently the accuracy of the results depend on the expert knowledge of classifiers. But expert knowledge alone is not sufficient. Raters ought to be familiar with the wide range of positions that exist in the given organization. Knowledge of the over-all purpose, methods and

63. Political Studies and Public Administration Department, Position Classification and Compensation Survey, P.4.

processes of operations would be of great advantage. Before the survey team which was formed in July, 1959 to conduct a classification survey for UNRWA started its work, three officers of the Agency gave an orientation lecture to the members of the team. Mr. Lucas who held various positions in the Agency in different fields was well informed about the operations of the Agency. The talks which he delivered to the team provided a comprehensive picture of the Agency as a whole. The field visits, no doubt, provided additional knowledge and insight into the operations of the Agency.

The chief advantages in using the ranking method are: it is simple to administer; it is easy to explain and be understood; it is flexible. There are, however, some limitations. On the process of comparing positions, allocation factors are not compared in a uniform way. This is because positions are not deliberately broken into systematic factors for the purpose of comparison. Second, it is difficult to find raters who are familiar with a wide range of positions. This limitation, however, can be minimized by having the raters study a cross section of a sample of positions. Third, raters may be biased easily by the title. This can be controlled by a careful examination of the contents of the position. Those who attack the method include

a fourth disadvantage. They claim that it depends on personal judgement and accordingly it lacks substantiating data to defend rating.⁶⁴ But all of the methods so far developed for job evaluation depend on personal opinion. Not a single method of these avoids personal opinion in one form or the other and in varying degrees.

"The experimental studies that have measured the effectiveness of the two techniques conclude that non-quantitative classification and job-ranking achieve substantially the same results as the quantitative factor and point systems, with about the same cost."⁶⁵

(2) The Factor Comparison Method

It was Eugent T. Benge who originated the method in 1926. From the date of its inception, refinement and popularization of the method have been made by its exponents.⁶⁶

Second to the point method, it is widely accepted. The yardstick in the method may be constructed by rating key jobs under each of several broad factors and evaluating these factors as demanded in each job. Once key jobs are rated,

64. Patton, op.cit., p. 86

65. Pfiffner, J.M. and Presthus, V.R., Public Administration (4th ed.: New York; The Roland Press Company, 1960), p. 318.

66. Patton, op.cit., p.96.

other jobs are then evaluated relative to these. The factors included by the originator, Benges were: mental effort, skill, physical effort, responsibility and working conditions.⁶⁷ Characteristics of the method is the use of a limited number of broad factors (4-7). Such factors ought to be of a basic significance to most jobs and permit adaption to many different situations. Clear definitions of the factors used are essential.

Not all organizations use the same factors. Many firms tailor factors and definitions to fit their own needs.

Table No. 2 shows ten jobs rank ordered under the factor Skill by a committee of five members (A,B,C,D, & E). Table No. 3 shows final average ranking by factor. When all the factors have been ranked, their relative values in each position are evaluated and, consequently, the whole job ranked. A better and a more simple procedure would be to give points to allocation factors to determine the relative value of each factor. Then the total number of points awarded to the job would determine the relative worth of it. Table No. 4 illustrates what we have in mind. Ten positions are evaluated under four factors. For example, under the factor

⁶⁷ Otis and Leukart, Op.cit., p. 169.

of skill, the highest job in terms of this factor is awarded one hundred points and the lowest, ten points. In between the two extremes we have other levels, e.g. 85, 75, 65, 55, 45, 35, 25 and 15. These levels, of course, are arbitrary and have to be determined by the organization.

The advantages of the method are that rating is tailored to the jobs of the given organizations; it is flexible since factors are defined in general terms; and it limits bias due to titles. The method, however, is not without some disadvantages. First, the rating scale is arbitrary. Second, it needs trained raters, and it is time consuming. Arbitrariness of the scale should not be looked upon as a serious limitation, because all yardsticks in the other methods are based on arbitrary judgement.

(3) The Point Rating Method

"The method of job evaluation that enjoys widest acceptance is the point rating method."⁶⁸

Under this method raters compare characteristics of a given job with an established set of standards.⁶⁹ The position for this purpose is broken into several factors.

68. Patton, op.cit., p. 114.

69. Ibid.,

Then these factors are compared with the standard and awarded points according to their relative importance in the job. The total number of points awarded to a given position represents its relative worth. Every organization tailors a set of standards to suit its own needs. UNRWA in using this method, tailors its own standards. Its standard rates the factors of judgement, responsibility, experience, supervision, personal contacts, job learning, speed, and working conditions. The job is broken into these factors and each factor is awarded a certain numerical value indicating its relative worth. The total scores of the factors represent the relative value of the job as a whole.

A set of standards used in one organization cannot be transplanted to another organization. Different organizations have different needs, because of variations in policy, working conditions and operating methods.⁷⁰ An established standard which has been successfully used by an organization, however, may be modified for adaptation to the needs of another organization. This practice often can emerge with a useful plan.⁷¹ But the modifying organization should carefully recognize its distinctive features in order to tailor

70. Ibid., p. 115.

71. Ibid.

the modifications in the proper way. (Table No. 5 illustrates how points are allocated under different factors for different degrees.)

As shown on Table No. 5, four factors, namely skill, effort, responsibility, and job conditions are awarded points according to their relative worth. The weight given to the four factors under the first degree equals one hundred points. 50 points are awarded to the factor of skill (education 14 points, experience 22 points, and initiative 14 points). 15 points are awarded to the factor of effort (physical demand 10 points, and mental demand 5 points). 90 points are awarded to the factor of responsibility (responsibility for equipment or process 5 points, responsibility for material or product 5 points, responsibility for safety of others 5 points, and responsibility for work of other 5 points). 15 points are awarded to the factor of job conditions (working conditions 10 points and hazards 5 points).

The factors and their relative importance in any job are of varying degrees. For example a driver may need only primary education in which case the points awarded to this position for education are of the first degree, i.e. 14 points. While an executive may need to be a holder of an advanced University degree and hence the position of an

executive may be awarded 70 points under the fifth degree.

The method has the advantages of uniform application; it minimizes bias due to titles; it is easy to defend by raters. The selection of the standard, however, is arbitrary; it is time consuming and it needs trained raters.

G. The Problem in Perspective

The conflict between exponents of the 'position' and the 'personal rank' concepts is not real. The ultimate aim of both approaches is the same, i.e. providing equitable treatment. This is the purpose of classification. A system based on either of the two concepts serves the same end in a given organization.

Dynamism is characteristic of most organizations. Most of them do change in one way or another. This change undoubtedly affects the allocation of functions. UNRWA has a general purpose, e.g. providing relief and rehabilitation services for its clientele, the Arab refugees. Rehabilitation and relief services in the Agency include: Education, health, welfare and distribution of rations. The Agency knows well what each of these services entails and how they would be carried out. They will be performed by individuals employed by the Agency. In a hypothetical sense, the Agency

can require interested persons of different qualifications and abilities to apply for work. Upon examining what each individual applicant can do, it then distributes the work among them. By this arrangement, work has been divided and sliced to utilize the services of all employed. The assumption here is that the assignment of each individual has been carefully tailored to ensure that all individual resources will be used and that loss of human resources will not be involved. The Agency then can classify these individuals. There is nothing wrong to classify them according to their personal attributes and pay them accordingly since their personal attributes and characteristics have been used to contribute to the aim of the organization. Also, there is the assumption that the individual will continue to perform essentially the same duties. The merit system will continue to exist under this system of classification as long as the organization is able to provide assignments that suit the individual requirements.

Another alternative is open to the Agency. It can work out assignments, then recruit individuals whose particular qualifications and capacities are in conformity with the assignment specifications. It can establish its classification system on the basis of assignments worked, i.e. positions.

This means evaluating the relative worth of the positions. But individuals assigned to these positions are exactly those individuals whose particular qualifications are those demanded by each position. In other words, those individuals have been selected and assigned to positions according to the principle of 'the right man for the right job'. In this case, we can also say that the person has not been neglected. Therefore, the two methods that may be adopted by the Agency lead to the same thing. The writer reproduces his views expounded in the previous pages in the following tentative propositions. Both the 'personal rank' and the 'position' approaches to classification essentially consider both the man and the position, provided that proper management decision is taken. By management decision is meant giving the person an assignment that is up to the level of his personal attributes or recruiting persons whose particulars are similar to those established by position specifications.⁷²

The General Ranking method, the Factor Comparison method and the Point Rating method of position evaluation are essentially the same. Their differences are only a matter of approach. It was shown in the previous pages that the general ranking and factor comparison methods, essentially depend on

72. Leich, op.cit., p. 92.

comparing factors of a given job with those of another one. It remains now to see if the factor comparison method and the point rating method differ essentially. The factor comparison method requires raters to break a job into factors and then compare these with the same factors in another job. Factors are either rank ordered or given points to determine their relative worth to each other, e.g. the component factors of two jobs A and B will be compared with each other. If the total number of points awarded to A equal the total number of points awarded to B, both jobs A and B will be placed at the same level and given the same grade.

In the case of the point rating method, the component factors of A and B are evaluated by comparing them to a given standard (s). If the points awarded to A after comparing its component factors to the standard (s) equal the points awarded to B, then both jobs will have the same value and consequently they are given the same grade. In essence, the two methods are the same except that, in the case of the point rating method, the standard (s) is uniform. The presence of a fixed standard serves as a continuous guide and makes it more easy to maintain uniform application. The advantages of the method over the other methods lie in its feasibility in providing a fixed guide in the organization. The objectivity ascribed to

this method is due to the possibility of applying it in a uniform way. I would ascribe consistency rather than objectivity as a distinguishing feature of this method in relation to the other methods.

Table No. 1

Job Ranking - Ten Key - Jobs

Job	Committee					Average Ranking	Final Rank of Job
	Mem. A	Mem. B	Mem. C	Mem. D	Mem. E		
A	9	8	10	9	8	8.8	9
B	7	6	7	8	6	6.8	7
C	4	5	5	4	4	4.4	5
D	5	7	6	6	7	6.2	6
E	6	4	3	2	5	4.0	4
F	3	2	2	5	3	3.0	3
G	2	3	4	3	2	2.8	2
H	1	1	1	1	1	1.0	1
I	8	10	8	7	9	8.4	8
J	10	9	9	10	8	9.2	10

Table No. 2
 Job Factor Ranking
 Factor: Skill

Job	Committee					Average	Rank
	Mem. A	Mem. B	Mem. C	Mem. D	Mem. E		
A	2	3	3	2	3	2.6	2
B	5	2	4	4	4	3.8	4
C	6	4	2	3	2	3.4	3
D	8	7	9	10	5	7.8	8
E	7	8	5	6	8	6.8	7
F	10	9	10	9	10	9.6	10
G	4	5	6	5	7	5.4	5
H	3	6	7	8	9	6.6	6
I	1	1	1	1	1	1.0	1
J	9	10	8	7	6	8.0	9

Table No. 3
 Final Average Job Ranking by Factor
 (In terms of whole numbers)

Job	Skill	Mental Demand	Physical Demand	Responsibility	Working Conditions
A	2	1	9	2	10
B	4	4	7	3	3
C	3	3	8	4	7
D	8	2	4	5	6
E	7	6	6	7	8
F	10	5	2	1	4
G	5	10	3	8	2
H	6	9	10	9	5
I	1	8	5	6	1
J	9	7	1	10	9

Table No. 4
Factor Comparison

Job	Factors				Total Points	Rank
	Skill	Effort	Resp.	Job Condi- tions		
A	100	85	25	10	220	5
B	65	100	75	25	265	1
C	75	45	85	35	240	3
D	45	75	55	55	230	4
E	85	35	65	75	260	2
F	15	65	45	85	210	6
G	25	15	35	100	175	8
H	35	55	10	15	115	10
I	55	10	15	45	125	9
J	10	25	100	65	200	7

Table No. 5
 Factors, Point - allocation, and Weights
 (National Electric Manufacturer's Association Plan)

Factors	1st Degree	2nd Degree	3rd Degree	4th Degree	5th Degree	Wt. Percent
Skill						
Education	14	28	42	56	70	14
Experience	22	44	66	88	110	22
Initiative & Ingenuity	14	28	42	56	70	14
Effort						
Physical Demand	10	10	30	40	50	10
Mental Demand	5	10	15	20	25	5
Responsibility						
Res. for equipment or process	5	10	15	20	25	5
Res. for Material or product	5	10	15	20	25	5
Res. for Safety of others	5	10	15	20	25	5
" " Work of others	5	10	15	20	25	5
Job Conditions						
Working Conditions	10	20	30	40	50	10
Hazards	5	10	15	20	25	5

Source: Patton and Littlefield, Job Evaluation, p. 122.

Chapter III

UNRWA - An International Agency

A. Background

1. The United Nations Palestine Partition Resolution - 1947

The General Assembly of the United Nations passed on November 29, 1947 what is known as the United Nations Palestine Partition Resolution. The said Resolution recommended the creation of two independent States out of Palestine - an independent Arab State and an independent Jewish State, and a Special Regime for the city of Jerusalem.⁷³

At that time, the Arabs constituted nearly two-thirds of the total population of Palestine. Naturally, the Resolution of the General Assembly of the United Nations was against the wishes and hopes of the overwhelming majority of the Arab inhabitants. The Arabs of Palestine and the Arab States - members of the Arab league - opposed the Resolution.⁷⁴ As a result of this, disturbances and conflicts between the Arabs and the Jews gave rise to conflict between the two communities in Palestine.⁷⁵ On May 15, 1948, the State of Israel was

73. United Nations, General Assembly Resolution 181 (S-II), November 29, 1947.

74. Fayez A. Sayegh, The Arab-Israeli Conflict (New York: The Arab Information Center, 1956), pp.14-15.

75. Ibid., pp. 15-16.

officially proclaimed. The United States of America, and Soviet Russia quickly recognized Israel, others followed later. The Arabs, however, refused to accord de facto or de jure recognition to Israel.

2. The Relief Problem of the Refugees

After the British mandate had been terminated on May 15, 1948, the Palestinians desired the intervention of the Arab States. The Arab States accordingly informed the Secretary General of the United Nations that their armed forces had decided to enter Palestine to re-establish security and order in the country.

