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The Development of Public Education in Libya 1951-70
With Special Reference to University Education

by

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Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of Education in the University of Durham for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

In all developing countries, education has a crucial role to play. In Libya no serious attempt had been made to establish an education system prior to independence in 1951. In the years immediately following independence, the country was faced with acute social, political and economic problems. The challenge of this situation was confronted with courage and determination. Programmes of development were initiated in many spheres and, above all, attempts were made to provide universal primary schooling and expand education at all levels.

This thesis describes the development of public education in Libya during the period 1951 - 70. Chapter One is a brief historical account of the educational, political and socio-economic background. Those factors which have influenced subsequent developments are discussed in some detail. Chapter Two deals with the organization of the present educational system and the legislation and regulations which govern it. It attempts an evaluation of current policies. The problems and progress of primary education are considered in Chapter Three. Chapter Four traces the development and difficulties of secondary and vocational education. Chapter Five is concerned with the education of teachers and their recruitment. The development of higher education is discussed in Chapter Six. Some of the urgent educational problems which remain to be resolved are considered in the final Chapter.

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Last, but by no means least, I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my beloved wife, whose manifold help and encouragement have always inspired me.

PREFACE.

The aim of this study is to trace the development of public education in Libya during the period 1951 - 70 and to analyze the main problems which make progress difficult. In this study the organization of the educational system in Libya during the period and the factors underlying it are fully examined. The achievements attained in the educational sphere are assessed in the context of the economic and social needs of the country as a whole. The problems of improving the quality of education and relating it to national development are recurring themes throughout the study.

To give a clear picture of the educational situation in Libya, a brief historical account of the educational, political and socio-economic background is necessary. This background is the key to understanding the patterns of education which have evolved in Libya since independence, and at the same time it serves as a basis of assessing educational developments during the post independence period.

As a developing country, Libya shares many problems with other developing countries particularly in the Arab World. An attempt is made to compare Libya's educational difficulties with those of other developing nations. The aim of such a comparative approach was to understand comparable educational situations, derive facts, reach conclusions and make suggestions.

Since the attainment of independence, great efforts have been made to develop Libyan society in all spheres. Education was accorded high priority as a key factor for development, but Libya's planning system and techniques were inadequate and largely inconsistent with its objectives. This was mainly due to Libya's acute shortages of

qualified personnel. In addition, lack of experience, inefficient administration and political instability were further causes of this state of affairs. This situation led to a reliance on trial and error policies which inevitably involved wrong judgements and much waste of time and money. The ultimate educational achievements therefore, though remarkable, were not commensurate with either the effort or the money expended.

A detailed study of the educational system and its organization in Libya is therefore important. This investigation seeks to show strengths and weaknesses of the educational programmes provided and to assess their relevance for the particular needs of Libya. All levels of education are described and evaluated, but special emphasis is put upon higher education because that is the area in which research is most lacking. Apart from a few unpublished reports and some documents and papers, higher education in Libya, in spite of its importance, has not yet attracted the attention of writers and research workers.

The period 1951 - 70 was deliberately chosen because it represents a new era in Libyan history. The country became independent in 1951 and assumed responsibility for running its own affairs. Between 1951 and September 1969 the country was ruled by a king who was overthrown by a revolutionary regime. Since 1969 the country has been a "Republic", with a radically different policy and administrative organization from that which obtained under the monarchy.

Very little research has been carried out in the field of general education in Libya, and even less in higher education. This study therefore, is mainly based on primary sources of unpublished material, both in Arabic and English, which were collected from the Archives of the Ministry of Education in Libya and from other governmental departments. This material consists of official and non-official reports,

documents, papers and recommendations of educational conferences which deal directly or indirectly with the development of education in Libya and the problems facing it. Another source of material which was of great help, were personal interviews conducted with previous and present Ministers of Education and educational supervisors in leading posts whose experience in the field of education was of great value.

It is hoped that this work will help to throw some light upon the main problems facing education in Libya. It may sensitize the educational authorities in Libya and research workers to the urgent need for some re-appraisal of the organization of the educational system in the country.

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CHAPTER ONE

The Libyan Scene : Land and People.

Libya, or the Kingdom of Libya as it was officially called until September 1969, is an Arab soverèign state which occupies a strategic area in the central sector of North Africa.

Libya, after the proclamation of its independence in December 1951, was a constitutional monarchy ruled by King Idris I, until September 1, 1969, when a new revolutionary regime took over, overthrew the King, and abruptly ended the hereditary monarchy or rather the "Sanusi leadership" which had ruled the country uninterruptedly for approximately two decades.

Thus, Libya in September 1969 was declared a "Republic" and its name became "The Libyan Arab Republic". The new military régime has opened a new era in the Libyan contemporary history, entirely different from the previous period experienced since independence, in its character and organization as well as in its national and foreign policy.[1]

Until recently,[2] Libya was divided into three major provinces: Tripolitania, Cyrenaica and Fezzan, with Tripoli and Benghazi as the

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1 The new regime represented by the members of the Revolutionary Command Council (RCC) declared that their revolution intends to fight social and political corruption inherited from the previous regime and that their main aims are: Freedom, Socialism and Arab unity (for more details see: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Information and Culture, "First of September Revolution, Third Anniversary", Tripoli, Libya, 1972.

2 It was in 1963 when the federal system was cancelled and replaced by a unified system in which the country was divided into Muhafazat (Governorates).

country's western and eastern capitals, and the governmental functions were divided between the two co-capitals.

Modern Libya is a vast, sparsely populated country which fronts on to the Mediterranean, and embraces an area of about 680,000 square miles. It extends from the Egyptian and the Sudanese frontiers on the east to the Algerian and Tunisian borders on the west, and is bounded by the new nations of Chad and Niger on the south and south-west, and by the Mediterranean on the north.

Libya is a large country. It is six times as large as Italy, and as large as France, Italy, Spain and West Germany combined.[1] Yet, a large proportion of its area is a worthless desert which is more often described as a gigantic "dust-bowl". Despite its vastness, the country supports a total population of only a little more than one and a half million people. According to the 1964 census, the country's population was estimated at approximately 1,600,000 inhabitants,[2] which gives her an overall density of about two persons per square mile.[3]

In the desert, there is almost no human activity; in the semi-desert and around the distant oases of the interior, there are the

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1 Copeland, P.W., "Land and People of Libya", Philadelphia, J.B. Lippincort, 1967, p.13.

2 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of National Economy, "Statistical Abstract 1964", Census and Statistical Department, Tripoli, 1964.

3 According to the 1971 estimates, Libya's population is 2,010,000 (see Europa Publications, "The Middle East and North Africa 1972-1973", London, 1972, p.534.

nomads and semi-nomads who constitute more than a quarter of the total population of Libya.[1] These people are known as "Badu" or "Bedouins" (people of tents), and are thought to have descended from the great Arab nomadic tribes of "Banu Hilal" and "Banu Sulaim", who overran Libya from the east during the second wave of Arab conquest in the 11th century.[2] They live in their typical low-pitched tents in the remote areas of the semi-desert and in the oases far away from the life of cities and the semi-westernized centres. Their way of life is well adapted to their environment, and they adhere very closely to their own traditions and customs.

Bedouins use their own labour and that of their families and animals, and what is perhaps more important, is that they are prepared to live at what Europeans consider to be a low level of civilization.[3] The nomadic woman, unlike the village or the city woman, enjoys, by tradition, much freedom. She goes about unveiled and usually helps her husband in looking after the animals as well as looking after the tent, the children, and preparing food.[4]

The Bedouins earn their living from primitive agriculture and mainly by raising different kinds of animals such as camels and sheep, which are, from the Bedouins viewpoint, ideal beasts because they are better adapted to migration. Goats and cattle are also raised, part-

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1 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "Statistical Abstract 1968", Census and Statistical Department, Tripoli, 1968, pp.20 - 21.

2 Khadduri, Majid, "Modern Libya : A Study in Political Development", Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore 1963, p.5.

3 Taher, Abdul-Jalil, "The Libyan Society : Social and Anthropological Studies", Modern Library Publications, Beirut, 1969, p.28

4 Ibid.,

icularly in Cyrenaica. T. Blunsum writes:-

> "One striking difference in Libya between the life of the inhabitants of the eastern region, Cyrenaica, and the western, Tripolitania, is that of the settled, cultivating existence of the farming community in Tripolitania and the nomadic or semi-nomadic conduct of life in Cyrenaica. In the former the populace has become largely detribalised and sedentary; in the latter the pattern is one of tribalism which has its roots in the customs of Arab forbears". [1]

The Bedouins are hard-headed people and the least capable among all inhabitants of the country, of governing or being governed.[2] They are generally poor and illiterate, but very generous, proud and intolerant of all outside controls.[3]

The Libyan Bedouins, are unwilling to acknowledge others' superiority. They are either independent of the central government or bound to it only by the loosest ties. The individual Bedouin owes his allegiance only to his clan or tribal chief (Shaikh). Although the Bedouins in Libya are a minority, their influence is tremendous, particularly in Cyrenaica, and in their hands may lie the key to the immediate future of the whole region. The influence of the tribe and its Shaikh was, until recently,[4] so great in Libya that any government, no matter how sincere and strong, just or tyrannical, would still be

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1 T. Blunsum, "Libya: The Country and its People", Queen Anne Press Ltd., London, 1968, p.34.

2 Ziadeh, N.A., "Sanusiyah : A Study of a Revivalist Movement in Islam", E.J. Brill, Leiden, 1968, pp. 15 - 16.

3 Ibid.

4 Since 1969, the Revolutionary Regime decided to fight the tribal system and decrease its influence upon the government. So far there seems to be a great success in this direction.

threatened by sudden collapse if it did not take the tribes' influence and role into serious consideration. N.A. Ziadeh makes the following comment:-

> "The tribe and its Shaykh had to be taken into serious consideration by every government in Libya. For unless that is done, the administration, no matter how adequate, intricate or efficient, is bound to break down, at the rock of the tribe". [1]

The Libyan Bedouins occupy a special dignified status in the minds of the Libyan people. This is mainly due to the remarkable role they played in the fierce resistance to the Italian invasion in 1911.[2]

Generally speaking, the Libyan population is considered to have a fairly homogenous composition, although of different ethnic origin. The great bulk of the population has been Arabized, and the general structure of Libya's population bears out the country's identification as an Arab Muslim state. The major ethnic groups in Libya are:-

(1) The Arabs; (2) The Berbers; (3) The Minorities.

The Arabs are the dominant group in Libya today. They are Semitic people who stem largely from the two big Arab tribes that overran the country in the 11th century. These were Banu Hilal and Banu Sulaim, who came originally from the Arabian Peninsula.[3] They were warlike and fundamentally primitive nomadic tribes who soon after their settlement, intermingled and intermarried with the indigenous inhabitants of the country, the "Berbers".[4] Thus the process of Arabization was

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1 N.A. Ziadeh, "Sanusiyah: A Study of a Revivalist Movement in Islam", p.16.

2 Khadduri, Majid, op.cit., pp. 24 - 25.

3 Al-Zawi, T.A., "The Path of Arab Conquest in Libya", Cairo, 1954, p.197 (in Arabic)

4 Ibid.,

completed through continuous commixture between the natives and the newcomers.

The Berbers were the original inhabitants of Libya who constituted, up to the time of the Arab conquest, the bulk of the population and lived in the coastal area from the Egyptian frontiers to the shores of Morocco.[1] The Berbers are fairer-skinned people, tall and of light complexions. It is not uncommon to find among the Berbers, Nordic features, such as blond hair and blue eyes.[2]

Most of the Berbers in Libya today speak Arabic, although a virtually pure-bred branch, such as the "Tuareq", still retain their Berber language, which is thought to have Hamitic roots.[3] Most of the Berbers in Libya apart from the "Tuareq" live in the mountains of the western part of Libya like Yifrin, Jadu, Nalut and Ghadamis.[4] A few are found south of Cyrenaica in the oases of Jalu, Aujla and Marada.

Tuareq constitute a minor but an important group of the Berbers. They are also of Berber origin, probably descended from the Garamantes, the ancient Hamitic people who inhabited the eastern Sahara.[5] They are tall people with dark complexions and form a small minority group in Libya. Although they have been, to some extent Arabized, yet, they have tenaciously clung to their own customs, traditions, language, and retained their own way of life.[6]

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1 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p.31

2 Copeland, R. W., Op. Cit., p.31.

3 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p.31.

4 Ibid.,

5 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p.32.

6 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p.31.

While it is customary in some conservative Muslim countries that the women are heavily veiled when appearing in public, the reverse is true with Tuareq, for it is the men who cover the lower half of the face with veils.[1] The Tureq are famous for being excellent desert guides, and they use a special kind of racing camel called "Mehari".[2] Tuareq men and women are known for being fond of folk-dancing and folk-singing, which is part of their culture and one of their specialities.[3] Tuareq men disdain work and, in contrast to the Arab and Muslim communities, Tuareq women are the caretakers of the tribe's economy and properties.[4]

Throughout Libya, there is a considerable Negro and Negroid intermixture, resulting from the northward drift of the peoples south of the Sahara, but mostly, they are the descendants of Sudanese and Central African slaves.[5]

Another minority group in Libya is the "Tabu", who are believed to have descended from the ancient Ethiopians.[6] They are mostly shepherds or traders, and are known for being able to withstand great privations.

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1 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p.32.

2 Copeland, P.W., Op. Cit.,p.33.

3 Ibid.,

4 Ibid.,

5 Foreign Area Studies, The American University, "Area Handbook for Libya", U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., p.63.

6 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., pp. 32 - 33.

Another important ethnic group which used to live in Libya until recently,[1] was the remaining community of Italians whose total number was estimated during the days of independence at about 45,000.[2] Their number has gradually decreased particularly after the country's independence, but the last vestige of Italian residence in Libya was completely eradicated after the Libyan revolution in 1969.

A Brief Survey of Libya's History

Libya, in spite of being an old nation and despite its great wealth in relics of the past, seems not to have attracted historians and archaeologists as much as did some of her neighbouring Arab nations.[3] Therefore, much of Libya's pre-history and early history is still unknown.[4]

However, from ancient times, the country was overrun by successive waves of conquerors and invaders who swept into the country, erected their flags on its soil, and consequently shaped part of its recorded history.[5]

The Phoenicians, Greeks, Romans, Vandals, Byzantines, Arabs, Normans, Spaniards, Turks and finally the Italians; all these foreign occupants left their mark on Libya's life and imposed their rule upon

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1 In 1970, the Members of the Libyan Revolutionary Command Council (RCC), decided to expel all the Italians residing in Libya, and they were forced to leave the country for good. Thus the last vestige of Italian residence in Libya was completely eradicated.

2 United Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of National Economy, "General Population Census 1954", Census Department, Tripoli, 1959.

3 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p.40.

4 Ibid.,

5 Khadduri, Majid, Op. Cit., p.4.

the country.[1]

Among the most influential conquerors of Libya, whose effects upon the language, religion and culture are still deeply rooted, were the Arabs and Turks.[2] The Arabs invaded Libya in 642 A.D.[3] when the Byzantines succumbed to what proved to be the most potent power so far to arise on the North African coast. The Arabs achieved what the Romans and Byzantines had striven for in vain.[4]

Libya shared the lot of many other states of the great Arabian Empire, and was ruled in turn by the Ummayad, Abbasid and Fatimid Dynasties.[5]

In 1146, Tripolitania became a Sicilian Colony and remained as such until 1158, when the people of Tripoli, emboldened by the news from Tunisia of the advance of the Arab army, massacred the small Sicilian garrison and warmly received the Arab expansion.[6] From this time onwards until 1510, there was continuous and uninterrupted Arab rule.[7]

From 1510 to 1530, Libya was under Spanish domination; when the Knights of Malta (Knights of Saint John of Jerusalem) succeeded the Spaniards.[8] The Knights were able to maintain themselves

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1 Cachia, Anthony, J., "Libya Under the Second Ottoman Occupation, 1835 - 1911", Tripoli, 1945, p.191.

2 Khadduri, Majid, Op. Cit., p.6.

3 Cachia, A.J., Op. Cit., p.23.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

7 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., pp. 48 - 49.

8 Ibid.

in the country for just over two decades, before the Ottomans, who by now had become powerful, invaded Libya and forced the Knights to capitulate.[1]

In 1551, Libya became a province of the rising Ottoman Empire which had then emerged as the principal power in the Mediterranean.[2] From 1551 onwards, there was almost [3] continuous Ottoman rule of Libya until 1911, when Italy invaded the country. Finally, the defeat of Italy in the Second World War has erased the last vestige of its hold of Libya, and consequently marked, for the first time in Libya's history, the end of foreign occupation of the country.[4]

Socio-Economic Potentialities and Prospects.

The establishment of the Kingdom of Libya as an independent and sovereign state in 1951 was considered by many acute observers and international experts as a bold venture and a risky experiment undertaken by the United Nations Organization.[5] The roots of this conviction were derived from the fact that Libya - during the 1950s and as a

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1 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., pp. 48 - 49.

2 Cachia, A.J., Op. Cit., p.23.

3 The Qaramanli Dynasty seized power and ruled Libya from 1711 - 1835. However, many historians consider the Qaramanli period as a continuation of the Ottoman rule, because Libya, though automomous during this period, was still regarded as part of the Ottoman Empire and thus the Ottoman sovereignty over Libya was still - though indirectly - exercised.

4 The British and French administration (1943 - 1951) was considered a transitional period under which both powers worked only as caretakers (see: Villard, Henry, S., "Libya: The New Arab Kingdom of North Africa", Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New York,1956, p.21.

5 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", Paris, 1952, p.7.

newly-born state, was overwhelmingly an under-developed society and not merely "underdeveloped" in the economic, political or administrative aspect. Unesco's Mission to Libya confirms this fact when it wrote in 1952:-

> "Libya is an under-developed country in the sense that it is poor, and in the sense that its techniques are primitive and its capital equipment scanty. It is not 'under-developed' in the sense that North America or Australia were under-developed a century ago. The country is not under-populated, relative to its resources. There are no rich mines, virgin forests, and fertile soils merely awaiting exploitation".[1]

Therefore, Libya in the early years of independence was classified as an under-developed country because it was pitiably poor with meagre resources and an extremely low per capita income. This was clearly expressed by A. Pelt, who wrote:-

> "A lower per capita income than any other country in the Middle East, a very high birth rate ... marginal or sub-marginal land, low and 'capricious' rainfall and frequent droughts, absence of minerals or fuel and, above all, of skill and education - these are the hallmarks of a country in the greatest need of help"[2]

The country was suffering from several ills and grave problems with which she could hardly cope.

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1 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.11.

2 United Nations, "Second Annual Report of the United Nations Commissioner in Libya", New York, 1950 - Cited by J. Wright, "Libya", Ernest Benn Limited, London and Praeger, New York, 1969, p.224.

The country had a high proportion of illiteracy (estimated to be over 90 per cent among the adult population in 1952); its education was scant and unbalanced; its agriculture was inefficient; its industry was rudimentary, and its people were inexperienced in self-government.[1]

It was not unnatural then to foresee that these problems would certainly retard the country's growth, and might, sooner or later, make her unable to live and survive as an independent and free nation.

The fact that the country was poor and was in urgent need of the basic necessities had led many experts and international advisers to seriously doubt the country's viability as a free nation.[2] This view explains the feeling of pessimism and uncertainty shown in the experts' reports with regard to Libya's future.[3]

Now, more than twenty years have elapsed since Libya's independence, and it is amazing, particularly to those who envisaged the country's decline, and quite contrary to what was originally expected that Libya has made incredible progress and remarkable achievements in different aspects and spheres in a comparatively short period of time. Thus, the country has, unquestionably, proved its capability to survive and stand on its own feet as an independent and nationally-integrated

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1 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.13.

2 Pelt, Adrian, "Libyan Independence and the United Nations", Yale University Press, New Haven and London, 1970, pp.800 - 821. See also International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) "The Economic Development of Libya", Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1960, pp. 3 - 5. Also see Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", pp. 7 - 15.

3 Ibid.

state.[1]

The fact that the country could survive, make progress, and more than keep pace with other developing countries is due to the following factors:

The first factor was the discovery of oil in Libya in 1959, and the subsequent exploitation of oil resources constitute an extremely important factor in the economic, social and educational development of the country. With the revenues derived from oil, Libya has grappled effectively [2] with the enemies of progress, namely disease, poverty and ignorance.

Among the indicators of growth in Libya today is the per capita gross national product which rose from about £ 40 in the early 1950s to £ 1,018 in 1967. Government revenues from petroleum increased twenty-fold in six years, from £ 40 million in 1962 to an estimated £ 800 million in 1968.[2]

> "The previous unprosperous economy of Libya based on a marginal agriculture and animal husbandry has been completely revolutionized over the five years by the discovery of oil. This change is reflected in the dramatic increase in the internal revenues of the country from 2.8 million Libyan pounds in 1955 to £L. 53.8 million in 1963/4, £L 187 million in 1965/6, £L 226 million in 1966/67 and £L 345 million in 1967/8". [3]

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1 This is assessed in the light of Libya's acute problems during the 1950s and before the discovery of oil.

2 El-Mallakh, Ragaei, "The Economics of Rapid Growth: Libya", Middle East Journal, Volume XXIII, 1969, p.308.

3 De Candole, A.V., "Libya", in Africa Handbook, edited by Legum, Colin, Anthony Blond - Penguin Books Ltd., 1969, p.57.

The sudden wealth pouring into the national treasury as a result of the oil boom has made profound changes in Libya's social, economic and political developments. J. Wright writes:-

> "In less than a decade a country that had been classified as 'the poorest in the world' had become a major supplier of fuel to those same countries that a generation before had fought each other over the oil-bearing desert of Libya for the possession of the oilfields of West Asia. No wonder that in 1966 a Giornale di Sicilia headline complained: 'We never knew it : Millions of Barrels of Oil in Libya'." [1]

Now, Libya ranks as the world's seventh largest producer of oil, and the fifth largest exporter.[2] More than half of Libya's estimated national income in 1954/55 was contributed by the £ 26 million she received in foreign aid.[3] However, Libya has moved from the status of a capital deficit to a capital surplus nation, and from an aid recipient to an aid extender.[4]

The second factor has been the encouragement and genuine realization by the Libyan government of the importance of education which has made remarkable progress in a comparatively short period of time.[5]

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1 Wright, John, Op. Cit., p.258

2 El-Mallakh, R., Op. Cit., p.308

3 Ibid., p.309.

4 Ibid.

5 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Development of Educational Planning and its Machinery in Libya", Document No.2, Tripoli, 1966, pp. 6 - 20.

Finally, but not least important, was the determination of the Libyan people to preserve their own independence, freedom and national integration, which were the fruits of several decades of continuous struggle and sacrifice.[1] P. W. Copeland observes:-

"Obviously Libya's greatest resource is her people, over one and a half million alert, proud citizens eager to bring their country into the rank of modern nations. They were handicapped at first for lack of trained leadership. When Libya gained her independence on December 24, 1951, there were only sixteen men with college degrees or their equivalent ... There were many difficult tasks that faced the new nation ... The Libyans had the tradition of intelligence and learning but it had been allowed to wane under four centuries of Turkish rule and brief Italian domination. But the heritage was there and the young men and women responded enthusiastically to the challenge".[2]

Education in Libya Prior to Independence.

There is very little documentary evidence and information on education in Libya prior to 1911. However, it is not intended here to give more than brief outlines of the traditional Muslim schools in Libya since the Arab conquest. This was centred on the "Kuttab" (primary school).[3] Little is known about its development until the advent of the Sanusi Movement in 1843 which introduced the "Zawiyah"

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1 See Pelt, Adrian, Op. Cit., pp. 37 - 58. (see also Wandell, W., Op. Cit., pp. 64 - 68).

2 Copeland, P.W., Op. Cit., p.138.

3 Shaikh, Raft Gunami, "Development of Education in Libya in Modern Ages", Al-Hakika Printing House, Benghazi, 1972, pp. 107 - 110 (in Arabic).

(literally retreat for meditation and study), as a form of higher religious institution supplementing the Kuttab.[1]

The period prior to independence can be divided into four distinctive stages as follows:-

1. Traditional religious education in Kuttabs (singular Maktab), 642 - 1843.
2. Religious education under the Sanusi Movement, 1843 - 1911.
3. Italian colonial education, 1911 - 1943.
4. National education under the British and French administration, 1943 - 1951.

1. Traditional Religious Education, 642 - 1843.

The Arab (Muslim) conquest of Libya in 642 A.D. marked the beginning of the traditional and simple type of education which was predominantly religious instruction, and was carried out mostly in mosques and other small religious institutions.[2]

The Arab conquest had a lasting effect on Libyan society, affecting its culture, language and above all its religion.[3] Muslim preachers had attempted, since the Arab invasion, to speed up the process of Arabization and the spread of Islamic faith. Waves of Arab tribes swept into Libya and intermingled with the indigenous inhabitants (the Berbers) who soon embraced Islam.[4]

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1 Shaikh, Raft Gunami, Op. Cit., pp. 94 - 106.

2 Ibid., p.63.

3 Khadduri, Majid, Op. Cit., pp. 5 - 6.

4 Ibid., p.5. (see also Louis Dupree, "The Arabs of Modern Libya" The Muslim World, Vol.XLVIII, 1958, pp.113-24; and "The Non-Arab Ethnic Groups of Libya",The Middle East Journal, Vol. XII, 1958, pp. 33 - 44.

With the spread of Islam, many mosques were established all over the country, in the big towns and even in the remote villages.[1] The mosques were primarily founded for the purpose of performing the daily prayers and rituals, but soon evolved as religious institutions for teaching the basic tenets of Islam with the major concentration on the study of the Quran and the Traditions of Muhammad.[2]

The early attempts to provide elementary education for Libyan boys who wished to acquire a modicum of learning, was carried out in what was known as the Kuttab.[3] Instruction in this type of school was mostly the rudiments of Arabic language with the main concentration on reading and writing in addition to some reckoning.[4] This was considered the first necessary step towards achieving the "sacred" goal which culminated in memorizing the whole verses of the Quran by heart. This type of education was exclusively for boys; girls were confined to their homes and were not allowed to acquire such schooling.

The teacher in the Kuttab was known as "Faqi"[5](religiously trained teacher), who was usually well-versed in religion and Islamic studies and who memorized the whole verses of the Quran,[6]

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1 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p.63.

2 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education in Libya", Document No.4, Tripoli, 1966, pp. 3 - 6.

3 It is also called "Katateeb" or "Maktab" in some other Arab countries (see Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p.107).

4 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p.107.

5 The word "Faqi" is a distortion of the Arabic word "Faqih" which means the person who is well-versed in Muslim religious law.

6 In most cases, but not always.

but normally had not received any specific training as a teacher.[1]

The Faqi used to collect fees from pupils attending and receive grants from religious endowments.[2] The boys were admitted at any reasonable age [3] and each individual progressed at his own rate of assimilation. They were expected to continue in this stage for an average of 6 - 8 years before they could be transferred to the more advanced level.[4]

This type of school (Kuttab) still exists in many parts of Libya today, particularly in the interior and in the remote villages where traditional life persists.

In addition to the Kuttab, there existed in Libya a more advanced level of religious education which was carried out in what were known as mosque-colleges or "Zawiyahs"(lodges).[5] They were more advanced institutions mostly appended to the mosques. They emerged to meet the needs of the more ambitious individuals who wished to complete their higher religious training.[6] The most famous Zawiyahs

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1 The Faqi usually dictated some verses of the Quran from memory, and his pupils copied out the verses on wooden tablets. He enjoyed the respect of the people and was held in high regard in his community. His religious advice was sought on many occasions, particularly on festivals and funerals.

2 United Nations, "Second Annual Report of the United Nations Commissioner in Libya", p.84

3 There was no age limit (see Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p.110)

4 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 94 - 106.

5 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p. 94.

6 That was not the only reason for their emergence as higher religious institutions (see Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 94 - 106).

in Libya during this period were:-[1]

(a) Zawiyat Sidi Abdussalam al-Asmar in Zliten.

(b) Zawiyat Sidi Ahmad Zarrug in Misrata.

(c) Zawiyat Sidi al-Mahjub in Misrata.

(d) Zawiyat Sidi Addukali in Misillata.

2. Religious Education under the Sanusi Movement 1843 - 1911.

Development of religious education in Libya higher than the Kuttab was largely due to the Sanusi Movement [2] and its peculiar Zawiyah. The Sanusi Movement was founded on a network of Zawiyahs under which the reformatory movement spread its influence which encompassed many parts of Muslim nations.[3] The founder of the movement (the Grand Sanusi) established his first Zawiyah in al-Beida, Cyrenaica in 1843.[4] The establishment of this Zawiyah marked the birth of Sanusiyah [5] in Libya.

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1 United Nations, "Second Annual Report of the United Nations Commissioner in Libya", p.84.

2 The movement was essentially a call for Muslims to return to the rituals and beliefs of early Islam embodied in the Quran, and to purify Islam from the extraneous innovations and accretions that had crept into it in later ages (see Shukri, Muhammad, Fuad, "Sanusiyah : A Religion and a State", al-Fekir Arab Printing House, Cairo, 1948, pp. 11 - 22 (in Arabic).

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education.." p

4 Ibid., (see also Muhammad, Fuad Shukri, Op. Cit., pp.23 - 40.

5 Sanusiyah was a highly orthodox confraternity and an order of sufis who followed the Maliki canonical rites which was the dominant school of law throughout North Africa. They were devout Sunni Muslims which means that in faith and morals, they believe in a sole omnipotent God (Allah), and that they accepted the Hadith (The Traditions of the Prophet Muhammad) and Sunnah (a record of the life, customs and habits of the Prophet whose example should be followed by all believers (see Evans-Pritchard, "The Sanusi of Cyrenaica", Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1949, pp. 1 -

From his headquarters in Cyrenaica, the Grand Sanusi sent his emissaries and pupils to various parts of Libya to spread his teachings. Within a short period the surrounding area was dotted with similar foundations.[1] Subsequently, many Zawiyahs were established all over Libya even in the remotest areas in the desert.[2]

In 1856, the Grand Sanusi moved his headquarters from al-Beida to the remote oasis of Jaghbub which was a strategic centre for caravan routes on the edge of the desert.[3] It was in Jaghbub that the Grand Sanusi founded the famous Islamic seminary on the pattern of al-Azhar in Cairo, which was destined to become the chief seat of learning of Sanusiyah.[4] The extensive library which the Grand Sanusi established at Jaghbub contained more than 8,000 volumes and more than 1,000 manuscripts concerning many branches of knowledge.[5]

The Sanusi educational system was based on a network of Zawiyahs which functioned under the centralized supervision and co-ordination of the headquarters which linked all Zawiyahs together.[6]

The Zawiyah was a house of learning. In addition, the Zawiyah was used as a reception hall for guests, a house for worship and a

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1 See Shukri, Muhammad, F., Op. Cit., pp. 23 - 39.

2 Ibid.,

3 Ziadeh, N.A., Op. Cit., p.46.

4 Ibid.,

5 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p. XIV.

6 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education in Libya", pp. 6 - 10.

documentation centre where copies of the Quran were prepared for distribution and where old Arabic manuscripts were preserved.[1]

The Sanusi Zawiyahs were not merely educational institutions. The Zawiyah had to perform numerous duties and was used for various functions.[2] The Zawiyah served as a military base and a stronghold where the followers were trained how to use arms and how to defend themselves against enemy raids.[3] The Zawiyah was even used as an emporium and as a carvansary where merchants used to rest and feed their beasts after long journies.[4]

The syllabus in the Zawiyah included jurisprudence, Quranic exegeses, the Hadith (the Prophet's Traditions), Arabic language (belles - lettres, etymology, syntax and rhetoric), and the other sciences such as arithmetic, astronomy, history, geography and medicine.[5] Learned scholars of Muslim Law used to award their successful students the licenciate of teaching, which was a kind of educational diploma for advanced religious studies.[6]

It is important to note that Libya owes much of its success in preserving its Islamic culture and Arabic language through the ages, to the various religious institutes which became the custodians

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1 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p.100

2 Evans-Pritchard, E.E., p.79

3 Ibid., pp. 83 - 84 (see also: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education in Libya", p.9, and also Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p.55.)

4 Evans-Pritchard, E.E., Op. Cit., p.79

5 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education in Libya", p.5.

6 Ibid.,

of culture throughout the country and produced patriotic and enthusiastic religious leaders who fiercely resisted colonial penetration.[1]

It is also worth mentioning here that religious education in Libya was seriously encouraged and developed only during the Qaramanlis and the second Ottoman rule (1711 - 1911).[2] This may be attributed to the fact that the Turkish authorities, during the first Ottoman rule (1551 - 1711), were more concerned with grave political and economic problems which then confronted the whole Ottoman Empire.[3] They, however, did little or nothing at all for education in most of the provinces in the whole Empire before the introduction of modern schools. But before this stage was reached, Turkish governors, some of whom were autonomous, established some religious institutes and many mosques throughout the Empire.[4] In Libya many famous mosques were established by both the Qaramanlis and the Turkish governors such as Annaqa Mosque, Darghut Mosque, Ahmad Pasha Mosque and many other mosques all over the country.[5] Most of these mosques, which have survived to this day, are still used as important religious institutions.[6]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education in Libya", p.25.

2 See: Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 37 - 107 and al-Zawi, Taher Ahmad, "Rulers of Tripolitania from the Arab Conquest to the end of the Ottoman Rule", Beirut, 1970, pp. 209 - 223 (in Arabic).

3 Ibid.,

4 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p. 88.

5 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education in Libya", p.4.

6 This is particularly applicable to Ahmad Pasha Mosque in Tripoli which is still being used as a higher institute for religious studies.

Beside this religious type of education, there existed in Libya a foreign education which prevailed during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries with the arrival of successive waves of European communities who settled in the country to profit from the commercial activities which flourished along the northern coast of Africa at that time.[1] This new alien type of education became well established during the period of the Qaramanli Dynasty, partly as a result of the struggle between the Qaramanlis and the European powers for naval and commercial supremacy in the Mediterranean.[2]

Among the newcomers were the Jews, who established a school for their children in Tripoli in 1804.[3] There followed successive groups of foreigners of different nationalities who were mostly merchants, and who settled in the coastal cities particularly during the second half of the nineteenth century.[4]

The Franciscan fathers undertook educational work as a means to promote the missionary cause.[5] In 1810 [6] they established a boys' primary school in Tripoli which was attended by boys of various races and religions, and in which both French and Italian were taught.[7]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, Tripoli, 1966, p.6.

2 Ibid.,

3 See: Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p.112 and United Nations "Second Annual Report", p.85

4 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 116 - 117

5 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, Tripoli, p.6.

6 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p.115

7 Steele-Greig, A.J., "History of Education in Tripolitania : From the Time of the Ottoman Occupation to the Fifth Year Under British Military Occupation", British Military Administration, Tripoli, 1948. p.13.

Large numbers of Italian immigrants came to Libya during this period and embarked on both economic and educational activities soon after their arrival. As the number of Italian immigrants increased, the need was felt for schools other than those organized by the Franciscan fathers and nuns.[1]

The Italian government encouraged the activities of her immigrants in Libya and began to intervene in the internal affairs of the country as a prelude to its ultimate seizure.[2] Large numbers of Italian schools of all levels were established. Primary, secondary (technical, commercial) and vocational schools for boys and girls were all in operation.[3] Large funds were allocated for the development of these schools which later proved to be one of the most influential agents of cultural penetration [4] and certainly paved the way for Italy's ultimate annexation of Libya.[5]

3. Italian Colonial Education 1911 - 1943.

The outbreak of the Italo-Turkish war in 1911 put an end to the activities of the Sanusi and other religious Zawaya because their

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1 Steele-Grieg, A.J., Op. Cit., p.13.

2 Askew, William C., "Europe and Italy's Acquisition of Libya, 1911 - 1912", Durham, North Carolina, Dyke University Press, 1942, pp. 23 - 28.

3 De Marco, R.R., "The Italianization of African Natives: Government Native Education in the Italian Colonies 1890 - 1937", Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1943, p. xvi.

4 Ibid.,

5 See: Askew, William C., Op. Cit., pp. 110 - 115.

keepers took an active part in the resistance to the Italian invasion.