As a result of military operations in Palestine, well over half a million Arab refugees became homeless and lost their means of support. They took refuge in the neighbouring Arab countries - Lebanon, Syria, Jordan, Gaza. The Arab host governments were unable to take adequate measures to alleviate their problem. Conditions of distress and starvation prevailed among the Arab refugees.

A few hours after the British mandate in Palestine had

ended, the General Assembly of the United Nations had held a special session to consider further the future of Palestine.⁷⁶ The General Assembly in that session authorized the appointment of a United Nations Mediator and entrusted to him among other things to promote a peaceful solution.⁷⁷ The U.N. Mediator, Count Folke Bernadotte, realizing the miserable conditions of the refugees, sent an urgent appeal to the United Nations for immediate assistance to the refugees.⁷⁸ The Mediator formed a 'Disaster Relief Project' to distribute available supplies among the refugees. Welfare Societies such as Crescent Societies and Relief Organizations distributed the supplies on a voluntary basis.⁷⁹ In July 1948, the relief problem became very acute. The magnitude of the problem, however, was beyond the capacity and means of that temporary arrangement.

The Mediator submitted his report on September 16,

76. Department of Public Information, United Nations, "News and Notes," United Nations Bulletin (IV, No. II, June 1948), p. 429.

77. Ibid., p. 432.

78. United Nations Palestine Relief Agencies, A Survey (Beirut, May 1950), p. 1 (mimeographed, in the files of UNRWA).

79. Ibid.

1948 and was assassinated by Israelis the very next day, September 17, 1948.⁸⁰ In his report, the Mediator urged the United Nations to consider necessary measures of relief and immediate action. His report explicitly stated that unless immediate measures were taken thousands of refugees would die. Again in his report of October 18, 1948, the acting Mediator stressed the urgency of the problem of relief to alleviate the unhappy conditions prevailing among the refugees.⁸¹

3. Creation of UNRWA on December 8, 1949.

The General Assembly of the United Nations on the basis of the reports of the Mediator, passed a resolution on November 19, 1948, authorizing the Secretary General to create UNRPR (United Nations Relief for Palestine Refugees).⁸² The General Assembly also urged all member states and non-members of the United Nations to make contributions to the UNRPR. The UNRPR relied upon autonomous agencies for the distribution of relief supplies among the refugees. Such agencies included, but were not limited to the International

80. Department of Public Information, United Nations Bulletin (V, No. 10, 1948), p. 902.

81. General Assembly Official Records: Third Session, Supplement No. 11 (A/648), 1948/49, pp. 13-14, and Supplement No. 11/A689/Corr. I and A689/Add. I, p. 1.

82. United Nations, General Assembly Resolution, 212 (III), November 19, 1948.

Committee of the Red Cross, the League of Red Cross Societies, and the American Friends Service Committee. 83

When the General Assembly created the UNRPR, a quick Political settlement for the refugees that might allow the majority of them to return home was anticipated. But later the expected political settlement did not seem to be possible in the near future, and the conditions of the refugees were becoming worse day after day. In July, 1949, the Director of UNRPR, Ambassador Stanton Griffis recommended that work relief projects be substituted for direct relief.

On the basis of the political situation at that time and the recommendations of the United Nations Economic Survey Mission,⁸⁴ the General Assembly of the United Nations passed Resolution No. 302 (IV) on December 8, 1949 whereby direct relief was to be provided for a twelve months period beginning January 1, 1950 to December 31, 1950. The same Resolution also created UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East).

83. UNRPR, op.cit., p.2.

84. United Nations, General Progress Report and Supplementary Report of the United Nations Conciliation Commission for Palestine, covering the period from 11 December, 1948 to 23 October 1950 (New York: 1951), P.17.

The General Assembly established UNRWA:

- " (a) To carry out in collaboration with local governments the direct relief and works programmes as recommended by the Economic Survey Mission;
- (b) To consult with the interested Near Eastern Governments concerning measures to be taken by them preparatory to the time when international assistance for relief and works projects is no longer available; " 85

B. Organizational Setup

"When a policy or purpose has been established it is essential that an organization be set up to achieve the desired policy or purpose, at a minimum cost, in the shortest length of time, and with the least amount of disorder and confusion. This process gives meaning to the principle that adequate structural relationships should be established through which to flow responsibilities, resources, and information."86

The purpose of UNRWA is known, i.e. providing services to the refugees. In order to accomplish this task, the Agency from its inception, adopted certain structural relationships through which can flow responsibilities and information. It is not our concern here to study and evaluate the structure of the organization. Rather, we are interested in that aspect

85. United Nations, General Assembly Resolution 302 (IV), December 8, 1949.

86. Catherine Seckler-Hudson, Organization and Management: Theory and Practice (Washington, D.C.: The American University Press, 1957), p.118.

of the structure involving the classification of positions.

When UNRWA started its operations in May 1950, the nature of its operations demanded a structure with decision making centralized at its Headquarters in Beirut. The operations of the Agency are financed by pledges in cash and in kind from a host of different nations. The functions of the Agency in all the fields are similar. What the Agency can do is determined by the expected contributions to the budget of the Agency. If a nation fails to make its contributions, the elimination and/or reduction of the services rendered have to be equally made in all the fields. Unless the fields cannot decide for themselves what they can do, it will not be possible to apply a uniform policy. If the fields are empowered to make policy decisions, probably each field would put its case as a unique one. Therefore, in order to ensure the application of a single uniform policy throughout the different fields, centralization of decision-making was necessary. Also the various district and area offices are subject to tremendous local pressure to increase the Agency's activities or to change the standards for that area. Hence without centrally imposed controls there is little doubt that the operations would soon become fragmentized and lose all sense of uniformity. The centralization extends to the personnel and payment

policies of the Agency so that it must have a simple and definitive plan which can be easily understood and uniformly applied by all the scattered offices of the organization. If this is not the case, we expect that the Headquarters in Beirut will be swamped by requests for personnel actions each of which would be put forth as a unique case. With this in mind we proceed to analyze the structure through which decisions were channelled during its early days.

Organization of the Headquarters

The Director at the top of the hierarchy acted as the chief executive for UNRWA. Together with his Advisory Commission, the Director formulated the policy of the Agency. A planning Board, consisting of the Deputy Director, the Chief of the Agricultural Development Branch, the Chief of the Engineering Works Branch and the Chief Finance Officer, assisted the Director in executing his responsibilities. As shown on Chart I, the Chiefs of the Agricultural, Engineering and Finance branches as well as Economics and Public Relations had direct access to the Director. The other branches, namely, Supply and Transport, Field Supervisor and Medical Services, were under supervision of the Deputy Director. The District Offices were coordinated by the Head of the Field

Supervision Branch on behalf of the Deputy Director.

The first administrative unit in the Headquarters was the branch. Each branch was headed by an official responsible to either the Director or his Deputy. In some branches there were smaller units, i.e. sections. In the Field Supervision Branch there were five sections: Reports, Central Registration and Statistics, Welfare, Education, and Work Relief. All branches were headed by International recruits, and all of them were given the same grade.⁸⁷

Organization of the Districts

For administrative purposes, the total area in which refugees were living was divided geographically into four districts, namely, Lebanon, Syria, Jordan, and Gaza.

A typical organization of a district in 1950 had a Chief District officer as the administrative head who reported to the Deputy Director. He represented UNRWA with the local host government and implemented the policy formulated at Headquarters. In carrying his responsibilities, the Chief District Officer was assisted by district staff members as shown on Chart II. All Chief District Officers were given

87. UNRPR op.cit., pp. 1-3.

the same grade, i.e. Grade 15, except the Chief District Officer of Jordan who was designated Grade 16. At this point, I am not going to go deep into the reasons for this deviation. It is of interest to note that although the various officers assisting the Chief Officer were at the same organizational level, they were graded differently, i.e. The Finance and Administration Officer, the Medical Officer, the Welfare and Education Officer, the Supply and Transport Officer, the District Registrar and the Work Relief Officer were graded 12, 13, 10, 12, 12 and 11 respectively.

Below the district level, there was the area level. The administrative head of the area, was the Area Officer who was responsible to the Chief District Officer. Chart III shows the organization of a typical area office. Below the area level came the camp level. Chart IV shows organization of a typical camp. The administrative head of the camp was the Camp Officer. From the foregoing brief description of the Structure of the Agency, it is clear that there were five administrative levels, i.e. Director, Deputy Director, Chief District, Area Officer and Camp Officer.

This structure did not remain static all through UNRWA's life. As activities expanded and changed and as experience demanded some changes in the structure to enable

the machinery of the organization to implement its program, modifications and changes were made. It is not the intention here to trace all these changes, but it is sufficient to mention that the last change in the structure was made in December, 1959 and early 1960 when the Director issued several organization directives setting up a new structure for the organization. We are not going to study this structure from the point of its validity and efficacy in an efficient administration of the activities of the organization, rather we are interested in knowing the different levels of responsibilities as they may bear some effect on the classification of the positions placed at certain levels.

Chart V shows organization of the Headquarters in Beirut. Compared to the previous Chart I, it is clear that a drastic change had been made.

The Heads of the Department of Administration, Department of Operation, Health Division, Education and Training Division, Department of Legal Affairs, Department of Finance are members of the office of the Director. All these members are at the same level of the hierarchy and all of them are international recruits,⁸⁸ and classified at the D-1

88. The classification plan of the internationals has two main categories, The first Category is the Director level with three grades, i.e. P-D, D-2, D-1 in a descending order. The Second is the Professional category with five levels, P-5, P-4, P-3, P-2, and P-1 in a descending order.

level of the international classification system. Each department is subdivided into a number of divisions, and the division is further subdivided into branches and the branches into sections. All of the divisions heads are international recruits, with the exception of the Economics Division which is headed by a local recruit. All the division heads are classified at the P-4 level of the international classification system. An exception to this generalization is the head of the personnel division and supply and transport divisions, (both classified at the P-5 level).

Another generalization may be derived in connection with the classification of heads of branches and sections. All heads of branches are classified at the P-3 level and the heads of sections are classified at the P-2 level. Below the Director level, in the classification system of International Civil Servants, we have five levels, namely, P-5, P-4,

P-3, P-2, P-1 in a descending order. In practice there are no P-1 positions. It may be sound to conclude that the levels in the hierarchy of the organization, namely, Division, Branch and Section coincide with the P-4, P-3 and P-2 levels.

Organization of the Fields

The organization of the fields in Lebanon, Syria,

Jordan and Gaza did not actually follow the same pattern. For simplicity, we shall consider Lebanon and Syria as one case, Jordan and Gaza as special cases.

Lebanon Field Office

The field as shown per Chart VI, is headed by an UNRWA representative who is the chief executive officer in the field. He is responsible to the office of the Director. The office of the UNRWA representative is divided into departments of administration, operations, and area offices. The area officers report directly to the UNRWA Representative and are responsible to him for the activities of their areas. The Departments of Administration and operations are divided into various divisions reporting to the head of the department concerned. The departments are headed by international recruits classified at the P-4 level. We may conclude that the head of a department in the field is given the same status given to the head of a division at the headquarters. The UNRWA representative is classified at the D-1 level.

Organization of Field Offices in Jordan

Chart VII shows the organization of the Agency in Jordan. If we compare this chart with that of Lebanon, we shall notice that we have in this case a department which does

not exist in the Lebanon field office, i.e. the department of Grants and Constructions. The nature and scope of the activities of the Agency in Jordan made it feasible to have this department. Also we observe that the finance division in Jordan does not come under the department of administration as the case is in Lebanon, rather it is on the same level with the departments of operations and administration. While public relations in Lebanon comes under the department of administration and actually is supervised by the legal office, it has a special office on the same level with the departments in Jordan.

Organization of Field Offices in Gaza

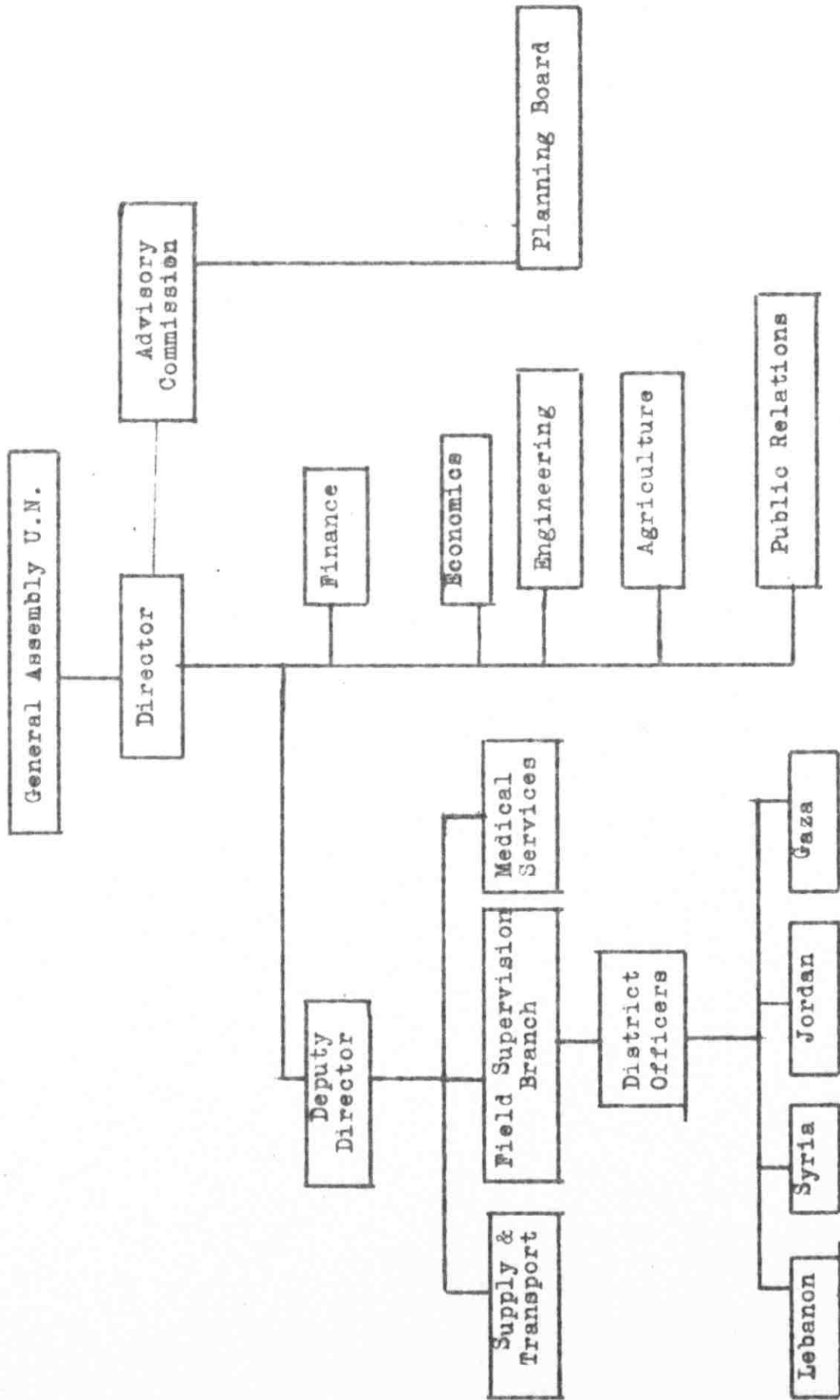
Chart VIII shows the organization of Gaza operations. In this Chart, the departments of administration and operations are maintained, but again the divisions of health and finance do not come under the jurisdiction of the department of operations and administration. The camp administrators who are in fact miniature of the Area Officers in other fields and are directly tied with the UNRWA representative.