When Italy had put down the Libyan resistance movement by hanging its last leader on the battlefield, the martyr Sayyid Umar al-Mukhtar, the Italian governors declared that they were determined to stamp out the roots of nationalism in Libya, namely, the Arab language and the Muslim faith.[1] To achieve this goal, they opposed the Sanusi Movement and its teachings and establishments. They were fully aware that the Movement was not solely religious, but a political and nationalistic movement as well.[2]

The Italian "pacification" of Libya took the form of a war of extermination and the national leaders were either imprisoned or put in concentration camps.[3] The Zawiyah mosques were turned into stables and the Zawiyah schools were closed down, including the Jaghbub religious seminary.[4] Its famous library was partly burned and its valuable manuscripts were stolen.[5]

Italian schools had existed in Libya long before Italy's ultimate seizure of the country.[6] These schools were intended to

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1 Khadduri, Majid, Op. Cit., p.25.

2 Shukri, Ahmad Fuad, Op. Cit., pp. 118 - 135.

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education in Libya", p.10.

4 Ibid.,

5 Ibid.,

6 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.13.

serve as agents for the peaceful Italian penetration which eventually gave Italy an excuse to declare war on Turkey on the pretence of protecting the lives and rights of her residents in Libya who were, as she alleged, "unfairly treated".[1]

Italian governors were certainly right in considering cultural penetration in Libya of paramount importance, and in being aware of the fact that such a penetration would be difficult to achieve without the spread of colonial schools and imperialistically-minded teachers.

Thus, it was to be expected that schools should be the focus of attention, and were established principally to serve colonial purposes and interests.[2] One of these purposes was to inculcate in the Libyan people, particularly the young generation, a devotion to Italy and an appreciation of Italian techniques and superior civilization.[3] The phrase "civilizing the natives", as interpreted by Italian governors was synonymous with "Italianizing the natives".[4] Mussolini once said:-

> "Civilization in fact, is that which Italy is creating on the fourth bank of our sea: western civilization in general, Fascist civilization in particular". [5]

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1 Askew, William, C., Op. Cit., pp. 37 - 40.

2 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., p.17.

3 Ibid., p.7.

4 Ibid., p.17.

5 Ibid.

Under this concept, Italy had designated the colonial teacher and the colonial school as primary agents for imparting its own brand of civilization to the so-called "backward" peoples of her colony. R. R. De Marco writes:-

> "The Government school for Italians was highly nationalistic; the one predominant purpose of Government native education was to Italianize the natives and civilize them according to Italian and Fascist concepts". [1]

It was evident from the beginning that Italy's goals were to persuade the natives to absorb her culture, language and possibly her religion as a prelude to complete Italianization - an attempt, had it succeeded, which would have meant the obliteration of the main characteristics of traditional Libyan society, and above all of its language and religion.[2]

The policy implied a serious attempt to impress the natives as much as possible with the greatness and splendour of Italian civilization.[3] It sought to gain their respect and appreciation of Italy's "sincere" efforts to raise their standard of living and social welfare.[4] It attempted to convince them of the marvellous privileges they enjoyed by being under the domination of modern Rome.[5]

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1 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., p.6.

2 Despite Italy's strenuous efforts to Italianize the Libyans, or at least to persuade them to be loyal to its colonial policy, the majority of Libyans, nevertheless, were determined to resist these measures and thus were able to preserve their own religion, culture and language (see: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", pp. 7 - 8).

3 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., pp. 18 - 19.

4 Ibid., p.36.

5 Ibid.

The Educational Policy and Colonial Objectives.

After Italy's seizure of Libya, Italian governors spared no effort to spread colonial education throughout the country, but very little could be done immediately, due to the political unrest and the difficulties which faced the Italians as a result of the fierce national resistance.[1] A state of war lasted for more than a decade, and Italy could hold only the coastal towns.[2] The interior was not under their control and lapsed into chaos, disobedience and continuous rebellion. With the advent of the powerful Fascists, complete subjugation was achieved, educational plans were enforced, and colonial schools were established even in the remote areas.[3]

Administration: After 1912, colonial education was administered directly from Rome, and under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Colonies, who was entrusted with full responsibility for the organization and development of education in the Italian Colonies in Africa.[4] Italian governors in the Colonies carried out the instructions of the Central Government through the directors of education in each big city of various territories. The directors of education were assisted by a number of school inspectors whose function was to supervise schools, prepare annual reports, and help in the process of recruiting teachers.[5]

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1 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 181 - 187

2 Ibid.

3 See De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., pp. 12 - 15 and Europa Publications, "The Middle East and North Africa, 1972-73", p.525

4 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., p.1.

5 Ibid., pp. 1 - 2.

Expenditures for Government education were the concern of the Minister of Colonies, who however, acted in co-operation with the Minister of Finance to plan the budget required for the spread of colonial education.[1]

The Colonial governments were also empowered, subject to the approval of the Minister of Colonies, to grant subsidies to secular or religious education, maintained by private groups.

R. R. De Marco writes:-

> "It was asserted that between 1922 - 1923 and 1933 - 1934, the expenditures for educational material and for copy books and objects given to poor pupils and to natives had amounted to 5,955,000 lire, or about one half million lire every year" [2]

Educational Legislation: Colonial education in Libya was regulated by Laws and Decrees, which laid down the main features of education at all levels.[3] The Libyan young generation was subjected to two types of educational pressure: the one which expressed Arab culture and Muslim traditions and was conducted in mosques and Zawiyahs, and the other which was established by Italians and expressed colonial ambitions.[4] To eliminate the former and encourage the latter, the Italian authorities decided to issue oppressive Laws and Ordinances. The first of these measures was the Ordinance of 1914,[5] which

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1 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., p.2.

2 Ibid., p.26.

3 Ibid., pp. 1 - 2.

4 Tibawi, A.L., "Islamic Education: its Traditions and Modernization into the Arab National Systems", Luzac and Company, Ltd., London, 1972, pp. 149 - 150.

5 Ibid., p.149.

regulated the establishment of Italian-Arab schools and aimed at accelerating the process of absorption of indigenous culture and language by making it compulsory that all school subjects should be taught in Italian, except the Arabic language.[1] A further Ordinance was issued in 1915 to make the education imparted in the mosques and other religious institutions subject to the inspection and censorship of the Italian authorities.[2]

When the First World War was over, the Italian educational policy was greatly influenced by the strong opposition of some Libyan enthusiastic leaders and also by the ideas of some liberal writers and famous world educators such as Nallino, who opposed and disapproved of Italy's educational policy in the Colonies.[3] R. R. De Marco writes:-

> "C. A. Nallino, a world-famous authority on Moslem affairs, was one of the foremost leaders of the movement to curtail domination of subject peoples. He desired to do away with every semblance of the policy of assimilation, claiming not only that assimilation would fail, but that it would make the natives violently hostile to the Italians ... Nallino's policy envisaged native advisory bodies and favored civil progress within the orbit of local traditions. Referring to the educational system in existence in Libya, Nallino deplored the tendency to Italianize the native. He asserted that natives resented the type of education which was offered in Government native schools because they feared it was an attempt to abolish their heriditary language and religion". [4]

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1 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 189 - 190

2 De Marco, R.R., p.2.

3 Ibid., p.9.

The result of these pressures and criticisms was the enactment in 1919 of a fundamental Law to reorganize the educational programme in both Tripolitania and Cyrenaica.[1] The Law of 1919 was an anti-assimilative measure, and an enterprise of which collaboration as defined by Nallino, was the keystone.

> "Politically, the legislation of 1919 was so liberal that it had repercussions in the colonial territories of other states, such as France".[2]

In 1922, a new educational Ordinance was enacted and dealt almost exclusively with native education in Tripolitania and Cyrenaica.[3] This Ordinance was a serious attempt to grant some liberal concessions and educational privileges to the indigenous people such as sanctioning government elementary schools in which Arabic was the sole medium of instruction, and other schools in which either Arabic or Italian was to be used, depending on the subjects taught.

This Ordinance, however, was never implemented, as at that point, the Fascists seized power in Italy and put an end to the more understanding and liberal attempts.[4] Their educational Ordinance of 1924 reorganized native education on a new basis, compatible with Fascist goals and concepts.[5] The Ordinance of

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1 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., p.10.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid., p.11.

4 These attempts were intended to meet some of the national educational needs.

5 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., p.12.

1928 gave the full Fascist character to native education, and set up bi-lingual Government schools for the natives.[1] Finally, the Ordinance of 1936 dealt primarily with the problem of recruiting teachers, and was applied to all Italian Colonies in Africa as a whole.[2]

Colonial Schools, Teachers and Textbooks.

The Italian educational system was generally planned in conformity with the goals and interests of Italy's colonial policy. In Libya, there existed a dual system of education: one for the Arab natives, [3] and another for the Italian residents.[4] This may be attributed to the fact that the majority of Libyans were determined not to send their children to schools organized by the Italians,[5] lest they should become Italianized or trained to be loyal to the enemy.

The Italian schools established in Libya were similar to those which existed in Italy itself.[6] Certificates awarded by these schools were, by law, equivalent to those offered by corresponding institutions in Italy. Schools were formed into three major stages as follows:-[7]

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1 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., p.13

2 Ibid., p.76

3 It was also called "Education for the Muslims"

4 See: Tibawi, A.L., Op. Cit., p.149 - 150.

5 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education "The Development of Education in Libya", p.8.

6 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., pp. 5 - 6.

7 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.18

(a) Infants from 3 to 6 years old.

(b) Primary from 6 to 10 years old.

(c) Secondary from 10 to 17 years old.

These schools were predominantly attended by Italians and also by Jews who constituted an important minority during the Italian colonial period.[1] The Arabs sent their children either to the traditional Quranic schools, "Kuttab", or to the schools which the Italians organized for the Arabs.[2] This latter type was formed into two stages: primary for boys and girls and secondary for boys only.[3] In both levels, the study of Italian language was obligatory, and lessons in the secondary stage were conducted almost exclusively in Italian, save for the Arabic language.[4]

Enrollment of the Arabs in these schools was small. The majority of Libyans preferred to send their children to the old-fashioned Kuttab and other religious institutions, or even keep them uneducated, rather than to co-operate with the aggressors.[5]

Although Quranic schools were allowed to operate, yet the Italian authorities reserved the right to close them at any time, particularly if they did not comply with the regulations governing them.[6] The Kuttab and other religious institutions, though tolerated

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1 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.18.

2 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 190 - 194.

3 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.23.

4 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 196 - 197

5 Ibid., p.194 - 195.

6 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., p.5.

for some time by the Italian authorities were in no way subsidized or assisted by the Italian government.[1]

In addition to these schools, there existed the school of arts and crafts in Tripoli, which survived the Italian repressive measures. This school was founded in 1897 by private contributions, mainly to train poor pupils, particularly orphans, to become artisans.[2]

Higher education was not provided throughout the colonial period, neither for the Italians nor for the Arabs.[3] However, some of the Libyans who desired higher education for their children sent them either to al-Azhar in Egypt or to Zaitunah in Tunisia.[4] To curtail this attempt, the Italian authorities established in Tripoli in 1936, a higher institute for Islamic studies;[5] this was mainly to divert Libyans from pursuing their higher studies abroad,[6] but the Italian attempt failed to deter Libyan students from studying abroad, and the Libyans' firm refusal to collaborate with the enemies remained unchanged.[7]

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1 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p.195

2 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", Document No.5, Tripoli,1966, p.3.

3 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 199 - 200

4 Tibawi, A.L., Op. Cit., p.150

5 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", p.8

6 Ibid.,

7 Ibid.,

Italy's policy for the recruitment of teachers for various schools was based on certain principles and characteristics. Loyalty to Italy and readiness to serve its colonial interests were among the main requirements of the chosen teachers.[1] The task entrusted with the colonial teachers was, indeed, of profound importance to the colonial government which burdened the teachers with heavy responsibilities and commitments. They were regarded as civilian soldiers who were habituated in such a manner as to say only little, but could secretly do a lot for colonial purposes.[2]

The Italian governor was empowered to revoke, at any time, the appointment of any teacher who engaged in anti-Italian activity or participated in any other activity which was in conflict with, or considered detrimental to, the government's policy.[3] It was evident that Italy desired her colonial teachers to do more than impart formal education. The cultural penetration was of great importance to Italy, and its teachers were certainly up to the task in carrying their responsibilities effectively.[4]

One of the acute problems which confronted teachers during the colonial period was the shortage of textbooks.[5] Andrea Festa, a prominent Italian educator had repeatedly declared that the absence of suitable textbooks for Arab children was greatly regrettable.[6] Through the textbook, he claimed, Italy's interests could be adequately served, and the Arab child could be gradually habituated to love Italy and to admire its greatness.[7]

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1 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., p.3.

2 Ibid., p.83

3 Ibid., p.67

4 The Process of peaceful cultural penetration was powerfully re-enforced through the colonial teachers.

5 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., p.34

6 Ibid.,

7 Ibid.,

The state textbooks were designed in such a way as to comply with the Italian colonial philosophy. They were another instrument by which Italy continued its cultural penetration. The main textbook was full of phrases which exalted Italy, its leaders and civilization.[1] The Arab child read in his textbook such phrases as:-

> "I love Italy greatly, long live Italy, let us salute the beautiful Italian flag which is also our flag, long live the Duce (leader) of Italy, Benito Mussolini, help me oh God to become a good Italian".[2]

It is, however, no wonder and certainly not attributable to any lack of interest, initiative or intelligence on the part of the Libyan people, that after more than three decades of Italian rule, only fourteen Libyan graduates of University level could be found in the whole country when the United Nations began its work in Libya in 1949.[3]

4. Education Under the British and French Administrations, 1943 - 1951.

After Italy's defeat in the Second World War, Libya came under the British and French military administration. Their arrival, however, was meant to be of only short duration, during which they acted as caretakers until the country gained its independence in 1951.[4] Tripolitania and Cyrenaica were under the British, whereas Fezzan was put under the French Administration.[5]

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1 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., p.3.

2 Ibid., p.36.

3 Farley, Rawle, "Planning for Development in Libya: The Exceptional Economy in the Developing World", Praeger Publications, New York, 1971, p.93.

4 Villard, Henry, S., Op. Cit., p.21.

5 Ibid.

TABLE 1.

SCHOOL POPULATION 1911 - 1921

TYPE OF SCHOOL	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921
Primary Italian	373	1908	1721	1947	2137	2231	2076	2066	2268	2319	2363
Primary Arab	99	313	1031	725	287	422	506	779	558	571	611
Trade-Technical Commercial	119	107	115	124	159	183	186	179	197	215	243
Secondary	54	99	134	226	201	215	226	289	285	342	342
Total Pupils	645	2427	3001	3022	2784	3051	2994	3273	3308	3447	3559

Source: Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.54.

TABLE 2(a).

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS IN LIBYA, 1921 - 1939.

Type of Schools:		Number of Schools:				
		1921/22:	1925/26:	1930/31:	1934/35:	1938/39:
PRIMARY:	Italian	8	16	31	54	85
	Arab	56 [1]	87 [1]	294 [1]	555 [1]	412 [1]
	Jew	3	7	6	18	16
	Total:	67	110	331	627	513
TECHNICAL:	Italian	1	1	2	3	3
	Arab	-	-	1	5	5
	Jew	-	-	-	-	-
	Total:	1	1	3	8	8
SECONDARY:	Italian	1	3	5	8	5
	Arab	-	-	-	-	1
	Jew	-	-	-	-	-
		1	3	5	8	6
TOTALS:	Italian	10	20	38	65	93
	Arab	56	87	295	560	418
	Jew	3	7	6	18	16
	Total:	69	114	339	643	527

Source: Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., (Appendix 4.)

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1 Most of these are Quranic schools (see Table 3).

TABLE 2(b).

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS IN LIBYA, 1921 - 39.

Type of Schools:		Number of Pupils:				
		1921/22:	1925/26:	1930/31	1934/35:	1938/39:
PRIMARY:	Italian	1858	2337	3845	5868	5545
	Arab	2403[2]	7018[2]	9488[2]	15704[2]	14527[2]
	Jew	962	2828	2397	4648	5338
	Total:	5223	12183	15730	26220	25410
TECHNICAL:	Italian	45	45	127	412	382
	Arab	150	371	449	522	636
	Jew	48	31	148	32	47
	Total:	243	447	724	966	1065
SECONDARY:	Italian	270	342	334	1435	1417
	Arab	6	7	5	20	134
	Jew	66	93	27	64	66
	Total:	342	442	336	1519	1617
TOTALS:	Italian	2173	2726	4306	7715	7344
	Arab	2559	7396	9942	16246	15297
	Jew	1076	2952	2572	4744	5451
	Total:	5808	13074	16820	28705	28092

Source: Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., (Appendix 4).

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2 Most of these students belong to Quranic Schools (see Table 3).

TABLE 2 (c).

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS IN LIBYA, 1921 - 1939.

Type of Schools:		No. of Teachers:				
		1921/22:	1925/36	1930/31 :	1934/35:	1938/39:
PRIMARY:	Italian	148	229	171	274	510
	Arab	31	60	59	80	104
	Jew	-	-	-	-	-
	Total:	179	289	210	354	614
TECHNICAL:	Italian	23	57	36	40	48
	Arab	5	10	10	10	14
	Jew	-	-	-	-	-
	Total:	28	67	46	50	62
SECONDARY:	Italian	51	47	40	56	54
	Arab	-	-	-	-	-
	Jew	-	-	-	-	7
	Total:	51	47	40	56	61.
TOTALS:	Italian	222	333	227	370	612
	Arab	36	70	69	90	125
	Jew	-	-	-	-	-
		258	403	296	460	737

Source: Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., (Appendix 4).

TABLE 3.

QURANIC SCHOOLS, 1921 - 1939

SCHOOLS.					PUPILS.				
1921/1922.	1925/1926.	1930/1931.	1934/1935.	1938/1939.	1921/1922.	1925/1926.	1930/1931.	1934/1935.	1938/1939
52	69	260	503	348	1792	5570	5555	9864	7973

Source: Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., (Appendix 4).

Many grave problems: political, social financial and educational, all had confronted the two administering powers during their short and temporary rule. The educational problems were primarily inherited from the previous rule which had left the country with no national educational system. Many school buildings were partly or totally destroyed during the war, and consequently were completely deserted by both teachers and pupils.[1] This situation had created several difficulties and the reopening of schools required much time and great effort.[2]

As soon as the two administering powers took over, their first step was to consider educational needs particularly for the indigenous people. Educational committees consisting of British, French and Libyan representatives were set up to study the educational situation in detail and submit recommendations.[3] Finally, they agreed to implement the following:-[4]

(a) To open primary schools for Arab and Italian pupils, particularly in the big cities.

(b) Arabic and Italian must be used as the medium of instruction.

(c) A survey of existing usable school buildings must be undertaken.

(d) The required teaching staff must be appointed.

(e) A suitable curriculum must be prepared.

It was anticipated that at least a total of 10,000 pupils of

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1 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.31.

2 Ibid.,

3 Ibid.,

4 Ibid., p.32.

various nationalities would be reached, but, despite the encouragement, only 6632 pupils were enrolled by the end of September, 1943.[1] Of this figure 1804 were Arabs and the rest were Italians and Jews.[2] The reluctance of Arab parents to send their children to schools could be attributed to the feeling of distrust and suspicions of the real intentions of the ruling powers towards national education.[3] Once their suspicions were dissipated they had never hesitated to co-operate and show their willingness to educate their children.

During British and French military administration, there existed in Libya two main types of education: one for the Arab natives and the other for Italian and Jewish communities.[4] Each type had its own objectives and programme of studies.[5]

In the school year 1943/44, 103 schools of primary level for both Italians and Arabs were opened.[6] Of these, 53 schools were for the Arabs and 50 for Italians and Jews.[7] Although education for the Arabs had received considerable attention, its acute problem, however, was the recruitment of Arab teachers.[8] Teachers from Egypt, Pales-

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1 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.32.

2 Ibid.,

3 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 269 - 271

4 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., pp. 34 - 50

5 Ibid.,

6 Ibid., p.34

7 Ibid.,

8 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 279 - 280.

tine, and the Sudan were all recruited, but the number was always insufficient. This problem was even worsened by the fact that most of the Libyan teachers had to leave the profession in order to join other Libyan leaders who took part in the political activities which presented Libya's views for freedom and independence to the outside world.[1]

> "After a lapse of two years, they (teachers) became politically minded and in many cases regarded politics as of more importance than teaching, with the result that quite a number of them had to be dismissed. Many of them were easily influenced by those who took it upon themselves to represent the views of the people of Libya". [2]

It should, however, be remembered that most of the Libyan teachers who were employed during the Italian occupation were allowed to teach only Arabic language and religion.[3] The Italian authorities reserved the right to appoint their own teachers for subjects other than the Arabic language and Muslim religion.[4] Therefore, the burden was so heavy that a new start on a national basis was very difficult indeed, particularly when it is recalled that recruitment of Arab teachers from outside Libya was not an easy task during that time.[5]

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1 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.32 (see also, Khadduri, Majid, Op. Cit., pp. 51 - 52).

2 Ibid.

3 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., pp. 30 - 31.

4 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.33.

5 This was mainly due to the economic and political instability as a result of the war. Therefore, the situation took a long time to recover.

The provision of school textbooks was a big problem during this period. Those textbooks which had formerly been commonly used, were no longer adequate under the policy of the new rule which took the national points of view into more consideration.[1] The Arab children were allowed to use textbooks which generally complied with Arab culture and Muslim traditions.[2] This was considered a forward step towards establishing a national educational system. But on the other hand, the country was divided into three separate educational zones as a result of the political divisions imposed upon it.[3] Thus, three types of educational systems rather than one were adopted.[4] Tripolitania and Cyrenaica, though under one single administration (the British) were, nevertheless, exposed to different educational programmes.[5] Fezzan, being under the French rule, its educational system was almost a replica of that applied in Algeria and Tunisia.[6] These educational divisions helped a great deal to enlarge the gulf of disunity between the three provinces.[7]

The Egyptian curriculum was first introduced into Cyrenaica where the whole system became Egyptianized.[8] In Tripolitania, the

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1 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.33

2 None of these books were obtainable during the Italian rule. During British Administration, permission was granted to purchase and use the more suitable books in various stages. These books were largely obtained from Egypt and other neighbouring Arab countries.

3 See: Tibawi, A.L., Op. Cit., pp.151 - 152, also see: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, Document No.1, p.9.

4 Ibid.

5 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 276 - 277

6 Tibawi, A.L., Op. Cit., p.151

7 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p.276

8 Ibid., pp. 276 - 277

matter was different, for it was the Palestinian curriculum to be adopted.[1] But this did not last long for it was soon afterwards that the Palestinian curriculum was replaced by the Sudanese.[2] Finally, the Egyptian curricula were applied in both Cyrenaica and Tripolitania, though with some major modifications as regards the latter. These modifications included the following:-[3]

(a) No foreign language should be taught in the primary stage.

(b) The Egyptian history and geography in the syllabus of primary and secondary stages should be replaced by the Libyan history and geography.

(c) English should be used as the first foreign language in the secondary stage, whereas French should be treated as the new second foreign language.

In Fezzan, education was crippled under the deficiency of French administration there.[4] Although few schools were initially opened, some of them had to be closed due to the paucity of teaching staff and equipment.[5]

With regard to secondary education for the Arabs, there was no attempt for the provision of secondary schooling throughout Libya before the school year 1946/47.[6] This was mainly attributed to the

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1 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 276 - 77.

2 Ibid.,

3 Ibid., pp. 277- 278

4 Ibid., p.276

5 Ibid.,

6 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", p.9. (see also Steele-Greig, Op. Cit., p.38).

shortage of money, teaching staff and school equipment.

However, in 1947/48 four secondary schools were established in both Tripoli and Benghazi.[1] Fifteen teachers of various nationalities were recruited for these schools which had a total of 226 pupils in the same school year.[2] In 1948/49 a nucleus of teachers' training institute was also initiated in both Tripoli and Benghazi.[3]

Girls' education also began to develop during this period, though on a limited scale.[4] By the end of 1948, there were 14 primary schools for girls throughout the country, with an attendance of over 1400 girls.[5] This was considered a remarkable achievement for the development of girls' education, particularly when it is compared with the complete neglect of this type of schooling during the Italian Colonial rule.

Parallel to the national type of education for the Arabs, there existed in Libya during the British and French administration, another type of education which provided schooling for the Italian and Jewish children.[6] This type, however, continued to carry on almost the same colonial objectives as defined by the Italian authorities during their rule.[7] Three levels of education - infants, primary and secondary - were all actively in progress.[8]

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1 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.22, 28 - it cites five secondary schools, whereas Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., cites only four. See pp. 37 - 41.

2 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.41.

3 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.22.

4 Ibid., p.23, 29.

5 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., p.37

6 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.25.

7 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 43 - 44.

8 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., pp. 43 - 44.

In the school year 1947/48, there were 82 primary and 3 secondary schools with 362 teachers for Italians as against 85, 4 and 377 respectively for the Arabs.[1]

The curriculum used was typical of that used by schools in Italy itself.[2] Textbooks and equipment were also imported from Italy, and even administration and inspection were subject to the direct supervision of Rome.[3]

Jewish children, particularly those who lived in or near Tripoli and Benghazi, attended Italian schools where they were treated on equal basis with Italian pupils.[4] In a few cases they had separate classes, usually attached to the Italian schools, but were exclusively for Jews, where they were taught Hebrew.[5] Those who lived in rural and remote areas attended Italian schools if they were available, or joined Arab schools, but the latter was rarely the case.

At this stage, it may be fair to say that Libya under the British and French administration was able, for the first time in its modern history, to establish the foundations of its national educational system. The achievements in terms of number of pupils and establishments were generally small, but could certainly be appreciated when the short period, the serious difficulties and the circumstances of a temporary rule are remembered.[7]

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1 Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., pp. 55 - 56.

2 Ibid., p.44.

3 Ibid., pp. 44, 47.

4 Ibid., p.47

5 Ibid.,

6 Ibid.,

7 Compare Tables (1, 2 (a,b,c), 3,4 and 5). As the tables show, there was considerable progress in education during the short period of British Military Administration as compared with almost complete neglect of native education in about 33 years of Italian Colonial Rule.

TABLE 4 (a).

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS IN LIBYA, 1943 - 1948.

Type of School:		No. of Schools.				
		1943/44:	1944/45:	1945/46:	1946/47:	1947/48:
SECONDARY:	Italian	-	1	1	2	3
	Arab	-	-	-	1	4
	Total	-	1	1	3	7
PRIMARY:	Italian	51	64	76	80	80
	Arab	50	79	80	85	85
	Jews	2	2	2	2	2
	British	-	-	1	1	1
	Total:	103	145	159	168	168
PRIVATE:	Italian	-	-	-	-	-
	Arab	358	358	358	358	358
	Jews	-	1	1	2	3
	Greek	-	-	-	1	1
	Total	358	359	359	361	362
RACIAL TOTALS:	Italian	51	65	77	82	83
	Arab	408	437	438	444	447
	Jews	2	3	3	4	5
	Maltese	-	-	1	1	1
	Greek	-	-	-	1	1
GRAND TOTALS:		461	505	519	522	537

Source: Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., (Appendix 5), p.56.

TABLE 4 (b)

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS IN LIBYA, 1943 - 48

Type of School:		No. of Pupils.				
		1943/44:	1944/45:	1945/46:	1946/47:	1947/48.
SECONDARY:	Italian	-	286	407	601	923
	Arab	-	-	-	81	226
	Total:	-	286	407	682	1149
PRIMARY:	Italian	4055	3891	4416	5555	6559
	Arab	4848	7988	9104	10143	11762
	Jews	1434	2226	3705	2138	3274
	British	-	-	313	246	252
	Total:	10337	10145	17538	18082	21847
PRIVATE:	Italian	-	-	-	-	-
	Arab	14897	15101	14986	15468	15532
	Jews	-	1121	1206	2607	2061
	Greek	-	-	-	30	30
	Total:	14897	16222	16192	18105	17623
RACIAL TOTALS:	Italian	4055	4177	4823	6156	7482
	Arab	19745	23089	24090	25692	27520
	Jews	1434	3347	4911	4745	5335
	Maltese	-	-	313	246	252
	Greek	-	-	-	30	30
GRAND TOTALS:		25234	30613	34137	36869	40619

Source: Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., (Appendix 5), p.56.

TABLE 4 (c).

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS IN LIBYA, 1943 - 48.

Type of School.		No. of Teachers.				
		1943/44:	1944/45:	1945/46:	1946/47:	1947/48:
SECONDARY:	Italian	-	14	17	20	43
	Arab	-	-	-	9	15
	Total	-	14	17	29	58
PRIMARY:	Italian	191	253	265	270	315
	Arab	146	271	265	301	362
	Jews	4	4	4	4	4
	British	-	-	7	7	8
	Total	341	528	541	582	689
PRIVATE:	Italian	-	-	-	-	-
	Arab	358	358	358	358	358
	Jews	-	40	62	80	74
	Greek	-	-	-	2	2
	Total	358	398	420	440	434
RACIAL TOTALS:	Italian	191	267	282	290	358
	Arab	504	629	623	668	735
	Jews	4	44	66	84	78
	Maltese	-	-	7	7	8
	Greek	-	-	-	2	2
GRAND TOTALS:		699	940	978	1051	1181

Source: Steele-Greig, A.J., Op. Cit., (Appendix 5), p.56.

TABLE 5.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS IN LIBYA (1943 - 1952)[1] (for the Arabs).

School Year:	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.			No. of Teachers.
		MALE	FEMALE	Total.	
1943/44	69	6140	344	6484	201
1944/45	100	9730	580	10310	331
1945/46	116	11962	609	12571	387
1946/47	130	13808	1327	15135	459
1947/48	140	15541	2096	17637	587
1948/49	166	21862	2942	24854	763
1949/50	181	24241	3522	27763	899
1950/51	193	28466	3623	32089	1024
1951/52	201	31892	4995	36887	1156

1 Includes only non-Quranic schools in Tripolitania and Cyrenaica.

Source: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education "A Historical Study on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", p.5.

CHAPTER TWO

Policy, Finance, Administration and Organization of Education in Libya.

When Libya gained its independence in 1951, the responsibilities of policy-making fell on the Libyans themselves who were thus required to direct their own affairs, initiate their future plans and develop their newly-born state. Serious and numerous problems, political, social and economic confronted the new nation on the threshhold of its independence.[1] Not least of these was the task of fostering amongst the population a sense of national identity and unity.[2]

Although the young nation proved to be capable of facing the challenge, its future was for several years, still obscure, and its path towards viability and progress was extremely difficult. Great sacrifices and also some waste of time and money were almost inevitable.[3] The Libyan authorities were undoubtedly sincere and enthusiastic in their desire to build their country on a sound basis, but when their declarations and plans were put to the test, many of their techniques proved either wrong or impractical. This was not due to any lack of interest or of initiative, but to inexperience

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1 See: Pelt, Adrian, Op. Cit., pp. 843 - 888. For more details, also Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", pp. 7 - 18 and John Lindberg, "A General Economic Appraisal of Libya", United Nations Technical Assistance Administration, New York, 1952.

2 Ibid., and also Khadduri, Majid, Op. Cit., pp. 111 - 112.

3 The task was too big for inexperienced administrators to cope with. Therefore the attempts of policy-makers were based largely on a trial and error basis, and with lack of experience and efficiency, unwise judgements and wrong calculations were almost inescapable. For more details of Libya's difficulties in the early 1950s, see Pelt, Adrian, Op. Cit., pp. 698 - 714.

and administrative inefficiency.[1]

Most developing nations seem to suffer from these dilemmas. Alan Peshkin writes:-

> "There are many difficulties which affect the attainment of educational reform that have nothing to do with the plans prepared to direct the reform of the schools except in one sense - these nations,[2] with their bold dreams, have stamped "urgent" across the face of their plans and anticipate change coming at a rapid pace".[3]

Economists and educational experts were fully aware of Libya's urgent needs and realized from the outset that the problems of backwardness which Libya faced could not be eliminated overnight, but would require years of continuous effort.[4] They were firmly convinced of the immediate need to accord the highest priority to a well-conceived programme of education as an effective basis for sound development.[5] The Unesco Report of 1952 on the educational situation in Libya states:-

> "Libya's first need is a small number of well-trained young people, capable not only of playing an active part in their country's life but also, in their turn, of educating increasing numbers of other young Libyans".[6]

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1 See: International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, pp. 6 - 18.

2 Refers to developing nations.

3 Peshkin, Alan, "Education in the Developing Nations: Dimensions of Change", Comparative Education Review, Vol.10, No.1, February, 1966, p.59.

4 See: Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", particularly pp. 7 - 15.

5 United Nations Special Fund for Assistance, "The Establishment of a Higher Teacher Training College", Tripoli, 1963, p.1. (Unpublished).

6 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.54.

The report was generally very pessimistic and seriously doubted the viability of the country as an independent nation. But in a slightly more optimistic tone, it emphasized the importance of human resources as a possible factor which might extricate the country from its difficulties. It stated:-

> "Libya has only one major untapped resource: the latent skills of its people ... An attack on illiteracy, improved facilities for elementary education, and general development of Libyan minds and bodies, must be among the top priority projects in any plan for the economic and social development of the country".[1]

It has been argued that education is desired for its own sake and not simply as an investment which will contribute towards realizing the national output.[2] D. Abernethy and T. Coombe write:-

> The mainspring of education policy in most countries is less a calculation of political costs and benefits than the conviction that education per se is an inalienable human right". [3]

However, it was quite obvious that in a poor and critically underdeveloped country such as Libya, where the bulk of the population were living at subsistence level and where over 90 per cent of the adult native population was illiterate,[4] education would indisputably be crucial to social and economic developments and also vital in combating such enemies of progress as disease,

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1 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.13.

2 International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, p.252.

3 Abetnethy, David, and Coombe, Trevor, "Education and Politics in the Developing Countries", Harvard Educational Review, Volume 35, No.3, 1965, p.301.

4 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.8.

poverty and ignorance.[1]

Thus, when the Libyan authorities became responsible for running their own affairs in 1951, they had to devise a new educational system different from the one previously adopted during the pre-independence period, and more responsive to the national needs. A new public school system based largely on Egyptian curricula was therefore introduced in Libya and a programme of studies for different school levels was adopted.[2]

The Libyan authorities provided all possible facilities to encourage the young Libyans to acquire education. They tried first to weed out what had been inherited from foreign occupants, particularly in the field of education.[3]

Education was, indeed, seen as a human right, long denied to the people of Libya, but it was also seen as the essential foundation on which almost every other aspect of the country's development would have to be built.[4]

Accordingly, the Libyan authorities took it upon themselves to evolve a national type of education designed first to meet the demands of the Libyan people for education, and secondly to rescue the country from its morass of backwardness. The new Libyan government was det-

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1 See: United Nations Special Fund for Assistance, "The Establishment of a Higher Teacher Training College", Tripoli,1963, p.8.

2 Abu-Hadid, Farid, "A Report on Education in Libya", Tripoli, 1957, p. 7,8. (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, p.3.

4 IBRD., Op. Cit., pp. 3 - 18 and pp. 252 - 256.

ermined to pursue a national policy of education free from all foreign influences and more responsive to national needs.[1]

In accordance with this motive, the Libyan authorities stressed that Libyan education should reflect the Muslim and Arab character and that its philosophy should be conceived in the light of the main outlines adopted by most Arab States, bearing in mind that curricula, syllabuses and textbooks should be pervaded by the Libyan-Arab spirit.[2] To emphasize these aims, and at the same time stressing the importance of general education for the development of the country, King Idris I, in his speech from the throne upon the opening of the first session of the New Parliament, stated:-

> "My government fully realizes that education is the only factor apt to make the nation an effective force keeping abreast with the procession of dignified life and modern civilization; it is the beacon which guides the people and enables them to realize their ideals and grasp the effective means of progress towards perfection. The first step worthy of great care is to unify the curriculum of education in the United Kingdom of Libya on the basis of the Egyptian programmes, and to make its purpose clear and definite, that purpose being to create a good, fruitful generation, straightforward in its morality, organized in its thinking, believing in God and loyal to its fatherland. Therefore, my government is now proceeding to establish a Higher Council of Education, composed of those who are most efficient and best qualified to achieve results, in order thus to secure for the country the unity of curriculum and methods of teaching, bearing in mind the environment, nationality and religion of the land". [3]

Administration.