The purpose in trying to show the organization structure in this chapter, is due to the fact that the level in the hierarchy has been a factor in evaluating the post.

We shall see later to what extent this assumption is valid.

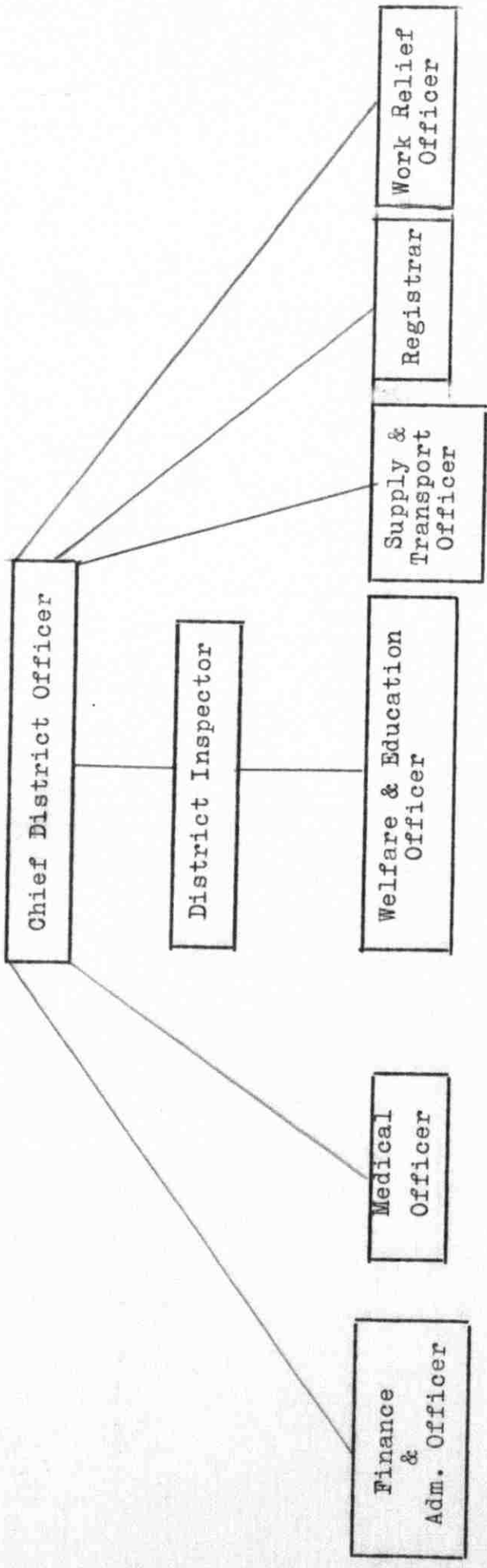
Just to refresh our discussion, we may conclude that at its Headquarters, the Agency has four main levels, i.e. department, division, branch, and section. The field also has four levels, i.e. department, division, area, and camp. If the work of the Agency is identical in all its fields of operations, and if the scope is the same in all these fields, then a good classification system might give the same post at the same level in all fields the same status. We shall see to what extent this assumption is valid.

ORGANIZATION OF UNEWA -- HQ -- 1950

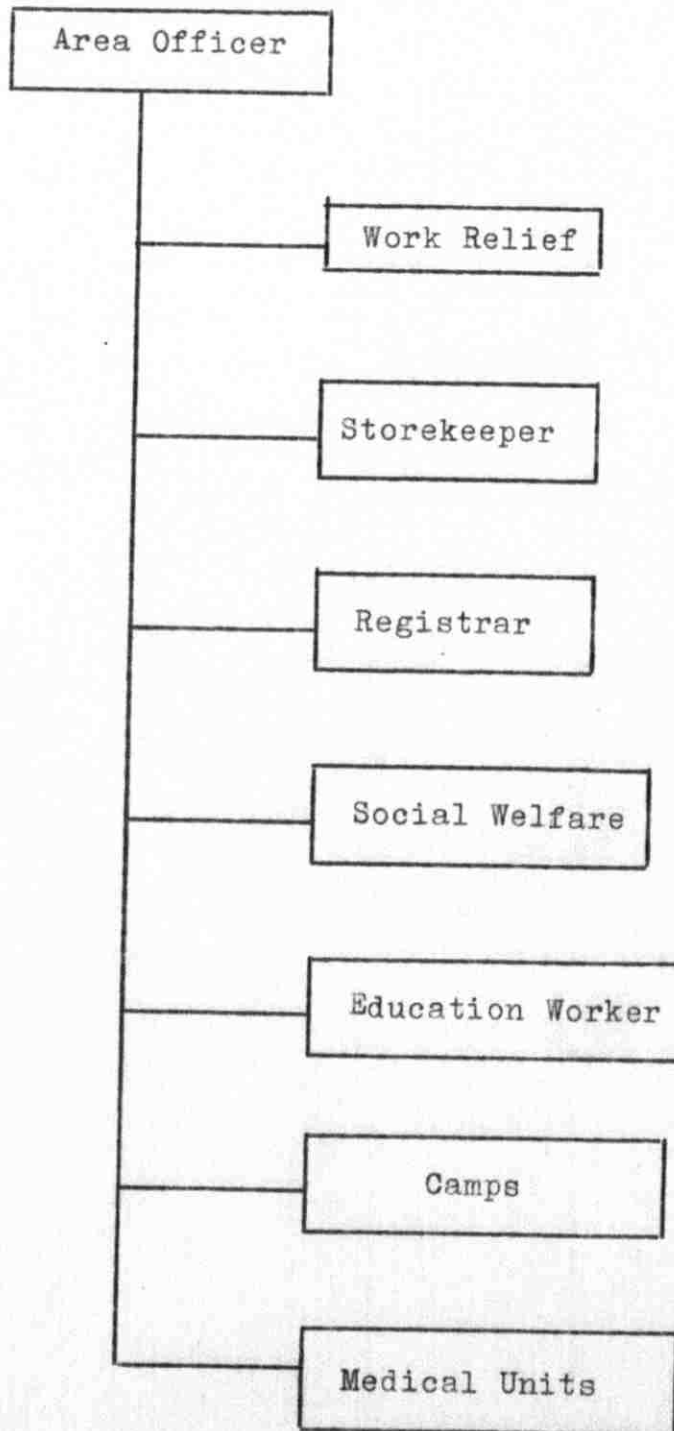


ORGANIZATION OF TYPICAL DISTRICT OFFICE - 1950

CHART II



ORGANIZATION OF TYPICAL AREA OFFICE - 1950



ORGANIZATION OF TYPICAL CAMP - 1950

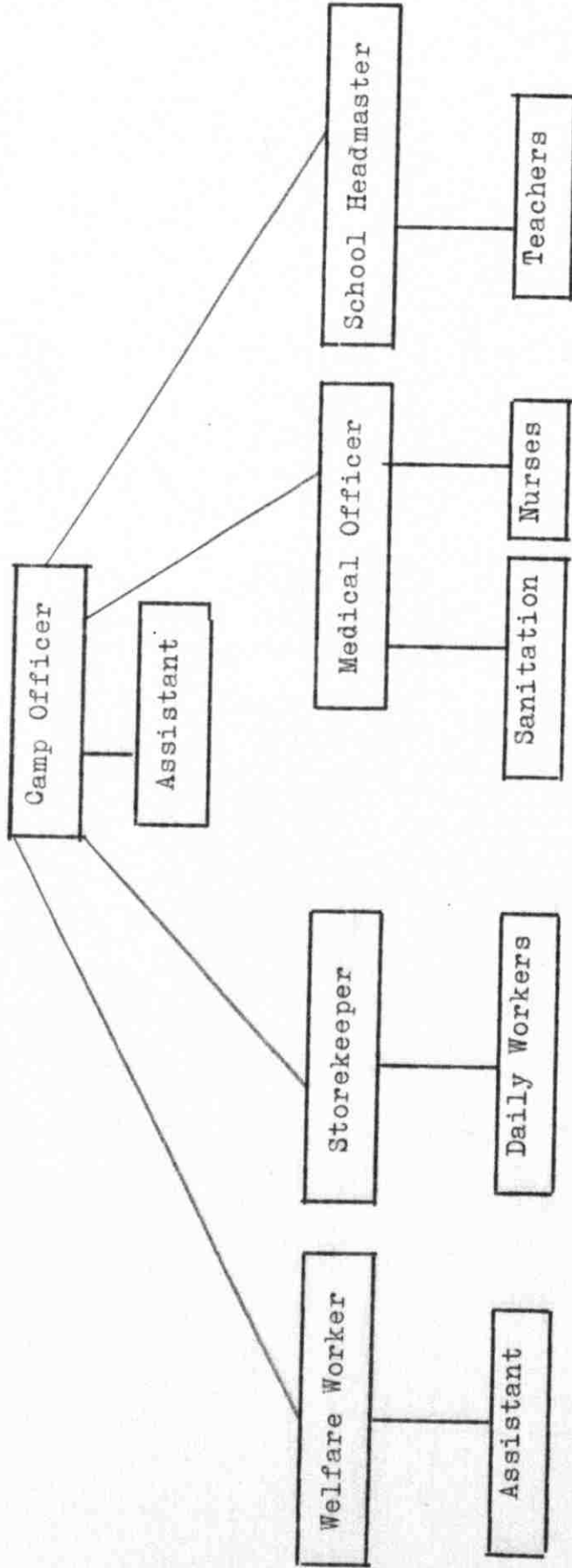
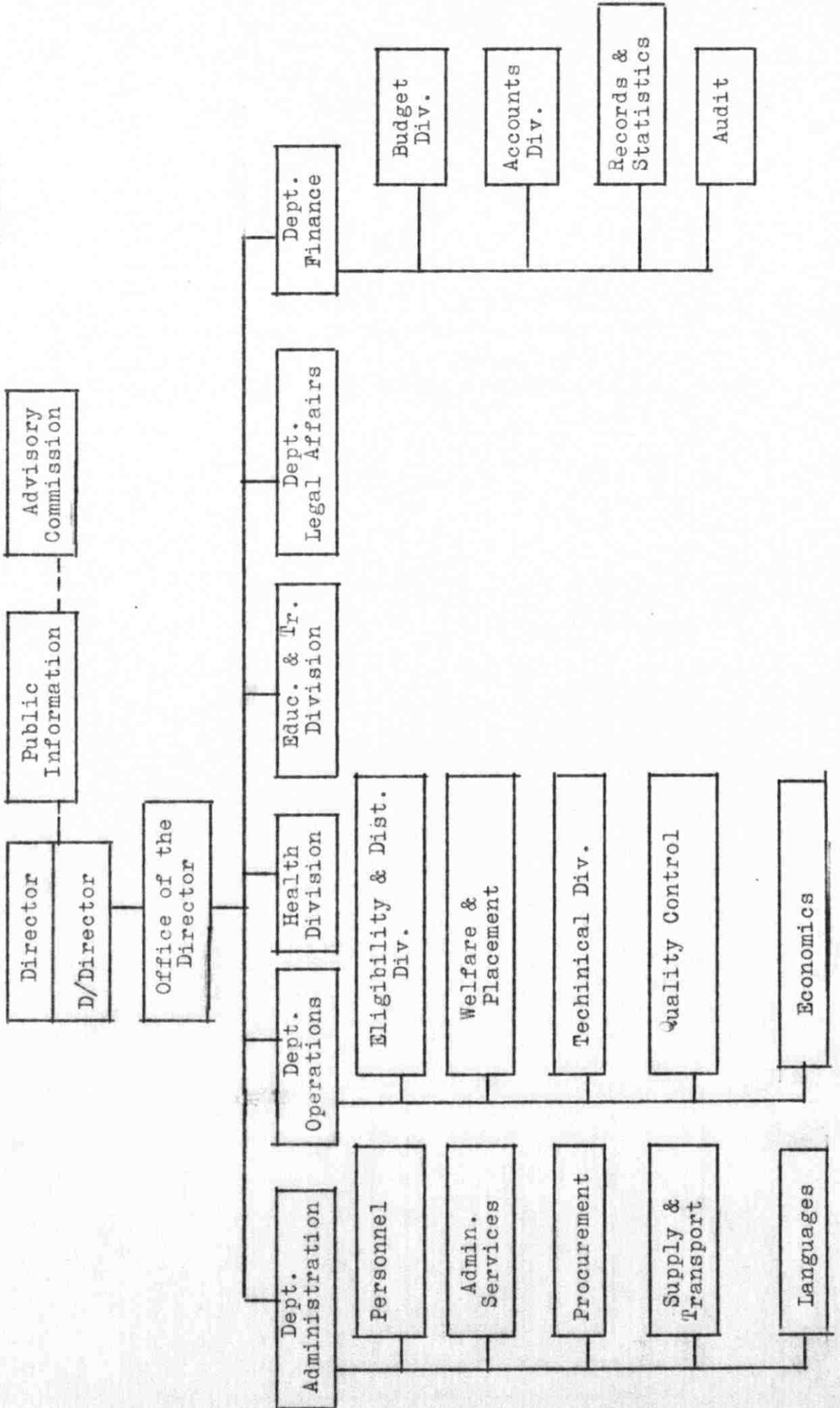
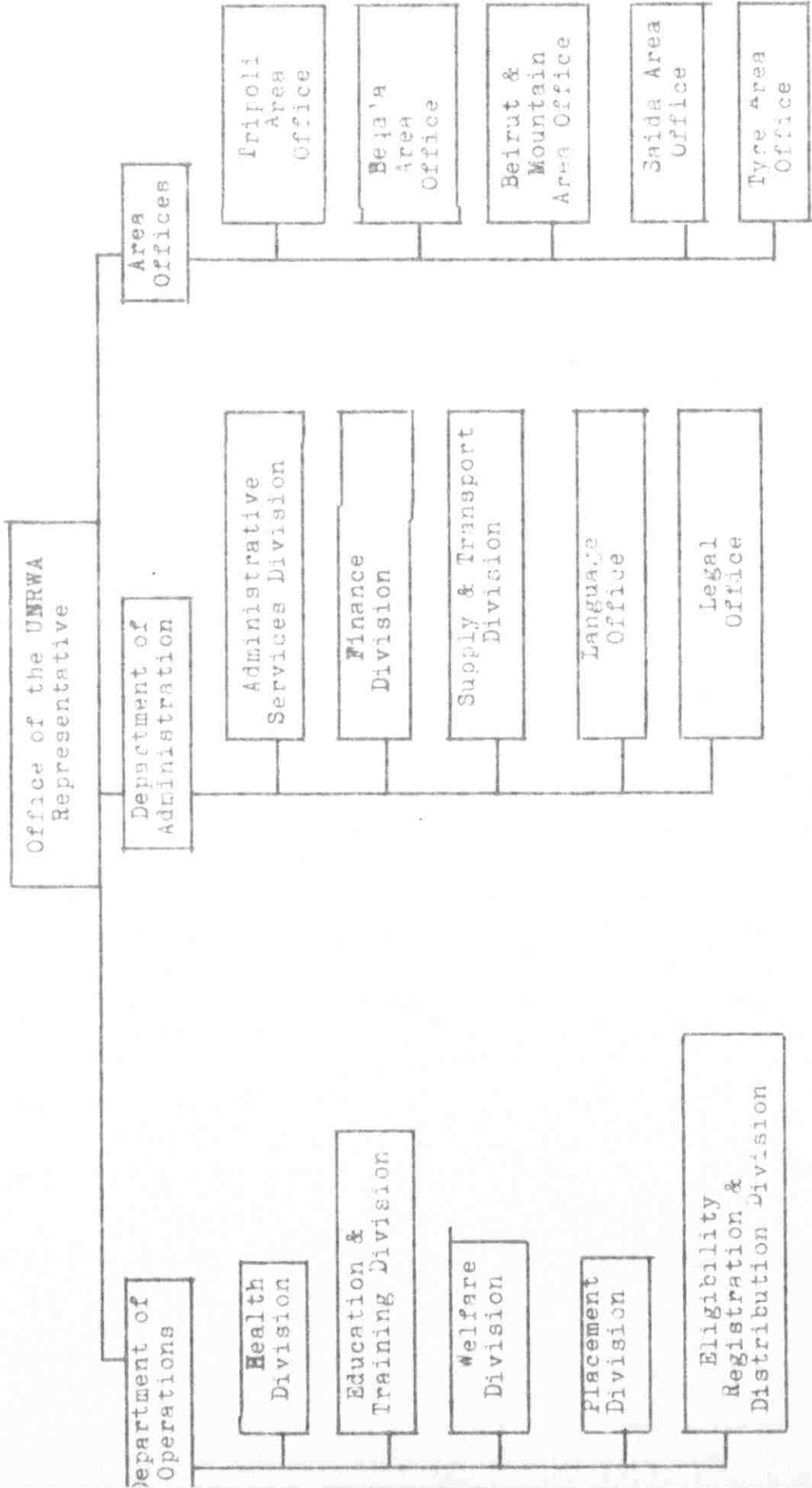


CHART V

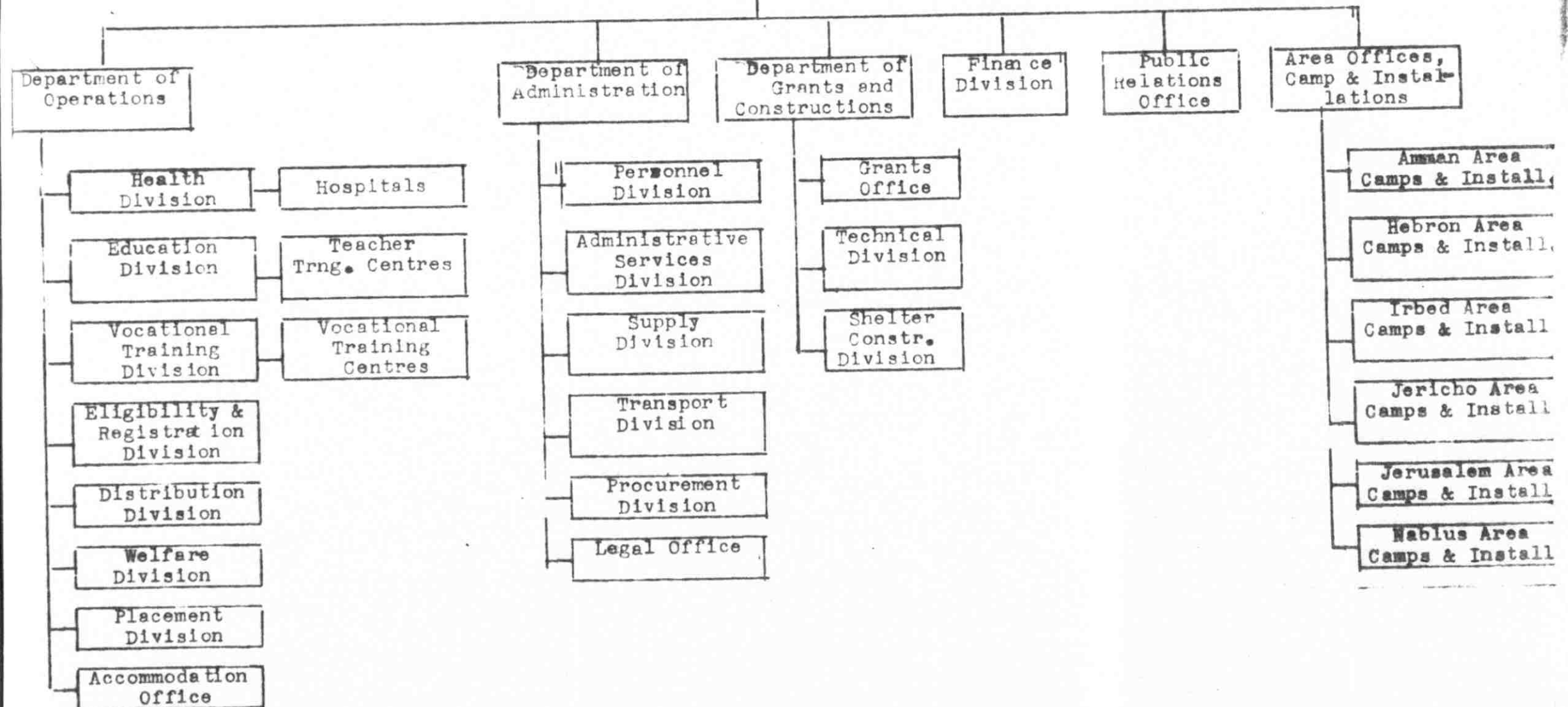


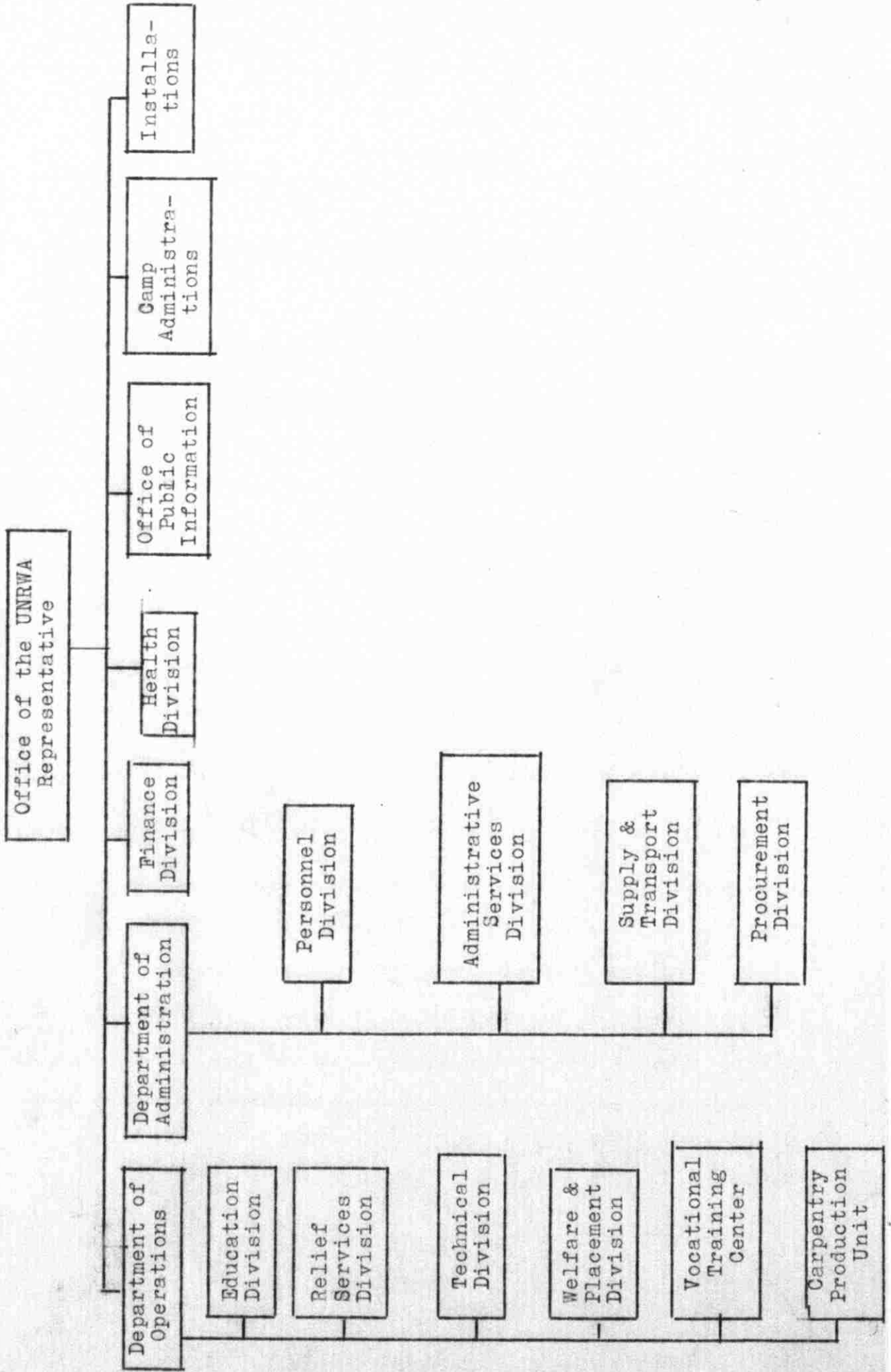
UNRWA LEBANON - 1962



OFFICE OF THE UNRWA
REPRESENTATIVE

Chart VII





Chapter IV

Staffing an International Agency

A. Basic Criteria for Selection of Staff

International organizations prescribe two basic criteria in the selection and recruitment of their staff.⁸⁹ The first is the necessity of securing the highest degree of efficiency, competence and integrity. The second is a due regard to the importance of recruiting staff on as wide a geographical basis as possible.⁹⁰ In theory, appointments to the respective U.N. organizations are made on the basis of these two criteria, without regard to, or influence by, personal or political pressures.

B. International Versus local Recruits

A question may be raised as to the extent geographical distribution should be observed in recruitment to the various levels in international organizations. Usually greater emphasis is placed on recruitment to posts of a professional and administrative nature than for posts in the general service

89. United Nations, Report on Recruitment Methods and Standards for the United Nations and Specialized Agencies, by International Civil Service Advisory Board, 1950, p. 7.

90. Ibid.,

category. Experience of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies indicates that it is not feasible to recruit substantial numbers of staff to posts in the lower levels from outside the locality where the U.N. organization operates.⁹¹ Recruiting persons from outside the locality to these posts is not desirable. The financial cost in case of outside recruitment is very high since the international scale of pay becomes applicable.

In UNRWA, the majority of the staff are local recruits. The international recruits constitute a small percentage of the total manpower. Of a total number of over 11,000 employees, only about 150 staff members are international recruits. Although they are small in number in relation to the number of the local recruits, they are subject to a special personnel policy. The rules and regulations and classification policies which govern the internationals are different from those governing the local recruits.

An outside observer may conclude that the geographical distribution in the Agency is not observed; and hence the international outlook is distorted. On analysis,

91. Ibid., p. 11.

however, it can be shown that this observation is not entirely true and that in view of the particular mission and function of the Agency, its recruiting policy is feasible.

Viewed from the financial and social standpoint, the policy of the Agency in this respect is sound. The cost of recruiting a large number of staff on the basis of geographical distribution and payment to them in accordance with the international salary scale would constitute a heavy financial burden; something which is not desired. The savings in local recruitment will allow the Agency to provide more goods and services to the refugees. On the other hand, recruitment from among the refugees themselves serves a social purpose which falls within the orbit of its mission.

Viewed from the nature of the positions occupied by locals, there seems to be no danger of losing the international outlook of the Agency. All Posts which are of a policy or executive nature are occupied by internationals. Therefore local recruits have no chance to affect and influence the policy of the Agency or its execution, and as such it is unlikely that they will constitute a threat to the international outlook of the Agency. It may be remarked that the number of

the staff members of a particular nation may not be as important as the nature of posts occupied. The Commissioner General of the Agency may influence the policy of the Agency more than the rest of the staff together.