In any country, developed or underdeveloped, administration is regarded as the key machinery through which various government affairs

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya 1950 - 1967", Tripoli, 1968, pp. 1 - 4 (in Arabic). (Unpublished).

2 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No1, pp. 9 - 11.

3 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p. 14.

are either accomplished properly or poorly implemented. The dilemma of most developing and newly independent nations is that their administration is extremely poor.[1] One cause of the difficulty, particularly in the Arab states,[2] is the fact that these countries still cling to an old type of colonial administration which was designed primarily to serve colonial interests.[3]

The Arab states suffer, in addition, from the countless constraints and pressures resulting from a highly centralized administration.[4] Corruption and political instability coupled with discontinuity in a job are factors which tend to demoralise and lower the efficiency of administration. Unfortunately, most developing countries are plagued with precisely this situation. W. A. Lewis writes:-

> "A strong, competent, and incorrupt administration is the essential pre-requisite for development planning. It is precisely this which is lacking in the majority of the backward countries". [5]

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1 See: Coombs, Philip, H., "The World Educational Crisis: A Systems Analysis", Oxford University Press, London, 1968, pp. 119 - 125.

2 This generalization is applicable to Libya as well, as a member of the Arab States.

3 See: Coombs, Philip, H., Op. Cit., p.121.

4 Qubain, Fahim, I., "Education and Science in the Arab World", The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1966, pp. 1 - 2.

5 Lewis, W.A., "The Principles of Economic Planning", Allen and Unwin, London, 1959, p.121. (Cited by Curle, Adam, "Educational Strategy for Developing Societies", Tavistock Publications, London, 1963, p.63.

Typical of most developing societies is instability [1] in a job and continuous transfers. Administrators are often removed before the projects they are assigned to can produce the expected results. On this matter, L.J. Lewis writes:-

> "The adaptation of education to the needs of different territories has not been pursued very satisfactorily. Many attempts have been made in various parts of Africa to put this concept into practice, but it is doubtful whether any of them can claim more than ephermeral success. One feature which has led to failure has been the lack of continuity of effort of the men and women responsible for the experiments, too often they have been posted to new stations before a long enough period has elapsed to prove the worth of their attempts". [2]

Although this was written approximately two decades ago, it is still a valid criticism of most developing societies.

Educational administration is a relatively novel discipline in most of the Arab states. Most educational administrators learn on the job through trial and error. This seriously diminishes the efficiency and retards educational development.[3]

Another problem of educational systems in the Arab states is the excessive interference of authority, even in minor matters.[4]

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1 Political change is mostly the key factor for administrative instability in developing countries. Each new politician, once he seizes power, tries to incriminate his predecessors' regime by accusing them of corruption, hypocrisy and treason, mainly to gain his citizens' approval and to appreciate his intended goals for reform. This state of affairs, makes administrative change almost inevitable, and this in turn leads to instability and a feeling of insecurity among the administrators themselves. Nepotism, also plays a large role in such cases.

2 Lewis, L.J., "Educational Policy and Practice in British Tropical Areas", Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd., London, 1954, p.56.

3 See: El-Koussy, A., "A Survey of Educational Progress in the Arab States, 1960 - 1965", Unesco Conference of the Arab Ministers of Education, Tripoli, 1966, pp. 22 - 29.

4 Kurani, Habib, "Evolution in Education", Evolution in the Middle East: Reform, Revolt and Change, The Middle East Institute, Washington D.C.. 1953, pp. 9 - 10.

The influence of authority and the high regard accorded to it, in these nations, is more widespread than in more advanced and mature societies.[1] This phenomenon is reflected in most aspects of life. Habib Kurani comments:-

> "The third problem facing education in Arab lands is to emeliorate the authoritarian nature of institutional life and release the creative power of the children and the people. That the institutional life of the Middle Eastern countries is basically authoritarian is reflected in the relationship of the father to the boy, of the mother to the daughter, of the rich to the poor and of the government to the governed. Educational administration is also authoritarian. Programs are devised on top by the Ministry. The teacher must teach this program".[2]

A politician in developing countries, and particularly in the Arab states, once he holds power, tends to overestimate his authority and influence, and too often imposes his instructions and orders regardless of their merits.[3] Administrators become rapidly aware of this state of affairs and tend to react in such ways as will gain political favour, or at least political tolerance.[4]

Checks on and opposition to political interference are relatively easy to achieve in literate and advanced societies, but this is not true in developing societies, where the bulk of the population is illiterate.[5]

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1 Kurani, Habib, Op. Cit.,

2 Ibid., p. 9 - 10.

3 See: Rustow, Dankwort, A., "The Politics of the Near East", The Politics of the Developing Areas, Edited by Gabriel A. Almond and James S. Coleman, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey, 1971, pp. 369 - 399.

4 Ibid.

5 Curle, Adam, "Educational Strategy for Developing Societies", Tavistock Publications, London, 1963, p.65.

Antiquated and unimaginative administrative procedures, particularly in the field of education, do great damage to the whole educational system. The Arab countries, including Libya, need a drastic reorganization of their administrative procedures. They require a more dynamic and development-orientated form of administration calculated to encourage initiative, stress flexibility and unleash ingenuity throughout the system in order to bring about growth and change.[1]

At the time of independence, Libya adopted a federal type of government which remained in force until the constitutional amendment of 1963.[2] The federation comprised the three provinces of Tripolitania, Cyrenaica and Fezzan and was then officially named "The United Kingdom of Libya".[3]

But though the federal system was justifiable on the grounds that it was an almost indispensable step imposed by the political condition and social structure of the country,[4] it was, nevertheless, a very complicated and certainly uneconomical system.[5] It imposed a severe strain on the meagre economic resources of the country, adversely influenced educational policy and hampered the development of the country in almost all spheres, particularly in education.[6]

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1 See El-Koussy, A., Op. Cit., pp. 22 - 29. See also Kurani, Habib, Op. Cit., pp. 9 - 12.

2 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., pp. 81 - 84.

3 Ibid.

4 Under the monarchy rule, the traditional tribal system was forcing its powerful influence until 1969, when Libya was declared a "Republic".

5 IBRD., Op. Cit., pp. 271 - 275. See also, Wright, John, Op. Cit., p.260.

6 Ibid.

Educational affairs in each province were entrusted to the "Nazir" of education, who was responsible to the Legislative Council.[1] The Nazir was assisted by a director who headed the provincial department of education, and a deputy director who was in charge of secondary education in the province.[2] Primary and adult education and all other functions pertaining to education in the province were entrusted to departmental heads and school inspectors.[3]

The role of the Ministry of Education under the federal system was restricted to laying down the broad lines of educational policy throughout the country as well as providing the educational authorities in the provinces with adequate information regarding such recent methods and trends in education as were deemed relevant to the Libyan situation.[4]

Responsibility for education in universities [5] and other institutions of higher education was also undertaken by the federal Ministry of Education.[6] All the remaining functions and responsibilities pertaining to education were left entirely in the hands of

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1 IBRD., Op. Cit., pp. 271 -271.

2 Unesco: "World Survey of Education V, Educational Policy, legislation and Administration", Paris, 1971, pp. 753 - 761.

3 Ibid.,

4 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya 1950 - 1967", (in Arabic) (Unpublished), pp. 5 - 17.

5 There were two universities in Libya, a secular and a religious. The former is still in operation, whereas the latter has been abolished in 1970, and incorporated into the secular university as one of its faculties, and named "Faculty of Arabic Language and Islamic Studies".

6 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", First Series, 1969, pp. 161 - 162 (in Arabic).

the provincial educational authorities.[1]

The administration of public education in Libya at present, as in most Arab countries, is highly centralized and directly controlled by the Ministry of Education.[2] The Ministry is the arm of government entrusted with full authority to conduct and finance all phases of public school education in Libya.[3] The Ministry is given sole responsibility for the appointment, dismissal, promotion, transfer and discipline of public school teachers and inspectors.[4] It devises the curricula for all government schools below the university level, endorses the teachers' diplomas and certificates, prescribes the textbooks and holds and regulates public examinations at the end of primary, preparatory and secondary school courses throughout the country.[5]

The Ministry also determines the distribution of the budget allotted to education, exercises considerable control over private and foreign schools, and maintains some limited supervision over the academic and administrative affairs of the University of Libya.[6]

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1 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", First Series, 1969, pp. 14 - 17.

2 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967", pp. 5 - 17 (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 IBRD., Op. Cit., pp. 271 - 275.

The federal Minister of Education, a cabinet member in the United Kingdom of Libya, was the supreme head of the Ministry and thus responsible to Parliament. He was responsible for the administration of his own Ministry and for the satisfactory performance of various duties attached to it. His sanction was required for all major decisions regarding expenditures and the general educational policy in the state.[1] The Minister was advised and assisted by a Higher Council of Education which functioned under the chairmanship of the Minister himself.[2] Its members were - the federal director-general of education, the Nazirs of Education in the provinces, and six qualified Libyans, usually nominated by the Minister of Education.

In a few years, however, it became clear that the federal system adopted in Libya was both unwieldy and expensive.[3] The comprehensive report of the International Bank of 1960 criticises the administrative organization of education in Libya, and pinpoints the weaknesses as follows:-

> "The cost of the administrative organization is very high in relation to the number of people served. The total school population served does not justify the existence of four such elaborate administrative organizations, each with its complete cadre of personnel. Furthermore, the dual control of education by the federal Ministry and provincial Nazirates of Education, without a clear-cut division of responsibility, tends to cause duplication of effort and to lower efficiency. Another weakness of the present system is that educational facilities are unevenly distributed. Some towns and cities

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1 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 14 - 17.

2 Ibid.

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1., p.13.

> are adequately supplied with schools - e.g. Benghazi, Derna, Tripoli - whereas large areas, especially rural areas, are without any schools at all. In a country where educational resources are limited and the need great, it is essential that schools be built where the need is greatest". [1]

Modern writers about Libya's recent history often refer to the disadvantages of this division of administrative effort. John Wright, in his most recent book on Libya, makes this criticism:-

> "For twelve years, 1½million Libyans had been ruled by four governments sitting in the national and provincial capitals of Tripoli and Benghazi, and in the provincial capital of Sebha, an extravagant, cumbersome, and inefficient arrangement ... Liaison between the provincial and central administrations had been poor and the provinces, frequently acting independently, had followed their own policies". [2]

In 1963, the federal system, with its three separate provinces was abolished.[3] This abolition was formally proclaimed by the King in April 1963, and as a result of the change, the name of the state became "Kingdom of Libya".[4] The King emphasized the fact that unity in itself was not an ultimate goal for the country, but merely a means towards great achievements in the progress of the nation towards a better life.[5] He stated:-

> "Unity is not an end in itself, but is a means by which reforms and welfare may be attained. It is our duty to treat it as a stepping stone to the ultimate aims we desire to achieve. It should serve as a lantern to guide our footsteps along the path of hard work and fruitful co-operation. It must encompass every corner of our Fatherland. Every citizen must enjoy its blessings and must be assured

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1 IBRD., pp. 271 - 272.

2 Wright, John, Op. Cit., pp. 258 - 260.

3 Ibid., p.260

4 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, p.13.

5 Wandell, Walt, Op. Cit., p.75.

> of security and happiness under its banner. The best way of showing gratitude for a blessing is to preserve that blessing; the highest ethical principle is for a man to wish for his fellow man that which he wishes for himself".[1]

There is no doubt that the constitutional amendment did create the framework for a more stable, flexible and efficient form of government. This view is supported by T. Blunsum:-

> "The 1963 constitutional amendments were of the utmost importance to Libya. It was a considerable step forward when the decision was taken, in the national interest, to relinquish the federal system altogether and promote greater unity and flexibility by forming Libya into a Unitary state".[2]

In accordance with the change, the three provinces were replaced by ten administrative districts or counties, known as "Muhafazat". Each district was under the charge of a "Muhafiz" (governor).[3] The country was divided into nine educational zones: Tripoli, Benghazi, Zawia, Misurata, Derna, Garian, Homs, Beida and Sebha/Obari.[4] At the head of each zone was a director appointed by the Minister of Education.[5]

The new system took away the powers enjoyed previously by the provinces and entrusted all authority to the Ministry of Education, whose duty it became to create a unified and well-organized policy of education throughout the country.[6] There is no doubt that this

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1 Wandell, Walt, Op. Cit., pp. 75 - 76.

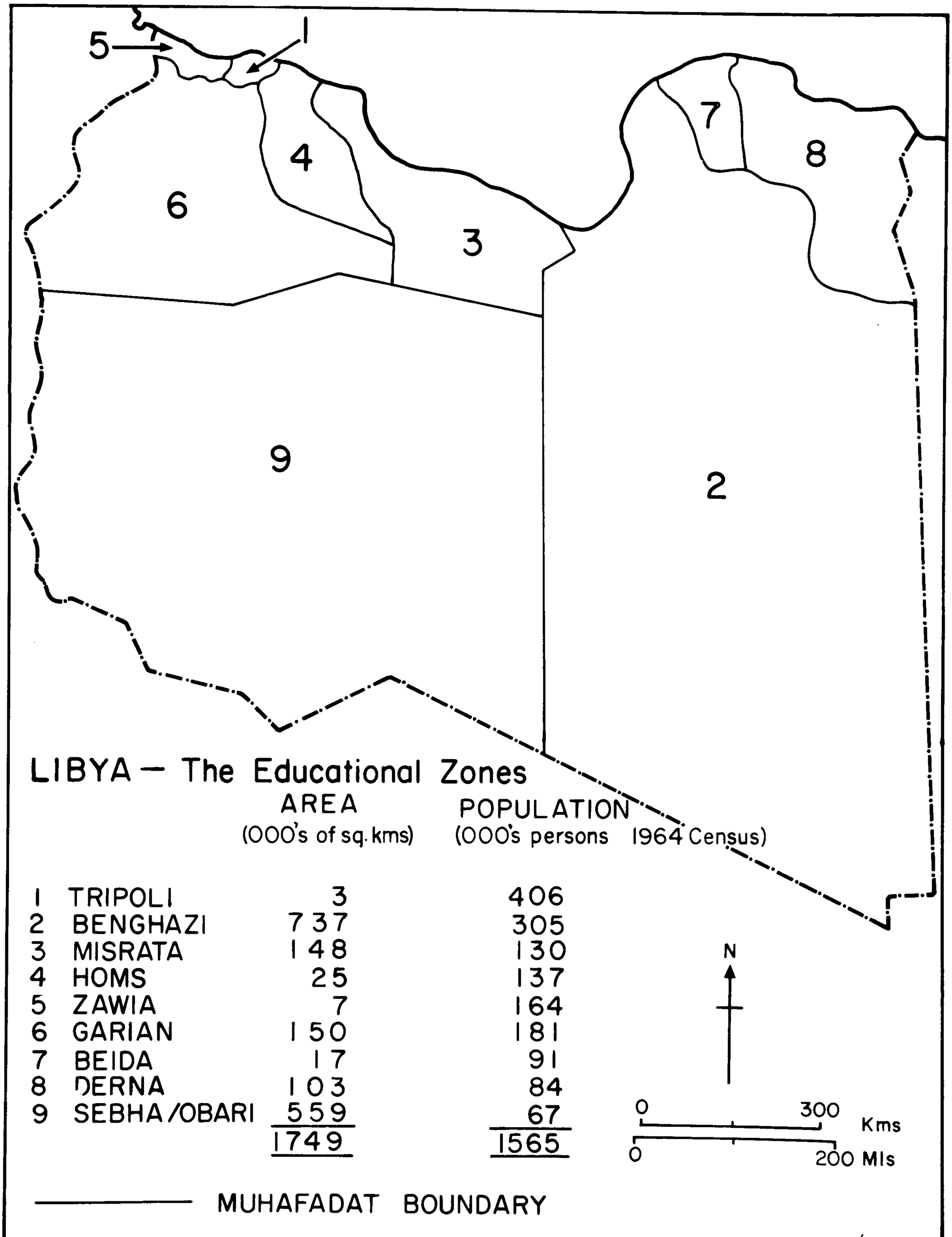
2 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p.82.

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, p.13.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya 1950 - 1967", (in Arabic) (Unpublished), p. 5 - 17.



LIBYA — The Educational Zones

		AREA (000's of sq. kms)	POPULATION (000's persons 1964 Census)
1	TRIPOLI	3	406
2	BENGHAZI	737	305
3	MISRATA	148	130
4	HOMS	25	137
5	ZAWIA	7	164
6	GARIAN	150	181
7	BEIDA	17	91
8	DERNA	103	84
9	SEBHA/OBARI	559	67
		1749	1565

N

0 300 Kms

0 200 Mls

——— MUHAFADAT BOUNDARY

change contributed to raising the standard of education in the country, and made possible the planning of education on a national basis.[1]

Under the Unified system, the Minister of Education retained his position as the supreme head of the Education service, with the major difference that his power was substantially increased, and he became directly responsible for directing the educational policy of the entire state.[2] All orders, decisions and instructions were issued in his name and executed under his supervision and control.[3]

The Ministry was divided into several departments, the heads of which were directly responsible to the Minister.[4] The University of Libya and the Islamic University, and, particularly the latter, enjoyed a considerable measure of independence.[5] Two under-secretaries in the Ministry of Education, one for administrative affairs and personnel, and the other for technical and university affairs, assisted the Minister and relieved him of a considerable

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Development of Educational Planning and its Machinery in Libya", Document No.2, Tripoli, 1966, pp. 19 - 20.

2 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967", pp. 5 - 17.

3 This description of the responsibilities of the Minister of Education and the subsequent administrative description of the responsibilities of the Minister's Under-secretaries and other assistants and directors apply generally to the period from 1963 and until early 1970, when the revolutionary regime decided to make several changes and modifications. Analysis of these recent changes is deemed out of the scope of this study.

4 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967", pp. 5 - 17.

5 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 161 - 162.

burden of responsibility. Other officials in order of precedence were - the assistant under secretary, the director general, the director, the inspectors, the school principals and section heads.[1]

Despite the existence of an apparently clear-cut division between the responsibilities of the under secretary of administrative affairs, who was to handle all administrative matters, and the under secretary of technical and university affairs, who was to deal with purely technical matters, their duties and responsibilities tended to overlap.[2] On this point, Unesco's report comments:-

> "It is impossible to separate administrative from technical affairs at the highest level as practically all decisions that have to be made will involve factors in both fields".[3]

However, the under secretary for administrative affairs was, by and large, responsible for the execution of laws and regulations in the departments under his jurisdiction, such as the departments of accounting, personnel, secretariat and archives. He was also in charge of all matters pertaining to transfers, promotion of officials and all queries and complaints submitted to the Ministry.[4] The under secretary for technical and university affairs was, in a practical sense, the real administrative head of the public school system.[5] He was not only responsible for the application of regul-

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1 Unesco, "Educational Planning Mission : Libya", Paris, 1963, pp. 16 - 18 (Confidential)

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid., p.17

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

ations in the educational zones, but also in charge of the assignment, transfer and promotion of all public school teachers below the university level.[1] The planning of educational programmes and drawing up of curricula for different public schools were also under his control. He was responsible for the implementation of all policies initiated by the Minister or laid down by various committees. In short, he became the key figure of the Ministry as far as educational matters were concerned, and was directly responsible to the Minister of Education.[2]

The two under-secretaries were aided by two assistant under-secretaries, who in turn were helped by a considerable number of director-generals and directors.[3] (See Chart A.).

This complicated administrative hierarchy, and the resultant fragmentation of responsibility in the Ministry of Education was impractical and seriously mitigated the efficiency of the service.[4]

Unesco's report states:-

> "Subordinate to the two Under-Secretaries are 14 Directors General. This fragmentation of responsibility is such that it must be extremely difficult for these officers to function effectively. It is recommended that the number of Senior Officers should be reduced considerably in order to give each one full control and responsibility for his department".[5]

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1 Unesco, "Educational Planning Mission : Libya", Paris, 1963.

2 Ibid.

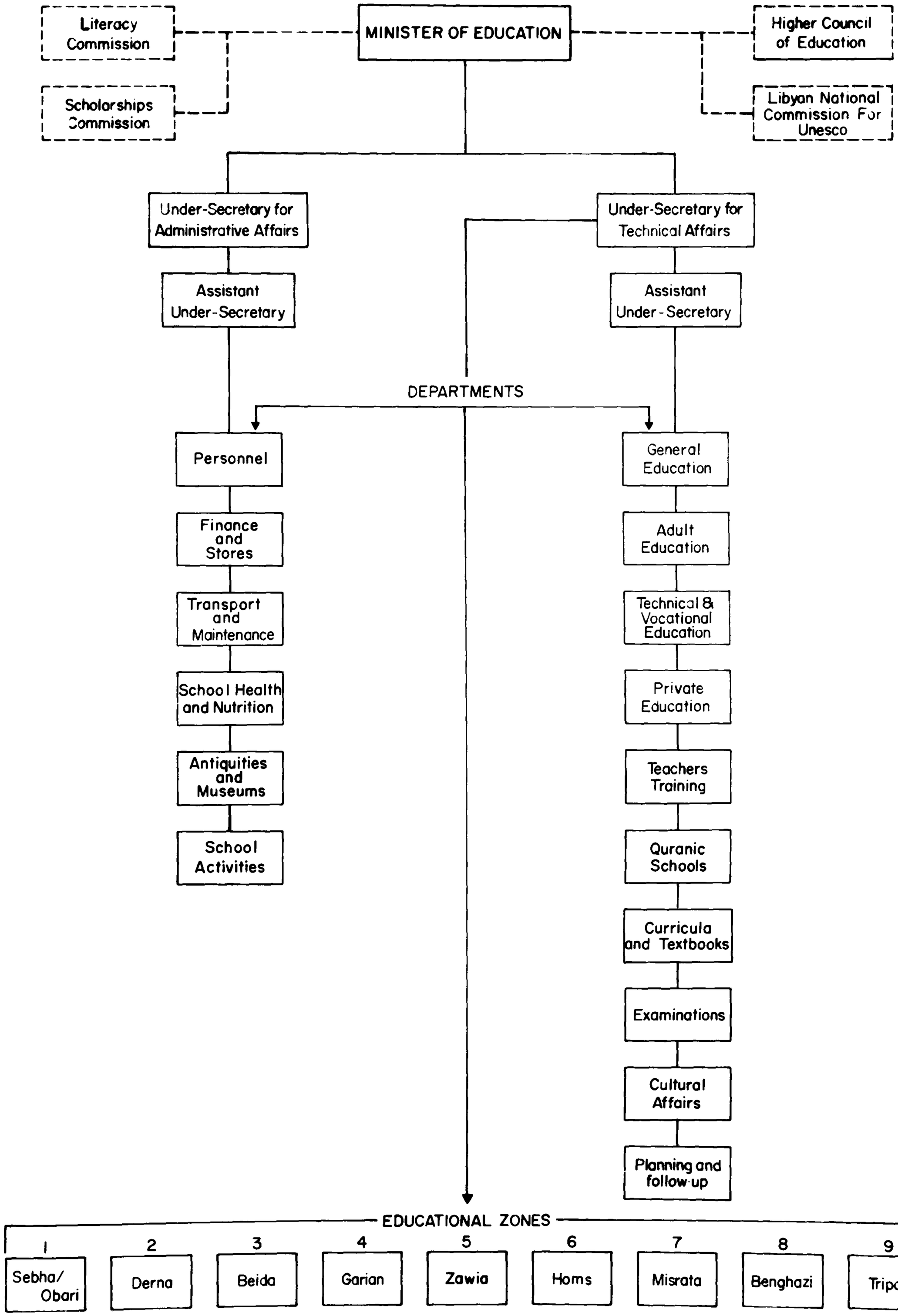
3 United Nations Special Fund for Assistance, "The Establishment of a Higher Teacher Training College", (Unpublished) pp. 13 - 14.

4 See: Unesco, "Educational Planning Mission : Libya", pp. 16 - 18.

5 Ibid., p.17.

CHART (A)

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM IN LIBYA 1969-1970



This pattern of educational organization puts much emphasis upon the role of inspectors and school principals.[1] Their positions are considered of prime importance and they are expected to play a leading role in improving the facilities and quality of education in the country.[2] Their primary function is to extend advice and guidance to serving teachers; but in practice, they tend to function more as watch-dogs, insofar as the performance of the teachers' duties is concerned.[3] Their supervision is focussed upon the teachers' regular attendance and to making sure that the teaching is in accordance with the prescribed syllabuses. Their annual reports are regarded as being of great importance as far as teachers' careers are concerned.[4]

The school year in Libya usually begins in late September and ends early in June. A mid-year vacation of approximately two weeks is given to all public school pupils, usually in mid-February or whenever else the Ministry of Education deems appropriate. In addition, an average of three weeks during the school year are national and religious holidays. Schools are open six days a week, with Friday as the weekly public holiday.

Legislation and Regulation.

Three Articles of the Libyan Constitution adopted by the National Assembly in October 1951, deal directly with education.[5]

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1 IBRD., Op. Cit., pp. 273 - 275.

2 Ibid.,

3 Ibid.,

4 Ibid.,

5 Unesco: "World Survey of Education: No.2, Primary Education", Paris, 1958. See also: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", Op. Cit., p.13.

Article 28 guarantees that "Every Libyan shall have the right to education. The state shall ensure the diffusion of education by establishing public schools, and through private schools which it may permit to be established under its supervision for Libyans and foreigners".[1]

Article 29 asserts that "Teaching shall be unrestricted as long as it does not constitute a breach of public order and is not contrary to morality. Public education shall be regulated by law".[2]

Article 30 stipulates that "Elementary education shall be compulsory for Libyan children of both sexes; elementary and primary education in public schools shall be free".[3]

The first Education Law in Libya after its independence was enacted in 1952.[4] Article 1, of this Law, dealt with the establishment of schools in the provinces and reaffirmed the rights of Libyan people to education as embodied in the Libyan Constitution.[5]

The Law of 1952 stated that:-

> "With a view to fulfilling the provisions of Articles 28,29 and 30 of the Constitution of the United Kingdom of Libya as soon as may be reasonably practicable, public schools shall be established and maintained by the administration in each province, in accordance with the means available to it, sufficient for the compulsory elementary education, and for

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1 Unesco: "World Survey of Education: No.2, Primary Education", Paris, 1958. See also: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", p.13.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya 1950 - 1967"., (in Arabic)(Unpublished)., p.5. Also see Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No1, p.11.

5 Ibid.

the primary and secondary education of all Libyan children in the province. No Libyan student shall be deprived of his right to education at any stage save within the provisions of the Law, and at no time shall he be prevented from sitting for the examinations. So far as circumstances shall permit, schools and other institutions shall also be established and maintained by the provincial administrations for the further education of Libyans up to the stage of University or other higher education. Provincial authorities shall establish boarding sections, especially for those pupils who live far away from schools".[1]

In addition to the Education Law of 1952, the Ministry of Education issued several regulations which laid down the fundamental lines of educational organization in the various stages of public education.[2] These regulations set out in a general way the duration of each stage, the subjects and syllabuses to be taught, and the conditions for admission of students to various kinds of schools and institutions and of their promotion from one school level to another.[3] Among the most important regulations which dealt with the organization of public education in Libya during the period were the following:-[4]

1. The Regulation of 1954 for the organization of teacher training institutes.

2. The Regulation of 1956 for the organization of secondary education.

3. The Regulation of 1957 for the organization of primary education.

4. The Regulation of 1957 for the organization of technical education.

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1 Unesco, "World Survey of Education: No.2, Primary Education", p.678.

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", p. 39 - 158.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

Higher secular and religious education were regulated by separate Laws, which define in detail the functions, responsibilities and objectives of each type.[1] The organization of the University of Libya was laid down by a special Law, enacted in 1955.[2] This Law was superseded by Law No.20 of 1968, for the reorganization of the University of Libya.[3] The Islamic University was organized under a separate Law of 1961, which defines its functions as the diffusion of religious knowledge, the preservation of the Islamic heritage and the rejuvenation of the legacy of Islam.[4]

Free or private schools operate under a special Law passed in 1958 [5] which gives the Ministry of Education, or more precisely, the Nazirates of Education in the ex-provinces, the right to inspect and supervise these schools.[6] This Law required that sites for the erection of buildings be sanitary, and it strictly prohibited the establishment of schools in localities which might deleteriously affect the morals of the pupils.[7] Further, the Law stipulated

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 161 - 230.

2 Ibid., p. 170

3 Ibid., p. 181

4 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education in Libya", Document No.4, pp. 12 - 13.

5 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", p. 233.

6 Ibid., pp. 233 - 240.

7 Ibid.

that private schools should follow a syllabus, equivalent both in quality and quantity, to that adopted by government schools in the corresponding stages, particularly in such subjects as Libyan history, geography and civics.[1]

Fellowships granted to students and civil servants, whether for training purposes or for obtaining higher degrees, were also one of the major responsibilities of the Ministry of Education.[2] The Regulation of 1954 and its subsequent amendments of 1965, 1966 and 1968 restricted fellowships and educational grants to students of Libyan nationality, emphasizing that priority should be given to those who were well-qualified in their fields of specialization and eligible physically as well as mentally.[3]

Two major factors, the oil boom and the achievement of national unity, have both brought about radical changes in Libya's developmental plans in almost all spheres.[4] Accordingly, the educational policy adopted in the early years of independence has had to be reconsidered and reshaped.[5] To meet the educational needs resulting from the change, a new Education Law was enacted in 1965, which dealt primarily with the new trends and redefined the objectives of public education in Libya.[6] It laid down the basis for a new approach to education in Libya, giving priority to quality rather

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1 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 233 - 40.

2 Ibid., p.251.

3 Ibid., p.253 - 255 and 261 - 273.

4 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, p.14.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid., p.15.

than quantity and focussing attention upon large-scale projects to ensure equal opportunities for all.[1] Article (2) of this Law stated that:-

> "The Ministry of Education shall aim at creating a well built generation ethically as well as mentally and physically, that believes in and is devoted to its Muslim religion, is proud of its Arab culture and is loyal to its King, participates constructively in the progress of its country, and is aware of its duties and responsibilities towards itself and its community". [2]

The 1965 Education Law reorganized the Higher Council of Education on a more efficient basis, acknowledged its role explicitly and considerably enlarged its responsibilities.[3] With the Minister of Education as its chairman, the Council consisted of the following members:- [4]

(a) The Under Secretaries of State to the Ministry of Education.

(b) The Rectors of the two Universities.

(c) The Deans of University faculties.

(d) The Under Secretaries of State at the Ministry of Planning and Development, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Industry and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.

The Council holds, at least, one session annually, and the Chairman may, at his discretion, call for an extraordinary session.[5]

The Council's advice is sought on matters concerning the general

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, p.15.

2 Ibid., p.23.

3 Ibid., pp. 24 - 25.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

policy of education, the drafting of laws and regulations, and the courses of study at various stages.[1] The Chairman or any member may also propose matters for the consideration of the Council.[2]

Illiteracy among adults in general and women adults in particular, was one of the most difficult problems and constituted the main obstacle to the achievement of universal literacy in Libya.[3]

The Ministry of Education launched its first campaign for the eradication of illiteracy and the extension of adult education on November 1st, 1965.[4] A detailed and comprehensive plan was drawn up and designed to eliminate illiteracy in the entire country within 15 years.[5] The plan set out the following principles and objectives:-[6]

(a) Eradicating illiteracy in Libya within a period of fifteen years.

(b) Literacy courses to be compulsory and free to all illiterates between the ages of 13 and 45.

(c) Eradication of illiteracy among women is to be achieved through the available means.

(d) Compulsion to be a gradual process, progressively extended so as to encompass all illiterates within the prescribed period.

(e) All media of information, central as well as local, to be mobilised to make citizens aware of the significance of the campaign, and to participate wholeheartedly in combatting illiteracy.

The campaign was designed for two stages:- [7]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1. pp. 24 - 25.

2 Ibid.

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Eradication of Illiteracy and Adult Education", Document No.8, Tripoli, 1966, pp. 3 - 4.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid., pp. 16 - 17.

7 Ibid., pp. 8 - 9.

(a) Experimental stage (1965 - 1968).

(b) Comprehensive stage (1968 - 1980).

It was intended that the first stage should identify the major problems of implementing the campaign and also collect data of the number, age and status of men and women illiterates throughout the country.[1] The second stage was intended to overcome the problems identified in the first stage, and to provide all necessary facilities to ensure the campaign's success.[2]

In 1968, the Ministry of Education enacted a special law for the eradication of illiteracy and the extension of adult education in the country.[3] This Law confirmed the initial steps taken, and laid down the fundamental lines of the Ministry's policy for the eradication of illiteracy in Libya by the end of 1980.[4]

Teachers are regarded as government officials, and their discipline is governed by the Civil Service Law of 1964.[4] Disciplinary boards in each Ministry have the power to impose certain penalties upon officials, including teachers, for offences committed in office.[6] A higher disciplinary board handles major offences as well as appeals and disputes concerning the rights of officials.[7]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Eradication of Illiteracy and Adult Education", Document No.8, Tripoli, 1966, p.8.

2 Ibid., p.9.

3 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", p.243.

4 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Eradication of Illiteracy and Adult Education", Document No.8, Tripoli, 1966, pp. 16 - 19.

5 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964", 1968, pp. 57 - 97 (in Arabic).

6 Ibid., pp. 115 - 125.

7 Ibid., pp. 116 - 117.

The Law prohibits teachers from dissiminating doctrines tending to the corruption of character, or to the creation of dissension. It forbids teachers to participate in activities which are considered an affront to the dignity of the state.[1]

In theory, corporal punishment is prohibited, but in practice, a considerable number of teachers use it, particularly in the lower grades of the primary stage.[2]

Educational Finance and Planning.

The cost of public school education in Libya is borne almost entirely by the Ministry of Education. Expenditure on the salaries of teachers, janitors and administrative staff, all come from the budget of the Ministry of Education, which is, in turn, a part of the total budget of the state.[4]

Public education in Libya is entirely free at all stages and no tuition fees are charged even for boarding students.[5] Furthermore, the Ministry of Education pays for all requirements, such as textbooks, school equipment, stationery and health services.[6]

Owing to the severe financial stringency prevailing during

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964", 1968, pp. 109 - 111.

2 In primary schools, particularly in the remote and rural areas, young pupils are caned for mischievous behaviour. Until recently, corporal punishment was the common practice in most lower grades of Libyan primary schools, but since the enactment of the 1965 Law, corporal punishment has gradually disappeared, particularly in the urban and semi-westernized areas.

3 Unesco, "Educational Planning Mission : Libya", pp. 14 - 16.

4 Ibid.

5 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, p.11.

6 Unesco: "World Survey of Education No.1, Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics", Paris, 1955, pp. 425 - 426.

the first decade after independence (prior to the discovery of oil), financial resources for education were meagre.[1] The situation was aggravated by the fact that the Ministry of Education was expected to finance not only items which were purely educational, but also to cope with acute problems resulting from malnutrition and bad living conditions among school children, by offering free medical care and daily school meals.[2] Thus, the Ministry of Education had to allocate a considerable proportion of its meagre budget to combatting problems of under-nourishment among school children, and endemic diseases which threatened the life of large numbers of the school population.[3] On this point the Unesco report comments:-

> "Finally, and most difficult of all, Libyan birth rates must fall if a continuous rise in per capita income is to be achieved. The present birth rate is appalingly high - about 5.3 per cent per year. Population growth is kept within manageable limits only by a still more appalling death rate - about 4.2 per cent. The high death rate reflects mainly malnutrition and ignorance". [4]

During these years, the national budget was clearly inadequate to the task of providing universal education, and in attempting this goal, Libya was heavily dependent on foreign aid.[5] Reference to this situation is made in the Unesco report. It states:-

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, p.14.

2 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "School Health, Hygiene and Nutrition", Document No.9, Tripoli, 1966, pp. 2 - 8. See also: Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., pp. 8 - 9.