Since the internationals are classified in accordance with the U.N. classification system, which is different from the classification system of the local recruits, we omit discussion on this group of staff and concentrate on the classification problems relating to the local recruits.

C. Concept of Area Staff

From its inception the Agency distinguished between two categories of staff, i.e. international and area. Some positions are classified under the international category and others are classified under the area category. According to the policy of the Agency, International Staff Members are those recruits who have been appointed to positions designated by the Commissioner General as International posts. By the same policy, Area Staff Members are those local recruits who have been appointed to posts designated by the Commissioner General as Area posts. In discussing the International Staff vs. Area

Staff, we have to bear in mind that the bulk of the employees are themselves refugees. According to the UNRWA statistical summary as of April 30, 1962, there were 11, 837 employees in the Agency, 126 employees fell under the International category and the balance under the Area category.⁹²

D. Classification Plan

1. System up to 1960:- In 1950, when the Agency started its operations in the fields, it established a "classification plan" which served up to 1960 with minor modifications made in 1955.⁹³ The general features of that plan were:

1. The Agency established two manning tables. One for the internationals and the other for the area staff.
2. The manning table of the area staff included only the classified categories of the locally hired employees. The Agency distinguished between two categories - classified and unclassified. The classified staff members were covered by the manning table for which a grading pattern of 19

92. Figures are according to Unpublished Statistical data made available to me by The Staff Management Branch, UNRWA, Headquarters, Beirut.

93. Political Studies & Public Administration Dept., Position Classification & Compensation Survey, P.1.

grades in ascending order (grade one was the lowest and grade 19 the highest) was adopted. The unclassified category of locally hired employees included three levels:

- a. Learners, Apprentices, Office Boys, and Juniors (Normally under 18 years of age).
- b. Unskilled categories.
- c. Skilled Categories.

Between the period 1950 and 1959 the number of area positions in the Agency increased as follows:

<u>Year</u>	<u>No. of area positions</u>
1951	6,118
1952	6,533
1954	8,734
1956	10,646
1958	10,196
1960	11,016
1962	11,711

This is due to the fact that the services of the Agency to its clientele, the Palestine Arab refugees, especially education and health were increasing. In addition, the number of refugees themselves was and is increasing. The expansion in the operations of the Agency demanded creation of many positions. We have mentioned before that the 1950 classification plan

essentially remained in force until 1960 without any major changes.

2. The Need for Review:- The Agency, in 1959, felt that its classification plan was not current and wanted to reconsider it to bring it up-to-date and be able to apply good standards of personnel policies and operate efficiently.

"After the lapse of about ten years naturally UNRWA felt the need for reviewing the said plan to bring it up-to-date in order to enable the Agency to provide conditions of service comparable to good management practices in the various fields of UNRWA operations."⁹⁴

UNRWA had two alternatives, either to entrust the project to its management team, or to an outside body. Technically, its management team was competent to do the work, but UNRWA realized that an outside team with no vested interest would bring more objectivity to the study.

"The most obvious advantage of the use of an outside organization is that persons with experience in the techniques of analyzing and classifying jobs are utilized. Another advantage is that the outsider may bring a more objective viewpoint and that his impartiality and expertness in

94. Ibid. p.?

recommending allocations might be accepted and the plan installed with less debate."⁹⁵

3. Public Administration Department Entrusted to Make the Survey:

Upon considering the available competent outside organizations, UNRWA selected the Public Administration Department of the American University of Beirut. Entrusting the project to the Public Administration Department, combined the two advantages of an outside team, competence and objectivity.

On May 19, 1959, the Agency made the first contact with the Political Studies and Public Administration Department of the American University of Beirut, exploring the possibility of conducting a classification survey of the area staff in the Agency by the department. Negotiation between the Department and the Agency on the time, the scope of the survey and other details continued until July 30, 1959. When an agreement was reached between the two parties on the conditions under which the project was to be carried out, a contract was concluded on July 30, 1959. The Public Administra-

95. Political Studies & Public Administration Department, American University of Beirut, Public Personnel Administration (selected Readings, 1958), p. 87 (mimeographed).

tion Department agreed to provide professors Jawad Dajani and Adnan Iskander as Directors of the Survey, who, in turn, appointed ten enumerators and two auditors for this purpose. The Department undertook UNRWA's area classification and pay project with the following terms of reference:

"To establish grouping of the staff that will enable the application of conditions of service that will attract well qualified staff;

To determine the broad classification of staff into categories that will reflect professional services and general services and to determine at what level a manual worker category might fairly be established;

To provide a grading pattern that will reflect basic differences in job responsibilities and that will provide reasonable service increments;

To fix salaries and other conditions of service on the basis of prevailing conditions for comparable jobs in outside employment in the different countries in which UNRWA operates, as a result of comparisons made with the best practices of governments and of large-scale employers;

To fix wage rates for all manual workers that will comply with local labour laws and good employer practices in each field of UNRWA operations;

To establish criteria for the periodic review of salary scales in each field of operations;

To consider what methods would be appropriate for the periodic review of base salary scales in relation to salaries generally in outside employment, cost of living indices, etc.; and

To determine a basic cost of living index for each field of UNRWA Operations against which adjustments in salaries and wages may subsequently be calculated."⁹⁶

For two weeks, lectures were delivered by Professors Dajani and Iskander, explaining the purpose of the survey and the method of attack. The lectures emphasized the necessity of collecting factual information. It was clearly stated that positions were the concern of the study, and not the individual incumbents; their efficiency or lack of efficiency were not to bias the facts about the positions. After this short period, the team was ready to go to the field and start collecting data.

96. Political Studies & Public Administration Department, Position Classification and Compensation Survey, P.iii. l., p. 111.

Chapter V

Problems of Collecting Data

A classification plan is no better than the facts upon which it is based. Adequate information for classification purposes include three basic types: duties of the position, responsibilities of the position, and the skills and knowledges required for satisfactory performance.⁹⁷ This information may be secured from various sources and by different methods. Employees occupying the positions and their immediate supervisors are the best source for providing the required information. O. Glenn Stahl believes that the fundamental data can be secured by interviewing responsible officials in the organization and studying the individual positions.⁹⁸

There are three methods for collecting information with respect to individual positions: the questionnaire method, the interview method, and the observation method.⁹⁹ In the UNRWA Classification Survey, the problem conditioned the methods to be used. Due to limitations of staff and time, the Survey team decided to use the questionnaire as the basic

97. Stahl, op.cit., p. 193

98. Ibid.,

99. Otis and Leukart, op.cit., p. 220

method. This method was to be supplemented by the interview and observation methods.

A. Sampling

Because of the large number of employees, and the similarity of a great number of positions, the survey team found that a full coverage of all positions was not necessary.

With the help of UNRWA management, the survey team used meaningful samples of the positions where possible.

A complete coverage was made of all positions which involved unique duties and responsibilities.

To ensure that all varieties of positions were covered, the survey team during their visits to the fields checked with the help of UNRWA staff the lists of distributed questionnaires in every field against the classification manual of the Agency. For each type of position the team ensured that either a properly filled out questionnaire or a questionnaire supplemented by a personal interview, or simply an interview was made.

In any survey, errors may bias the results.

"Errors can enter a survey because questions are not worded properly or because of biases and mistakes on the part of the interviewers.

There may also be errors in a survey because the respondent does not furnish accurate information, refuses to furnish information, or is not available to be interviewed."¹⁰⁰

We shall see that such errors were apt to have affected the survey.

B. Questionnaire Method

Constructing a suitable questionnaire was not an easy job. It had to be constructed in a way which suited its purpose. Due consideration had to be given to the type of organization and employees who would fill in the questionnaires. A tentative questionnaire was designed, and then tested. In light of the test a number of modifications and changes were recommended and a final questionnaire was designed. It was designed to enable the analyst later to pick from the answers the factors which are useful to consider in classifying each position. Especially it was designed to show the following factors: judgement, Responsibility, Personal Contacts, Job-Learning, Working Conditions, Scope of each position, Education required, and Experience required. A sheet of instruction was attached to each questionnaire, explaining the purpose of

100. John Neter and William Wasserman, Fundamental Statistics For Business and Economics, (New York: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1956), p. 273.

every question in order to help the employees describe the actual state of the position and the tasks and duties as they were performed at the time of filling the questionnaire, and not what they should be. Also, the instructions stressed the importance of objectivity and accuracy in answering the questionnaire.

It was felt that if the questionnaires were answered carefully, we would have been able to know the real contents of the positions. In order to cover the possibility that an employee might not give accurate information, he was required to certify that the statements which he gave were accurate and complete. Also, supervisors were required to check and correct the statements of their subordinates. To control and check the biases of the employees and/or supervisors, heads of divisions were also required to check and correct the statements on the questionnaires. This does not mean that this arrangement was completely successful in eliminating personal biases; rather it served as a cross check. Unfortunately, employees, supervisors, and heads of divisions often did not observe their true roles in filling the questionnaires.

Although the survey team made a real effort to simplify the terms used, most of them proved to be vague to the employees.

Virtually all employees in the low echelons could not understand the real purpose of almost all the questions. Very few employees in the middle of the hierarchy could guess the real intention of some of the questions. It is of interest to mention that almost all UNRWA employees could not distinguish between a question which related to the tasks and duties of the person and a question which related to the responsibilities. Not only local employees could not distinguish between the two, but also some of the internationals, who reviewed the questionnaires.

As a result of misunderstanding the questionnaire, 80% of the returned completed ones showed that the employees who filled them did not distinguish between the position and the individual. Especially in answering a question relating to the minimum level of formal education, the kind and amount of practical experience, and any other skills and abilities required for the adequate performance of the work, they included the qualifications which they happened to possess, though not necessarily required for the performance of the duties of their positions. For example, an Elementary teacher who happened to be a university graduate, included the requirement of a university degree, while an elementary teacher with

a High School education, included the requirement of a High School Diploma. In other words, they included their own qualifications as the necessary requirements. There had been a tendency among almost all employees to exaggerate the importance of their positions. They even included information and details which was discovered not to be true upon auditing some of the questionnaires. This might have been caught had the supervisors and heads of divisions carefully checked the questionnaires. Only in rare cases did the supervisors or the heads of the division concerned check and correct some of the statements given by their employees. In the majority of cases, they merely O.K.'d what the employee had recorded. In the very few cases where they cared to check and/or comment, their comments related mostly to the efficiency of the employee and even recommended upgrading or down grading in some cases.

C. Interview Method

A check and an audit were to follow after the questionnaires were returned from the fields. Although instructions were made that questionnaires should be filled and returned no later than August 1, 1959, it was not possible to observe this dead line. Distribution of the questionnaires to the fields was delayed, and some of the fields even did

not have them by the first week of August. As members of the team were anxious to start their new experience, it was decided that the team would start interviewing in Lebanon. The procedure was to call first on the head of the division who provided a general idea about the functions of the division, and its relations to other divisions in the agency. Also, he provided a list of all those who filled or would fill questionnaires. This enabled the team to plan a policy for interviewing. A person who filled a questionnaire was not interviewed, but instead another person who occupied a similar position was interviewed. This arrangement gave a questionnaire and an interview for each position. The same policy was adopted in all the fields. The Survey team conducted 631 interviews with almost a full coverage of Headquarters area employees.

Interviewers aimed to obtain facts about the actual contents of the positions. The interviewer directed questions and the interviewee answered. Although the interviewer had only to record the information he was given, some of the interviewers recorded their personal impressions. It was observed in all the fields, that the employees at all levels tended to exaggerate the importance of their jobs. Those interviewed thought that the interviewers were concerned with

their personal efficiency, and that they were going either to recommend up grading, down grading, or even removal. In contrast to the questionnaire method, the interviewee in this case had nobody to check his statements and he was more free to give any information he wanted. So, there was much room for personal biases to distort the facts and the interviewers too might have been subject to such biases. They might have been unable to take sufficient notes, use accurate terms, or they might have allowed their personal ideas creep through the information they recorded. One source of bias was that if the interviewer called on an employee on a peak-day, he might have considered it as a normal day. Such biases might have taken place, and unfortunately it was not within the means of the team to control them or detect them on the spot.

D. Observation Method

The observation method was used along with the interviews and while auditing some of the questionnaires which contained vague or incomplete statements. The interviewer while concluding an interview, was supposed to observe - if possible - how the employee performed his work, the forms which he used, pressure of his duties, his personal contacts,

whether there was a phone on his desk, physical conditions of his work, etc.

In the Gaza strip, the Transport Officer, came to the hotel at 4 a.m. on September 25, 1959 and accompanied Professor Iskander to observe the work of the drivers in the early morning. However, such an observation was not reliable and could not be taken as a measure. It was suspected that the Transport Officer might have arranged the operation to be run that morning in such a way as to impress Professor Iskander. In the Jebalia clinic in the Gaza Strip, the Medical Officer, Dr. Tawil, kept the writer for two hours on the 24th of September in order to observe the pressure of sick refugees. In Jericho, Jordan, the area Welfare Officer, accompanied the writer to visit the camps in order to observe the pressure which the refugees exert on him for welfare services.

By the 29th of September, the team completed the first phase of the Survey, i.e. collecting the data from all the fields.

Chapter VI

Technical Problems

When the Survey team received back the completed questionnaires from UNRWA, the questionnaires were examined and classified functionally and organizationally. The examination revealed that some questionnaires were not properly filled out and were lacking in one way or the other. Such questionnaires were audited and, in some cases, audits were supplemented by personal on the spot observations.

In October 1959, when the Classifying Committee satisfied itself that there was adequate information for classification purposes, the analytical part of the Survey started. The analysis aimed at establishing an orderly arrangement of positions, assigning a proper title, and a grade for each class.

There are four questions upon which the heart of classification centers: structure of classes, class specifications, allocation of individual positions to classes and keeping the classification plan current.¹⁰¹

101. Powell, op.cit., p. 335

A. Structure of Classes

1. Occupational Groups

To decide that a particular position falls in a certain occupational group is not always a clear-cut matter. Often borderline cases appear where the good judgement of classifiers is taxed to the utmost.¹⁰² It is easy, for example, to classify a typist who spends all of her time operating a typewriter, in the Typing group. Not much difficulties will face classifiers to render a judgement that a stenographer who spends two-thirds of her time performing stenographic work falls in the Stenographer group. If an incumbent is performing different tasks, the percentage of time he or she devotes to each task helps to determine the occupational group in which the position falls.¹⁰³ There is no definite rule on the percentage of time devoted to a task which renders the positions under one particular occupational group rather than another. The highest percentage of time devoted, however, may be a useful guide. If an incumbent spends 80% of his time doing filing, 10% answering phone calls and 10% receiving visitors;

102. Stahl, op.cit., p. 197

103. Ibid.,

his position may fall in the Filing group. There are cases where the time factor is not too much of a guide. If an incumbent devotes 40% of his time to routine clerical work, 40% to administrative detail and 20% to driving an automobile, it is difficult to allocate such a position to a particular occupational group.

In allocating positions to particular occupational groups in UNRWA, many difficulties occurred. For example, some positions entailed more than ten unrelated tasks none of which was a major one. The Classifying Committee had to consider such cases with much tact and judgement. Combined occupational groups were developed such as Clerk/Driver, and Clerk/Receptionist. Group determination was mostly based, in addition to time devoted, on the distinctive features of the positions which appeared to belong to a particular group.

2. Classes within Occupational Groups

Within each occupational group^a number of classes may be established. A Chief Clerk, a Senior Clerk and a Clerk may fall in a clerical group. In this case there are three classes in the clerical group. There is no definite rule as to the optimum number of classes that may be established within a

particular group. The number of classes within each occupational group may vary from one organization to another.¹⁰⁴

The nature of the work of the Agency and the conditions under which it carries out its operations create diverse and numerous jobs. Some of these jobs are unique to the Agency and cannot be found within any other organization operating in the same locality.¹⁰⁵ This stems from the fact that the functions of the Agency itself - Work and Relief - are specialized. In trying to classify and evaluate jobs in the Agency, this problem becomes more apparent. It becomes readily clear that it is very difficult to establish meaningful lines of demarcation among jobs.

The Survey team, in establishing classes within the occupational groups in UNRWA, faced such delicate questions. For example, in the classification plan then existing in UNRWA there were ten classes within the clerical groups: Chief Clerk, Senior Clerk, Clerk-A, Clerk - B, Clerk - C, Clerk - D, Junior Clerk - A, Junior Clerk - B, Junior Clerk - C and Junior Clerk - D. The classifying committee, however, was not able to recognize ten different levels within this group. On analysis it was found out that only seven levels should be recognized.

104. Powell, op.cit., p. 336

105. Examples of these are: Camp leaders, Welfare Workers, Distribution Officers, Area Officers, etc.

Practically, the classes of Junior Clerk - A, Junior Clerk - B, Junior Clerk - C and Junior Clerk - D did not entail different duties and responsibilities that warranted the distinction of four different classes. Instead, they entailed similar duties and required essentially similar qualifications and abilities for satisfactory performance. Accordingly, the classifying committee recommended seven classes in the clerical group: Chief Clerk, Senior Clerk, Clerk - A, Clerk - B, Clerk - C, Clerk - D and Clerk/Trainee. The classifying committee felt that this arrangement was consistent with the classification purposes of UNRWA.

The problem in the monolingual - bilingual distinction is worth mentioning. The classifying committee faced the question: Should a typist for example, who knew two languages be in the same class as a typist who knew only one language? Or should they be in two different classes? Based on the allocation factors used by the classifying committee, they were allocated to two different classes; a Monolingual Typist class and a Bilingual Typist class. In implementing the recommended classification plan, UNRWA preferred to give additional compensation for the knowledge of an additional language.

There are various methods for evaluating positions.

Among these there are: the point-system-which assigns points to each factor, such as, Judgement, responsibility, supervision received, supervision exercised, education, personal contacts, job learning and working conditions, and the "job-ranking" method. The Survey team after considering various methods adopted the job-ranking method.

A classification of positions, as the words imply, is concerned solely with positions and not with their incumbents. The incumbent may be performing a poor, satisfactory, or an efficient job, but this does not affect the position itself. This principle was observed in the analysis. A clear distinction was made in the analysis between the person who may come and go and the position which is there all the time.

"Now this is not as bad as it may appear to those who rebel against the depersonalization of the individual. As a matter of fact, analysts do pay attention to the individual and sentiment when studying jobs; they cannot avoid doing so. The pressure for the reclassification of positions upward is so great that there is little danger that they will ignore human sentiments and human values."¹⁰⁶

Especially when evaluating the top positions, I admit, we could not avoid considering the two together, i.e. the posi-

106. Pfiffner and Presthus, op.cit., p. 315

tion and the person. It is sometimes true that an incumbents' capacities or lack of them may be the reason why his position contains the duties it does. In this respect, then, we cannot claim to have applied the "position centered" concept completely. Our personal values about the individual incumbents of the top positions have played a significant role.

A word on the boundaries of objectivity seems to be in order now. The information collected was not completely factual. Instead, they were facts and values blended together. The personal values of those who filled questionnaires or those interviewed distorted the facts, or reshaped them. The position, which was our concern, did not speak for itself. Therefore, the individual human being who had his own distinct and unique values had to speak for the position. But as he had vested interest in the position, because he considered that as his position, and in most cases, did not like to separate between the position and himself, he gave information that revealed his personal outlook, and evaluation. Also we should not forget that the analyst too is a human being with his own set of values. It is believed that we minimized the role of our values in the analysis. This means that we studied the information we had, which was an admixture of

factual elements and valuation elements, objectively. Someone may ask; why have you considered the values while an objective study should limit itself to the facts? The answer is that values in this survey are as important as the facts and practical separation between the two was not possible.

"Is not, however, every value a fact, and are not most facts values to someone? Values are important data, for values comprise some of the most important motivating factors in human life. They are directive agencies which in very significant ways mold and condition human behavior. As data, values are facts."¹⁰⁷

By December 21, 1959, we completed drawing separate classification charts for Headquarters & the Lebanon, Jordan, and Syria Field Offices. At 3 p.m. of the same day, the Director of the Survey team convened a meeting for the purpose of studying those charts, and relating them to each other in order to draw a final chart which coordinated the different charts for all the fields. Professors Dajani, Iskander, Shirley, and myself were members of this committee. In the process of studying some positions, a clash of different opinions was unavoidable. In such cases, the final decision was arbitrary and a compromise had to be reached for the

107. H. Bonner, Social Psychology, (New York: American Book Co., 1953) p. 5.

majority of such cases. For example, when studying the case of Camp Leaders and Area Officers, we agreed to make different levels according to the size of the camp and the area. But we could not agree on the size that ordains a certain level. The size of camps ranged from 500 persons to 36,000, and the areas from 800 persons to 100,000. We agreed to make a small area, a normal area, and a super area. This was fine and attractive, but we could not give a scientific definition of those categories. Should we make a small area in the range of 0-25,000 persons, the normal in the range of 25,000-50,000, and the super in the range of 50,000 and above? Everyone of us gave different ranges that allowed the distinction among three levels. But none of us could justify his ranges on a scientific basis. Then we reached an arbitrary agreement on these ranges, i.e. a small area would be in the range of 0-25,000, a normal area in the range of 25,000-70,000 and a super area in the range of 70,000 and above. This agreement took into consideration a normal distribution of the three, i.e. a central tendency with few areas on the left of the curve and few on its right. Similar procedures were adopted in establishing seven levels of Camp Leaders.

3. Equating Occupational Categories

Since the Agency operates in different geographical

areas, and its activities are essentially identical in all of its fields of operations, then it follows that similar jobs should be assigned the same rank through all the fields. Ideally, this should be the case. The Survey team, in general, observed this fact. However, this was not possible in all cases. Therefore, adjustments to take care of geographical differences were made.

A further problem is equating occupational groups in relation to each other in the classification plan. In some cases, on the basis of actual contents of the job, it cannot be justified at a certain level. However, in considering factors other than the content and level of difficulty, such as the supply and demand of the occupational group in the labour market, such jobs are placed higher if the supply is less than the demand. The Survey team actually faced this problem with doctors. In considering the demand of the Agency to this occupational group and the shortage of same in the labour market, doctors were given higher grades than the level of the difficulty of their jobs warranted. This was made in order to make the Agency able to recruit this needed occupational group.

The Agency, in its letter of May 19, 1959, to the

Political Studies & Public Administration Department of American University of Beirut, included as one term of reference to the classification project the determination of the broad classification of staff into categories that reflect professional services, and general services, and the determination of the level at which a manual worker category might be established. Even with this broad classification, the problem is complicated and any decision reached in this connection is an arbitrary one. There are types of jobs that cannot be readily judged to fall under one category rather than the other. The three groups or types of jobs are meant to embrace all the types of jobs that are present in the area staff. Basic to this, is that each group embraces homogeneous jobs of the same general character in terms of duties performed, qualifications called for and responsibility and authority involved. Therefore, it becomes important to ensure the homogeneity of all jobs included under an occupational group, so that their evaluation and ranking in relation to each other and to other occupational groups may be fairly established.

The Survey team in its report of March, 1960 on the classification project and in accordance with the terms of reference of the Agency, provided for this broad classifica-

tion into three main categories. The Survey team recommended, as we have seen, a classification plan of twenty grades. The first three (from the lowest end) embraced all jobs of apprentices and learners: unskilled and semi-skilled jobs; the middle fourteen embraced all the general service category, and the upper three levels embraced the professional categories. Although this was the best in the eyes of the Survey team, yet this decision was not free of flaws and inconsistency.

The criteria of establishing this broad classification were the levels of the jobs. Hence we can assume that if a certain job is classified in the highest three levels, then it falls under the professional category. It is indeed the content of that job that made it possible for its placement in that high level. It does not necessarily follow that if the job is highly rated it should fall under the professional category. Under this arrangement, the Nurse is not in the professional staff since the job was not rated in the upper three grades of the classification plan, while conventionally we know that nursing is a profession. The Travel Officer for example was rated in the upper three grades of the classification plan. Therefore, he fell under the professional category, while we know that a Travel Officer's job is of a

'Servicing' nature. Other examples may be given to illustrate that the grade of the job cannot be used to distinguish the category and type of work.

Two questions may be raised in connection with using the ranking method by the classifying committee rather than any of the other methods. The first relates to those particular reasons that made the method suitable. The second relates to the reliability of the results achieved by the use of this method.

Three main reasons made the method suitable to that particular purpose. First, the time element was important in that particular case. UNRWA wanted the project to be completed in six months. Since the ranking method is less time consuming compared to the point-system or factor comparison methods; the classifying committee recognized the feasibility of using the ranking method in order to meet the deadline. Second, the ranking method does not involve detailed paper work and it is easy to explain to the employees. Both facts suited the aims of the classifying committee. Third, experience of the Agency with the point-system left some doubts on the efficacy of the method. UNRWA management indicated their dissatisfaction with

the point system method. The major attack against the method was that they were using one standard to measure the difficulty and value of all types of jobs. It was not correct according to some UNRWA officials to use the same standard in evaluating, for example, the position of a Medical Officer and a Sanitation Officer or a messenger. They were of the opinion that the method could be used effectively if different standards were used to evaluate different occupations. There seems to be some truth in their objections to the point-system as it was applied in the Agency.

There are certain factors which if carefully observed by classifiers would help to achieve reliable results and would minimize the disadvantages inherent in the ranking method. The classifying committee in using this method observed the following controlling factors.

1. More than one classifier in using the ranking method usually gives the benefit of pooled judgement. The classifying committee was composed of four persons; hence the benefit of pooled judgement was obtained.
2. Ranking more than one time helps to achieve more reliable ranking. The classifying committee made it a point to make several rankings.
3. Better results are achieved if ranking is first made on a departmental basis, then combined with an over-all ranking. This procedure was observed by the classifying committee.

4. If the first, second, third, etc. ranking is made between intervals of time, the possible bias of previous ranking would be minimized, if not eliminated. This was actually observed by the classifying committee.
5. Knowledge of classifiers with the wide range of position; the overall purpose, methods and processes of operations of the organization help to achieve reliable ranking. The classifying committee by studying the job descriptions, reviewing the filled out questionnaires, making field visits and observations; studying the charts of the Agency and conducting interviews and discussions with various UNRWA officials, acquired adequate knowledge for classification purposes.
6. Classifiers in using the ranking method may be biased by the title. The classifying committee based its judgement on the actual contents of the positions.

The foregoing may illustrate that the classifying committee in selecting the ranking method benefited from its advantages and took necessary measures to control its disadvantages. As such there are good reasons to conclude that the results achieved by the use of this method were reliable.

B. Class Specifications

Class specifications consist of four major parts.¹⁰⁸

These are: the title, the definition of duties and responsibilities, examples of typical tasks performed, and minimum qualifications required for satisfactory performance of the duties and

responsibilities entailed by the class. Drawing class specifications which are useful for classification purposes depends, to a large extent, upon the ability of classifiers to make analyses and syntheses of positions which are essentially similar enough to be classed together. The capacity of classifiers to generalize from the various positions which are similar is very important in this process.¹⁰⁹

1. Titles and Definitions:

A title is a classification concept that has an operational meaning.¹¹⁰ Clerk, Secretary, Nurse, Camp Leader, etc. are titles of classes which have distinctive features and special characteristics. A title helps to indicate the type of work involved in the class. A good title is a meaningful title. It conveys as accurately as possible the nature and type of tasks which are characteristic of the class. The title Secretary for example, indicates that secretarial tasks are the distinctive features of the class of Secretary. It is inaccurate, for example, to give the title of Secretary to a class which does not entail secretarial work, the title of Nurse to a class which does not involve nursing.

108. Powell, op.cit., p. 337

109. Stahl, op.cit., p. 198

110. Otis and Leukart, op.cit., p. 259

The title itself does not change the content of the class, the class is what it is and the title is attached to it as a convenient tag. Therefore we cannot over-emphasize the importance of an as accurate as possible definition. Because of the diversified nature of the positions in the Agency, titles that are meaningful are very difficult to establish.