3 Ibid.

4 Unesco: "Report of the Mission to Libya", pp. 14 - 15.

5 Ibid., (See also: IBRD., Op. Cit., pp. 276 - 299).

"The Libyan national income per capita is only 30 to 35 dollars per year. Moreover, even the present abysmally low average standard of living is possible only because of foreign aid. All three provincial governments operate at a deficit ... The deficits that riddle the Libyan economy are a reflection of the simple fact that the Libyan people as a whole, are unable, under current conditions, to produce enough to maintain themselves even at existing levels".[1]

Although limitations in the education budget and indeed in the national capacity as a whole were serious enough to warrant a long period of stagnation and possibly retrogression, yet this was, in spite of the difficulties, a period of substantial educational development.[2] The pace of progress in the field of education can be measured by the increase in the public school enrolment which was about six-fold in the school year 1960/61, and ten-fold in the school year 1969/70.[3]

However, considering the magnitude of the educational problems, the budget allotted to education, particularly in the early years of independence, was far from adequate, and could not keep up with even the minimum requirements for educational development. In 1952, the Unesco Mission to Libya reported:-

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1 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.11.

2 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, pp. 3 - 16. (See also: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967", pp. 1 - 4 and pp. 21 - 68. (in Arabic).

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Educational Statistics in Libya", Tripoli, 1971 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

> "The budget estimates for the period 1 April 1952 to 31st March 1953, amounted to £368,530, to which should be added some £40,000 for the repairing or construction of buildings. With such a modest budget, it is obviously impossible to make many innovations and there is thus an urgent need to raise additional funds, outside the ordinary budget". [1]

This quotation gives a general picture of the financial policy of education in Libya during the period of economic hardship which preceded the discovery and exploitation of oil. This financial stringency applied not only to education but to the whole of Libyan life during the decade between independence and the start of the oil boom.[2] The financial policy of these years demonstrates strikingly the determination of the Libyan authorities to secure educational advance, and the high priority which they were prepared to accord for education when allocating their meagre resources.[3] On this point, Walt Wandell comments:-

> "Education had a high priority for a people previously limited through successive eras of foreign domination. Progress toward the declared goal of universal primary education could be gauged by an increase in public school enrolment from 6,500 in 1943/44 to 45,000 in 1950/51, and 155,000 in 1959/60". [4]

Apart from the substantial quantitative improvement, efforts were made to tackle specific problems such as the education of women,

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1 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p. 26.

2 See: Farley, Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 76 - 101., and also see: Lindberg, J., "A General Economic Appraisal of Libya", pp. 5 - 8 and pp. 18 - 43.

3 Ibid.,

4 Wandell, Walt, Op. Cit., p.74.

adult education, teacher-training and the anti-illiteracy campaign.[1]

Clearly, any very rapid progress during this period was impossible,[2] but this was due not to indifference on the part of the authorities responsible for education, but rather to political, social and economic factors which were outside their control. A part of the difficulty was that, with the exception of the education service, the expectations of the political leaders were not set high.[3] For example, it was not generally considered practicable to extend literacy in any significant degree in the rural areas. Such a scheme was regarded as frankly utopian, and there was a consequent reluctance to make available funds and resources for it.[4]

The erection of a school, for instance, in a remote place such as Obari or Ghat in southern Libya, costs almost three times as much

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, Documents 1, 2, 3, 6, 7 and 8. See also, Haddad, F., "Development of Education in the Arab States", The Educational Planning Journal in the Arab States, No.14, Regional Centre, Beirut, 1967, pp. 46 - 55 (in Arabic).

2 It should be remembered, that judgement in such a situation will be invalid if assessment and criticisms were based solely on such factors as time, effort and money spent. It is very important to consider the other influential factors which were the real determinants of the situation, and which slowed down the pace of progress.

3 Progress can only be appreciated when the grave problems and difficulties are recalled.

4 Not because money will be wasted and effort will be in vain, but mainly because the government was financially unable to afford the money, and priorities required that concentration should be on the more desirable and urgent matters. Consequently educational services were generally limited and had to be offered first to the more manageable and more populated areas.

as a school in either Tripoli or Benghazi.[1] The cost of transportation services in the desert are very high, even by present standards,[2] and because of the time involved, labour costs tend to double and sometimes treble. Unesco's Mission writes:-

> "As regards school building ... the estimates were apparently drawn up on the assumption that £2,160 represented the cost of a new classroom. The Mission feels that these figures under-represent the true cost of educational requirements, for two reasons. In the first place, the actual cost per classroom seems likely to be much higher than £2,160, though this is an extremely high figure by international standards and compares unfavourably with about £900 in Algeria for instance. At a school recently built in Tobruk, the cost per classroom was £2,800 while in many rural areas costs per classroom are as high as £4,000". [3]

With limited financial facilities and so many problems, there was a tendency to neglect those areas where the costs were high and the benefits relatively small.

However, when the sudden oil boom began pouring wealth into the national treasury, its impact upon social and economic developments was enormous, and brought about a radical change in the whole

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1 Unesco, "Educational Planning Mission : Libya", Op. Cit., pp. 14 - 22, and also see: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Provision of School Buildings in Libya to Meet Educational Expansion", Document No.11, Tripoli, 1966, pp. 3 - 9.

2 Although many roads were built, and transportation facilities became more common, distance, labour and continuous rise in prices raised the costs incredibly, particularly in the remote areas.

3 Unesco: "Educational Planning Mission : Libya", pp. 15 - 16.

life of the people.[1] To illustrate this very briefly and merely for the sake of comparison, Libya's total national income immediately after independence, amounted to about £L.12 million. It had risen to £L.58 million in 1960, jumped to approximately £L.300 million in 1964,[2] and to £L.426 million in 1969/70.[3] The state budget was only £L.3 million during the early days of independence, and it soared after thirteen years to £L.85 million.[4] The state budget for the fiscal year 1967/68 amounted to £L.105 million,[5] and in the fiscal year 1971/72, the ordinary budget amounted to £L.201 million.[6]

T. Blunsum writes:-[7]

> "Since 1961, the per capita income has increased more than ten-fold, and everywhere there are reminders that the economy is booming. The country's productivity has increased by a factor of eight in the past six years, a jump from £L.52 million to over £L.408 million". [8]

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1 See: Copeland, P.W., Op. Cit., pp. 138 - 152., and see also Farley Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 161 - 200.

2 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya, Document No.1, p.14.

3 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "Statistical Abstract", Census and Statistical Department, Tripoli, 1971, p.324.

4 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, Document No.1, p.14.

5 De Candole, E.A.V., Op. Cit., p.60.

6 Europa Publications, "The Middle East and North Africa, 1972-73", A Survey and Reference book, London, 1972, p.535.

7 In 1968.

8 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p.76.

However, money alone cannot solve a nation's problems, and Libya is no exception to this general rule. Capital accumulation is certainly important, but the quick establishment of schools, hospitals, factories and other amenities, may be regarded as a waste of time and money, for they may remain idle and unused, unless the people for whom they are built are adequately prepared to use them and benefit from them. Libya needed skilled people and specialized experts, perhaps as much as she needed money.[1] On the other hand, sudden wealth itself brings its own problems in its wake. P.W. Copeland comments:-

> "The future of Libya promises the fantastic riches enjoyed by Kuwait and Saudi Arabia. Her enormous problem will be to use this wealth wisely, to spend it intelligently, and not to waste it. Libya will need a great variety of productive enterprises to absorb the potential labour force, 50 per cent of which is now kept in seclusion. A crash program of education in a great variety of skills must be provided for both men and women".[2]

It is also important to remember that even the vast oil resources of Libya will some day be exhausted. The revenue from the oil cannot be relied upon to continue indefinitely. It is essential that the Libyan people should be aware of this fact and seek to utilize this favourable period to the best advantages, and with

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1 See: Farley, Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 76 - 101.

2 Copeland, P.W., Op. Cit., p.151.

foresight. The king himself reiterated this and warned the nation of the dangers of relying entirely on the wealth accruing from oil. He said:-

> "Oil is our first potential, but no one can say that it is eternal. Oil in a country means prosperity while it is flowing".[1]

The authorities recognised that the situation has changed, and the long-term planning needed to be modified in the context of the vastly improved economic situation.[2] This led to the emergence of the Five-Year Plan (1963 - 1968)[3] for social and economic development which aimed at improving the standard of living of the Libyan people, and rebuilding the nation to take its proper place in the modern world.[4]

The Plan placed great emphasis on developing and diversifying the country's economy. It paid much attention to the fundamental question of which sectors should be developed. For obvious reasons, it gave special emphasis to education and training. The total cost of all the projects of the plan was estimated at £L.170 million,[5] and of this, the sum of £L.22.4 million [6] was allotted to the development of education.

The main objectives of the plan in the field of education were

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1 Wandell, Walt, Op. Cit., p.9.

2 Kingdom of Libya,Ministry of Information and Guidance, "Oil and Planning", Tripoli, 1968, pp.67 - 82 and pp. 114 - 132 (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education and the First Economic and Social Development Plan", Document No.3, Tripoli, 1966, pp. 28 - 34.

4 Ibid.

5 Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p.77.

6 Ibid.

defined as follows:-[1]

(a) To prepare the citizen to play his part as a good member of modern society, equipped with useful knowledge which can be applied to the benefit of his country and himself.

(b) To give every child, as far as possible, the opportunity of education in the primary stage, which is the minimum requirement for a literate citizen.

(c) To raise the standard of education so that its aims may be realized both in the primary and higher stages.

(d) To diversify studies after the primary stage so as to enable students to choose the subjects most suitable to their natural abilities and inclinations.

(e) To prepare a sufficient number of highly trained and well-qualified teachers for the various school levels.

(f) To co-ordinate the various educational schemes and the actual needs of the country, taking into consideration the fact that the nation is embarking on a policy of general development in agricultural, industrial and commercial fields.

Considerable resources were needed to implement these aims and by 1967, 23 per cent of the national budget was devoted to education. Table 6 shows the constant growth of the education budget over a period of 15 years.[2]

Despite the numerous difficulties, the Libyan educational authorities have made great efforts to develop education in the country quantitatively as well as qualitatively.[3]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education and the First Economic and Social Development Plan", Document No.3, p.28.

2 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Information and Guidance, "Oil and Planning, p.118.

3 This view is derived mainly from educational statistics which clearly show remarkable progress in school enrolments, and also the standard of school graduates has generally improved as compared with the modest efforts during the pre-independence period.

TABLE 6

Public Expenditure on Education in Libya, 1952 - 1967

Fiscal Year:	Total Public Expenditure. (in £L.1000).	Expenditure on Education. (in £L.1000).	Percentage.
1952 - 53	6,229	599	9.6
1953 - 54	7,870	926	11.8
1954 - 55	8,797	1,177	13.4
1955 - 56	9,816	1,216	12.3
1956 - 57	9,174	1,441	15.7
1957 - 58	10,123	1,800	17.7
1958 - 59	12,773	2,100	17.8
1959 - 60	13,381	2,700	20
1960 - 61	12,140	2,549	21
1961 - 62	18,000	3,900	21
1962 - 63	19,561	4,800	24.6
1963 - 64	43,437	9,113	21
1964 - 65	53,251	11,130	20.9
1965 - 66	79,035	17,890	22.5
1966 - 67	86,965	19,996	23.

Source: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Information and Guidance, "Oil and Planning", Tripoli, 1968.

The determination to foster development of education throughout the country is evidenced by figures of percentage expenditure which point to the fact that Libya had assigned a relatively larger proportion of its annual budget to education than any other developing Arab state, with the exception of Iraq.[1] (see Table 7).[2]

TABLE 7.

YEAR	COUNTRY.							
	Libya.	Lebanon.	Iraq.	Syria.	Morocco.	U.A.R.[3]	Jordan.	Tunisia
1957/58	17.7	11.7	20.3	14.3	13.3	16.5	7.1	16.8
1958/59	17.8	13.3	19.4	13.9	14.0	11.7	8.3	18.0
1959/60	20	11.8	18.4	14.5	15.5	14.4	7.0	18.7
1960/61	21	13.5	20.9	13.8	16.5	19.2	7.7	19.4
1961/62	21	10.2	21.4	14.4	18.2	18.1	8.7	21.4
1962/63	24.6	13.2	23.4	14.9	16.4	13.1	8.3	22.8
1963/64	21	13.3	25.0	-	-	10.2	8.1	31.4
1964/65	20.9	13.2	24.4	-	-	9.6	-	-

Source: El-Koussy, A., "A Survey of Educational Progress in the Arab States, 1960 - 1965", p.58.

During the past decade, state expenditures on education in most Arab states have risen sharply year after year.[4] Unesco notes:-

1 El-Koussy, A., "A Survey of Educational Progress in the Arab States, 1960 - 1965", p.58.

2 Ibid.

3 Now called "The Arab Republic of Egypt".

4 Qubain, Fahim, I., Op. Cit., p.4.

> "Public expenditure on education at current prices in the Arab States moved almost parallel with the expansion of total enrolment. It is estimated that in 1960 some 702 million US $ have been spent on education, compared with 1,171 million US $ in 1967; an increase of 67%."[1]

It should, however, be noted that large sums allocated to education do not necessarily secure good schools.[2] Money is, of course, a crucial factor for development,[3] and with an ample supply of money many educational problems become easier to solve, even though they do not necessarily disappear.[4] Equally, with too little money, educational progress becomes extremely difficult. But there are other important constraints besides money, which can determine how fast an educational system can expand, change and improve.[5] These constraints sometimes prove even more intractable than the money factor.[6] Some of these constraints in Libya are lack of adequate planning, lack of self-criticism, outmoded administrative arrangements and anachronistic ways of recruiting, training and utilizing professional personnel.

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1 Unesco: "Comparative Statistical Data on Education in the Arab States, 1960/61 - 1967/68", Marrakesh, 1970, p.44.

2 See: Coombs, Philip, Op. Cit., pp. 45 - 63.

3 Ibid., (see also IBRD., Op. Cit., pp. 6 - 9).

4 Ibid.

5 Coombs, Philip, "Fundamentals of Educational Planning: What is Educational Planning?", Unesco, International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris, 1970, pp. 24 - 28.

6 See: Coombs, Philip, "Time for a Change of Strategy", Qualitative Aspects of Educational Planning, Edited by C.E. Beeby, International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris, 1969, pp. 15 - 35.

Educational development must be based on relevant and fundamental research; on experimentation and evaluation. All of these are inadequate in Libya at the present time. The institutional forms and practices of the educational system in Libya are largely carried over from the past, and are not capable of handling present-day tasks properly.[1]

If educational planning is to proceed at a satisfactory pace, one of the first requirements is a sufficient number of appropriately trained educational planners and policy-makers. Lacking these, educational development can only proceed by the wasteful methods of trial and error... If planning is defective, much of the money may be wasted.[2]

The Ministry for the Civil Service is the branch of government entrusted with dealing with all matters regarding all government personnel, including teachers.[3]

The Libyan Civil Service Law, No.19, of 1964, which applies to all government employees, includes regulations concerning the appointment, promotion and dismissal of teachers.[4] Salaries are regulated by the state, and each Ministry has its own scale.[5] The grades of government officials appended to the 1964 Civil Service Law are in

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1 Most Libyan administrators, particularly in the education sector, adopted administrative techniques of previous foreign occupants, which were designed primarily to serve the interests of caretakers. These were unsuitable for national interests and old-fashioned in the age of technology.

2 See: Beeby, C.E., "The Quality of Education in Developing Countries", Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1966, pp. 18 - 28 and pp. 69 - 86.

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964", pp. 57 - 140.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

three major categories, with eight different grades, each having a lower and an upper limit.[1] Within each grade annual increments varying from £L.12 in the lowest grade to £L.75 in the highest grade, were granted.[2] Table 8 shows the classification of grades of government officials adopted in 1964, which is still in force.[3]

Teachers' salaries are generally linked to degrees, diplomas and professional experience.[4] Men and women teachers are paid equal salaries if there qualifications are equal.[5] Lower salaries, however, are paid to uncertificated teachers who are classified as "supernumerary teachers".[6] They are employed on a temporary basis and cannot be confirmed in their teaching posts unless they gain the required qualifications.[7] The usual initial grades and salaries accorded to diploma and degree holders were regulated by the 1964 Civil Service Law as follows:-[8]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964", pp. 57 - 140.

2 Ibid.

3 Some Articles of the Libyan Civil Service Law of 1964 were modified or repealed. However, minor changes have taken place since the enactment of the Law until 1969. The Revolutionary Regime made major changes to the Law, though in essence it is still in force. These changes are beyond the scope of this study.

4 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964", pp. 57 - 140.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

8 Ibid., pp. 74 - 79. See also: Unesco, "Educational Planning Mission : Libya", pp. 30 - 31.

TABLE 8

The Cadre of Government Officials in Libya, 1964.

CLASS	GRADE.	Annual Salary in £L. Minimum.	Annual Salary in £L. Maximum.	Annual Increment in £L.	Maximum number of years to be spent in each grade before promotion can take place.
I	Primary Posts. — Grade A	2250	3000	75	Unlimited
	Primary Posts. — Grade B	1950	2550	60	
	Primary Posts. — Grade C	1800	2340	54	
II	Executive Posts. — First Grade	1500	1980	48	Two years
	Executive Posts. — Second Grade	1200	1620	42	Two years
	Executive Posts. — Third Grade	1020	1380	36	Three years
	Executive Posts. — Fourth Grade	900	1200	30	Three years
III	Assistant Posts. — Fifth Grade	660	900	24	Two years
	Assistant Posts. — Sixth Grade	540	720	18	Three years
	Assistant Posts. — Seventh Grade	450	600	15	Three years
	Assistant Posts. — Eighth Grade	360	480	12	Four years.

Source: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964", Op. Cit.

(a)	University graduates	=	Fourth Grade
(b)	Holders of secondary school general certificate or equivalent	=	Fifth Grade
(c)	Holders of teachers' special diploma	=	Fifth Grade
(d)	Holders of teachers' general diploma	=	Sixth Grade
(e)	Holders of diplomas from intermediate vocational schools or equivalent	=	Sixth Grade

On the whole, teachers' salaries in Libya are lower than salaries in other professions requiring comparable qualifications. The only exception to this generalization is in the university sector where the rectors, deans, vice-deans and university staff are well paid.[1] (See Table 9).

It is a common phenomenon in many developing and even developed countries, that teachers are underpaid as compared with their colleagues in other occupations.[2] The effects of this are that, in a situation of full employment, insufficient numbers of people of high ability are attracted to the teaching profession, and the enthusiasm and morale of those who do become teachers, are diminished.[3] Libya is no exception to this general rule.[4] In 1960

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1 Even by International standards, or at least compared with other developing Arab states, the salaries of the Libyan University staff are considered relatively high.

2 See: Lewis, L.J., "Getting Good Teachers for Developing Countries", International Review of Education, No. XVI, Part 4, 1970, pp. 393 - 405 (See also: Coombs, Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", Op. Cit., pp. 178 - 179.

3 See: Unesco, "Recommendations Concerning the Status of Teachers", Paris, 1966, pp. 3 - 18.

4 IBRD., Op. Cit., pp. 271 - 275.

the Mission of the International Bank made the following recommendation with regard to teachers' salaries:-

> "On the other hand, a strong case can be made out for raising the salaries of Libyan teachers. The Mission believes that measures to improve the teacher's lot and make the profession a more attractive one deserves a high place in any list of claims for additional funds, and we recommend that higher pay for teachers should be one of the items included in the supplementary program". [1]

The Educational Ladder.

The structure of the educational system in Libya is the same as that in most Arab states.[2] It is based on a primary school which children enter at the age of six and attend for six years.[3] The next stage is the secondary school, which is divided into two levels: an intermediate level (general lower secondary) of three years, and a general upper secondary of a further three years.[4]

The Libyan public primary and secondary schools thus operate, as is the case in most Arab educational systems, on the 6-3-3 years plan (See Table 10).[5] Overlapping the primary and secondary stages, there are several professional and vocational schools of different durations and objectives.[6] Chart B sets out the public

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1 IBRD., Op. Cit., p.275

2 United Nations Special Fund for Assistance, "The Establishment of a Higher Teacher Training College", p.12.

3 Unesco: "Educational Planning Mission : Libya", pp. 22 - 25.

4 Ibid., pp. 25 - 30.

5 There are exceptions to this 6-3-3 years in some Arab countries such as Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia and Lebanon.

6 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", Department of Cultural Affairs, Tripoli, 1968, pp.11 - 36 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

TABLE 9.

Salary Scale - University of Libya.

Type of Post:	Annual Salary in £L.		Annual Increment.	
	Minimum.	Maximum.		
Rector	An equivalent of a Minister's salary.			N.B. The Deans are classified in Grade A, and Vice-Deans are classified in Grade B.
Assistant Rector	3,500	4,300	100	
Professor	3,200	4,000	80	
Associate Professor	2,700	3,500	80	
Assistant Professor	2,100	2,800	70	
Lecturer	1,600	2,200	60	
Demonstrator	1,200	1,440	40	

Source: University of Libya, "University Law No.20, 1968".

TABLE 10.

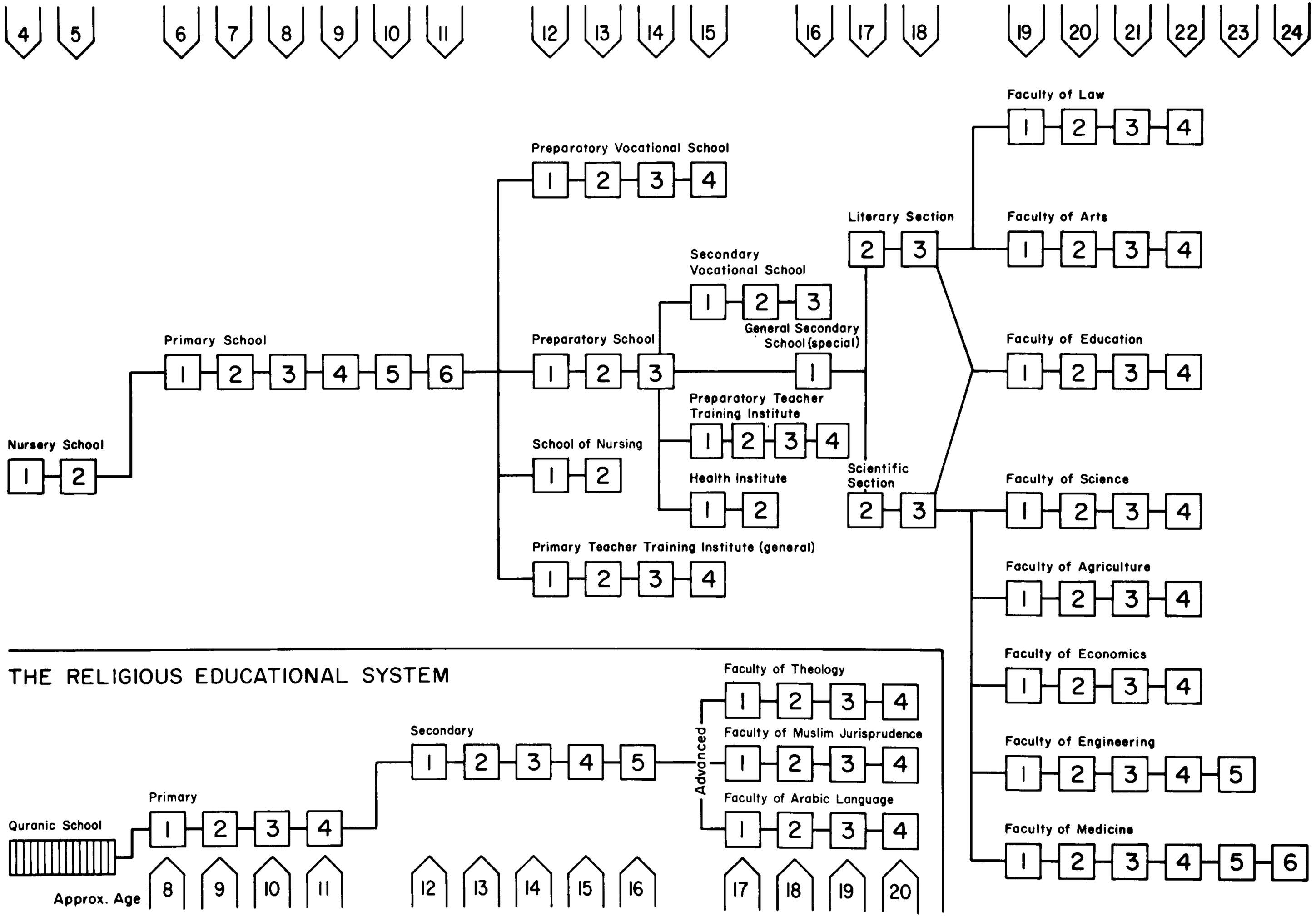
Organization of Educational Systems in the Arab States.

COUNTRY	PRIMARY	PREPARATORY (Lower Secondary)	SECONDARY (Upper Secondary)
LIBYA (LAR)	6	3	3
EGYPT (ARE)	6	3	3
SYRIA	6	3	3
JORDAN	6	3	3
SAUDI ARABIA	6	3	3
IRAQ	6	3	3
SUDAN	6	3	3
YEMEN (YAR)	6	3	3
SOUTHERN YEMEN (YAR)	6	3	3
KUWAIT	4	4	4
LEBANON	5	4	3
ALGERIA	6	7	
TUNISIA	6	4	7
MOROCCO	5	5	7
Qatar	6	3	3
Bahrain	6	3	3

Source: The Arab League, "Educational Statistics", Cultural Department, Cairo, 1970 (in Arabic).

CHART B

THE LIBYAN PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM



THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

school system in Libya in such a way as to show the various paths which a student may elect to pursue, depending on his choice for his career.[1]

Following Libya's independence, a pre-primary type of schooling (nursery schools) existed on a very limited scale in the ex-provinces of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica.[2] These schools were free, sponsored by the government and usually accepted a limited number of children at the age of 4 or 5 to prepare them for entrance to the primary school at the age of six.[3]

The public primary school offers a six-year programme leading to a certificate which gives access to the three-year preparatory (intermediate) or lower secondary course.[4] The public primary school is free to all children who have reached the age of six years, and offers a uniform curriculum extending over six years.[5] It is the common school which most Libyan children now attend, and it is the institution through which the Libyan educational authorities hope to build a sound educational system, and accelerate the development of the country socially, economically and politically.[6]

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", Department of Cultural Affairs, Tripoli, 1968, p.4. (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

2 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Historical Study on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", Statistics and Planning Department, Tripoli, 1972, p.35 (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

3 Ibid., pp. 35 - 36.

4 Ibid., pp. 7 - 10.

5 Ibid.

6 See: Education Law of 1965, Articles 2 and 3 (Document No.1).

In theory, children begin attending primary school at the age of six, but in practice admission up to the age of ten has been tolerated.[1] This was quite common practice during the first three or four years after independence.[2] The purpose was to bring into school the large numbers of children for whom there had previously been no opportunities for education. The national educational authorities, deliberately adopted a lenient policy as a temporary expedient in order to meet the needs of these children.[3]

Although the Libyan Constitution stipulates that education at the primary level is compulsory for both sexes, this has not yet come into force, not due to reluctance on the part of children,[4] but mainly to shortages of teachers and school buildings.

Despite the strenuous efforts of the educational authorities to expand primary education,[5] the number of teachers and schools available remains insufficient for all the primary school age group.[6]

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1 Vietmeyer, W.F., "The Problem of Overaged Pupils in Libyan Primary Schools", Tripoli, 1967, pp. 1 - 4 (Unpublished), see also, Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.34.

2 Ibid.

3 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, pp. 9 - 14.

4 This is applicable to many rural areas where shortages of school facilities are the determining factor for children's reluctance to join school (though this is not always the case in many areas, particularly with nomads and semi-nomads). However, in most urban areas, many schools became overcrowded and thus deprivation of schooling becomes inevitable.

5 See: Afifi, M. El-Hadi, "The Impact of the Educational Systems in the Arab States on the Problem of Out-of-School and Uneducated Children and Youths", United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Tripoli, 1969, pp.2 - 18. (Unpublished).

6 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Primary Teacher Training", Unesco, Paris, 1970, pp. 1 - 11.

The primary school course ends in a special public primary examination, set by the Ministry of Education.[1] No pupil can be promoted to a post-primary school without first passing this examination.[2] If successful, a pupil is awarded the primary school certificate, and then he becomes eligible for admission to one of the following schools.[3] (see Chart B).

(a) The three-year lower secondary school (Preparatory).

(b) The general teacher training institute, with a four-year course.

(c) The lower technical school for artisans and skilled workers with a four-year course.

(d) The school of nursing, with a two-year course.

Owing to the lack of buildings, the majority of Libyan primary schools are half-day schools. This "shift system" [4] was adopted so that as many children as possible should receive some schooling.[5] The higher grades (fourth, fifth and sixth) are usually assigned to morning classes (from 8.30 to 1315), whereas the lower grades (first, second and third) are assigned to afternoon classes (from 13.30 to 17.30).[6]

The educational authorities hoped that within a few years, [7]

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", pp. 11 - 15.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid. p.4.

4 Due to shortages in buildings, the shift system is still in force.

5 Unesco: "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.21.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

it would be possible to provide sufficient accommodation to abandon the shift system, but after more than twenty years it is still in operation. This is attributed to the fact that the increase in the primary school enrolments is so great, that all available resources are needed simply to maintain existing standards.

Boys and girls attend separate primary and secondary schools. Co-education does not exist in Libyan schools at any stage, [1] except at the secular university level, and even here it started only in 1958, when the first Libyan girl joined the University of Libya.[2]

The public preparatory school (lower secondary) offers a three-year course which ends in a general examination organized by the Ministry of Education, and leading to the preparatory school general certificate.[3] Having passed this examination, a pupil may proceed either to the three-year upper secondary, or to the three-year secondary vocational school, or to the special teacher training institute, with a four year course, or, finally, to the health institute, with a one to two year course.[4]

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1 There are a few exceptions to this generalization, particularly in the remote and rural areas where no girls' schools are available. Parents who live in these areas and who are interested in securing education for their daughters, send them to boys' schools, but this is only done on a limited scale and mainly in the lower grades of primary schools.

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, University of Libya, "University Statistical Bulletin", No.1, Benghazi, 1972, p.1.

3 See; Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", pp. 14 - 17.

The upper secondary is the final stage in public secondary education.[1] Its course of study also lasts for three years with the first year programme being uniform for all students.[2] In the second and third year, students are given the choice of specializing in either literary studies or scientific studies.[3] At the end of the third year, a final examination is organized by the Ministry of Education. If successful, students are awarded the secondary school leaving certificate which gives them access to one of the faculties of the University of Libya, or to further higher education abroad.[4]

Graduates from the literary section can join one of the faculties of Arts, Education (literary section), or Law, whereas graduates in science can join one of the faculties of Science, Engineering, Agriculture, Medicine or Economics.[5] (See Chart B).

However, a small selected number of secondary school graduates who do exceptionally well in their final examinations usually receive government grants for study abroad, particularly in fields for which no facilities exist in Libya.[6]

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", p.18.

2 Ibid., pp. 18 - 22.

3 Ibid.,

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid., p.22.

6 Ibid.

The University of Libya is a state university and financed entirely by the government.[1] The University comprises eight faculties: Arts, Economics, Law and Medicine in Benghazi, and Science, Engineering, Education and Agriculture in Tripoli.[2] The admission requirement for all faculties is the secondary school leaving certificate, or its equivalent.[3] Most faculties offer a four-year course leading either to the B.A. or B.Sc. Degree. The faculties of Engineering and Medicine offer a five-year and six-year course respectively.[4]

In addition to the secular public education, there still exists - though on a limited scale - the traditional type of schooling which is represented by the mosques and other religious institutions.[5] The Quranic schools, as they came to be known, operate on a completely different system.[6] (See Chart B). They offer a four-year primary, followed by a five-year secondary course.[7]

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", p.50.

2 Ibid., p.55.

3 Ibid., p.52.

4 See Chart A.

5 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education in Libya", Document No.4, pp. 11 - 15.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

In their curricula, they emphasize the teaching of Arabic language, the principles of religion, the memorization of certain verses of the Quran, the rudiments of the three Rs, and the elements of history and geography.[1] The chances of further education for pupils attending this type of school are very limited.[2] Upon their successful completion of the secondary stage, pupils from these schools may pursue their advanced studies at the Islamic university,[3] or at al-Azhar University in Cairo, if they so desire.

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education in Libya", Document No.4.pp. 11 - 15.

2 Ibid.

3 Religious education in Libya was put under the direct supervision of the ex-Islamic University in al-Beida, which operated until 1970. On November 25, 1970, the Revolutionary Regime made a bold decision, which abolished the Islamic University altogether. Consequently, a new Law (No.144 of 1970) was enacted which stated that: "The Islamic University is to be abolished as from the day of the enactment of this Law, and that its budget, properties, faculties and all other possessions will be incörporated with the secular University of Libya, to function as one of its faculties under the name of 'Faculty of Arabic Language and Islamic Studies'. However, this Law did not abolish the other Quranic schools and religious institutions, which still operate on their previous basis.

CHAPTER THREE

Pre-Primary and Primary Education.

Kindergarten education in Libya is still in its infancy. Although public pre-primary establishments exist, they, however, comprise only a small proportion of the nursery schools run by the private sector.[1] The Ministry of Education is most concerned with universalizing basic primary education and thus tends to leave nursery schools and kindergartens to private initiative.[2]

A few public as well as private or foreign kindergartens have been established in both Tripoli and Benghazi.[3] Known as "Riad al-Atfal", they offer a course which varies from two to three years and cater for children aged 3 to 6.[4] An official curriculum for the public kindergartens exists, but lays down no minimum requirements, leaving a substantial area of freedom for the teachers.[5]

The Libyan public kindergartens, take children usually from four to six years of age and prepare them for primary schools to which they may be attached.[6] The children are kept busy with toys,

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1 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Historical Study on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", pp. 35 - 36 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967", pp. 21 - 28 (in Arabic).

6 Ibid.

singing and dancing, games, music, drawing and other similar activities.[1]

The Libyan public kindergarten aims at developing co-operation and respect for the rights of others, it seeks to improve children's behaviour, and to pave the way towards a gradual introduction to formal education.[2] Supervised play and rest, story-telling, encouragement of self-dependence and self-control, and the development of manipulative skill by games, handwork and drawing are the principal features of this type of education.[3] Some rudiments of reading without formal class teaching are also included in the programme.[4]

Teachers at this level of schooling are usually selected from amongst those who had a long teaching experience at the primary stage and proved capable of handling classroom problems.[5] The Ministry of Education has tended, up to now, to appoint only women teachers to teach at the kindergartens which are run by the government.[6] These women teachers are usually selected on the basis of their educational

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya 1950 - 1967", (in Arabic), pp. 21 - 28.

2 Ibid.

3 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Historical Study on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", pp. 35 - 36. (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

4. Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

experience, good conduct, and interest.[1]

Public Primary Education.

The role that education plays in developing any society is not a questionable matter nowadays. It contributes to the development of individuals and provides society with the means to construct a desirable pattern of life. The explosion of knowledge in modern times, particularly in the fields of technology and science, has placed education as one of the most important factors which are vital for the development of societies.[2] John Vaizey recognizes this fact when he says:-

> "Education is important, therefore, not only to help our children, to give them better lives, to improve the society in which we live, to enable this country to go forward paying its way and competing internationally; but it is essential if we are to survive in a changing, technical and scientific age. What also matters is the kind and type; it must be geared to the world we live in, prepare people for life and for change, help them to develop and to become adaptable, and it must reach them all".[3]

The education of the young becomes, therefore, a primary concern of society, and should be founded on sound principles. For it is through education, whether formal or informal, that the average citizen will be helped to cope adequately with the problems of meeting his basic needs and necessities.[4]

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1 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Historical Study on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", (in Arabic)(Unpublished). pp. 35 - 36.

2 Vaizey John, "Education for Tomorrow", Penguin Books Ltd., London, 1967, pp. 12, 15.

3 Ibid., p.12.

4 See: Coombs Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 3 - 16.

Libya has been striving intensively, since the attainment of its independence, to bring about the overall economic and social development of its people and provide them - within its limited potentialities - with a decent minimum standard of living which would be comparable with that attained by advanced nations of the world.[1]

Realizing that the general economic and social development of any nation depends largely upon the education given to the average child, Libya has consequently accepted the extreme urgency and significance of providing universal, compulsory and free primary education and has taken several bold measures in order to attain this purpose.[2]

Free public primary education extends over six grades and is offered to any Libyan child who has reached the age of six years.[3] In theory, primary education is compulsory [4] in areas where adequate facilities are available; but in practice, this is more of a hope than a reality, because social and economic conditions, together with inadequate planning, particularly in the rural areas, have made the ruling ineffective.[5]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", pp. 3 - 15.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya" (Article 30), p.13.

5 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", Tripoli, 1971, pp. 4 - 7. (Unpublished).

The course of study is uniform to all primary school children throughout Libya.[1] Thus, a child moving from one district to another, from urban or rural or vice versa, is not handicapped by variations in the basic curriculum.

The aims of primary education in Libya are inseparable, they are part of the general aims of education in the whole country, which are summarized as follows:-[2]

> "The broad national aims of education in the Kingdom of Libya include the preparation of the Libyan citizen to become a good member of a modern society, well equipped with useful knowledge and skills which he can apply to improve his own welfare and the welfare of his country; the provision of ample opportunity for every child to complete at least his primary education, which is considered as the minimum attainment of every citizen; and an equal educational opportunity to all citizens, taking into consideration the needs of every environment and its circumstances. The government also aims to consolidate educational, scientific and cultural co-operation between Libya and the Arab and African countries and others, ensuring the utmost use of educational and scientific activities abroad by the exchange of experts, teachers and students".[3]

The public primary-school regulations authorize free primary instruction to Libyan children of all creeds and races who are between the ages of six and twelve, and specify subjects to be taught and prohibit the use of textbooks that have not been approved by the Ministry of Education.[4]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", pp. 11 - 12.

2 Ibid.

3 Unesco: "World Survey of Education, V: Educational Policy, Legislation and Administration", Paris, 1971, p.753.

4 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 49 - 52.

At the time of admission to school, children must be free from all common diseases and must present a certificate of vaccination against smallpox.[1] Children admitted from Kuttab or private schools are examined and put in a suitable grade.[2] Children transferring from one public school to another are supplied with certificates which place them in the same grade in the new school.[3]

To a large extent, primary education in Libya segregates boys from girls, with boys' schools taught by men and girls' schools by women. However, co-education at the primary level is tolerated in many rural villages where no girls' schools, or only incomplete ones, exist. The Ministry of Education has made special efforts to overcome the traditional prejudice against co-education, particularly in the cities where it is most prevalent. But these endeavours have, so far, not been successful.[4]

It may be worth mentioning here that parents in the cities tend to be more conservative,[5] and thus more reluctant to send their daughters to attend boys' schools, than parents who live in the rural areas. The scarcity of girls' schools in these remote areas may be

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1 Although the Regulations state so, but this is rarely, if ever, applied particularly in the villages and rural areas.

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 49 - 52.

3 Ibid.

4 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Historical Study on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", pp. 35 - 37.

5 This attitude affects many other social relations, but clearly seen as a strong conviction towards the education of girls. (see p.3., Chapter One).

considered as part of the reason, but certainly not the only reason. However, this may be attributed to the fact that women who live in the villages and rural areas are more emancipated and socially open-minded than women who live in the cities. And on the other hand, life in the cities creates a certain type of values, social obligations and taboos, certainly alien and unacceptable to the Bedouins and villagers, but which are socially unavoidable in the city life and therefore parents feel obliged to comply with them.[1] For example, a girl in the village or tribe normally goes to school unveiled, whereas a city girl of a comparable age would have to use the veil when she goes to school.[2] However, there are, of course, some exceptions to this attitude, and rapid change is taking place everywhere and affecting most areas, but on the whole this is still the general practice.

Teaching Attitudes, Methods, Textbooks and Equipment.

Enrolment in the primary schools in Libya more than doubled in the years 1960 - 1970, and although the proportion of girls to boys is still well below what it ought to be,[3] it is now steadily increasing as parents are realizing that educated daughters have earning as well as marriage value. Besides, the selection of educated persons to fill government posts of power and prestige with satisfactory remuneration

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1 See: Taher, Abdul-Jalil, Op. Cit., pp. 1 - 58.

2 Ibid.

3 The ratio of boys to girls was roughly 2:1, or 66% and 34% respectively in the academic year 1969/70. The percentage was only 21% to girls as compared with 79% to boys in the academic year 1960/61. (see: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 4 - 7).

opens the eyes of the public to the importance of education and spurs parents to demand it for their children.

Unfortunately, about half[1] of the children enrolled in public primary schools are taught by untrained and uncertificated teachers who are of very poor quality. Most of these teachers have little more than primary school education,[2] and certainly no one should expect too much from a teacher who is only one or two steps ahead of his pupils. The situation has even been worsened by the tendency to regard primary school teaching as an area that requires only low standards and in which the least qualified teachers should work. Consequently a high proportion of Libya's uncertificated and untrained teachers are to be found in the lower levels of primary schools.[3] The harm caused to the young children by erroneous instruction in the early years of their development is extremely serious, and naturally affects their future careers.

Admission of untrained and unqualified teachers into the teaching profession tended also to deter talented young men and women who might otherwise have made teaching their own career. Yet no significant change in education can take place in any country unless its teaching corps is efficient and well-trained.

Therefore, teaching tends to decline in quality and there can be no doubt that the average quality of teaching is far below what it

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1 Prasad, Maya, "Current Supply of Educated Manpower: Trained School Teachers in Libya", Working Paper No.2, p.3.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

ought to be. With almost no exceptions, primary education in Libya still lingers in the mechanical pedagogy of the nineteenth-century classroom, but without its efficiency and drive, a fact which makes teaching boring.

Teaching in the Libyan primary school adheres closely to the traditional and old-fashioned methods.[1] It is often formal and dull and methods are fairly uniform.[2] The teacher takes his place in the centre of the classroom and keeps the initiative throughout the lesson. The question-and-answer technique is the most commonly used particularly in the teaching of Arabic language and arithmetic.[3] Thus teaching in primary schools takes the form of mere presentation of abstract facts by the teacher, who is the prime mover, with pupils listening passively, copying what he dictates and later memorizing these facts, but hardly comprehending them.

Primary education, particularly in the hands of unsatisfactory teachers, tends to reduce all instruction to an intellectual drill. Because of its abstract nature the contents are often unintelligible and therefore uninteresting to the pupils. They do not usually understand what they are taught and fall back on mechanical memorizing. Information imparted in such a way remains a dead matter and does not become part of the child's living thought. He therefore tends to forget what he learns, "memorizes", as soon as he leaves school. Since the child does not see the purpose of the education he receives, he remains a passive, and in many cases, an unwilling

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1 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the problems of Libyan Primary Education with emphasis on teacher training courses", pp. 9 - 15.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

subject who submits to, rather than receives, education.

This is the situation prevalent in most Arab states which was well described by M. Akrawi and A.A. El-Koussy as follows:-

> "Except in a few experimental schools, the methods of teaching in the school systems generally remain largely traditional, with the child as a passive recipient. In the main, methods are Herbartian, sometimes literally following Herbart's five steps. Assignments in the textbooks are given, and children must recite in the following period. Teaching is predominantly informational, with memorization playing a large role".[1]

Teaching is, therefore, rarely conducted through activity methods; few teachers use them and many are untrained in their use. Even those enthusiastic teachers who were trained in more modern methods are often daunted by poor equipment, inadequate space, careless administration, classes of unmanageable size, particularly in the urban areas, and lack of incentive and encouragement. Even the bright enthusiasms, born in the good teacher, are dimmed in the first year of teaching and gradually extinguished in the following years, by the daily reminder of lack of material - no maps, no books, no paper, no crayons, no cardboard, no wood, no tools - only chalk. If this is the case in many urban schools, it is easy to imagine the situation in rural schools, some of which no newspaper can even reach.[2]

It is an unsound policy to incur expenditure on the training of teachers and then fail to provide them with the minimum equipment in the classroom which can help to make their teaching successful and their training more effective. Not even good teachers can work effectively

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1 Akrawi, M., and El-Koussy, A.A., "Recent Trends in Arab Education", International Review of Education, Vol.XVII, No.2 1971, p.190

2 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Problems of Libyan Primary Education", pp. 9 - 15.

without the necessary tools and equipment.

Equipment is essential for effective teaching, but it is sadly lacking in many Libyan schools.[1] Blackboards, desks, chairs, tables, even old ones, are lacking in many urban schools and most rural ones.[2] In many village schools, pupils have to sit on mats for lack of benches. Even when benches are supplied, three or four pupils are often required to use one bench which was originally designed for only two.[3] A similar situation obtains in the cities because of the continuous migration of families from rural to urban areas.[4] Classes in the cities tend to become overcrowded, and therefore unmanageable.

Another dilemma faces primary education in Libya; it is the paucity of school text-books and other reading material required by teachers and pupils.[5] It is a truism that the school textbook is an indispensable tool for both teacher and pupil, for it helps the teacher in the preparation of lessons and the pupils in their assimilation.[6] The need for a supply of adequate textbooks is particularly felt in countries where classes are large andthe training of teachers insufficient. No new curriculum can be effectively implemented without the

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1 Akrawi, M. and El-Koussy, A.A., "Recent Trends in Arab Education", International Review of Education, Vol. XVII, No.2, 1971,

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 This situation is mainly attributed to over-crowding.

5 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Problems in Libyan Primary Education", pp. 9 - 15.

6 Ibid.

appropriate text materials and equipment to go with it.

School textbooks present a special problem for Libya because there are no Libyan authors capable of writing the books. Therefore, Libya had to depend entirely on other Arab authors to write the required textbooks. Unfortunately, these books tend to ignore the pupils' interests and fail to reflect sufficiently the country's cultural background.[1] The Unesco report makes the following comment:-

> "The foreign textbooks now used, whatever their intrinsic merit, are not adapted to the country. It is essential therefore to prepare and publish, with the least possible delay, Libyan textbooks which use the best tested teaching methods and at the same time take into account actual conditions in the country".[2]

Although this quotation describes the situation approximately two decades ago, unfortunately, it is still a valid criticism of the present situation. Both from the quantitative and qualitative points of view, the problem of textbooks is a serious one since Libya has adopted a policy of universal, free and compulsory primary education.[3] The problem is further exacerbated by the fact that there is an acute shortage of even those text-books that do exist. Even when they are supplied, there is often a delay of several months in delivery. This is particularly true of the rural and remote areas which suffer from transportation difficulties.[4] It is not uncommon, therefore, to visit a primary school, selected at random, particularly in a rural area, during the mid-year, and find out that the teacher and pupils are either sitting idle or, at best, playing together in the

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1 This is particularly true of text-books which deal with reading, Arabic language and grammar, Arabic literature, history and civics.

2 Unesco: "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.44.

3 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education,"Recommendations of the Second National Educational Conference", held in Tripoli(16 - 19 October, 1971, pp. 1 - 12 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

school playground, just passing time simply because textbooks and other required materials have not been supplied.[1]

The normal procedure is that the Ministry of Education prescribes one textbook for each subject to be used by each grade, and this is applicable to all public primary schools all over the country.[2] Teachers are required to adhere to the textbook very closely.[3] One consequence of this one-book system is that the school textbook becomes the sole reference for the teacher as well as for the pupil. The teacher's main concern is to teach what is in the book and to explain its contents, whereas the pupil's concern is to memorize the facts that the book offers, merely for the sake of passing examinations which are themselves a criterion of good assimilation and success.

However, reliance on one textbook, regardless of its adequacy, does not seem to be a sound measure from the educational point of view.[4] A wider range of books would be more useful as far as pupils' needs, abilities and interests are concerned. Individual differences is an important aspect in the child's development, and these can be well served by the provision of various reading materials, including textbooks. In connection with this point, Robert Dottrens writes the following:-

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1 This is particularly applicable to remote and rural areas, but urban schools suffer a great deal from the same problem.

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Historical Study on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", pp. 7 - 10. See also, Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", pp. 11 - 14.

3 Ibid.

4 Dottrens, Robert, "The Primary School Curriculum", Unesco, Paris, 1962, pp. 189 - 229.

"It is all too often forgotten that the textbook - the handbook - is by definition constantly in the hands of the teacher and pupils; it is the initial tool, identical for all and unadapted to individual characteristics. Once the teacher has given his lesson the pupils have to assimilate its content by means of the textbook exercises. But these are not enough for those unable to master the new knowledge through lack of adequate training. The point is that textbooks are designed by adults, who, while no doubt mindful of the use for which their works are intended, cannot reasonably be expected to be unmindful of their own reputations or be free of author's vanity. Their work, after all, will be judged by their peers and not by the children". [1]

Therefore, adherence to a single textbook is strongly criticized for it tends to ignore pupils' needs and interests. Yet, most of the Arab educational systems stick to the policy of using uniform textbooks, which become the main source, if not theonly source, for both teachers and pupils.[2] In their reference to this fact, M. Akrawi and A. El-Koussy wrote:-

"Except for private schools in Lebanon, all the schools in each of the Arab countries use uniform text-books. A large number of the countries have "nationalized" text-book production; a committee of authors, chosen by the Ministry, writes each book or set of books, which is then mass produced and distributed at cost price or gratis. Only in Lebanon and to a certain extent in the U.A.R., is there some competition in text-book production. It is rare for teachers to give students assignments from sources outside the primary and secondary text-books".[3]

In view of the size of the problem, it is highly desirable that the Ministry of Education in Libya should reconsider its policy towards the preparation, approval and production of textbooks, and should ensure that the textbooks are of good quality and are easily available to all children.[4] It is absolutely necessary that adequate materials

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1 Dottrens, Robert, "The Primary School Curriculum", Unesco, Paris, 1962, p.229.

2 See: Akrawi, M., and El-Koussy, A.A., Op. Cit., pp. 187-189.

3 Ibid., pp. 188 - 189.

4 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education,"Recommendations of the Second National Educational Conference", pp. 1 - 12.

in the form of good supplementary readers and periodicals should be available if the growing interest of school children in books is to be harnessed for their moral and cultural uplift.[1]

It is important to note here that while a growing body of educational opinion has increasingly stressed the value of activity and freedom, the system prevalent in Libya has tended to become more and more book-centred. This trend of overmuch concern with books has influenced children's attitudes and on the whole has tended to divorce education from the realities of Libyan life. The system continues to copy blindly practices from other countries which neglect local realities, and therefore gradually draw the child away from his social and cultural milieu and create in him a distaste, if not contempt, for manual labour.[2] The result is that the child trained in the traditional way tends to become dependent upon a particular type of employment, mainly clerical.[3] If there are no opportunities for work of this kind, he is reluctant to undertake any other kind of work. The average educated person in Libya, and probably most Arab countries, also often lacks self-confidence and initiative and is indecisive when confronted with a situation that requires a quick and definite decision.[4]

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Recommendations of the Second National Educational Conference", pp. 1 - 12.

2 Both parents and children tend to disdain manual work which is commonly regarded as a degrading job, and undignified. This problem will be dealt with in some detail in the discussion of manpower needs.

3 See: Afifi, M., El-Hadi, Op. Cit., pp. 2 - 18.

4 Ibid.

Another fundamental defect from which the system has suffered is the negative interaction and unfriendly atmosphere which dominates teacher/pupil relationships.[1] It is perhaps not an exaggeration to state here that the Libyan primary school teacher does not yet understand the child he teaches. Teachers have made a general study of child development, but the study of the Libyan child in terms of how he learns, the factors which may influence his learning process, his family problems, his potentialities, his cultural background and his economic and social needs, is yet to be undertaken.[2]

Theoretically, corporal punishment is prohibited in all Libyan public schools, but in practice teachers rely on it heavily as an effective means for pupils' discipline. Too many Libyan teachers still believe that the Libyan child, unlike his counterpart in most advanced countries, can only learn by constant punishment, particularly corporal punishment.[3]

Indeed, it is the untrained and the unsure teacher who canes the most, because he cannot control his pupils and does not know how to tackle problems of disobedience when they arise. The teacher who is in many instances either untrained or unsure or both, covers up his own ignorance by slapping down the eager child instead of

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1 See: Afifi, M. El-Hadi, Op. Cit., pp. 2 - 18.

2 See: El-Shafie, M.A., "Socio-economic Environment of the Problem of Out-of-School and Uneducated Children and Youth in the Arab States", United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Tripoli, 1969, pp. 1 - 14 (Unpublished).

3 At present, the number of non-caning schools is, undoubtedly, increasing, particularly in the urban schools. This is mainly due to the pressures being exercised by the parents who live in those areas, and who are fully convinced that teachers should not be granted the right to beat children.

giving him as much encouragement as he can. The repressive tendency among Libyan teachers is due partly to the inadequate training of the teachers on one hand, and the norms of the society on the other hand. Both must be drastically altered if the children are to make real progress in school.

All these requirements of primary education are basic, and certainly point to the fact that there is an urgent need for a drastic change. This certainly requires time, effort and money, in addition to a high quality training of teachers, a training not only in the ingenious use of material, but in the imaginative management of young children.

Curriculum and Syllabus.

Curricula and syllabuses play an important role in any educational system, for they relate closely to the formal education of the young and the informal education of the adult.[1] Therefore, when one thinks of improving any educational system, curricula and syllabuses are given critical examination. It is however, necessary, as Robert Dottrens points out, to avoid the error of supposing that all the ills of an educational system can be cured by reforming the curriculum:-[2]

> "If, for one reason or another, public education in a particular country is found to be inadequate or unsatisfactory, if it is recognized that there are real grounds for criticism or if a different type of intellectual training is required, it is always the curriculum which is blamed and the curriculum which is altered, as though the simple fact of changing it could overcome these weaknesses.....There is something paradoxical

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1 See: Adams, Don and Bjork, Robert M., "Education in Developing Areas", David McKay Company Inc., New York, 1972, pp. 123 - 128.

2 Dottrens, Robert, Op. Cit., pp. 1 - 12.

and irrational about this overemphasis on the curriculum in the educational process. The original purpose of drawing up a curriculum was to facilitate the teacher's daily work and prescribe the amount of knowledge which the pupils were expected to acquire over the years. But it has become the hub of all those problems whose solution should in fact determine the principles and content of the curriculum, such problems as the aims of education, teacher training, working methods, examination systems, etc. Inevitably, therefore, any discussion of curricula and how to improve them implies criticism of the educational systems for which they have been prepared". [1]

Although the importance of curriculum and syllabus and their influence on the patterns of the educational system is undeniable, it may be safely said that no matter how excellent curricula and syllabuses are prepared or how well the educational objectives attached to them are defined, it has still to be conceded that they remain as mere piles of information, unless the other basic factors in the educational process are well considered. R. Dottrens says:-

> "Unfortunately, an excellent printed curriculum is only too often more educational eye-wash, and has little to do with what actually goes on in class. No matter how well suited a syllabus may be to the pupils' abilities and to the requirements of their social environment, it will be a dead letter if the other factors in the educational process are left unchanged". [2]

It is not possible to analyze the primary school curriculum in Libya in detail. Therefore reference will be made only to the more important problems and to those defects which demand an urgent solution.

Unfortunately, amidst her many remarkable achievements, Libya has tended to follow the example of most other Arab countries in the planning of her primary school curriculum. The curricula are imposed by government authorities and are largely traditional and

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1 Dottrens, Robert, Op. Cit. pp. 11 - 12.

2 Ibid., p.12.

overcrowded.[1] Centrally planned curricula and syllabuses have, in fact, been serious obstacles to successful and relevant primary education in Libya. At the present time, the primary school syllabus justifies the criticism that it is overloaded with content irrelevant to the lives of Libyan children and indeed, to good primary school education.[2] Most educational systems in the Arab countries seem to suffer from the same problem.[3] Fahim Qubain writes:-

> "Generally speaking, in theory the elementary school curriculum is quite rational in character, and in most Arab countries it has improved considerably in recent years. Despite this, however, it continues to be, in large measure, non-functional and divorced from the life and environment of the student. Moreover, teaching techniques tend to be authoritarian, dependent on learning by rote, and lacking in the development of curiosity and the thinking faculties of the child. In these respects, the countries vary somewhat".[4]

The needs of good primary curriculum and syllabus, therefore, require that the topics and subjects chosen should be part of fundamental education for this stage of learning, relevant to the lives and environment of children and closely related to appropriate teaching methods. Hence the curriculum must be regarded as the framework of a unified experience of activity and response to the environment. But the curriculum adopted in Libyan primary schools has, in the past, ignored these requirements and instead the tendency of primary school curriculum as a whole was not geared to the preparation of pupils in order to meet the needs of the country insofar as

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1 See: Akrawi, M. and El-Koussy, A.A., Op. Cit., pp. 187-189

2 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Problems of Libyan Primary Education", pp. 6 - 15.

3 Qubain, Fahim, I., Op. Cit., pp. 8 - 10.

4 Ibid., p.10.

social and economic developments are concerned.[1]

The primary school curriculum tended to follow the same traditional path and allotted more time to the humanities, and rather less to mathematics, science and practical activities, than is the world trend in the primary school curriculum.[2] What appears to be the most unfortunate feature of the adopted curricula in Libyan primary schools, is the undue emphasis that is placed on liberal arts at the expense of science and technology,[3] (see Table 12). The changes that have taken place in the political and economic spheres have not been reflected in the area of education. Unfortunately, most Arab states suffer from these deficiencies and weaknesses in the curriculum.[4] Fahim Qubain writes the following comment:-

> "Science is taught through the six years of elementary school. Children are given instruction in general science, simple physics, and chemsitry and the elements of sanitation and hygiene. Unfortunately, scienceinstruction in most Arab countries is generally of poor quality. It consists mainly of classroom learning and memorization of equations and formulas. Little use is made of the local environment to explain natural pehnomena and little attempt to make dry formulas become living, comprehensible reality. Experiments using simple gadgets that can be easily constructed by the teacher, or even by the pupils themselves under the teacher's supervision, are rarely employed. Science textbooks are of generally inferior quality, often literal translations or copies of textbooks in Western languages without adaptation to local needs and using illustrative material with which local students are not familiar. Finally, good science teachers are in very short supply all over the Arab World". [5]

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1 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Losses Caused by the Present System Used to Evaluate Primary School Children in Libya", Tripoli, 1968, pp. 1 - 3 (Unpublished).

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Qubain Fahim I., Op. Cit., pp. 8 - 12.

5 Ibid., pp. 9 - 10.

TABLE 11.

The Weekly Time-Table of Libyan Primary Schools.

SUBJECT.	GRADES.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quran and Religion	3	3	4	4	3	3
Arabic	12	12	10	9	9	9
Singing	-	-	1	1	1	1
History and Civics	-	-	1	2	2	3
Geography	-	-	2	2	2	2
Arithmetic	6	6	6	6	5	5
Elementary Geometry	-	-	-	-	1	1
Science	3	3	2	2	2	2
Hygiene	-	-	-	-	1	1
Physical Training	6	6	6	6	6	6
Drawing	3	3	2	2	2	2
Handicrafts	3	3	2	2	2	1
Total	36	36	36	36	36	36

Source: Unesco, Compulsory Education in the Arab States, p.51.

TABLE 12.

Synthetic Table Showing the Relative Position of Each School Subject to All Other Subjects in Primary Education in the Arab Countries. 1964/65.

Country	Religion.	Arabic Language.	Foreign Language.	Maths .	Physical Sciences.	Social Sciences.	Practical Activities.	Total.
Libya	7.70	37.50	-	18.30	9.60	4.80	22.10	100
Aden	8.50	35.20	1.90	22.40	3.90	10.90	17.20	100
Algeria	2.20	29.10	30.20	19.50	6.10	3.70	9.20	100
Saudi Arabia	36.00	26.00	-	15.50	7.00	3.50	12.00	100
Hadramout	24.40	34.70	-	20.80	5.20	7.90	7.00	100
Iraq	7.90	28.40	4.70	17.90	7.90	10.00	23.20	100
Jordan	10.80	26.50	10.10	15.50	10.40	7.50	19.20	100
Kuwait	10.00	38.00	--	17.00	8.60	1.40	25.00	100
Lebanon	3.70	23.00	18.50	18.50	6.70	10.00	19.60	100
Morocco	21.50	36.80	8.40	15.60	2.20	7.80	7.70	100
U.R.R. (Egypt	10.60	29.80	-	16.70	7.60	6.60	28.70	100
Syria	11.60	32.80	-	18.30	8.30	7.30	21.10	100
Sudan	15.45	25.45	-	20.91	6.36	8.19	23.64	100
Tunisia	4.60	34.10	23.20	15.60	2.80	1.90	17.80	100
Yemen	18.60	28.80	-	16.20	7.40	6.40	22.80	100
Total	193.5	466.15	97	268.71	100.06	97.89	276.64	1500
	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
Percentage	12.87	31.7	6.46	17.90	6.67	6.52	18.42	100

Source: El-Koussy, A.A. "A Survey of Educational Progress in the Arab States 1960 - 1965", Unesco Conference, Tripoli, 1966, p.39

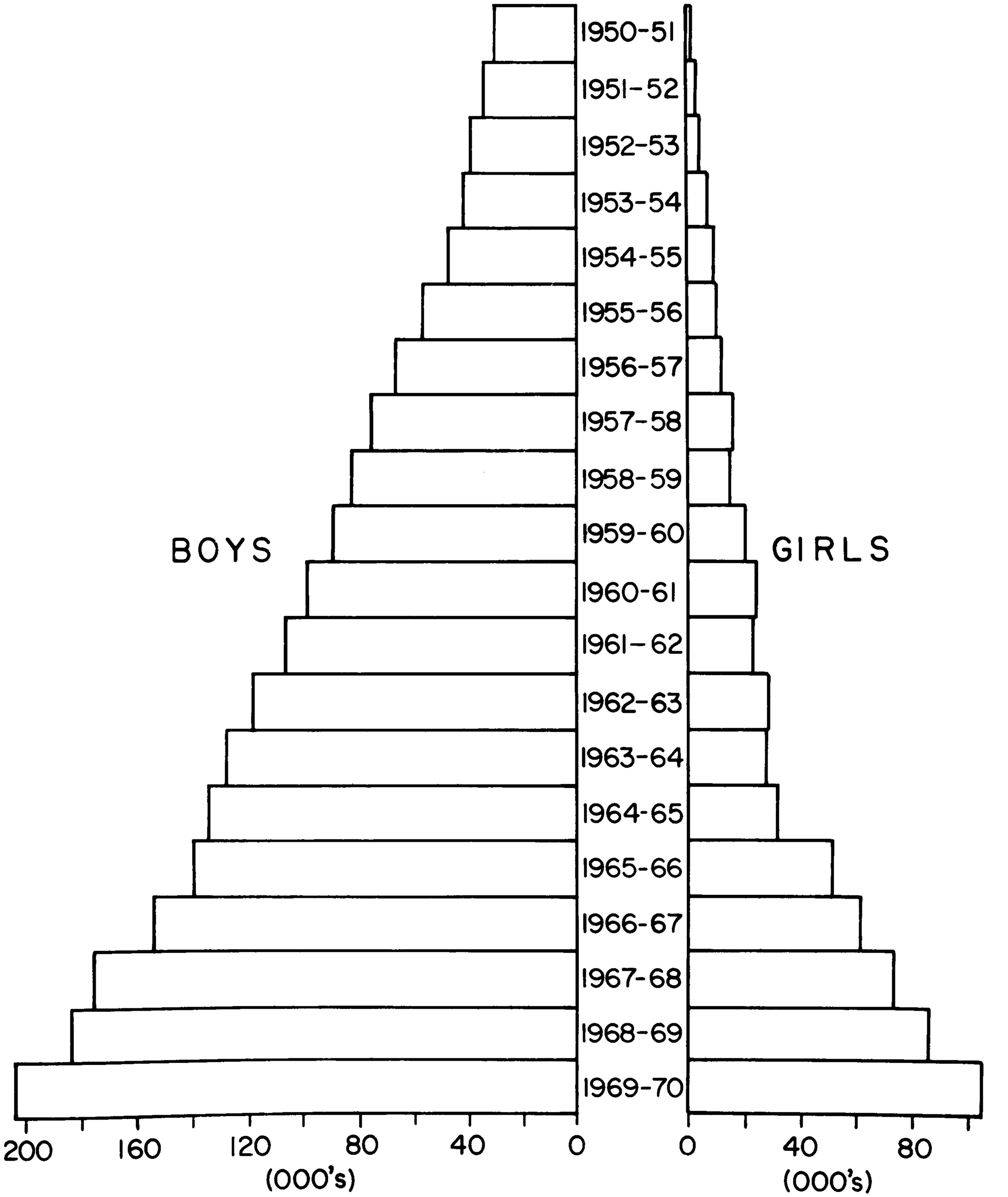
TABLE 13.

Enrolment Expansion of Boys and Girls in Libyan Primary Schools during the years 1950 - 1970.

Academic Year.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.		Total of Pupils.	No. of Teachers.
		Boys.	Girls.		
1950/51	194	28,466	3,649	32,115	1,028
1951/52	202	31,891	5,057	36,948	1,161
1952/53	225	36,488	5,631	42,119	1,280
1953/54	263	39,425	8,415	47,840	1,602
1954/55	313	45,579	10,724	56,303	1,784
1955/56	376	53,969	11,195	65,164	2,100
1956/57	419	64,221	13,708	77,929	2,475
1957/58	439	73,956	16,769	90,725	2,770
1958/59	478	81,625	16,438	98,063	3,423
1959/60	543	86,380	21,828	108,208	3,767
1960/61	558	97,561	25,872	123,433	4,098
1961/62	619	105,771	25,327	131,098	4,256
1962/63	663	116,116	29,809	145,925	4,785
1963/64	698	125,854	28,738	154,592	5,063
1964/65	747	133,293	32,898	169,191	5,655
1965/66	775	139,104	53,189	192,293	6,096
1966/67	915	153,500	62,851	216,351	7,296
1967/68	953	173,650	75,081	248,731	7,454
1968/69	1069	183,080	87,537	270,617	9,161
1969/70	1224	203,799	107,047	310,846	11,122

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya. 1970.

Enrolment expansion of boys and girls in Libyan primary schools during the years 1950-1970



In Libya, excessive caution, which discourages experimentation, has stifled educational development, and the desire to resist change became the characteristic pattern of Libyan society [1] and most developing countries in general.[2]

As Table12 indicates, science and technology in Libya and in most Arab countries, take second place to liberal arts. It may appear (from Table12), that there is a fairly reasonable balance between science and liberal arts in the Libyan primary school curriculum, but teachers are expected to stress liberal arts, which take the lion's share of emphasis. This is all done at the expense of science teaching. From the Table, it can be seen that Arabic Language and Religions Instruction occupy a prominent place in the curricula.[3] It is true that religion and the mother tongue should be emphasized in the early stages of education, but since the length of time available is a factor to consider, there must be some priorities which should be considered in terms of the needs of

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1 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Losses Caused by the Present System Used to Evaluate Primary School Children in Libya", pp. 1 - 3.

2 See: Castle E.B., "Education for Self-Help : New Strategies for Developing Countries, "Oxford University Press, London, 1972, pp. 3 - 7 and pp. 18 - 28.

3 This is particularly true of traditional Muslim societies such as the case in Libya, Saudi Arabia, Aden, Hadramout and Kuwait, where religion and the mother tongue play a major factor in the social life and family relationships. In these areas parents expect schools to teach their children mainly the principles of Islam, with a good basic background of the mother tongue. This, ostensibly, appears to be a logical and sound conviction, but what is actually taking place in schools (particularly in Libya), is a different matter. The pupils are turned into fact-grinders without understanding or digesting whatever they learn. Reliance on mere memorization and cramming is apparently the main reason for this state of affairs.

the child and the society.

Libya's needs in the fields of science and technology are countless.[1] The Cairo Conference of 1956 noted the heavy weight placed upon liberal arts at the expense of scientific studies, and urged all Arab countries to remedy this trend as soon as possible, and recommended that,

> "The curriculum should bring the child into closer contact with his environment - both physical and social. Increased emphasis should therefore be given to the imparting of scientific knowledge and training in scientific habits, to hygiene, and to practical skills and activities".[2]

Although the situation in most Arab states has changed radically since the date of these recommendations (see Table12), the emphasis on science and practical activities [3] in the Libyan primary school curriculum, as elsewhere in the Arab World, is still inadequate. This is a common phenomenon in most Arab countries, and probably in many developing countries, that what is said in theory is hardly applied in practice.

All these criticisms point to the fact that a revised curriculum for the whole country should be drawn up in order to strike a balance between the needs of the pupils and the nation as a whole. The primary school curriculum, which would in most cases be adequate also for adult literacy education, should depart radically from the

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1 See: Farley Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 94 - 101.

2 Unesco, "Compulsory Education in the Arab States", Paris, 1956, p.54.

3 "Practical Activities", this term refers generally to any practical training in areas such as carpentry, drawing and various mechanical skills in agriculture and industry. (see page131).

conventional curriculum followed at present in Libyan primary schools.[1]

If primary education in Libya is to take on new and dynamic significance, it must be aimed at training the child for some specific skill. Education for its own sake is a glorious ideal, but in a country such as Libya where skilled manpower is urgently needed, it is essential that the young generation of citizens should have more scientific background, even at the primary level of education. For the next ten or fifteen years, the bulk of Libya's manpower, will probably have no more than a primary education.[2] Therefore, considerable emphasis must be placed on science and practical work so that the semi-skilled have at least a minimum training. Consequently, it is important that at least one year at the primary level should be devoted to a practical skill, e.g. practical agriculture, carpentry, shoe making and shoe repairing, weaving and such like.

The problems of primary education are certainly numerous and difficult, and their solution will require a long time and great effort. It may be worth noting here that the primary school can function effectively only if there is intelligent and adequate leadership. Without the freedom from textbooks and with lack of flexibility in following a prescribed syllabus, primary schools cannot play their role successfully. In any educational system, it is ultimately the

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1 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Losses Caused by the Present System Used to Evaluate Primary School Children in Libya", pp. 1 - 3.

2 See: Farley Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 94 - 101.

teacher who matters.[1] and in primary school he matters even more than in any other type of school, because it is the base upon which the whole educational system is built.[2] Libya ought to reconsider its educational programme at the primary stage if quick and steady progress in economic and social development is seriously intended.

Universal Enrolment and Educational Wastage.

One of the most significant events in the recent educational history of Libya is the great quantitative progress of primary education [3] during the last decade.[4] With political independence, the nation has come to realize that educational development is an essential condition for raising standards of life. This has created a great hunger for education and consequently there has been a continuing effort to expand and improve primary education. Legislation for compulsory education has been passed and enforced over a much wider area than in the past when the Legislation was first enacted;[5] the provision of school facilities has been increased, and attempts have been made to improve the quality of primary education.[6]

Over the whole country for several years, enrolment has clearly

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1 See: Adams Don, and Bjork Robert M., Op. Cit., pp. 123 - 129.

2 Ibid.

3 Cf. p.133.

4 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 4 - 7

5 See:"Educational Legislation andRegulation", Chapter Two.

6 Prasad Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 4 - 7.

been rising.[1] In 1950 there were only 32,115 pupils in Libyan public primary schools, whereas in 1970, the figure has risen to 310,846, with 1224 schools and 11122 teachers (see Table13).

These figures certainly represent a tremendous effort and real improvement of the position. But the problem of educational expansion is not merely of providing the necessary facilities and reaching high enrolment figures, but also of ensuring that children make use of these facilities, and that the defined goals are attained.[2]

Despite the considerable increase in numbers, primary education has so far not been very successful in Libya. The mere growth in numbers is not necessarily a sign of success or a sound policy. At the same time the achievement has been accompanied by some straining of resources, which has postponed the eradication of serious shortcomings of the primary system.[3] The very size of the increase has diverted attention from the fact that quality might have suffered in the process of expansion.

Thus, though great as this progress is, the Libyan people are not fully satisfied with it, and there is a keen desire throughout the country to accelerate expansion and to provide a system of universal primary education, comparable in quality and quantity to that already established in other countries.[4] In connection with this

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1 Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 4 - 7.

2 See: Beeby, C.E., Op. Cit., pp. 7 - 17.

3 Such areas as teacher training and adult education were greatly affected by the excessive concentration upon the expansion of primary education, which took the lion's share both in terms of money expenditure and effort.

4 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Recommendations of the Second National Educational Conference", pp. 1 - 12.