The classification plan of UNRWA in force at the time of the Survey had about 450 class titles. On analyses it was discovered that there were many meaningless, disguised and redundant titles. The classifying committee corrected this problem and created meaningful titles where possible. As a result of this correction, the classifying committee recommended 360 titles to the various classes covered by the classification plan. It does not mean, however, that the classifying committee was completely successful in creating meaningful titles. Delicate problems were faced for which convenient titles were not possible to create. For example, the UNRWA classification plan then in force contained the titles of Inspector for a class which contained only one position in the Lebanon field office. The title suggested that the tasks of this class involved inspection. On analyses, the

classifying committee discovered that inspection was neither a major nor a minor task in the class. Rather, the class involved tasks of diversified nature none of which would justify allocating this class to a particular occupational group. This class apparently was created under political and social pressures to accommodate a particular individual. The title 'Inspector' was given to this class in order to attach some importance to the class. Probably, this was necessary to justify a high salary for the individual. Thus the title itself was more or less a psychological device which served a particular need.

2. Typical tasks:

Class specifications should include duties and responsibilities which are characteristic of all positions that are similar enough to be included in a class. A careful analysis of the duties and responsibilities of the various positions in the class would provide a useful tool in picking typical duties and responsibilities of the class.¹¹¹

It is not possible for classifiers to include in the statement of typical tasks of a class all the varieties of tasks involved in each particular position in that class. In

111. Stahl, op.cit., p. 198

fact, this would be no class specification at all. It would be just combining the duties of the various positions as detailed in their job descriptions. On the other hand, if too few typical tasks are shown, it will be difficult to ascertain in which class an individual position may fall and borderline cases will appear. The importance of careful job analysis of all positions in the class and the independent judgement of classifiers cannot be overemphasized.

The Survey team in drawing class specifications for the classes covered by the classification plan of UNRWA, adopted the following technique: Each member of the Survey team prepared TENTATIVE class specifications for all classes in particular occupational groups. Then each member checked and corrected the class specifications prepared by other members, to ensure that typical tasks of positions in the class were included. The classifying committee then reviewed, checked, and corrected all class specifications. This procedure helped to obtain the benefit of pooled judgement. The final class specifications took into consideration the purpose they are to serve in UNRWA. The classifying committee found it most helpful to include the statement 'May perform other related tasks' in all class specifications.

3. Minimum Qualifications

The statement of minimum qualifications is a guide to management. It helps to determine what type of person is required to occupy a particular position. Usually, minimum qualifications include formal education, previous experience in similar or related work, and other skills and knowledge. The minimum qualifications prescribed for each class of positions should not merely represent the qualifications of incumbents of the class at the time of preparing a classification plan. Rather, they stand for the minimum qualifications required for satisfactory performance of the tasks and responsibilities of the position. It is quite possible that an incumbent of a particular position in a class may have higher qualification than prescribed by the class specification. In other cases, he may have lower qualifications.

The classifying committee in prescribing minimum qualifications for the various classes covered by the classification plan, faced a two-fold problem. Classification technical requirements demand that minimum qualifications be established irrespective of the actual qualifications of the incumbents. On the other hand, if these minimums are established without

regard to the particular caliber and character of the Agency's employees, the classification plan may not serve a good purpose to the Agency. Classification plans, after all, are not ends by themselves, they are tools for action. The classifying committee, after considering all aspects of the problem involved, established class qualifications with a due regard to the qualifications of the Agency's area staff and its labor market, the Palestine Arab refugees.

4. Work and Relief: Are they Compatible?

Position classification contributes to the elimination of waste and duplication of work since assignments under the scheme are more clearly defined than without a classification plan. However, UNRWA is a relief Agency, and it may be contended that efficiency does not count as much in the administration of many of its activities as in most agencies. The position classification system will require persons of certain qualifications and abilities to perform the jobs as they are defined in the classification scheme. Theoretically speaking, the position is first identified, then a person is recruited to occupy it and perform its duties. If the Agency would apply rigid qualification standards probably many of the

present incumbents would wind up with no jobs as in many cases the Agency gives employment to particular persons to help them earn their living. Some believe that there is no person who is really willing to work who cannot find work that suits his own potential.

"Even in the gloomiest of depression years certain well-to-do individuals in responsible positions persisted in the statement that if a man had the proper initiative and self-respect, he could be self supporting."¹¹²

The idea entailed in this theory would then justify the Agency denying work to some individuals and thus forcing them to do something about getting a job.

"This feeling is important in relief administration, since it has been a not uncommon occurrence for agencies occasionally to deny relief to individuals as a means of forcing them to find work."¹¹³

The Agency is adopting a rather positive technique. It helps the refugees get jobs.

UNRWA cannot forget that it is a relief agency for a particular population. Hence its problem would be:

Should its projects and operations be designed so as to use

112. Ralph E. Spear, "Work and Relief: Do they mix," Public Administration Review, IV (1944), p. 77.

113. Ibid., . . .

the available skills of the refugees or should it design its activities with a view of using only those persons who are fit for the job. The dilemma cannot be compromised.

As a relief Agency, the Agency should continue to employ and create jobs for the appointees.

In fact, UNRWA represents a relief program more than a work program and hence its policy will be geared along these lines. In a relief program it is unlikely that officials will stress high quality of performance.

C. Installation of the Classification Plan

The installation phase of classification involves five steps: adoption of the classification plan by the organization, determining who will administer it, promulgation of class specifications, allocation of individual positions to classes and provision for, and hearing of appeals on allocations.¹¹⁴

The Survey team after completion of the plan submitted its report and recommended adoption of the plan by the Agency. Basically the Agency accepted the classification plan as developed by the Survey team. In its implementation, however, the Agency in some instances, added a few classes due to new desired positions at certain levels.

114. Stahl, op.cit., p. 200

The Personnel Division at Headquarters was charged with its administration. Class specifications were reviewed and in some instances modified and then promulgated throughout all the fields of the Agency. In the allocating of individual positions to classes, the status of some personnel was affected. Some positions were allocated to higher classes; others to lower classes. Incumbents of positions affected negatively, however, were not personally affected.

The Survey team expected that some personnel may feel, as a result of the survey work, that their positions would be effected negatively. In order for such employees to be heard, the Survey recommended the establishment of a Classifications Grievance Board. As result of the Survey, some positions were found overrated and consequently they were allocated lower grades in order to place them in their proper place in the classification plan. UNRWA in implementing the recommended plans did not actually downgrade the incumbent of the over-graded posts to lower levels, rather it maintained the incumbents of such posts with their previous levels. However, such posts in the implemented classification plan are marked for further examination. Recruitment into such posts will be

subject to the review of the Management Committee.

We shall see that the Survey team recommend creation of a Central Classification unit. The decisions of this unit would affect line officials, supervisors, and employees. There is no guarantee that its decisions would always be correct and accepted without debate, however. In those cases where supervisors refuse to accept its decisions, friction may take place, and the voice of the affected officials should be heard.

A third party which is isolated from the dispute involved may render its opinion on the issue. The function of the third party would be to hear the voice of both the affected official and the central classification unit and after collecting facts on the issue, to render its final decision. A Grievance Board might be able to act as the required third party. The Survey team recommended the creation of such a board to insure uniform treatment. It would act as a safety valve to control bias and abuse of discretion of the central classification unit.

The outlined arrangement of creating a central classification unit and a Grievance Board might make the staff psychologically satisfied that their management has treated them fairly. The staff of any organization like to

know that what they are doing has been evaluated objectively.

D. Continuous Administration of Classification Plans

After each position has been allocated to its proper class in the classification plan, the last phase of installation has been completed.

A classification plan in order to continue to be useful and serve the purpose for which it has been developed must be always current. Classification plans ought to be alert to newly created positions, and to positions which may shrink or expand in contents due to organizational changes.

Continuous check and review of classification plans by the proper authorities are an important aspect in keeping them up-to-date.¹¹⁵

The Survey team recommended the creation of a classification unit in the Agency. The nature of the operations of the Agency required a central unit to administer a uniform classification plan according to the Survey team.

It is unfortunate that there is no indication whether the Agency has taken this recommendation seriously. The

115. Stahl, op.cit., p. 202.

present arrangement calls for study of classification problems in the personnel section which does not have a specialized unit for this function.

Organization Directive No. 15 of April. 1960, established the Management Committee and defined its functions. This committee was established at the HQ with the following composition:-

Assistant Director, Department of Admin.	- Chairman
Comptroller	- Deputy chairman
Assistant Director, Department of Operations	- Member
Chief Personnel Division	- Member

The management committee is empowered to render final decisions on all area staff manning table problems. It determines and keep under review the manning table, and determines and creates necessary positions, and eliminates unnecessary positions from the manning table.

Members of the committee who are unable to attend are authorized to designate an alternate, and members present are empowered to take decisions on all classification problems.

Experience of the Agency has proved that in order to

maintain its classification plan and policies current, periodic check and review are necessary. The activities of the Agency, as we have seen, are not static, rather they are subject to change from time to time. They either shrink or expand.

In the absence of a Central Classification Unit, it is possible that line supervisors will not be aware and conscious of the need for review and check of the contents and scope of the jobs of their subordinates from time to time. A Central Classification Unit would make standard policies for supervisors concerning periodic review and reporting of job changes under their jurisdiction. Even granted that line supervisors will be alert to any change, they are liable to exaggerate the importance of what is being done in their divisions, and there will be different classification policies in the Agency. Line supervisors will not be able to evaluate and classify the jobs of their subordinates in relation to all other jobs in the various divisions of the Agency. A central classification unit would be more qualified and equipped with the necessary tools to apply a uniform classification policy. A central classification unit would not have direct interest in stressing the importance of the work of some divisions in relation to others. Rather, because it would be detached, and in view of its expert knowledge on the field, its

policies and decisions would be expected to be uniform throughout all the fields and divisions of the Agency.

Chapter VII

Problems of Compensation

A classification plan may be referred to as a systematic inventory of jobs available in the organization for which such a plan is developed. The function of a compensation plan is then to price these jobs.¹¹⁶ It attaches a certain amount of money to each of the jobs in the classification plan. It should be emphasized that the prices developed by the compensation plan are not intended to be for persons but for the jobs themselves. The persons assigned to these jobs may be changed and replaced by others, yet the rate of pay as determined by the compensation plan will continue. The price of the job should not be changed because of the change of the person doing the job; rather it should be changed if felt justified by the salary setting authority in view of changes in the content and scope of the job, in prevailing wages, in supply of qualified personnel, etc.

In setting basic salary levels for a particular organization, many factors are involved such as minimum standards of decency and comfort; comparable wages; cost of

116. Stahl, op.cit., p. 185.

living; and supply and demand in the labour market.¹¹⁷

Acceptance of the general principle of 'Equal Pay for Equal Work' without appreciable age, sex, geographic, marital or other distinctions is usually accepted as sound in the theory of wage and salary administration.

The financial ability of the employer and minimum and maximum salaries will determine the range of possible wages and salaries to be paid.

There are several basic factors upon which individual determinations of position or grade rates in a sound compensation plan should be based. Duties and responsibilities play the most important role in determining the amount of pay for a particular job.¹¹⁸ This is in application of the general principle 'Equal Pay for Equal Work'. Consequently, a higher pay will be determined for more difficult work. A second important factor in the determination of rates in a compensation plan is the pay for comparable jobs in the community or labor market where the organization for which the compensation plan is to be developed operates.¹¹⁹ Conditions under which the assignment of the jobs will be

117. Ibid., P. 212.

118. Otis and Leukart, op.cit., p. 12.

119. Ibid., p. 4.

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117. Ibid., P. 212.

118. Otis and Leukart, op.cit., p. 12.

119. Ibid., p. 4.

carried out and the supply of available personnel also should be taken into consideration.

In accordance with the contract of July 30, 1959, the Political Studies and Public Administration department of American University of Beirut undertook UNRWA classification and compensation project with specified terms of reference. The determination of a compensation plan on the basis of prevailing rates of pay for comparable positions on the local scene, was among those references. Such comparisons were to be made with the best practices of governments and large scale employers.

The Survey Team in determining a compensation plan for the Agency considered two important points: (1) What is paid for similar jobs in outside employment and, (2) Cost of living in each field of operation.

A. Comparable Jobs in Outside Employment

The fact that the Agency operates in diverse geographical areas complicates preparing a comparative wage and salary analysis.

Area adjustments, foreseen as across-the-board adjustments to compensate for geographical differences, were finally recommended. Beirut was selected as the primary source for

comparable wage data. This was because of the availability and greater access to comparable data in Beirut as compared to Amman or Damascus. Some wage data was collected from Damascus, Cairo and Amman as a result of selected interviews. Great reliance was placed on secondary data as compiled by foreign oil companies.

In trying to collect wage data in Beirut, some problems were met. It was clearly impossible to check all positions as covered by the position classification plan as developed by the Survey Team. The problem was solved by selecting a list of key classes. It was felt that this list of classes, when carefully checked, would give more accurate results than a much briefer check of a greater variety of types of work. On the basis of their common usage in both private and governmental organizations, twelve key classes were selected, namely: Guard, Clerk, Driver, Telephone Operator, Clerk-typist, Mechanic, Sr. Clerk-Steno, Accountant, Engineer, Chief Accountant and the class of the highest paid (amount rate on the time) area staff member. Foreign companies, local commercial establishments, foreign embassies and the Lebanese Government were selected as the source for comparable wage data. The interviews made for the

purpose of collecting the information required focused attention on the content of the position and not merely on the title. This was necessary to ensure that comparable wage data had been obtained in terms of actual duties and responsibilities.

Information on benefits, as applied by these employers, was also collected. These benefits were compiled by the Survey Team and were reduced to percentages of basic salary with the exception of family allowance and sick leave. The average benefits paid by outside employers as revealed by the survey in Beirut was 19.6% of basic salary as compared to 18.3% paid by UNRWA.

Table No. 6) shows the position which UNRWA occupied as an employer.¹²⁰ On the whole, the position was not satisfactory in light of the desire of the Agency, as an international organization, to be regarded as a 'good employer' on the local scene. Only one class e.g. Mechanic, was paid by UNRWA the maximum found in the area. All the other eleven key classes were paid below the maximum found. Only three classes were paid above that average, e.g. Accountant, Clerk and Engineer. All the other nine were paid below the average. This clearly shows that the compensation plan of UNRWA, then existing, was

120. Before at the time of the Survey, Summer 1959.

not satisfactory in the light of comparable salaries.

In light of the comparable salary data collected and the cost of living, salary scales were then prepared. The salary scale recommended by the Survey Team for Lebanon placed all the twelve key classes above the average paid in the area, (except for that of Guard which was below the average but above the minimum) and four above the maximum. (See table No. 17)

Other classes were tied in with the benchmark classes in drawing up salary scales for different grades.

The agency, in implementing the report of the Survey Team, effective January 1st, 1961, essentially accepted the salary scale as prepared by the team with minor modifications. The scale as recommended by the Survey Team increased the previous UNRWA salary by 18%, 14.1%, 12.4%, 12.3% 13.3%, 13.9%, 14.2%, 14.3%, 15.5% 15.7%, 16.5% 17.2%, 22.1% and 25.7% for Grades 1,2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14 respectively. The average of these increases is 16%. The scale, as implemented by the Agency, increased grades 2 through 12 by 15% and grade 13 by 17%.

A separate salary scale was prepared for Syria by the Survey Team but was essentially the same as for Lebanon.

The cost of living change in Syria between July 1955, and July, 1959, was 29.8%, 21.5% and 19.4% for the lowest income group, the middle income group and the highest income group respectively. The general wage pattern for the twelve key classes in Syria was almost identical with that of Lebanon. In preparing the same salary scale for Lebanon and Syria, though the rise of the cost of living in the two countries differed, emphasis was placed on the comparable wage data. Since the scale prepared for Lebanon placed the scale in a fair position in relation to what is paid in outside employments and since the wage pattern in Syria and Lebanon are substantially the same, then it follows that the same scale can be fairly applied in Syria.

Comparative wage data was difficult to find in Jordan. The UNRWA scale then in force placed the Agency about midway between the minimum found in the area and the USOM (United States Operations Mission) ceiling for the area. This meant that the UNRWA scale for Jordan might be considered satisfactory. Even so, because the cost of living had risen from 10.8% for the upper income group to 16% for the lower income group, the Survey Team found a salary increase was justified. It recommended approximately 12% for the lower grades, 9% for the

middle grades, and 6% for the upper grades.

In the Gaza Strip, on the basis of comparative wage rates, no salary increase was warranted. UNRWA there was and is a dominant employer and its policies greatly affect the economy of the area. However, the cost of living rose sharply since 1955 and since the Gaza scale was patterned after that of Jordan, the Survey Team recommended that it continue to be so. Therefore, it recommended a partial increase to meet a partial coverage of the rise in the cost of living. The scale prepared for Gaza represents an average increase of approximately 7%.

B. The Compensation Plan as Related to the Financial Position of the Agency.

UNRWA from its inception depended on pledges in cash and in kind by members of the U.N. to finance its operations. Failure of a member state to live up to its promise to contribute to the Agency, could result in cutting its activities. The services that the Agency is able to render to its clientele are determined by the amount of the budget. To continue to provide the basic and essential services, the Agency has been feeling the need to press contributing states to increase their contribution to the budget. Usually, the Commissioner General approves the budget

for the following year within the limits of expected contributions of members of the U.N. When de does so, he tries to do his best and exert every possible effort to raise the necessary funds to provide the minimum services to its clientele. In point of fact, although it is true that the services rendered have been steadily increased and improved, yet there is much to be desired and it is doubtful whether the Agency would be able to raise funds for all the services that it should perform. The Agency desires to maintain a salary level at least above the average rate paid in the community for comparable jobs. But, although this is the desire and the aim of the Agency, there are budgetary limits. In other words, the budget of the organization comes into the picture when the question of payment is posed. This means that the salary structure cannot be tailored in line with comparable rates in the community without first being tailored to the requirements of the budget. We can conclude that the financial position of the Agency makes it difficult to apply a salary structure which is in conformity with good practices. The problem really does not lie in drawing such a plan, but rather in its application.

In cases where the budget of the Agency does not

warrant both the continuation of certain services and making pay at a certain level, it has to choose between two alternatives, i.e. either to make cuts in salaries or shrink its services. Usually, the Agency exerts every possible effort on member states to collect the minimum budget required. The Director of the Agency, in his memorandum to the members of the Advisory Commission on the subject of the Agency's budget for 1960, & in accordance with para No. 6 of the said memorandum, he indicated that a provision of 12.5% increase was made to meet the expected increase in salaries as a result of the Survey. The Director stressed the point that in order to recruit and retain competent international and area staff the Agency must be able to offer reasonably attractive conditions of employment, which it could not do at that time due to budgetary difficulties. This shows clearly that the financial situation of the Agency leaves an imprint on its decisions on compensation policies.

C. Limited Opportunities of Refugees for Outside Work

An additional problem that faces the drawing of a compensation plan for the Agency is the fact that the bulk of employees are themselves refugees. It cannot be ignored that these refugees have very limited opportunity of work

outside the Agency. The supply of labor exceeds demand and there is no competitive pressure for high pay. Furthermore, since the Agency provides services to the refugees, in order to have an equitable distribution of the dollar portion to the refugees, there must be a compromise between the amount paid to area employees as payroll and the other portion provided to all refugees in the form of goods and services.

It should be always borne in mind that the Agency in many cases creates jobs and employs refugees with the primary intention of giving them work. It is a relief Agency and providing work for some refugees falls within the orbit of its policy.

D. Theory and Practice of the Local Salary Concept

The concept of a salary based on prevailing local rates in theory may be sound, but in practice involves difficulties.¹²¹ The problem is not confined to collecting adequate information on the pay structures of the various employing bodies in the locality; it goes beyond this. At best, decisions in this connection are arbitrary ones and a result of compromise. Another problem in the application

121. Young, op.cit., p. 136.

of the local salary concept is that extra benefits may be attached to jobs which are not easily related to the key jobs. In some cases, the Agency finds itself unable to recruit qualified persons to some area posts from the locality where it operates. Because such posts fall under the area category, then recruiting of internationals to such posts will not be desired. Instead, the Agency tries to recruit the necessary persons from the neighbouring countries. But the Local Salary structure may not be adequate to attract candidates from the neighbouring countries. To overcome this difficulty, the Agency pays recruits from the neighbouring countries what it calls a 'non-residence' allowance in addition to the salary paid in accordance with the local salary structure. Such recruits are considered neither area nor international staff. They fall under a special category called 'Semi-Area' staff.

The foregoing serves to indicate that the local salary concept although might be sound in theory, involves difficulties in practice.

Table No. 60

COMPARATIVE SALARY ANALYSIS - LEBANON

(In Lebanese Pounds)

Outside Employment

<u>Position</u>	<u>Min.</u>	<u>Max.</u>	<u>Av.</u>	<u>UNRWA</u>
Guard	1620	2853	2237	1800
Clerk	1740	2853	2297	2400
Driver	1800	3863	2831	2760
Telephone Operator	2400	3900	3150	3120
Clerk-Typist	2400	3900	3150	3120
Mechanic	3300	3720	3510	3720
Sr. Clerk	3600	5600	4600	4320
Steno-Clerk	3600	5091	4346	4320
Accountant	3600	6540	5070	5640
Engineer	6120	9146	7633	8880
Chief Accountant	9600	15600	12600	9600
Top Position	12000	19200	15600	13920

Source: Political Studies and Public Administration Department, A Report to UNRWA on Classification of Local Staff (1960), Appendix No. 2.

Table No. 17

<u>Position</u>	<u>Av. Paid in Area</u>	<u>Max. Paid in Area</u>	<u>Rec. by Survey Team</u>	<u>Implemented by INRWA</u>
Guard	2237	2853	1920	2555
Clerk	2297	2853	3192	3180
Driver	2831	3863	3192	3180
Telephone Operator	3150	3900	3192	3180
Clerk-Typist	3150	3900	3708	3696
Mechanic	3510	3720	4244	4248
Sr. Clerk	4600	5600	5760	5556
Steno-Clerk	4346	5091	4992	4860
Accountant	5070	6540	7488	7296
Engineer	7633	9146	11100	10560
Chief Accountant	12600	15600	12540	11856
Top Position	15600	19200	18300	16620

Comparative Salary Analysis Survey team
findings and recommendation and UNRWA
implementation - Lebanon.

Chapter VIII

C O N C L U S I O N

Position classification is not an end in itself but an aid towards the achievement of efficient personnel and budgetary administration. As such, it is a useful management tool. However, if the classification system adopted by a particular organization is not sound, it defeats its purpose and hurts the organization. There is no absolute classification plan that can be taken from one organization and adopted by another. The general framework of classification plans can find wide acceptance in various organizations since it uses generally accepted principles or guides of classification. However, the general framework should be tailored to the requirements of the particular organization.

This work has been devoted to the study of the classification problems of UNRWA and the extent some of these have been adequately solved by the plan recommended by the Survey Team hired from the American University of Beirut to conduct a classification study. As a specialized U.N. Agency operating in one area of the world, it has been seen that the problems that meet the experts in classification may be resolved. The success of the experts would be determined to

the extent they have been able to tackle such problems and prepare a plan which is in accordance with generally accepted principles of classification.

We have seen that the Agency adopted two classification systems; one for International Civil Servants and the other for Area Staff. Theoretically speaking, it is not wise to maintain two plans. Position Classification's most significant function is to provide equitable treatment through evaluation of jobs on the basis of their content and level of difficulty. The mere fact that there are two plans in the Agency, may rule out equitable treatment and, thus, the purpose of classification may be defeated. However, when considering the practical aspects of this in terms of the role of the Agency and its mission, the problem will not be so acute and probably in terms of analytical point of view the two plans may be justified. At this point we leave any further discussion on the classification system of the international civil servants in the Agency and turn to focus it on the classification problems of the Area Staff.

The Agency, as an organization, aspires to have an efficient administration. We have seen that adoption of the merit system was the most important factor that influenced and contributed to the movement of position classification. Linked

with this factor, the quest for efficiency which took root at the end of the first decade of this century, fitted nicely with the aims of position classification. In preparing a plan for the Agency, and in tailoring this plans to the specific needs and requirements of the Agency, such a plan cannot be geared fully toward the goal of efficiency and merit. Knowing that the Agency is there to render services to the refugees; and that the majority of its employees are themselves refugees; and that finding employment for these refugees is one of its objectives, then we cannot expect to have a very rigid system. If we are going to have a very rigid system, then we will have too many narrowly defined classes with which only a few of the refugees will fit. Therefore, the Survey Team in drawing a classification plan for the Agency, took into consideration these points, and accordingly the plan drawn was not so rigid; rather it was flexible and gave room for creation of new posts to meet the need of the Agency in terms of its goals and objectives. An analysis of job specifications prepared by the team, would readily show that these were made to fit the general calibre found among the refugees themselves. In most cases, qualifications of the incumbent of a particular position at the time of the Survey, were considered as adequate. The Team could have made the requirements of the jobs in terms of qualifications at higher

levels but then the Agency could not staff its organizations from among the refugees themselves and, thus would defeat its purpose.

In trying to apply a compensation plan that would suit the needs of the Agency, the Team recommended a plan that placed the salary structure of the Agency slightly higher than the average pay in the community. This is in conformity with what is desired by the Agency as an international organization and within the limits of its budgetary problems. The Team could have recommended much higher salary scales that would have placed the Agency above the maximum paid in the community, but this is not possible viewed from the financial position of the Agency. As was mentioned before, the budget of the Agency is not necessarily geared to the requirements of the Agency; rather the services and what the Agency can do or cannot do is determined by the expected contributions of U.N. member states to the budget of the Agency. Failure of any member state to pay its share either in cash or in kind, may result in cutting UNRWA's activities. It was not possible in consideration of the Agency's financial position to prepare a scale that placed it as the best employer.

Uniformity is one of the basic requirements of sound classification and generally speaking, it demands consistency

among the various geographical areas of an Agency's operations. Some geographical differentials in certain instances may be desirable, but not wholesale differences from one region to the next. In order to arrive at this required uniformity and, at the same time compromise between the geographical areas, 'across the board' adjustments were made. There is no fixed rate for this, but the across the board adjustment was a compromise.

While on the subject of uniformity of the classification system, we should refer to the classification of the teaching group as inconsistent with position classification. The teaching group were classified as we have seen, on basis of their academic qualifications and ability, i.e. in accordance with the 'personal rank' approach, while all other jobs were classified on basis of their contents. It can be said that this is not sound and that, as two groups are treated differently, equitable treatment is not provided by the classification plan. This is not entirely true, however. The classification of the teaching group on the basis of their academic qualifications has found almost a universal acceptance and the philosophy backing it can be justified. Their integration with the other staff in the plan by applying the same grade pattern to this group, provides a psychological

satisfaction that their classification was not different from others. Yet, there is a serious charge against unfairness in terms of salary qualifications in relation to other staff members. An analysis of the classification plan would readily detect the unfairness to the teaching group. If we consider the case of two persons equally qualified, one occupying a clerical post and the other a teaching position, we would observe that the one who is assigned to the clerical post has an advantage over the other who is assigned to the teaching group. In fact, in some cases, there are some employees who are assigned to positions classified on the basis of their contents who would not be accepted as teachers, yet who are paid higher. The teachers feel bitterly about this problem. This case is probably unique to UNRWA and the reasons could be reduced to the fact that the requirements of the positions are not made so rigid in view of the supply of staff from among the refugees themselves and the requirement of filling these posts from the refugees themselves. This is directly related to the goal of the Agency as a relief and works Agency.

We can distinguish three classification plans in the Agency, i.e. one for the International Civil Servants, one for the Area staff - non-teaching group, and a third for the teaching group. Theoretically, there should be only one that

is applicable in the Agency in order to preserve the principle of 'equitable treatment' and 'equal pay for equal work'. We have seen that the nature of the Agency required the provision of a special plan for the International Civil Servants, and the nature of the teaching profession and the universal acceptance of the special philosophy of their classification, could not but make the system a three-way-system. This fact cannot make it bad. A system as mentioned before is not an end in itself, it is there to serve an aim. The plan provided for the Agency intended to serve the requirements of the Agency in light of its role in a particular economic, social and psychological setting. Accordingly, the plan was tailored to meet these requirements. It should be stressed that the plan cannot be analysed in a vacuum; if it is, then it can be reduced to an unsound one, rather it should be analyzed and evaluated in terms of the frame of reference of the particular needs and requirements of the purpose for which it has been made.

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