TABLE 14.

The Proportion of Boys and Girls in Libyan Primary Classes, 1969/70.

Class:	Boys	Girls.	Total.
First	56,621 (58.72)	39,798 (41.28)	96,419 (100.00)
Second	37,981 (62.28)	22,458 (37.72)	59,539 (100.00)
Third	34,847 (65.11)	18,674 (34.89)	53,521 (100.00)
Fourth	29,757 (70.38)	12,521 (29.62)	42,278 (100.00)
Fifth	26,891 (75.15)	8,890 (24.85)	35,781 (100.00)
Sixth	18,602 (79.81)	4,706 (20.19)	23,308 (100.00)
Total	203.799	107.047	310.846
%	65.56	34.44	(100.00)

(Figures in brackets indicate percentages).

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

point, the Cairo Conference recommended the following for the Arab states:-[1]

> "The problem is not, of course, only to be considered in quantitative terms. The qualitative shortcomings are just as strongly felt, if not so easily demonstrated. In many ways and for many reasons, which will be examined later, the education at present provided does not reach a high enough level. Unsuitable curricula and textbooks, low teaching standards, a high degree of retardation, these are a few of the qualitative problems which urgently require attention".[2]

Therefore, the improvement of the quality of primary education becomes the most pressing problem, even more urgent than that of providing buildings. Everywhere, in the country, including the concerned departments of education which have put quantitative objectives at the head of their priorities, there is a full realization of the widespread poor quality of primary education, particularly in the rural areas.[3]

It would be far better for a country like Libya to concentrate on improving the quality of education than to seek goals, such as the mere quantitative growth, which are possibly more associated with prestige and propaganda than the real needs of the country. A. A. El-Koussy dealt with this problem and wrote the following:-

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1 Unesco, "Compulsory Education in the Arab States", pp. 27 - 33.

2 Ibid., p.28.

3 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Recommendations of the Second National Educational Conference", pp. 1 - 12.

"The common complaint about education in developing countries is the drop in quality resulting from the increase in quantity. It is noticed that in Libya the density of the primary class reaches 50 in the cities and drops down to 15 in the villages. It is also higher for boys than it is for girls. It is natural that this leads to the varying loads on the teachers with the result that pupils do not have the same opportunity of profiting from the educational experience. This is another question which should receive attention from the educational planners. The question of quality is not restricted to the teacher/pupil ratio but also related to the quality of the teacher, to the school equipment facilities and aids, to the school curriculum, to the textbook and to guidance". [1].

Educational planners in Libya, are therefore, required to consider the aspect of quality wisely and should bridge the gap as quickly as possible, by striking a balance between quality and quantity in primary education.[2]

Though precise figures are not obtainable, it is clear that there are many children who do not go to school at all in some parts of the country.[3] The assumption that the enrolment problem is solved or well on the way to a satisfactory outcome is optimistic.[4] It is estimated that 158,000 children, boys and girls, between the ages of 6 - 12, were not attending school in the school year 1965/66.[5] (see Table 15). Similarly, in the school year 1969/70, there were 126,000 children between the ages of 6 - 12 not attending school.[6] (see Table 16). About 67% of the former total and about 77% of the latter are girls.[7]

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1 El-Koussy, A.A., "The Development of Educational Planning Machinery: The Case of Libya", Regional Centre for Educational Planning and Administration of the Arab Countries, Beirut,1969, pp. 17 - 18.

2 Ibid.

3 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 4 - 7

4 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Educational Planning and its Problems in Libya",1969, pp. 1-8 (in Arabic)(Unpublshed).

5 Anderson, K., "Some Main Data from Available Educational Statistics in Libyan Arab Republic", Educational Statistics Document No.3, Tripoli, 1971, pp. 3 - 11 (Unpublished).

6 Ibid.

TABLE 15.

Number of Children by Age in Population In School and Out of School in Libyan Primary Grades, 1965/66.

AGE.	BOYS No. in 1000.			% of Age not in school.
	In School.	In Population.	Not in School.	
6	16	28	12	43
7	17	27	10	37
8	17	25	8	32
9	16	22	6	27
10	16	21	3	24
11	14	20	6	30
12	13	18	5	28
Total (6 - 12)	109	161	52	Aver- age. 32

AGE.	GIRLS No. in 1000.			% of Age not in school.
	In School.	In Population.	Not in school.	
6	9	27	18	67
7	8	26	18	69
8	8	24	16	67
9	7	21	14	67
10	7	20	13	65
11	5	19	14	74
12	4	17	13	76
Total (6 - 12)	48	154	106	Aver- age. 69

Source: Young, T.C.J., "Available Educational Statistics for Calculating Projections for Quantitative Educational Planning".

TABLE 16.

Number of Children by Age in Population In School and Out of School in Libyan Primary Grades, 1969/70.

AGE.	BOYS No. in 1000			% of Age not in School.
	In School.	In Population.	Not in School.	
6	24	29	5	17
7	27	29	2	7
8	25	29	4	14
9	27	29	2	7
10	24	28	4	14
11	22	26	4	15
12	18	25	7	28
Total(6 - 12)	167	195	28	Aver- age. 14

AGE.	GIRLS No. in 1000			% of Age not in School.
	In School.	In Population.	Not in School	
6	16	29	13	45
7	17	29	12	41
8	16	29	13	45
9	16	29	13	45
10	13	28	15	54
11	11	26	15	58
12	8	25	17	68
Total (6-12)	97	195	98	Aver- age. 50

Source: Young, T.C.J., "Available Educational Statistics for Calculating Projections for Quantitative Educational Planning".

However, enrolment is not, of course, the end of the problem. No less serious is the extent of irregular attendance and wastage or drop-out.[1] The problem of wastage is serious especially in the rural areas.[2] It became particularly noticeable after the attainment of independence when large numbers of children enrolled at primary school and then dropped out in the course of their studies.[3] In some parts of the country an overall educational wastage as high as 60 or 70 per cent was discovered,[4] a waning of the first enthusiasm for free education, and a feeling that the tuition received was not worth the expense of books and materials. Maya Prasad writes:-

> "We find that Libya, like many other countries of the world, faces the problem of heavy drop-outs. According to statistics compiled in 1969, the overall wastage in the first 6 grades in Libya was between 60 and 70%. This affects the outurn of primary school graduates adversely". [5]

The problem of drop-out at the primary stage is undoubtedly serious. There are a number of reasons why children dop-out of school temporarily, or give up schooling for good, some of these

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1 Young, T.C.J., "Drop-Out and School-Leavers: Libya", Education Statistics Document No.3., Tripoli, 1968, pp. 1 - 10 (Unpublished).

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Prasad Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 4 - 7.

5 Ibid., p.6.

reasons are directly educational.[1] An unsuitable curricula, for example, is sometimes to blame; the child is discouraged because the school demands more than he can give, or his parents are indifferent because they feel that the school does not give the child what he needs.[2] In many instances, drop-out is the result of a decision of the parents themselves. They may decide that their child is such a poor pupil that it is no longer worth the expense of food and clothes to keep him at school.[3] Or the parents may want him to work on the family farm or in the family business.[4] The child himself may decide to leave school, with or against his parents' wishes, because he prefers to earn money rather than stay at school.[5] Dropping out because of failure in examinations or because of the enforced repitition of a grade, is not uncommon.

Furthermore, the extreme poverty and ignorance of the parents, malnutrition and lack of medical care, particularly in the rural and remote areas, all coupled with the long distances to be travelled with lack of transportation facilities and inadequate educational programmes, are common causes for children's drop-out and

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1 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Losses Caused by the Present System Used to Evaluate Primary School Children in Libya", pp. 1 - 3.

2 Some parents decided to send their children to Lebanon or other more advanced countries as a sign of their dissatisfaction with the quality of education their children get in Libyan schools.

3 Young, T.C.J., "Drop-Out and School Leavers : Libya", pp. 1 - 10.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

spasmodic attendance. The following quotation makes this point:-

> "Drop-outs and failures are more numerous where educational programmes are unduly long, the curricula dull and teachers unfit to stimulate the interests of school attendants. There is the illusion that education is "free of charge" and "compulsory", while facilities are insufficient to accommodate all eligible applicants. Another illusion concerning "equal opportunities" exists, while maldistribution and inequalities between urban and rural districts is the rule rather than the exception. Difficulties prevail in providing remote areas with adequate facilities and in reaching nomadic populations who keep on the move. Frequent allowance for repeaters to stay on, sets a bad example to other students who end up as drop-outs and failures. These factors and others undoubtedly contribute to lower participation rates, higher drop-out rates and leave sizeable portions of children and youth in deprivation from school education".[1]

Drop-outs have been linked with inappropriate curriculum;[2] with repeating classes; with outdated teaching methods; with unqualified teachers.[3] It has also been recognized that educational wastage has social and economic as well as pedagogical causes.[4]

In connection with this point, the Unesco survey states:-

> "For it is clear that a confused and badly organized curriculum, methods ill-suited to the pupil's age and capability, and artificial structures will lead to greater educational wastage (drop-out and repitition); the internal output of education will be affected". 5

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1 El-Shafie, M.A., Op. Cit., pp. 1 - 14.

2 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Directors and Inspectors Course", General Development Curriculum and Supervision, In-Service Training Division, 1966, pp. 1 - 8 (Unpublished).

3 Young, T.C.J., "Repitition and Promotion: Libya", Education Statistics Document No.2., Tripoli, 1968, pp. 1 - 10 (Unpublished).

4 Ibid.

5 Unesco: "Educational Planning : A World Survey of Problems and Prospects", Paris, 1970, p.121.

The children give up school altogether for the same reasons, and also because of the need for the child's labour on the farm or to supplement the family budget.[1] In rural areas, absenteeism is often due to the fact that parents require their children's services during the harvest seasons.[2] The considerable distance which often exists between the school and the child's home is also a critical problem which cannot be easily overlooked.[3] Assuming that interest and enthusiasm are not part of the problem, it is, nevertheless, understandable that children would be reluctant to make a lengthy journey twice or even four times a day. One way of tackling the problem is to have centrally situated schools large enough to serve the needs of several villages. But this would still require the provision of transport facilities for the children who live far away. The obstacle here is the cost of organizing transport facilities, bearing in mind the nature of nomads' life in terms of continuous movement, and also the poor condition of the roads, especially in the rainy season. The other solution is to establish small schools in each village or big tribe with a reasonable number of inhabitants. But again, the establishment of a large number of adequately equipped schools requires considerable expenditure and poses a serious and possibly insoluable staffing problem.

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1 Afifi, M. El-Hadi, Op. Cit., pp. 4 - 18.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

Though the position of children's attendance has shown some improvement in recent years,[1] the rate of overall educational wastage calculated during the period from 1959/60 to 1964/65 was extremely high.[2] It was found that out of every thousand boys who entered the first grade, only 414 reach grade 6,[3] and out of every thousand girls who entered the first grade, only 153 reach grade 6.[4] (see Table 17).

TABLE 17.

Pupil's Sex.	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Male	1000	649	616	548	510	414
Female	1000	545	412	304	239	153

Source: Afifi, M. El-Hadi, Op. Cit., p.13.

As the above Table shows, educational wastage through children leaving the primary school before completing the course, is depressingly high.[5] This may be said to represent four areas

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1 Maya Prasad writes: "The increase in outturn during the years 1967/68 and 1968/69 has been remarkable and if the extent of drop-outs and the number of repeaters could be reduced, the supply of primary school graduates could be further increased considerably". Source: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", p.6.

2 Afifi, M., El-Hadi, Op. Cit., pp. 12 - 13.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

of waste: of human resources (the drop-outs themselves); of money (because the money spent on them is not productive); of school places, which are in short supply and are not being utilised properly by the drop-outs; and finally of teachers, who are also in short supply.

Despite the lack of reliable statistics, all findings indicate that drop-outs are a major problem, not only in Libya, but also on a wider scale in the Arab States at large.[1] The following quotation reinforces this view:-

> "School drop-outs and uneducated children and youth in Arab countries constitute a sizeable proportion of school age population. They represent a national asset of potential importance for development and should not be neglected to turn into a national liability. They should not be viewed as mere additions to the reservoir of unskilled labour force and ought not to be wasted in idleness. Their integration into the economic and social life of the community and the nation is essential through proper guidance and purposeful training, linked with creation of suitable work opportunities on planned basis". [2]

However, the problem of educational wastage is not confined to Libya or to the Arab States and developing countries in general, but it appears to be a world-wide problem.[3] Unesco in its quarterly bulletin reports the following:-

> "Despite tremendous increase in educational expenditure in virtually all countries, in many so-called 'poorer' countries, it is likely that as many as one-third of the school-age children will never see the inside of a

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1 El-Shafie, M.A., Op. Cit.,pp. 3 - 14.

2 Ibid., p.6.

3 Unesco, "Prospects in Education", A Quarterly Bulletin, Volume 1, No.3, Paris, 1970, pp. 9 - 12.

school during the seventies. Of those who do enter elemtary school, less than one-third will finish the elemtary cycle. As many as 50 per cent of the students in upper elementary grades are repeaters. These wastage and repeater rates in many educational systems both make the cost of successful graduates phenomenal and, at the same time, continue to swell the ranks of illiteracy and semi-illiteracy". [1]

In Libya, school drop-outs certainly constitute a serious problem which educational authorities can not afford to neglect.[2] To reduce drop-out and improve children's attendance, the factors which seem to contribute to the increase of drop-out should be adequately studied and then a proper solution could be adopted.[3] To reduce the rate of drop-out in any educational system in developing countries, Unesco recommends the following:-

> "The means habitually recommended for diminishing the drop-out rate include school transport, canteens, nurseries for very young children, fixing the dates of holidays during the peak period of agricultural activity, free school books and scholarships. These supplementary facilities are often, in fact, the sine qua non of school attendance". [4]

One of the other problems affecting the completion of primary school in Libya is the question of repetition of grades.[5] A fairly large proportion of pupils enrolled in various classes from grade 1 to grade 6, are repeaters.[6] The examination regul-

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1 Unesco, "Prospects in Education", A Quarterly Bulletin, Volume 1, No.3, Paris 1970. p.10.

2 Young, T.C.J., "Drop-Out and School-Leavers : Libya", pp. 1 - 2.

3 Ibid.

4 Unesco, "Educational Planning: A World Survey of Problems and Prospects", p.124.

5 Young, T.C.J., "Repetition and Promotion : Libya", Education Statistics Document No.2, Tripoli, 1968,pp.1 - 10 (Unpublished).

6 Ibid.

ations in Libya stipulate that a child in the primary stage who fails to obtain at least the minimum required marks for each subject in the examinations at the end of the school year, is required to stay for one extra year in the same grade.[1] If he is again unsuccessful, then he is dismissed.[2] A third chance can be granted, but this is more or less the exception rather than the general practice.

In the academic year 1965/66,[3] the official statistics show that a total of 47,035 primary school pupils failed their final examinations and were forced to repeat the same grade in the following year.[4] In the academic year 1969/70, there were 203,799 boys in Libyan primary schools, of whom 52,905 (25.96%) were repeaters.[5] Similarly, in the same year there was a total enrolment of 107,047 girls in Libyan primary schools, of whom 26,918 (25.14%) were repeaters.[6] (see Table 18).

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 49 - 52.

2 The Regulations deprive him of the right to continue his education. One of the consequences is that he either finds a job suitable to his age and level of education, or he becomes a juvenile delinquent.

3 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Losses Caused by the Present System Used to Evaluate Primary School Children in Libya", pp. 1 - 3.

4 Ibid.

5 Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", p.6.

6 Ibid.

TABLE 18.

The Distribution of Freshers and Repeaters (Boys and Girls) in Libyan Primary Classes.

1969/70.

Class.	BOYS. Freshers.	Repeaters.	Total.	GIRLS. Freshers.	Repeaters.	Total.
First	39185 (69.20)	17436 (30.80)	56621 (100.00)	28186 (70.82)	11612 (29.18)	39798 (100.00)
Second	28725 (75.43)	8356 (24.57)	38081 (100.00)	17330 (77.17)	5128 (22.83)	22458 (100.00)
Third	26486 (81.4)	8361 (18.26)	34848 (100.00)	14450 (77.38)	4224 (22.62)	18673 (100.00)
Fourth	23218 (78.03)	6539 (21.97)	29757 (100.00)	9903 (79.09)	2618 (20.91)	12521 (100.00)
Fifth	19430 (72.25)	7461 (27.75)	26891 (100.00)	6520 (73.34)	2370 (26.66)	8890 (100.00)
Sixth	13850 (74.45)	4752 (25.55)	18602 (100.00)	3760 (79.90)	966 (20.10)	4706 (100.00)
Total:	150894 (74.04)	52905 (25.96)	203799 (100.00)	80129 (74.86)	26918 (25.14)	107047 (100.00)

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.
(Figures in brackets indicate percentages).

This policy, undoubtedly, makes the primary education very expensive. Every time a child repeats he is utilizing a year's educational facilities which could be used by a child for whom there is no place in the school.

For example, in the academic year 1969/70, there were 310,846 pupils (both sexes) in the primary schools, of whom 79,823 pupils repeated their grades.[1] (See Tables 19a and 19b). This means that if the capacity of a classroom is taken at the average of 35 pupils, the total number of repeaters must have occupied at least 2252 classrooms, which means that the space of 2252 classrooms was wasted, and in addition, the time of at least 2252 teachers was also wasted.

The magnitude of the problem in terms of loss can be realized in a more concrete way when it is understood that over 225 schools of ten classrooms, or over 112 schools of twenty classrooms were not utilized for educational purposes. If the cost of building a single classroom is estimated at the average of £L.6000,[2] then repetition must have mobilized a capital of over 13 million pounds in the academic year 1969/70.[3] If repetition was altogether abolished, nearly 80,000 pupils could have been promoted and subsequently made use of their time. Moreover, if teachers' salaries were taken into account taking the average of £100 as the individual month's salary,

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1 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Statistics on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", Department of Statistics, 1972, pp. 3 - 13 (In Arabic) (Unpublished).

2 Cost is based on the prices of material and labour charges of 1969, see Afifi, M. El-Hadi, Op. Cit., pp. 11 - 13.

3 Ibid.

TABLE 19a.

Freshers and Repeaters in Libyan Primary Grades during the years 1965 - 1970.
Grades 1 -3.

Academic Year.	Grade 1.			Grade 2.			Grade 3.		
	Freshers.	Repeaters.	Total.	Freshers.	Repeaters.	Total	Freshers	Repeaters.	Total.
1965/66	46918	17877	64075	28922	8474	37396	23315	7033	30348
1966/67	51925	22434	74359	31769	10598	42367	26004	8233	34237
1967/68	55534	23800	79334	35937	15401	51338	30372	10124	40496
1968/69	55265	16112	81377	40683	13619	54302	35504	11825	47329
1969/70	67371	29048	96419	46055	13484	59539	40930	12585	53515

TABLE 19b.

Freshers and Repeaters in Libyan Primary Grades during the years 1965 - 1970.

Grades 4 - 6.

Academic Year	Grade 4.			Grade 5.			Grade 6.		
	Freshers.	Repeaters.	Total.	Freshers.	Repeaters.	Total.	Freshers.	Repeaters.	Total.
1965/66	18802	5037	23839	15415	5154	20569	10684	3460	14144
1966/67	20531	6204	26735	16781	6178	22959	11938	3756	15694
1967/68	23521	7841	31362	19873	6624	26497	14778	4926	19704
1968/69	26956	8760	35716	21284	8274	29558	15754	6581	22335
1969/70	33121	9157	42278	25950	9831	35781	17590	5718	23308

Source: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Statistics on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", 1972.

then the additional loss in actual cash will exceed 2.5 million pounds for the same academic year.

The alarming thing here is the increase in the rate of repetition. In 1965/66, there were over 47,000 pupils who repeated their grades, but one year later (1966/67), the number had risen to 57.400,[1] and three years later (1969/70) the total number of repeaters throughout the country rose to 79.823.[2]

Repetition is regarded as unsound by many educational theorists.[3] Those who fail to pass their examinations may require educational guidance and those who repeatedly fail may need to be directed to vocational training suited to their aptitudes, interests and capabilities.[4] Academic attainments are certainly not the only test of ability, and those who fail in examinations, may still prove their worth and suitability in a variety of occupations. Retardation may be due to family problems, social or economic; physical or mental deficiencies or unsuitable curricula and teaching methods. Therefore provision of guidance facilities in schools is essential and may bring about the desired change in the outlook of pupils vis-a-vis their adjustment to academic life and their adaption to school requirements. It should, however,

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1 Young, T.C.J., "Available Educational Statistics for Calculating Projections for Quantitative Educational Planning", Educational Statistics Document No.17, Tripoli, 1968, pp. 29 - 31.

2 Ibid.

3 Young, T.C.J., "Repetition and Promotion : Libya", pp. 1 - 10.

4 Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 4 - 7.

be remembered that any remedial action requires a lot of patience, effort and good guidance.

Repetition of grades and dropping out appears to be a grave problem in most Arab states.[1] The Unesco report asserts:-

> "Two of the most serious educational problems facing the Arab countries are the high degree of retardation and dropping out in the primary school. Where promotion from class to class depends on passing an examination and where such examination is beyond the abilities of the average child, considerable retardation takes place, especially in the first grades. This is in part owing to the fact that in the Arab countries, where pre-primary school facilities are rare, the child often enters the first primary grade straight from home and has considerable difficulty in adjusting himself to a curriculum which is still, by common consent, too bookish. Often more than one year elapses before the child can adapt himself and start to make reasonable progress".[2]

If repetition regulations were totally abolished, children in the early grades of primary school would not be forced to leave school before they were properly literate. It would be, educationally, far better for a developing country like Libya, to abolish repetition and adopt automatic promotion up to the top grade of primary education. Repetition has far-reaching effects upon children's achievements and future careers. It discourages them from useful work and gradually extinguishes their interest and enthusiasm for education. On this point, W.F. Vietmeyer comments:-

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1 Unesco, "Compulsory Education in the Arab States", pp. 56 - 60.

2. Ibid., p.56.

TABLE 20

The Density of Pupils Per Class in Libyan Primary Schools. 1969/70.

Class	Students.	No. of Classes.	Students per Class.
First	96,419	2,558	37.69
Second	59,539	1,946	30.60
Third	53,521	1,794	29.93
Fourth	42,278	1,496	28.26
Fifth	35,781	1,255	28.51
Sixth	23,308	927	25.14
TOTAL	310,846	9,976	31.16

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

"Let us not be deceived by these purely physical losses because they are minor compared with the damage to the mental outlook of both students and parents of primary students. A loss of confidence to any immature human being is a permanent injury, which will take a great deal of eradication. Future passing will not cure this damage and further failure could have very serious results both for the individual and the nation". [1]

Although, as is the case at present, there are not enough places to enable all children aged 6 to 12 to attend primary school, yet there is no reason why all children who enter grade 1 should not be given the chance to stay in school for six years.[2] One of the basic problems created by the adoption of this policy is the fact that when the education of these children is terminated, they are often too young to enter effectively either society, life or employment. Clearly, children ought to have a complete education, even though they cannot pass examinations. It is also true that employers would certainly find even the less able school-leavers with six years of primary education more useful than those with less than six years, or with none.

Repetition is a phenomenon which hinders educational development throughout the Arab world as a whole.[3]

> "In the great majority of schools in the region,[4] primary school pupils may be made to repeat classes. Details of numbers involved are not readily available in statistical form; but in two countries of the region

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1 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Losses Caused by Present Systems used to Evaluate Primary School Children in Libya", p.1.

2 Since the Libyan Revolution of 1969, serious attempts were made to abolish repetition in the primary stage and adopt a system of automatic promotion until the last grade of primary stage.

3 Lightbody, T.P., "Needs, problems and Trends in Primary Teacher Training in the Arabic-Speaking Member States", Unesco, Paris, 1969, pp. 1 - 5.

4 Region here refers directly to the Arab States.

where this has been studied, the figures for repeating, as a percentage of the total number of children in the primary schools, were 10% and 20% and other countries may have higher repetition percentages. It is clear that at a time of teacher shortage this additional number of pupils must aggravate the teacher supply situation. This is the practical issue. From the purely educational viewpoint, there is a further question: that is that most of the world has decided against repetition of classes at primary level, for psychological, educational and financial reasons. It may well be that this point of policy, linked as it is with basic educational considerations, teacher supply, teacher training and wastage, deserves some consideration".[1]

It is clear, therefore, that education in Libya and in the Arab states in general, loses large numbers of pupils who may well, as a result, become virtually illiterate, but who could be effective and useful citizens.

"Primary school pupils must pass examinations to be promoted from one grade to another. Repeaters often occupy the places of other, possibly brighter, children and rather than learn tend to become discouraged. Repeating at the primary level has been condemned almost universally on pedagogic and economic grounds. Yet the argument that promotion allows and tends to make teachers and pupils lax about their duties, persists. A good system of progress evaluation, record cards, and special classes coupled with automatic promotion can avoid the shortcomings and dangers of both repeating and automatic promotion. Unfortunately, the Arab countries do not seem to come now to an agreement on this problem." [2]

One of the other problems which cannot be overlooked while analyzing the problems facing primary education in Libya, is the

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1 Lightbody, T.P., Op. Cit., p.5.

2 El-Koussy, A.A., "Recent Trends and Developments in Primary and Secondary Education in the Arab World", International Review of Education, Volume XIII, No.2, 1967, p.205.

because the ordinary primary service, which should be stocked with students aged 6 to 12, is completely hidden by literally thousands of overaged pupils. Naturally, in about ten years, the system will automatically clear itself of this additional burden, but, in the meantime, the administration has enormous problems to face simply to keep the "colossus" moving at all".[1]

The statistical data shows that although the largest single group (42% of the total pupils in the first primary grade) are six years of age, yet over a quarter (28%) are seven years of age.[2] Only a small proportion (4%) of boys and girls enrolled in the first primary grade are actually below the specified school age (6 years).[3] Boys and girls in the six grades of the primary school are spread from the age of less than six years to the age of seventeen years.[4] Tables 21 and 22 illustrate the distribution of boys and girls in the six primary grades by age.

The presence of various ages in any single group undoubtedly hampers the progress of education, because big age differences involve substantial differences in interests, readiness, aptitudes, attitudes, and assimilation capabilities. This makes the task of teaching such groups extraordinarily difficult and consequently all

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1 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Statistics on Overaged Primary School Boys and Girls", Tripoli, 1967, pp. 1 - 16 (Unpublished).

2 Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 5 - 6.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

TABLE 21.

The Distribution of Boys in Libyan Primary Classes by their Ages - 1969/70.

AGE:	CLASS						Total	%
	First	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth	Sixth		
Less than 6 years	2021	-	-	-	-	-	2021	0.99
6 years	23512	-	-	-	-	-	23512	11.54
7 years	16066	10585	-	-	-	-	26651	13.07
8 years	7377	10684	6740	-	-	-	24801	12.17
9 years	4191	8015	9445	5308	-	-	26959	13.23
10 years	1818	4091	7956	7084	3408	-	24358	11.95
11 years	785	2002	5113	6283	5369	2482	22034	10.81
12 years	440	842	2894	4921	5896	3284	18287	8.98
13 years	207	422	1370	2973	4929	3610	13511	6.63
14 years	204	210	650	1580	3201	3079	8924	4.38
15 years	-	155	413	978	2194	2790	6530	3.21
16 years	-	75	214	553	1734	3054	5630	2.76
17 years	-	-	52	77	160	293	582	0.28
Total	56,621	38,081	34,848	29,757	26,891	18,602	203,799	100.00
%	27.78	18.19	17.10	14.60	13.19	9.14	100.00	

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

TABLE 22.

The Distribution of Girls in Libyan Primary Classes by their Ages - 1969/ 70.

AGE	First	Second	Third	Fourth	Fifth	Sixth	Total	%
Less than 6 years	1049	-	-	-	-	-	1049	0.98
6 years	15568	-	-	-	-	-	15568	14.54
7 years	11456	5796	-	-	-	-	17252	16.13
8 years	5978	6367	3399	-	-	-	15744	14.72
9 years	3320	4935	5147	2319	-	-	15721	14.68
10 years	1523	3093	4671	3122	1416	-	13820	12.91
11 years	749	1458	3080	3234	1919	979	11319	10.57
12 years	162	554	1468	2154	2202	1065	7605	7.10
13 years	54	182	623	1063	1747	998	4667	4.35
14 years	39	45	199	439	933	784	2439	2.28
15 years	-	21	61	135	471	551	1239	1.16
16 years	-	7	23	52	196	277	555	0.52
17+ years	-	-	3	3	6	52	64	0.06
Total	39798	22458	18673	12521	8890	4706	107047	100.00
%	37.18	20.98	17.44	11.70	8.30	4.40	100.00	

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

children make less progress than would otherwise be possible.

W.F. Vietmeyer discusses this problem:-

> "Just apeaking and working statistically, this may not seem so terrible, but, if the actual practical situation is thought about, it must soon be realized that boys of 14 cannot be taught the same syllabus in the same room with boys of 6 years of age. This is what is happening in Class 1 and the pattern proceeds until in Class 6 there are men of 19+ and, in odd cases, up to 21 years of age sitting with eleven and twelve year olds. This is quite unhealthy socially and physically and is quite impractical educationally".

The magnitude of the problem becomes apparent from the 1966/67 statistics, which show a total of 216.351 primary school pupils of whom 114.016 or over 50% were grossly overaged,[3] (see Table 23).

The problem of overaged pupils is common to most Arab countries, but nowhere is it as acute as in Libya.[3] A Musone writes:-

> "Normally in the Arab countries formal education begins at the age of six and pupils follow a six-year primary course after which they may enter the lower secondary cycles, called intermediate, preparatory or complementary. The age of entry is not enforved everywhere and late enrolments are very common as are, in less measure, early enrolments. Both late enrolments and repetitions, which are also quite numerous, are the cause of a wide age range of pupils beyond normal age".[4]

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1 Vietmeyer, W.F., "The Problem of Overaged Pupils in Libyan Primary Schools", Tripoli, 1967, pp. 1 - 4 (Unpublished).

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Statistics on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", pp. 3 - 13.

3 Munsone, A., "Quantitative Data Regarding Out-of-School and Uneducated Youth in the Arab States", Tripoli, 1969, pp. 4 - 8. (Unpublished).

4 Ibid., p.4.

TABLE 23.

Overaged Pupils (Boys and Girls) in Libyan Primary Grades during the School Year 1966/67.

DISTRICT	GRADES. 1		2		3		4		5		6		TOTAL.
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Tripoli	3809	3503	3858	2876	4546	2594	4332	1628	3931	1142	3284	780	36,283
Zawia	1285	718	1724	662	2049	685	2068	413	2170	277	1584	94	13,729
Garian	1138	681	1187	357	1369	252	1424	184	1579	95	1381	51	9,698
Homs	1580	305	1266	100	1168	125	1127	56	970	38	629	19	7,383
Misurata	1823	276	1338	184	1139	119	927	44	762	27	671	17	7,327
Benghazi	2232	1707	1986	1330	2926	1569	2187	884	2282	847	1495	509	19,954
Beida	1211	417	726	325	701	271	687	289	669	241	457	167	6,161
Derna	377	247	374	209	449	238	409	256	466	244	351	144	3,764
Tobruk	528	118	359	171	306	196	345	118	339	95	199	67	2,841
Sebha/Obari	1192	542	1140	329	1111	216	840	109	720	69	555	53	6,876
TOTAL	15175 (32%)	8514 (31.7%)	13958 (48.49%)	6543 (48.1%)	15764 (64%)	6265 (65%)	14346 (68.96%)	3981 (67%)	13888 (74.6%)	3075 (70.6%)	10606 (87%)	1901 (75.6%)	114,016

SOURCE: Vietmeyer, W.F., "The Problem of Overaged Pupils in Libyan Primary Schools".

Table 24 shows the percentages of overaged pupils at the primary level in certain of the other Arab Countries.[1]

TABLE 24.

Percentage of pupils below, within and above normal age, enrolled at the primary level of some Arab countries, as percentage of total enrolments, in 1966/67.

Country:	Below Age.	Within Age.	Over Age.
Libya	(a)	46	54
Morocco	(a)	68.9	31.1
Lebanon	8.0	63.5	28.5
Iraq	0.9	78.8	20.3
Kuwait	10.6	70.5	18.9
Saudi Arabia*	0.6	82.7	16.7
Jordan	(a)	86.9	13.1
Syria	0.9	86.7	12.4
Egypt (U.A.R)	3.2	92.2	4.6

Source: Munsone, A., Op. Cit., p.5.
* Boys only.

If repetition rates remain unchanged, larger enrolments will also mean larger numbers of overage pupils. Between the years 1965/66 and 1966/67, the rate of overaged boys in Libyan primary school grades increased by 8.6%.[2] Nor is the rate likely to fall within the next few years.[3]

One possible way of tackling the problem would be to

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1 Munsone, A., "Quantitative Data Regarding Out-of-School and Uneducated Youth in the Arab States", Tripoli, 1969, pp. 4 - 5 (Unpublished).

2 Young, T.C.J., "A Demonstration of the Method of Calculating Projections of Educational Enrolments", Educational Statistics, Document No.29, Tripoli, 1969, pp. 10 - 11.

3 Ibid.

designate a certain number of schools in each district specially for overaged pupils. This would certainly be expensive, both financially and in terms of teaching staff. But it would have the enormous advantage of allowing the ordinary primary school system to function more efficiently.

The primary school system in Libya is, undoubtedly, suffering from a number of serious problems such as drop-out, curriculum organization, teaching methods, overaged pupils and repetition. To rid the primary system in Libya of these disabilities is not merely a question of persuading parents to send their children to school regularly, and finding ways of saving pupils from repeating a year's work. The problem goes much deeper than that, and a number of complicating factors are involved. The first and immediate need is for better qualified and more deeply committed teachers who can make from the classroom, an attractive place even for the least able and poorly motivated children. A large number of new schools should also be built especially in those areas where the shortage of accommodation already deprives many classes of a full day's teaching because a two-shift system has to be practised. Curricula and syllabuses must be subject to continuous revision in order to eliminate obsolete or irrelevant material, and make it possible to teach the maximum useful knowledge with the minimum effort.

Until these deficiencies can be remedied, many children will continue to reach the end of their school career with literacy barely attained, or at least barely firmly established, and universal primary education will remain no more than illusory.

CHAPTER FOUR

Secondary, Technical and Vocational Education.

Public secondary education in Libya is provided at a higher and more advanced level than in the primary school. It serves as a nexus between the primary school and the university, and is divided into two stages - preparatory (junior secondary) and secondary proper (upper secondary).[1] The first stage involves three years of studies [2] and is similar to the junior high school in the American system, whereas the second stage corresponds to the senior high school and involves an additional three years of study.[3]

Pupils seeking to enter secondary schools are normally required to show that they have successfully completed a 6-year primary course.[4] They may select any channel of secondary education which is provided in various kinds - vocational, agricultural, commercial and technical.[5] Each of these may offer different courses, but in essence their principal aims are more or less the same.[6]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", pp. 11 - 22.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, pp. 9 - 16.

Pupils wishing to go on to university studies would normally need to join the general preparatory for three years, and the general secondary for an additional three years, after which they can be admitted to one of the University faculties, depending on their final attainments and field of specialization.[1]

Secondary education presents a problem in most countries of the world, for secondary education always plays a significant role in assigning the individual his place in the social structure.[2] In the developed countries secondary education is already universal and the major problem in those countries is how to co-ordinate the different types of secondary schools or to reorganize the curriculum to meet emerging needs.[3]

Secondary education in Libya represents the weakest link in the whole educational system and has, strangely, had the least attention paid to it. Efforts have been and are being made to develop primary and university education, but no serious efforts are being made to develop the middle stage, which depends on the primary, and leads in turn to the higher.[4] When it is remembered that it is in the secondary schools that the future leaders of a country are nurtured, it

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", pp. 18 - 22.

2 See: Unesco, "Final Report of the Meeting of Experts on the Adaptation of the General Secondary School Curriculum in Africa"; held in Tananarive (2 - 13 July, 1962), Paris, 1962, pp. 3 - 8.

3 Ibid.

4 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 8 - 18.

will be seen that development towards political and economic self-sufficiency in Libya is being impeded.[1]

Thus, secondary schools in Libya are important institutions in the sense that the role they play in the society is significant.[2] They provide recruits for the university and higher institutions, and through them for the major professions.[3] They supply entrants to the executive posts in civil administration, agriculture, industry and commerce, in addition to their provision of recruitments for teachers' institutions and for a wide range of post-secondary vocational education leading to employment of a responsible kind.[4]

When the Libyan Government assumed full responsibility of the country, there were only a few secondary schools already established in the two former provinces of Tripolitania and Cyrenaica.[5] The Government's policy was to provide chances for secondary schooling for all Libyans who finished their primary education.[6] But because of the financial difficulties suffered during the early years of independence,[7] it was impossible to attain this goal. The major

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1 See: Farley Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 81 - 91.

2 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 8 - 18.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Qubain, Fahim I., Op. Cit., p.21.

6 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967", pp. 29 - 39.

7 See Chapter One, p.13.

part of the limited funds available for education was devoted to the tasks of universalising primary education and eliminating illiteracy. These were conceived as the more pressing needs.[1] This explains why secondary education of all types was very little developed in Libya as compared with the primary cycle, particularly in the rural areas.

Until 1947,[2] there was not a single secondary school in Libya, and those students who desired secondary and higher studies, had to go abroad for this purpose, mainly to Egypt.[3] Fahim Qubain makes the following comment:-

> "In Libya, there was not a single school and not a single student in secondary education in 1946. But by the time the country received its independence in 1951, the nucleus of a secondary school system had begun to emerge. Since independence the Libyan authorities have wisely concentrated their efforts on the creation of a broad educational base represented in elementary education. Therefore, secondary education today is still in its initial stages".4

A contributory factor has unquestionably been the policy of the various foreign powers which have occupied Libya during the last century. Their educational policies, and particularly those with respect to secondary education, were directed to meeting the needs of the occupying power rather than those of the indigenous population.[5] In connection with this problem, D.K. Wheeler writes:-

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Development of Educational Planning and Its Machinery in Libya", pp. 6 - 13.

2 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Historical Study on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", pp. 15 - 16.

3 Ibid.

4 Qubain, Fahim I., Op. Cit., p.21

5 De Marco, R.R., Op. Cit., pp. 24 - 32.

"Primary education was restricted, secondary education even more restricted; often both were conducted in a foreign tongue. These sparse educational facilities were supplemented by private schools, often of a missionary nature. Primary education was usually terminal, though there was some very limited vocational education in order to fill the lower positions in the administrations of the occupying powers. In Tunisia, for example, access to modern secondary schools was not easy for Tunisian pupils in the days of the Protectorate, while in Libya there were few primary schools, and secondary education was scarcely available to the indigenous population". [1]

The question of priorities in education is, in all countries, both difficult and complex. In Libya and in most Arab countries, primary education has been the focus of attention and has been over-emphasized at the expense of secondary education.[2] In justification of this trend among the Arab educational systems, Unesco reports:-

> "It is realized that with the existing limitations, primary schooling is the only type of education which can possibly be extended to cover the child population within a reasonable future. The primary school thus plays a more important role in this region,[3] than in countries where post-primary facilities are more amply provided. It is to the primary school that the training of future generations is largely entrusted and it is therefore only realistic that national efforts should be concentrated at this level". [4]

In recent years, many developing countries have blindly adopted the policy of universal primary education which became a mere slogan rather than a genuine necessity.[5] Adam Curle writes

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1 Wheeler, D.K., "Educational Problems of Arab Countries", International Review of Education, Volume XII, No.3, 1966, pp. 301 - 302.

2 El-Koussy, A.A., "A Survey of Educational Progress in the Arab States 1960 - 1965", pp. 30 - 49.

3 Region here refers directly to the Arab states.

4 Unesco, "Compulsory Education in the Arab States", p.29.

5 Curle, Adam, "Educational Strategy for Developing Societies", / pp. 81 - 92.

as follows:-

> "A number of countries have in recent years been making enormous efforts to expand their educational systems. Most of this has been done at the primary level. There are several reasons for this fact; it can be done cheaply by increasing the pupil-teacher ratio; it can be done easily without much elaborate new building or employment of scarce graduates, as is necessary at the higher levels; and lastly, universal primary education has become a slogan - the single-minded politician considers that once this is achieved, the problem of educational expansion has been solved". [1]

Although the expansion of primary education is essential for the country's economic and social development, this however, should not imply any under-rating of education at the secondary stage. "But in a large number of under-developed nations secondary education has been neglected at the expense of primary and often also of university education".[2]

Many educational planners [3] assume that the most important problems of education from a national point of view are those which relate to primary education.[4] These are certainly important and should not be under-estimated, but at the same time it has to be remembered that it is impossible to draw a rigid line between the different stages of education which are closely linked, and also most of the teachers at the primary level are products of the secon-

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1 Curle, Adam, "Educational Strategy for Developing Societies", p.84

2 Ibid., p.86.

3 See: Coombs, Philip, "What is Educational Planning", pp. 25 - 32.

4 Ibid. See also: Lowe, J., Grant N. and Williams T.D. (Ed.) "Education and Nation-Building in the Third World", Barnes and Noble, Inc., New York, 1971, pp. 105 - 120.

dary school or its equivalent.[1] Another vital fact is that the expansion of primary education as a result of the adoption of the policy of the compulsory free education is bound to lead to rapid growth of numbers at the secondary stage, which in turn will create various difficulties particularly in terms of staff requirements. Therefore, the expansion and reconstruction of primary education must be accompanied by a corresponding extension and reconstruction of secondary education.[2]

Moreover, the national leaders and top policy-makers of the country are, in the main, products of secondary or higher education. Their decisions are inevitably affected by the level and quality of education they themselves received. The full benefit from such education cannot, however, be derived if the preparation at the secondary stage has been incomplete or defective.

All these facts indicate that the organization of secondary education in Libya should be reconsidered. Over-emphasis on primary education at the expense of secondary should no longer exist if the development of a healthy educational system is intended.[3]

The Conference of African states on the development of education in Africa, held in Addis Ababa in 1961, strongly recommended that top priority should be given to secondary education at least for the decade of the 1960s.[4] This point was emphasized as follows:-

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1 Cf. Lowe, J., Grant N., and Williams T.D. (Ed)., "Education and Nation-Building in the Third World", pp. 105 - 120.

2 Cf. Ibid.

3 See: Curle, Adam, "Educational Strategy for Developing Societies", pp. 81 - 92.

4 Unesco, "Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa", Addis Ababa (15 - 25 May, 1961), Paris, 1961, pp. 3 - 13.

"It was noted that some African countries have unduly neglected secondary and higher education in proportion to primary education. Economic development is highly dependent on skills of the sort which are taught in institutions to students of 15 years of age and upwards. It is of the highest priority to ensure that an adequate proportion of the population receives, secondary, post-secondary and university education; this should be put before the goal of universal primary education if for financial reasons these two are not yet compatible. Plans for economic and social development depend upon an adequate supply of teachers, technicians, agricultural assistants, nurses, book-keepers, secretaries, medical technologists, clerks and other secondary level skills. Whereas the numbers required at the university level are so small that deficiences can be met by external recruitment at relatively small cost, the numbers required at the secondary level are so large that deficiencies seriously handicap development".[1]

This view is strongly supported by Harbison and Myers.

"The typical under-developed country should give absolute priority to second-level education over all the other "highly urgent" educational needs. Almost without exception, those who are to replace foreigners will need to be secondary school graduates, and many will need higher education to which secondary is the avenue of access. The economic and political leaders for subsequent decades will be the secondary school leavers of the next ten years, and they will constitute the human resource base for subsequent growth. And finally it will be impossible to develop a good primary education system without substantial numbers of teachers who have a second-level education".[2]

Sir Arthur Lewis also endorsed the view that relative priority should be given to the improvement and expansion of secondary education. He stated that:-

> "The chief need in Africa now is for a lot more secondary schools. The number of jobs requiring a university graduate ... is very small. Most ... jobs can be done nearly as well by a secondary-school graduate as by a Bachelor of Arts, at a fraction of the cost. Also the secondary school is the gateway

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1 Unesco, "Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa", Addis Ababa (15 - 25 May, 1961), Paris, 1961, p.10.

2 Harbison, F., and Myers, C., "Education, Manpower and Economic Growth", McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1964, p. 67.

> to other jobs for which there is special training - secretaries, nurses, elementary school teachers, agricultural assistants, medical technicians and so on. These are the people on whom the efficiency of operations mostly depends, just as in the army, the quality of the non-commissioned officers is decisive".[1]

It is the responsibility of the educational planners in Libya to fill in the gaps, make the balance, prune out the defects and determine where priorities should be placed.

> "The task confronting the realistic planner, therefore, is not to determine what is desirable or 'urgently needed', but rather to decide what is absolutely indispensable for political, social, and economic progress and which of the many desirable and urgent measures can be temporarily postponed".[2]

Curricula and Textbooks.

The problem of curricula and syllabuses is one of the main concerns of all those who are interested in teaching.[3] The nature of school education and of the curricula which reflects its character and its trends is determined by the economic, political and social conditions prevailing in the society, and also by its culture, traditions and ideals.[4] Education is bound up with the conditions in which different peoples live and teaching tends to reflect the needs and aspirations of the communities these people form.[5]

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1 Lewis, Arthur, "Two Decades of Growth", cited by Lowe, J., Grant N., and Williams T.D. (Ed)., Op. Cit., p.114.

2 Harbison F., and Myers C., Op. Cit., p.66.

3 See: Adams Don, and Bjork Robert M., Op. Cit., pp. 127 - 132.

4 Ibid.

5 See: Coombs Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 3 - 16.

Therefore, before any educational plan is drawn up there must be an assessment of the country's economic and social developments.[1] Sir Julian Huxley once said:-

> "We strongly urge that these efforts in curriculum construction be adapted and extended to the needs of developing nations, and that co-operative relationships be built up between the professional organizations and educators in developing nations. It has been emphasized to us repeatedly by experienced expatriate educators in various parts of the world that special steps must be taken to give indigenous teachers and scholars encouragement in preparing curricula and writing textbooks. For it is quite apparent that the task of adapting materials is best carried out close to the locale where the curriculum will eventually be used".[2]

If one examines curriculum construction in various Libyan schools, using Huxley's criterion, the findings are disappointing. Curricula in Libya at the school stage in general and at the secondary stage in particular is narrowly conceived and mechanically administered.[3] The secondary school curriculum is not related to the every-day problems and needs of the students and it does not promote the development of attitudes which contribute to the achievement of national and social goals.[4] The curriculum emphasizes bookish knowledge, rote memory, cultivation of discrete information and is largely dominated by a stifling examination system.[5]

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1 See: Coombs Philip, "What is Educational Planning?", pp. 25 - 32.

2 Huxley, J.,(Cited by Elliot, W.Y., "Education and Training in the Developing Countries", Frederick A. Praeger Publishers, New York, 1966, p.98).

3 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 9 - 18.

4 Ibid.

5 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Recommendations of the Second National Educational Conference", held in Tripoli, 1971. pp. 1 - 12.

The content of education beyond the primary stage is scientific and academic, rather than practical. It leads to recognized qualifications and, whether concerned with the humanities or with science and mathematics, is academic in nature and is taught in a "bookish" manner.[1] This seems to be a problem common in most developing countries.[2] L.J. Lewis makes the following comment:-

> "A more frequent, and superficially a more justified, criticism of the earlier efforts to provide education in the new countries, is its apparent excessive 'bookishness'".[3]

Curricula in Libya and in most Arab countries are prepared at the state level and prescribed for all schools in the state.[4] No freedom is allowed to ambitious teachers to experiment with new curricula.[5] Therefore, teachers tend to follow the text-book almost page by page, and their main objective is to prepare their pupils to pass the final examinations.[6] In connection with this problem, A. El-Koussy writes:-

> "Specific curricula for secondary schools are generally drawn up in the central ministry by committees of subject specialists, pedagogs, and teachers. A statement of objectives and principles introduces every proposed curriculum text. Issued by ministerial order, the text declares that the aim of secondary education as a whole is to develop good citizens, active in political, social, and economic affairs; the aim of

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1 See: El-Koussy, A.A., "The Development of Educational Planning Machinery : The Case of Libya", Regional Centre for Educational Planning and Administration in the Arab Countries, Beirut, 1966, pp. 1 - 20.

2 Lewis, L.J., "Education in the New Countries", pp. 6 - 8.

3 Ibid., p.8.

4 See: El-Koussy, A.A., "Recent Trends and Developments in Primary and Secondary Education in the Arab World", p.208.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid., pp. 208 - 209.

TABLE 25.

The Weekly Time-Table of Upper Libyan Secondary Stage.

SUBJECT:	Common Studies First Year.	Arts Sections 2nd & 3rd Years.	Science Section 2nd & 3rd Years.
Koran & Religion	2	2	2
Arabic	6	8	5
English	6	7	5
French	4	5	4
Mathematics	4	-	7 (1)
History	2	2	-
Geography	2	2	-
Physics	2	-	3
Chemistry	2	-	3
Biology	-	-	3
Study of Society	2	-	-
Elementary Philosophy	-	2	-
Elementary Sociology	-	2	-
Drawing	1	-	-
Practical Hobbies	2	2	2
Physical Education & Games	2	2	3
Additional Courses	-	3 (2)	3 (3)

(1) Including Mechanics.

(2) Arabic, English, History or Geography.

(3) Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry or Biology.

Source: Unesco: World Survey of Education III, Secondary Education, 1961.

a specific subject is to promote scientific attitudes and skills, so in the case of science, or to develop habits of accuracy and logical thinking, so in the case of mathematics, etc. Carefully written directives and text-books usually accompany the nationally uniform curriculum. However, teachers are told that they can and ought to adapt this curriculum to local conditions. This rarely, if ever, happens. As a rule, influenced by the positive correlation between text-books, examinations, and inspectors' attitudes, teachers tend to follow the text-books to the exclusion of all other materials".[1]

There is an urgent need for a new outlook on curriculum content and methods in secondary education, in Libya, and the sooner a start is made on this need the better.

One of the main defects in the Libyan system of secondary education is its failure to have a clear definition of its objectives and scope.[2] It has generally been treated as a mere continuation of primary education or only as a preparation for higher education in the university.[3] Unfortunately, most of the Arab countries share with Libya this same problem.[4] A. El-Koussy again points out:-

> "A serious shortcoming of the secondary school curriculum is its tendency to copy and in extreme cases to become a replica of the university curriculum. Secondary agricultural programs in some Arab countries tend to be merely concentrates of university departments of agriculture. The duplication of course titles is not limited to vocational programs but prevails throughout the entire educational system from the primary to the University level, each stage doing its best to imitate the one above it".[5]

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1 See: El-Koussy, A.A., "Recent Trends and Developments in Primary and Secondary Education in the Arab World", p.208.

2 See: Farley Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 89 - 94.

3 Ibid.

4 El-Koussy, A.A., "Recent Trends and Developments in Primary and Secondary Education in the Arab World", pp. 202 - 208.

5 Ibid., p.208.

The emphasis in secondary schools continues, as in the past, to be literary with a majority of students preparing for a university education which is the means of obtaining government jobs or other professional employment. Secondary education in Libya is traditionally college preparatory and hence it is excessively theoretical and literary bias.

The academic orientation of secondary schools does little to alleviate the serious shortage of technicians needed to carry out Libya's ambitious economic development program.[1]

The core of the problem is how to arrange a gradual transition from a traditional curriculum suited to the needs of few to a more progressive curriculum urgently needed for the social and economic development of the nation as a whole.[2] The final report of the meeting of experts on the adaptation of the general secondary school curriculum in Africa held in Tananarive in 1962, emphasized this point and stated:-

> "How to arrange the transition from a type of education long rooted in the classics to the technological type of education appropriate to the requirements of modern science; how to convert a system of education which was once the privilege of a chosen few into a system available to the masses craving for knowledge; how, without "breaking the camel's back", to incorporate those new subjects (sociology, economics, etc...) essential to the modern world in curricula which are already overloaded, while at the same time according the traditional sciences the increased attention that their progress demands; how, without disturbing delicate balances, to achieve the transition from theory to practice, from the rational to the operational". [3]

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1 Farley Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 92 - 101.

2 Ibid.

3 Unesco: "Final Report of the Meeting of Experts on the Adaptation of the General Secondary School Curriculum in Africa", held in Tananarive (2 - 13 July, 1962), Paris, 1962, pp. 35 - 36.

One of the main characteristics of modern civilization is that the explosion of knowledge, new thinking in the teaching of science, social studies and languages has led educationists to recondider the content of curriculum instruction both at the primary and secondary levels so as to meet emergent needs.[1] Therefore, attempts are being made almost everywhere to weed out the dead subject-matter, eliminate repetition, up-grade the curriculum, deepen its content and relate it to national and social goals and simultaneously improve its teaching.[2] Yet, there is no sign that secondary schools in Libya are following the same trend and facing the challenge.[3] What is even worse is the fact that, on the whole, the mass of the people tend to favour a curriculum content and a method of teaching which could be described as literary and humanistic. Therefore, the few established schools which aim at the development of technological and scientific skills are held in low esteem.[4]

The desire to resist change is still prevalent in Libya and in many Arab countries.[5] This partly explains why these countries still cling to unsuitable curricula in their educational systems.[6] Habib Kurani refers to this problem:-

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1 See: Adams Don and Bjork Robert M., Op. Cit., pp. 127 - 138, and see also: Anderson Hugh, Hipkin J and Plaskow M. (Ed)., "Education for the Seventies", Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., London, 1970, pp. 57 - 67.

2 Ibid.

3 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Recommendations of the Second National Educational Conference", pp. 1 - 12.

4 See: Farley, Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 92 - 101.

5 See: El-Koussy, A.A., "A Survey of Educational Progress in the Arab States, 1960 - 1965", pp. 71 - 79.

6 Ibid.

> "Modern public education must spring from the living twentieth century needs of the people and must not be based on programs alien or foreign to them, such as is the case in many Arab countries today".[1]

The almost wholly theoretical syllabus is reflected in the methods of teaching. Teaching is not made concrete with examples and experiments, or any other first-hand experience. The lecture is the primary instructional method while students sit passively taking copious notes.[2]

Therefore, the majority of children find their school education dull and uninteresting. The school does not embrace their talents and fails to call out the best in them, and although they succeed in passing through the school, they do not take full advantage of even the limited opportunities which it offers.[3]

Because secondary education is isolated from life, it tends to alienate the child from his cultural environment. It does not give the students insight into the everyday world and thus when they pass out of school, they are suddenly faced with unfamiliar situations, and cannot take their place in the community as confidently and competently as they ought to do.[4]

The extension of secondary education has, therefore, created an artificial cultural and social barrier between the secondary school

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1 Kurani, Habib, Op. Cit., p.8.

2 See: Elwy, A. Elwya, "Report on Mission to Libya", Tripoli, 1966, pp. 16 - 21 (Unpublished).

3 Ibid.

4 See: Prasad Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 9 - 18.

Secondary education in Libya and generally in most developing countries, if it is to make any progress, should depart from its present philosophy and adopt a more realistic approach.[1] It may be worthwhile to emphasize T. Solarin's suggestion in this respect. Writing about the demands of secondary education in Africa, he said:-

> "The philosophy of African education, particularly on the secondary level, must change and quickly. An education which is given for its own sake or, as generally held by civilised countries like Britain and France, as a personal possession of the person being educated, is not the education needed in present-day Africa. The secondary education that Africa needs today is one that would be directly useful to the commonwealth. After all, education, important as it is, is merely a means to the higher and more embracing goal of general welfare. It cannot be regarded merely as an end in itself, not at any rate in a situation of poverty such as now obtains in Africa.
>
> There must, therefore, be a complete break from the idea of education that worked in all the African countries when their empire rulers held the pilotage ... The break must be clear and clean. Education for prestige must go. The education, especially the secondary education, which puts such a high premium on the certificate, must go. The survival of Africa during the next decade or two would depend on how much change has taken place in the new content of its education".[2]

Quantitative and Qualitative Growth
Examinations and Methods.

Secondary education in Libya has witnessed a remarkable expansion in the last decade.[3] Enrolments of both boys and girls have increased considerably. In the academic year 1955/56,[4] there were 2585 students at the preparatory stage (junior secondary), of

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1 See: Solarin, T., "The Secondary Schools that Africa Needs", West African Journal of Education, Volume VII, No.2, June 1963, pp. 77 - 79.

2 Ibid., pp. 77 - 78.

3 See: Prasad Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 9 - 18.

4 This was the year when preparatory education was first introduced in Libya.

TABLE 26

Enrolment Developments of Libyan Preparatory School Boys and Girls During the Years 1955 - 1970.

Academic Year.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.		Total of Pupils.	No. of Teachers.
		Boys.	Girls.		
1955/56	10	2560	25	2585	152
1956/57	19	3056	78	3134	204
1957/58	32	4084	127	4211	236
1958/59	48	4876	182	5058	288
1959/60	61	7150	305	7455	386
1960/61	75	9011	472	9483	479
1961/62	82	10541	675	11216	639
1962/63	100	13880	811	14691	917
1963/64	104	13393	893	14286	976
1964/65	107	16208	1503	17711	1084
1965/66	115	17108	1612	18720	1122
1966/67	125	20093	1945	22038	1305
1967/68	140	24277	2137	26414	1554
1968/69	144	25637	3544	29181	2076
1969/70	172	30609	5707	36316	2447

Source: From Statistics published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

Enrolment developments of Libyan boys and girls in Preparatory Schools during the years 1955 – 1970

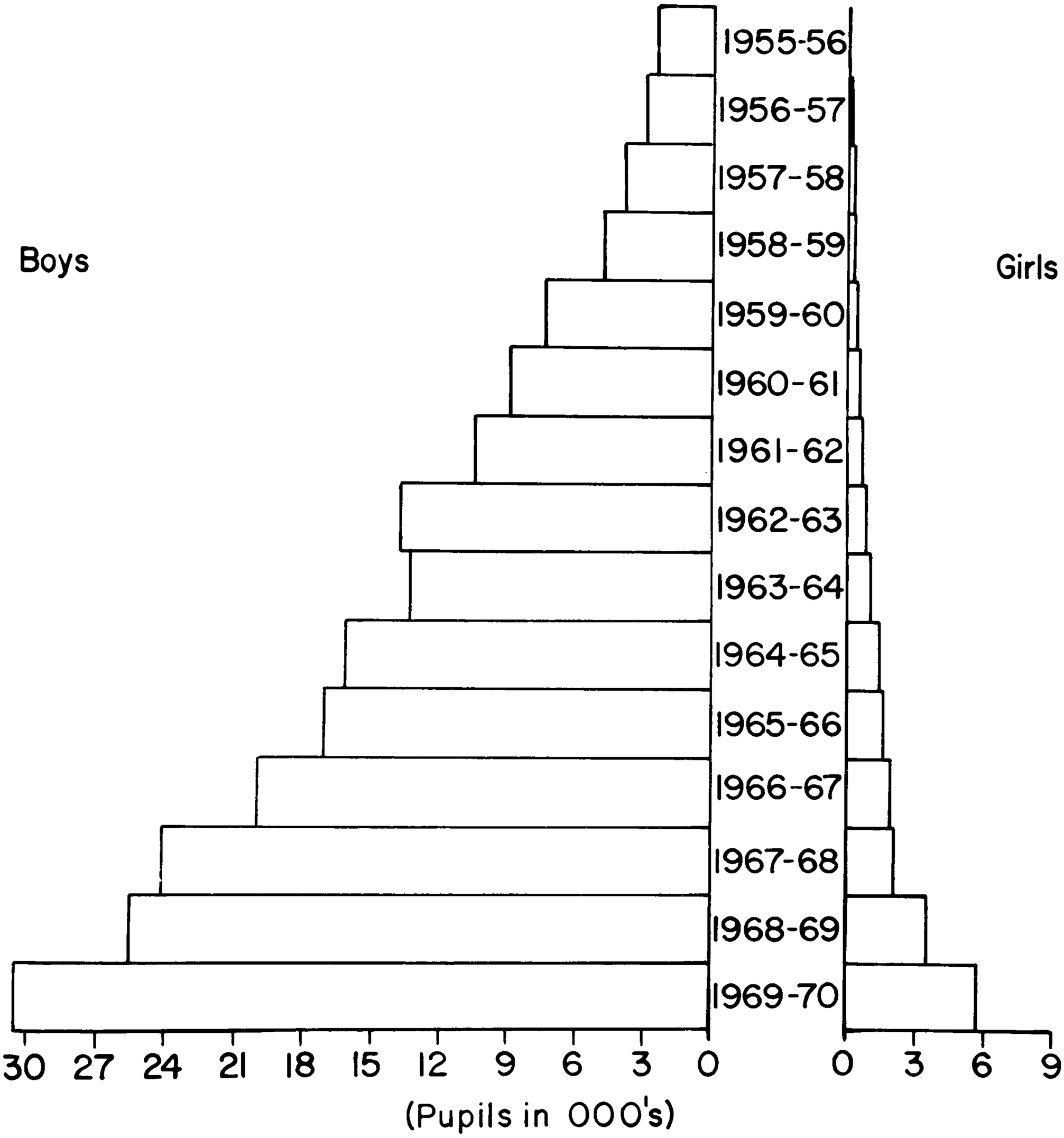

TABLE 27.

Enrolment Developments of Libyan Secondary School Boys and Girls during the years 1950 - 1970.

Academic Year	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.		Total of Pupils.	No. of Teachers.
		Boys.	Girls.		
1950/51	4	285	15	300	49
1951/52	4	380	22	402	59
1952/53	5	542	16	558	83
1953/54	7	692	20	712	111
1954/55	7	928	29	957	112
1955/56	8	1141	29	1170	130
1956/57	9	1139	20	1159	130
1957/58	11	1397	74	1471	124
1958/59	13	1536	45	1581	152
1959/60	14	1651	78	1729	171
1960/61	14	1821	125	1946	246
1961/62	14	2126	158	2284	232
1962/63	14	2508	200	2708	206
1963/64	15	2228	186	2414	340
1964/65	18	3513	368	3881	430
1965/66	18	3888	438	4326	367
1966/67	21	4312	496	4808	376
1967/68	23	5257	738	5995	461
1968/69	25	6237	944	7181	608
1969/70	30	7233	1071	8304	803

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

Enrolment developments of Libyan Secondary School Boys and Girls during the years 1950-1970

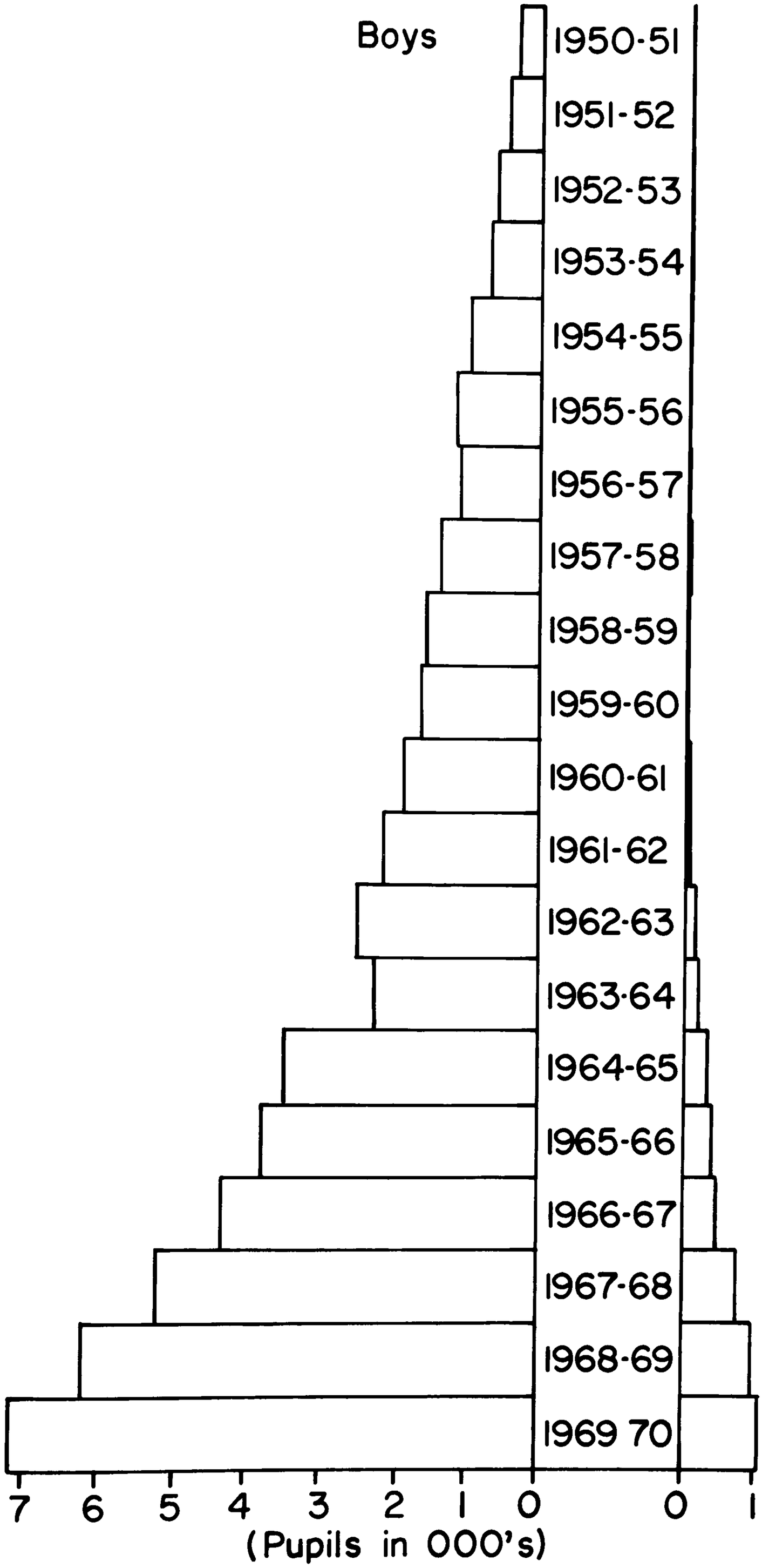

TABLE 28

The Proportion of Enrolments in Secondary and Higher Education for each 100 Primary School Pupils in some Arab Countries during the years 1960/61 and 1965/66.

Country	Secondary Education.		Higher Education.	
	1960/61.	1965/66.	1960/61	1965/66.
LIBYA	12.7	14.4	0.6	1.0
ALGERIA	8.5	9.0	0.9	0.6
IRAQ	19.8	26.3	1.6	2.8
JORDAN	33.8	38.4	0.2	0.9
KUWAIT	49.7	66.8	-	-
LEBANON	17.5	26.5	2.6	6.2
MOROCCO	11.3	16.1	0.7	0.7
SAUDI ARABIA	9.2	14.5	1.1	1.4
SUDAN	22.4	22.7	1.3	1.8
SYRIA	19.1	25.1	3.0	5.2
TUNISIA	8.5	10.9	0.6	0.8
U.A.R. (Egypt)	21.3	29.4	4.3	4.9
UNRWA	33.0	39.1	-	-
Average	17.8	22.9	2.4	2.9

Source: "Journal of Educational Planning in the Arab World", Regional Centre for Educational Planning, Beirut, 1967. (in Arabic).

A.A. El-Koussy writes:-

> "France, for example, has 56 secondary pupils for every 100 primary, while the world average is 26 to 100. The Arab World averages 21 secondary to 100 primary pupils with Morocco managing to recruit only 16, ... and Saudi Arabia only 9 secondary pupils for every 100 primary school members ... These figures show that, though the base of the Arab educational pyramid is far from optimum width, compared with subsequent levels it is rather broad. To put it another way, while a good proportion of the masses is being educated, too few acquire enough education for leadership".[1]

It is important to note the wide range of age distribution amongst boys and girls both at preparatory and secondary stages. Ordinarily schooling at the preparatory stage should come to an end at the age of 15, and at the secondary by the age of 18. But in fact, the age distribution amongst boys and girls ranges from 11 to 21 years for preparatory, and from 14 to 21 for secondary.[2] (Vide Tables 29 and 30).

As Table 29 shows, about 80 % of the boys enrolled in various classes of the preparatory schools, and over 70% of the girls in the same schools, were overaged. In other words, there were 28,588 boys and girls out of a total of 36,316 in the academic year 1969/70 who were considered overaged.[3] Similarly, in 1969/70, over 69% of the total number of boys and over 66% of the total number of girls in secondary classes were in the 18 - 21 age group.[4] (Vide Table 30).

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1 El-Koussy, A.A., "Recent Trends and Developments in Primary and Secondary Education", p.202.

2 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 9 - 18.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

TABLE 29.

The Distribution of Boys and Girls in Libyan Preparatory Schools by their Ages and Classes. 1969/70.

Age.	BOYS.					GIRLS.				
	First. Class	Second. Class.	Third Class.	Total.	%.	First. Class.	Second. Class	Third. Class.	Total.	%
11 years	279	-	-	279	0.91	68	-	-	68	1.19
12 years	1021	142	-	1163	3.80	276	117	-	393	6.89
13 years	1762	605	91	2458	8.03	556	148	46	750	13.14
14 years	2319	958	381	3658	11.95	685	257	100	1042	18.26
15 years	2537	1302	770	4609	15.06	691	339	152	1182	20.71
16 years	2091	1332	1038	4461	14.57	443	249	239	931	16.31
17 years	1830	1307	1292	4429	14.47	263	229	131	623	10.92
18 years	1276	1068	1210	3554	11.61	125	133	133	391	6.84
19 years	747	836	1020	2603	8.50	53	66	77	196	3.43
20 years	652	682	965	2299	7.52	21	28	32	81	1.42
21 years +	114	326	656	1096	3.58	10	13	28	51	0.89
Total	14681	8559	8423	30609	100.00	3190	1579	938	5707	100.00

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

TABLE 30.

The Distribution of Boys and Girls in Libyan Secondary Schools - By Their Ages and Classes. 1969/70.

Age.	BOYS					GIRLS.				
	First Class	Second Class	Third Class	Total	%	First Class	Second Class	Third Class	Total	%
13 years	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
14 years	67	10	-	77	1.05	23	-	-	23	2.15
15 years	213	61	38	312	4.31	68	9	-	77	7.19
16 years	422	265	31	718	9.94	90	24	-	114	10.64
17 years	608	309	193	1110	15.36	95	37	9	141	13.17
18 years	635	451	297	1383	19.12	89	41	18	148	13.82
19 years	472	333	348	1153	15.94	51	27	39	117	10.92
20 years	306	305	404	1015	14.03	48	25	33	106	9.90
21 years +	397	347	721	1465	20.25	28	134	183	345	32.31
Total	3120	2081	2032	7233	100.00	492	297	282	1071	100.00

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

This peculiar age composition constitutes one of the main difficulties confronting secondary education in Libya. Because they are older, those pupils graduating from secondary school tend to proceed directly into employment.

The fact that the pupils in secondary school are so much older than is normal is attributed to two main factors: the delayed entry of children into primary schools, and repetition.[1] This latter factor particularly has a far-reaching effect upon the development of secondary education in Libya. Statistics show that about 19% of the boys and 13% of the girls enrolled in preparatory schools in 1969/70 were repeating their classes (see Table 31). In the same year, about 17% of the boys and 8% of the girls enrolled in general secondary schools, were found to be repeating their classes, (see Table 32).

The appaling rate of educational wastage can probably be realized when it is recalled that the number of repeaters at the secondary stage [2] in 1969/70 was approximately 8000 boys and girls, (see Tables 31 and 32). Since the average pupil/teacher ratio is about 1 to 14, this means that the time of at least 550 teachers was virtually wasted, and a space of at least 550 classrooms was similarly wasted. In financial terms, the wastage was at least £L. 6 million.[3]

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1 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 9 - 18.

2 Both Preparatory and Secondary.

3 This estimation was based on the assumption that the minimum cost of education per pupil per year is £L.750. Though in fact it is much more than that in many Libyan schools.

TABLE 31.

The Number of Freshers and Repeaters in Libyan Preparatory Classes (Boys and Girls). 1969/70.

Class.	BOYS.			GIRLS.		
	Freshers.	Repeaters.	Total.	Freshers.	Repeaters.	Total.
First	11953 (81.71)	2675 (18.29)	14628 (100.00)	2768 (86.84)	422 (13.16)	3190 (100.00)
Second	7081 (82.74)	1477 (17.26)	8558 (100.00)	1445 (91.51)	134 (8.49)	1579 (100.00)
Third	5740 (77.24)	1683 (22.76)	7423 (100.00)	776 (82.73)	162 (17.28)	938 (100.00)
Total	24774	5835	30609	4939	718	5707
% to Total	(80.94)	(19.06)	(100.00)	(87.42)	(12.58)	(100.00)

(Figures in brackets indicate percentages).

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education in Libya, 1970.

TABLE 32

The Number of Freshers and Repeaters Amongst Boys and Girls - in Different Classes in Libyan Secondary Schools, 1969/70.

Class.	Boys.		Girls.		Boys.		Girls.	
	Freshers	Repeaters.	Freshers	Repeaters.	% of Freshers.	% of Repeaters.	% of Freshers.	% of Repeaters.
First	2633	487	457	35	84.39	15.61	92.99	7.11
Second Literary	488	69	135	9	87.61	12.39	93.75	7.25
Second Science	1311	213	145	8	86.02	13.98	94.77	5.23
Third Literary	500	86	140	14	85.32	14.68	90.91	9.09
Third Science	1094	352	111	17	75.65	24.34	86.72	13.28
Total	6026	1207	988	83	83.31	(16.69)	92.25	(7.75)

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

Despite the fact that Libya has made laudable efforts to expand the quantitative aspect of its secondary education, this growth has involved a deterioration of quality.[1] The poor quality is largely attributed to the rapid growth of numbers at the primary level which imposes continuous pressure upon the next stage.

It is quite often said that rapid quantitative expansion always carries with it a risk of deterioration in quality.[2] This notion applies particularly to Libya and to the majority of Arab educational systems.[3] M. Akrawi and A. El-Koussy write the following comment:-

> "The rapid growth of numbers at all levels of education has not been achieved without some sacrifice of quality ... It is not surprising that there has been a lowering of educational standards in some of the countries. This is nowhere greater than in the teaching of foreign languages, and of science and mathematics in the secondary schools".[4]

The rapid expansion of primary education has created a number of problems of great importance for secondary education. The number of teachers required has risen far beyond the resources available, and this was coupled by a grave shortage of school buildings, which led to overcrowding in densely populated areas.[5] At the same time the number of children capable of benefiting from secondary education has increased far beyond the facilities available.[6]

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1 See: El-Koussy, A.A., "The Development of Educational Planning Machinery : The Case of Libya", pp. 14 - 20.

2 See: Beeby, C.E. (Ed)., "Qualitative Aspects of Educational Planning", Unesco: International Institute for Educational Planning, Paris, 1969, pp. 39 - 51.

3 Akrawi M., and El-Koussy, A.A., Op. Cit., pp. 184 - 187.

4 Ibid., p.187.

5 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Development of Educational Planning and its Machinery in Libya", Document No.2., pp. 13 - 20. See also: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "The Five-Year Plan, 1969-74 : Education", 1969, pp. 43 - 47 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

6 Ibid.

TABLE 33.

The Proportion of Boys and Girls in the Libyan Preparatory Classes, 1969/70.

Preparatory Class.	Boys	Girls	Total.
First Year	14628 (82.10)	3190 (17.90)	17818 (100.00)
Second year	8558 (84.42)	1579 (15.58)	10137 (100.00)
Third Year	7423 (88.78)	938 (11.22)	8361 (100.00
Total	30609 (84.29)	5707 (15.71)	36316 (100.00)

(Figures in brackets indicate percentages).

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

TABLE 34.

The Number of Boys and Girls in Different Classes in the Libyan Secondary Schools, 1969/70.

Classes	Boys	Girls	Total.
First	3120 (86.38)	492 (13.62)	3612 (100.00)
Second Literary	558 (79.46)	144 (20.54)	701 (100.00)
Second Science	1524 (90.88)	153 (9.12)	1677 (100.00)
Third Literary	586 (79.19)	154 (20.81)	740 (100.00)
Third Science	1446 (91.87)	128 (8.13)	1574 (100.00)
Total	7233 (87.10)	1071 (12.90)	8304 (100.00)

(Figures in brackets indicate percentages).

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

TABLE 35

The Proportion of Boys and Girls in Libyan Secondary Schools by Districts. 1969/70.

District	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	% of Girls.
Zawia	916	1	917	0.11
Tripoli	2773	408	3181	12.83
Gharian	383	-	383	0.00
Homs	197	1	198	0.50
Misurata	341	1	342	0.31
Benghazi	1361	462	1823	25.34
Beida	485	45	530	8.49
Derna	484	150	634	23.66
Sebha and Ubari	292	3	295	1.02
Total	7233	1071	8304	12.90

Source: From Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

The result of those pressures and shortages has been a serious lowering of quality at the secondary stage. The university complains that the products of the secondary schools do not meet its expected standards.[1] Similarly, educational inspectors and administrators question the competence of secondary school graduates to serve as confident and well-qualified teachers in primary schools.[2] Thus, the vast majority of the public feel that secondary education in Libya does not serve its main purpose in developing among the pupils, qualities of leadership needed in different walks of life.[3] Because of the unsatisfactory quality of secondary education, both primary and higher education have suffered.[4]

It may be worth while to refer to Unesco's remarks about the quality of education in the Arab States.

> "In the Arab states, as in every other region of the world, the effective and harmonious development of the human resources available is an essential pre-requisite to economic and social development. It is important to realize that this is not a matter of the quantity of education provided, but of its quality. Human resources are developed and the requisite manpower produced, by the qualitative growth of the educational system along appropriate lines, and not simply by its quantitative expansion".[5]

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1 Banerjea, B.N., "Note on Utilization of Graduates Passing Out of the Libyan University", Tripoli, 1963, pp. 1 - 5 (Unpublished).

2 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "The Evaluation of Primary School Teachers" Tripoli, 1969, pp. 1 - 4 (Unpublished), see also: Shibani, Tumi, "The Objectives of Teacher Training in Libya", 1970, pp. 5 - 15. (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Unesco, "Trends in General, Technical and Vocational Edu... In the Arab States", Third Regional Conference of Min Education and Ministers Responsible for Economic Plann the Arab States, Marrakesh, 1970, p.17.

Although the 1966 Tripoli Conference of Ministers of Education and Ministers responsible for economic planning in the Arab states clearly stressed the importance of the quality of education,[1] yet most Arab countries still pay increasing attention to quantitative growth at the expense of quality.[2] Unesco again writes:-

> "The Report of the 1966 Tripoli Conference noted: "In particular, the rapid quantitative development of all Arab systems of education had sometimes led to insufficient attention being paid to qualitative improvement". In several parts of the region, this sacrifice of quality has continued".[3]

One of the acute problems facing secondary education in Libya and affecting its qualitative aspect is the problem of backward rural areas.[4] The remote villages are extremely unattractive places, without sanitation or electricity, with shortage of water and very poor food, with uncomfortable houses, with lack of entertainment facilities and almost without any cultural activities of any kind. Once teachers have experienced the pleasant conditions which exist in towns, they are no longer prepared to tolerate the life of the rural areas and they are reluctant to teach in the isolated villages.[5]

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1 Unesco, "Trends in General, Technical and Vocational Education in the Arab States", Third Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Ministers Responsible for Economic Planning in the Arab States, Marrakesh, 1970, pp. 17 - 19.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid., p.17.

4 See: Shibani, O. Tumi, Op. Cit., pp. 5 - 15.

5 This is a serious problem which many developing countries have faced and are still facing.

Therefore, teachers who are recruited in rural areas are mostly the less satisfactory, who are unable to obtain employment in the city schools. They become bored and frustrated and this is reflected in their teaching. The pupils suffer and the whole quality of education in these areas is adversely affected. In connection with the problem in rural areas in the Arab countries, D.K. Wheeler writes:-

> "One familiar problem in this context is how to educate a rural population in order to make their life easier and more productive. Because of shortages of finance, buildings and teachers, education is more readily available to those who live in the great cities and the towns or larger villages. Even so, the bright boys from rural areas who are trained to return to educate their fellows are, by the end of their training, often unwilling to do so, for they wish to remain in the more populous areas where life is more comfortable and more exciting". [1]

Most of the Governments in developing countries, rightly or wrongly, concentrate their secondary schools in the urban areas, and Libya is no exception. This puts the village student at a disadvantage as far as educational facilities are concerned. He finds that secondary schooling is costly and inaccessible compared with the urban student. Roy Adams writes as follows:-

> "The geographical placement of secondary schools has started badly in most developing countries. Governments have placed the schools in the cities, forcing country students to live in a city if they seek secondary education. This has encouraged the alarming rush into urban areas which characterises newly-independent countries. Boarding schools are expensive, but the establishment of farm schools with boarding facilities can be a strong barrier against excessive urbanization. Planned decentralization of all educational institutions would prove a worthwhile investment in all countries which depend mainly on agriculture". [2]

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1 Wheeler, D.K., "Educational Problems of Arab Countries", International Review of Education, Volume XII, No.3, 1966, pp. 305 - 306.

2 Adam, Roy, Op. Cit., pp. 483 - 484.

R. Adam again writes:-

> "Outside the main cities, the picture is even more depressing. Very few students proceed from rural primary schools to secondary education. Those who do reach a secondary school find the curriculum even less rewarding than it is for the city child. Home conditions militate against academic success, and the majority of secondary students from rural villages give up the struggle after one or two years. By this time, however, they have grown to like the life of the city, and when they leave school, they seek work in the metropolitan area".[1]

The problem is even worse with the education [2] of Libyan Bedouins (nomads and semi-nomads), who keep wandering about and whose settlement in a certain place is only seasonal or semi-seasonal. They cling to their traditional way of life and are isolated from the life in the cities. Their affiliation with the central government is only nominal and their compliance with government's laws and regulations is minimal.[3] They tend to oppose any outside influence including the influence of teachers.[4] D.K. Wheeler, in his article about educational problems of Arab countries, writes the following comment:-

> "Difficulties in the education of nomads arise not only from their wandering habits but in part from their distrust of officials including teachers. Suspicion of the apparatus and functionaries of modern government, whether on the part of nomads or others, is probably due to the fact that family and clan are still of great importance in the Arab world. Attitudes are often particularistic rather than universalistic and in consequence open-ended

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1 Adam, Roy, Op. Cit., p.482.

2 This applies to all types of education in all stages, particularly primary and secondary.

3 See: Ziadeh N.A., Op. Cit., pp. 15 - 16.

4 Ibid.

> loyalties which should transfer from family to neighbourhood to community to state, often get no further than the family".

The nomadic problem from the educational point of view is greatest in Cyrenaica where nomads constitute a large percentage of the population.[2] In both Tripolitania and Fezzan, nomads, as compared with those of Cyrenaica are, less in number and influence, though the educational problems concerning them are still substantial. The Report of the International Bank refers to the problem of nomads in Libya [3] as follows:-

> "The education of the tribes presents a difficult problem, especially in Cyrenaica where a sizeable proportion are nomads or semi-nomads. In attempting to solve this problem, the Nazirate of Education in Cyrenaica has opened boarding primary schools for the tribal children. It is estimated that the cost of maintaining a boarding student is approximately £L.100 per school year, while the cost of an outside or day pupil is approximately £L.10. Thus, because of the limited facilities for primary education and the great demand for it, the boarding of one child is basically at the expense of 10 day children". [4]

Thus secondary education in Libya is crippled by a series of acute problems which hinder its development, and even if quality was sacrificed for the sake of expansion in numbers, quantitative growth has still a long way to go before it can reach every boy

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1 Wheeler, D.K., Op. Cit., p.306.

2 See: Blunsum, T., Op. Cit., p.34.

3 For problems related to the education of nomads in Libya, see also: Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", pp. 41 - 42.

4 IBRD., Op. Cit., p.258.

and every girl in the country.[1]

However, it is essential to bear in mind that mere quantitative increase in education is meaningless unless the quality of education is also improved. Without improvement in the quality of education, there is a danger that increase may create more problems than it solves.

Another factor precipitating the dilemma of secondary education in Libya is its emphasis on examinations for promotion.[2] The system leans heavily on examinations which have come to be used not as a means for evaluation, but rather as the sole and most reliable criterion of success and aptitude.[3]

The secondary school students and teachers in Libya are burdened with excessive anxieties. This engenders undesirable teaching attitudes that tend to encourage poor teaching methods and ineffective learning habits. The importance accorded to examinations by the Libyan educational authorities helps to increase the anxieties of both the teacher and the taught. The students' anxieties are due to examination phobia and also to pressures from home. The result is that students are forced to resort to excessive rote learning in which memorization supplants thinking. This behaviour becomes their major reaction to the demands of education as this is the behaviour induced by their teachers and

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1 See: Prasad Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 9 - 18.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

fully supported by the requirements for examination success. Thus facts are memorized verbatim as are textbooks and are simply reproduced when needed for final examinations mostly undiluted and undigested.

Rote learning is exalted for its own sake as a sign of interest and good performance on the part of students, and hence a major outcome of learning is the remarkable ability for memorizing developed by students. The most disconcerting aspect of this situation is that students have actually convinced too many teachers that critical thinking is not relevant to examination success. Teachers prepare students for the examinations by methods that place a premium on rote learning and little emphasis on thinking and understanding.[1] Some teachers have made attempts to combat this error, but unfortunately they found themselves a brave minority in fighting against great odds.[2]

In connection with the examination problem in the Arab countries, D.K. Wheeler writes:-

> "Over-emphasis on examinations often means cramming, teaching to the book and the consideration of "knowledge" objectives to the detriment of other objectives in the cognitive domain. There may also be neglect of important objectives in the affective domain desired in connection with religious and national goals. Some Arab educators feel that formalized methods of teaching religion in schools may lead to the mere manifestation of outward forms ... In addition, the Central Ministries exert control over curricula, authorize the use of specific textbooks (usually limited in number) and sometimes lay down methods to be followed.

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1 See: Prasad Maya, "Current Supply of Educated Manpower: Trained School Teachers in Libya", pp. 1 - 5.

2 Ibid.

> Tradition dies hard anywhere, and the traditional features of colonial education systems are perhaps reinforced by the fact that Islamic education has been based largely on oral communication and memorization". [1]

It is often said that the main difference between a good and a bad secondary school is that the former develops mental habits that assist students to acquire and use knowledge in the right way, whereas the latter is content simply to impart knowledge and remains indifferent to the use which is made of it. Unfortunately, most secondary schools in Libya and in most Arab countries are of the latter type.[2]

Secondary education in Libya and in most Arab countries is faced with all kinds of demands, and its inadequacy for meeting present needs indicates that reform, particularly in curriculum, examinations and methods, is urgently needed.[3] In connection with these defects, Unesco makes the following comment:-

> "In general, curricula and related textbooks are carefully prepared and issued with guides on their use. But they have not yet weaned themselves from the influence of school and college leaving examinations. This is a world-wide problem. In the context of the Arab region, it poses certain specific questions. In which directions should the present curricula be reformed and teaching methods and techniques be improved to release this Arab generation from the heavy hand of examination-oriented methods of memorizing facts and to prepare them adequately, not only for their changing world but also for their highly scientific, technical and industrial age".[4]

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1 Wheeler, D.K., Op. Cit., p.311.

2 See: Unesco, "Meeting of Experts on General Secondary Education in the Arab States", pp. 3 - 9, and pp. 38 - 46.

3 Ibid., pp. 26 - 46.

4 Unesco: "Trends in General, Technical and Vocational Education in the Arab States", pp. 8 - 9.

Thus, if secondary schools in Libya and in the Arab World in general are to play a significant role in developing their societies, they have to reconsider their programmes in terms of what shall be taught and how it shall be taught, and what are the appropriate methods of evaluation.

Since examinations lead to so many evils such as cramming, book-centred teaching, continuous worry and irregularity of effort on the part of both teachers and the taught, there are clearly strong arguments for their gradual elimination.[1]

It is common experience that students tend to protest, riot and demonstrate against unanticipated and, in their terms, undesirable modifications in syllabuses or examinations. So, to begin with, examinations and record cards might be used simultaneously, and in the course of time the emphasis shifted to continuous assessment and cumulative records.

If secondary education in Libya is to contribute to the development of the nation, its products must be taught how to think and how to accept responsibility for their own progress. Secondary education must be seen as a stage of profound significance to the individual.[2] It is a complex stage of psychological development at which young people pass from one phase to another

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1 Since the Libyan revolution of 1969, there were serious attempts to eliminate examinations at least at the primary stage, and prospects are, so far, promising.

2 See: Unesco, "Meeting of Experts on General Secondary Education in the Arab States", pp. 3 - 9.

with bewildering rapidity. It is a stage when good work habits can easily be acquired, and likewise when bad habits can be permanently established. Adolescents must be treated with special sympathy, care and imagination. Any attempt to continue the methods and disciplines of primary school, or to anticipate those of university education at the secondary stage, should be firmly discouraged.

It is, however, fair to acknowledge that in spite of these defects, the secondary system has produced a number of splendid teachers and capable students.

It must also be borne in mind that a system of education cannot be changed overnight, and that reform and improvement of any educational system require much time and effort, supplemented by careful study, to discover defects and apply remedies.

Technical and Vocational Education.

Technical and vocational education, which is a specialized branch of education, has been introduced in Libya only in recent years, largely because there was nothing hitherto in the social structure of the country either to make it a necessity from the educational planner's point of view, or attractive and worthwhile on the part of students.

Education in Libya has always been criticized on the grounds that it failed adequately to train the young man and woman in the skills of different trades.[1] Even after the attainment of independence emphasis on purely theoretical learning has dominated Libyan

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1 See: Farley Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 94 - 101.

schools.[1] Although this has accomplished a definite purpose - that of providing the wide variety of civil servants needed in the government - it has, on the other hand, impeded the course of economic development of the country which was in desperate need for skilled workers and technicians.[2] "The demands of the Libyan economy are limited in quantity but require a fairly high level of technical skill".[3]

By neglecting technical and vocational education which is closely connected with the economic progress of the industrial and in commercial and agricultural fields, Libya has had to face acute economic and social problems and has had to depend heavily on foreign financial aid.[4] She has also had to recruit expatriate experts and even foreign skilled and semi-skilled workers.[5] This reliance on foreign assistance had a profound impact upon the development of the country and tended to retard social and economic progress. The Unesco report of 1952 makes the following comment:-

> "Libyan industry is so little developed that it needs only small numbers of technical and skilled personnel. Nevertheless, Libya can achieve real economic independence only if the non-Libyan personnel who at present occupy most of the key posts in the public services and industry can be progressively replaced by Libyan workers. It would seem essential, therefore, that the plan for economic development should provide for the training of these workers".[6]

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1 See: Farley, Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 94 - 101.

2 Unesco: "Report of the Mission to Libya", pp. 8 - 12.

3 Ibid., p.68.

4 See: El-Mallakh Ragaei, Op. Cit., pp. 308 - 309.

5 See: Farley, Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 94 - 101.

6 Unesco: "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.66.

Most reports which dealt with Libyan economic problems have noted the neglect of manpower development in the country, and consequently have emphasized the urgent need for technical and vocational education as a key factor for the acceleration of Libya's economic development.[1] The Report of the International Bank stresses this point as follows:-

> "A country's whole development effort may be held back by shortages of the more advanced skills, which can only be acquired through a long process of education and training. This is outstandingly true of Libya where the neglect of education prior to independence has resulted in an acute lack of technicians, professional people and administrators in every field of economic activity. No matter how much money is available - be it foreign aid, oil revenues or domestic savings - development can usefully be pushed no faster than the supply of properly trained personnel to administer and execute it. That is why the mission places so much importance on the expansion of facilities for technical and vocational training and on programs of adult education".[2]

After the discovery of oil the urgent need to develop technical and scientific education became increasingly apparent. The Libyan educational authorities could no longer minimize the importance of the technical side of instruction with the main objective being to meet the present and future needs of the country for skilled personnel, and to raise the standard of living.[3] The IBRD report states the following:-

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1 See: IBRD., Op. Cit., pp. 260 - 261.

2 Ibid., p.252.

3 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", Document No.5, pp. 3 - 9.

> "One of Libya's most pressing needs is for qualified artisans (mechanics, fitters, electricians, plumbers, carpenters, bricklayers, etc), skilled agricultural workers and demonstrators and intermediate technicians (assistant engineers, surveyors, draftsmen, etc). Such persons are of much greater value to the economy at the present time, and are required in larger numbers, than white-collar workers".[1]

Vocational education was first initiated in Libya as apprenticeship system as early as 1897 [2] when the School of Arts and Crafts was established in Tripoli by private contributions.[3] Its aim was to train young Libyans (apprentices) in certain trades such as carpentry, foundry and fitting.[4] Amazingly, this school was not affected by the series of events which befell the country during the first half of the twentieth century. It is still actively functioning today, and even occupying the same premises in which it was first established. It has now several branches all over the country,and its intake consists mainly of boys whose families are poor or orphans with no source of earnings.[5] Admission is practically confined to boys, usually at the age of 10 (after finishing their fourth grade in any primary school).[6]

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1 IBRD., Op. Cit., p.260.

2 United Nations, General Assembly, "Annual Report of the United Nations Commissioner in Libya", New York, 1950, p.84.

3 A Report (in Arabic) by unspecified source, found recently in the archives of the School of Arts and Crafts refers to the establishment of the school as being in 1899. It states that the idea of its establishment was initiated in 1895 and it was completely finished and started functioning in 1899.

4 Ibid., pp. 2 - 3.

5 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", Document No.5., pp. 3 - 4.

6 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya 1950 - 1967", pp. 43 - 44.

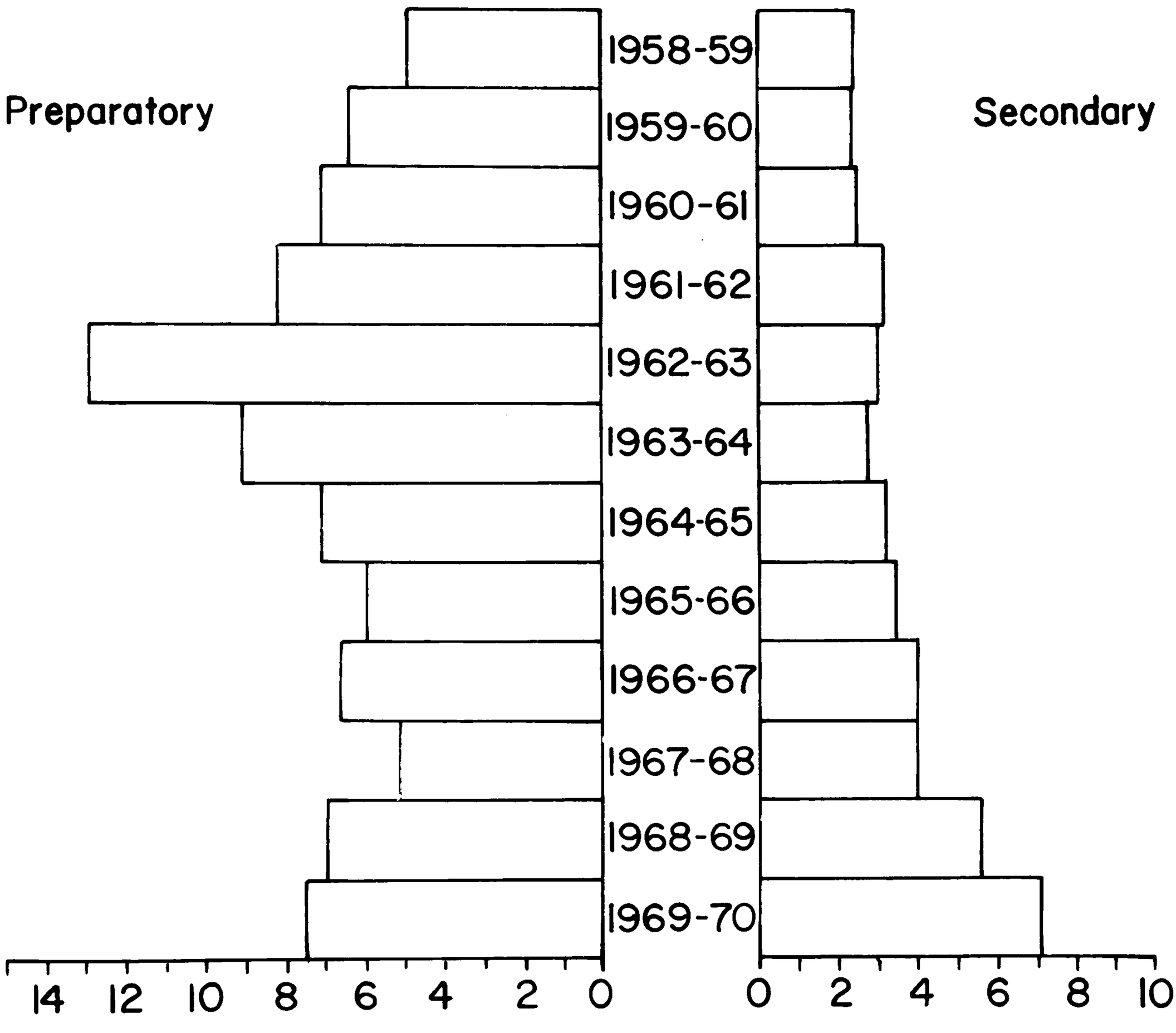
TABLE 36.

The Development of Enrolment Rates in Technical and Vocational Education in Libya, 1958 - 1970.

Academic Year.	Preparatory.	Secondary.	Total.	No. of Teachers.
1958/59	486	232	718	125
1959/60	629	227	856	136
1960/61	713	246	959	127
1961/62	816	339	1155	153
1962/63	1186	311	1497	180
1963/64	916	274	1190	173
1964/65	703	324	1027	148
1965/66	595	338	933	134
1966/67	660	404	1064	146
1967/68	506	403	909	175
1968/69	688	571	1259	196
1969/70	744	713	1457	220

Source: Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education, Libya, 1970.

The development of Technical and Vocational Education in Libya 1958–1970



In 1947, the British authorities, then ruling the country, established with the assistance of ILO, the first Technical and Commercial Centre in Benghazi.[1] A year later (1948), a similar school was established in Tripoli.[2] Both schools served as training centres for the supply of technicians and semi-skilled workers to meet Libya's needs for the maintenance of existing works, services and small industries as well as for the further development of the country.[3] Both schools provided a two-year course and admission requirements were the primary school leaving certificate.[4] Pupils studied courses on wood, metal, leather and textiles, and undertook to accept employment in the public services after their graduation.[5]

These early attempts at the development of technical and vocational education were of great importance, but their effect was seriously diminished by lack of equipment, the shortage of native teaching staff and shortage of finance. Unesco described the problems encountered by these schools:-

> "The obstacles with which the two existing schools are faced are obvious and considerable. The teaching staff - almost all foreigners - is inadequate both quantitatively and qualitatively, and there is not enough equipment to allow a proper course of training to be given. In Tripoli, the school uses the workshops of the Public Works Department, but

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", Document No.5, pp. 3 - 4.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid., pp. 3 - 8.

5 Ibid.

> since these latter are already over-loaded with work, the students are unable to carry out the practical work included in the course ... Lastly, it is impossible at the moment to ensure any systematic teaching in the technical section ... The situation with regard to technical training as a whole is therefore rather critical". [1]

This was the situation in the early years of independence with its many problems and difficulties. But the growing need for skilled manpower forced the government to pay more attention to technical and vocational education.[2] As a consequence, the government issued, in 1957, the Regulations which still govern technical and vocational education in the country.[3] The objectives of technical and vocational education as outlined in the Regulations [4] were to prepare young Libyans for living in the modern world, and to produce well-trained artisans and technicians who are needed to fill the various occupations in the fields of productive activity.[5] Article 1 of the Regulations concerning technical and vocational education stipulates the following:-

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1 Unesco: "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.67.

2 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", Document No.5, pp. 3 - 8.

3 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 91 - 96.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

> "Technical education is part of the general educational system and its aim is partly national and partly general ... Technical education has a special vocational aim, namely supplying the country with skilled workmen and technicians in the various fields of productive activity at different levels according to the demands of industry in the various sectors of the national economy".[1]

With the issue of these Regulations, technical and vocational education gained more attention and started to develop, though slowly, but certainly on a firmer basis. Schools providing technical and vocational education were divided into two main levels; preparatory and secondary, and each level has three different schools: industrial, agricultural and commercial.

In 1960,[2] a new technical school was established in Tripoli, which came to be known as The School of Applied Technology. The main objective of this school was to supply the country with skilled artisans and technicians for both the public and private sectors.[3] Its intake is selected from among holders of the general preparatory certificate and priority is usually given to applicants of scientific and technological interests and competence as indicated by their performance in the preparatory school.[4] The course of study is of four-year duration, and students may specialize in one of its two main sections, namely, public works or petroleum engineering and mining.[5]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", p.4.

2 Ibid., pp. 4 - 5

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

TABLE 37.

The Weekly Time Table - Institute of Applied Technology - Libya.

Subject:	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.		4th Year.	
			Public Works.	Mining & Petroleum.	Public Works.	Mining & Petroleum.
Religion	1	1	1	1	-	-
Arabic	5	4	3	3	-	-
English & Translation	7	6	5	5	4	4
Social Studies	2	-	-	-	-	-
Mathematics & Mechanics	8	7	4	4	-	-
Physics	4	3	2	2	-	-
Chemistry	2	2	-	3	-	-
Geology	-	2	-	3	-	6
Workshop Practice	4	-	-	-	-	-
Technical Drawing	4	4	4	2	5	3
Surveying	2	4	4	4	5	5
Building Materials	-	2	2	-	-	-
Construction Theories	-	-	2	-	2	-
Civil Engineering	-	-	-	-	5	-
Building Construction	-	-	3	-	5	-
Mines Engineering	-	-	-	2	-	5
Petroleum Engineering	-	-	-	3	-	7
Hygiene and Municipalities	-	-	-	-	2	-
Calculations	-	-	-	-	2	-
Agriculture and Agricultural Engineering	-	-	2	-	-	-
Principles of Economics	-	-	1	1	-	-
Projects	-	4	6	6	6	6
Sports and Hobbies	3	3	3	3	3	3
Total	42	42	42	42	39	39

Source: Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education", Document No.5, Tripoli, Libya, 1966.

A. Industrial Education: This branch of education comprises two levels as previously indicated, the preparatory level and the secondary level. The former admits pupils from among those who have successfully completed their primary school education.[1] The course is four years in length, in which pupils get the required training in various trades in order to qualify them as artisans and assistant technicians.[2] In the first year, the programme of study is common to all pupils and aims at furnishing them with a fairly firm background in trades and technical knowledge.[3] In the second year students can choose from several specializations and carry on with their choice until graduation.[4] These fields of specialization are: machine fitting, shaping, metal work, welding, filing, electricity, motor car mechanics, carpentry and painting and decorating.[5]

Industrial schools at the secondary level recruit their students from among holders of the general preparatory school certificate.[6] The course of study is four years in length and subjects taught are similar to those studied at the preparatory level, but they are more advanced and in addition they are more specific.[7] The objective of these schools is to provide sufficient

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", pp. 5 - 6.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 See: Libyan Arab Republic,Ministry of Education, "A Historical Study on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", pp. 24 - 27.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

TABLE 38

The Weekly Time Table - Industrial Preparatory Schools, Libya.

SUBJECTS	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.	4th Year.
Religion	1	1	1	1
Arabic	3	3	3	3
English	3	3	3	3
History and Geography	2	2	-	-
Civics	-	-	1	1
Mathematics	2	2	-	-
Physics and Chemistry	2	2	-	-
Vocational Hygiene	-	1	-	-
Physical Education	2	2	1	1
Accountancy	-	-	1	1
Technical Drawing	5	4	6	6
Technical Arithmetic & Calculations	-	-	2	2
Technology	3	3	3	3
Power, Electricity or Decoration	-	-	2	2
Workshop Practice	21	21	21	21
Productive Projects	-	-	10	10
Total	44	44	54	54

	Percentages:			
General Cultural Subjects	34%	36%	23%	23%
Vocational Subjects	18%	16%	29%	29%
Workshop Practice	48%	48%	48%	48%

Source: Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", Document No.5, Tripoli, 1966.

TABLE 39.

The Weekly Time Table - Industrial Secondary Schools - Libya.

SUBJECTS:	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.	4th Year.
Religion & Arabic	4	4	2	2
English	4	4	4	4
Libyan Society	-	1	-	-
Mathematics & Mechanics	5	5	5	5
Science	6	5	4	4
Vocational Hygiene	-	-	-	-
Accountancy	-	-	1	1
Technical Drawing	4	4	5	5
Technical Calculation	-	-	2	2
Principles of Technology	3	3	4	4
Workshop Practice	18	18	17	17
Productive Projects	-	-	10	10
Total	44	44	54	54
	Percentage.			
General Cultural Subjects	43%	43%	36%	36%
Vocational Subjects	16%	16%	25%	25%
Workshop Practice	41%	41%	39%	39%

Source: Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", Document No.5, Tripoli, 1966.

skilled people to work as draftsmen, work supervisors, assistant engineers as well as supervisors for preparatory schools and training centres established by other Ministries such as the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Ministry of Industry, Ministry of Health and Ministry of Communications.[1]

The programme of study is common for all students in the first year of the secondary level, but as from their second year they may specialise in one of the following: filing, shaping, foundry work, welding and electrical power, wireless with its two branches, radio and television, motor car mechanics, carpentry, and painting and decorating.[2]

Students at both levels are required to undertake certain productive projects in their third and fourth years.[3] This policy was effective in encouraging students to compete with each other to fulfill their assignments in the required manner.

B. Agricultural Education: This type of education is provided at two levels, namely preparatory and secondary levels.[4] The former level is represented by Al-Awelia School of Agriculture in Benghazi,[5] while the latter level is represented by El-Gheran School of Agriculture in Tripoli. Admission requirements are the primary school certificate for the

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1 The common practice is that each Ministry sets its own plan to train a certain number of its junior employees who are in charge of technical affairs of the Ministry concerned. This policy succeeded in training a good number of trainees and proved to be useful.

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Historical Study on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", pp. 24 - 27.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967", pp. 47 - 48.

preparatory level, and the preparatory school certificate for the secondary level.[1] The course of study is of four years' duration for the preparatory level, and three years' duration for the secondary level.[2]

Subjects taught at preparatory level are divided into three major groups: general cultural subjects, scientific subjects and vocational subjects.[3] The first group comprises religion, languages (Arabic and English), mathematics and social studies. The second group comprises general science, zoology and botany, chemistry, physics and plant structure, whereas the third group is composed of general agriculture, horticulture, bee-keeping, crops, soil, forestry, livestock, poultry, dairy, insects, plant-protection, agricultural economy, rural engineering, workshops and food industry.[4] (see Table 40).

Similarly, the syllabus of the secondary level is divided into three major categories:[5] general cultural subjects, scientific subjects and vocational subjects. The first category comprises religion, languages (Arabic and English) and rural sociology. The

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967"., pp. 47 - 48.

2 A new Regulation regarding secondary agricultural and commercial schools, issued on 25th May, 1968, stipulated that the length of course of study for these schools be raised to four years instead of three years as was formerly followed. This modification was applied as from the academic year 1968/69. See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislations in Libya".

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", Document No.5, pp. 8 - 9.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

second category comprises biology, chemistry, physics and mathematics, whereas the third category is composed of farm engineering, general agriculture, crops, soil, horticulture, forestry, insects, livestock, dairy, food industry, and agricultural economy.[1] (Vide Table 41).

Each of the two agricultural schools has a large experimental farm attached to its premises.[2] The regulations require that students should spend at least half of the time allotted to practical subjects in the experimental farm.[3] El-Awelia school farm is 175 hectares and is equipped with the necessary facilities for training. Practical work covers subjects which are related to agriculture, such as planting of crops, animal husbamdry, cattle breeding, poultry and dairy.[4]

El-Gheran school farm is 110 hectares and is provided with adequate facilities for agricultural experiments and student training.[5] Practical work covers subjects such as planting of crops, animal husbandry, poultry, bee-keeping and food industry.[6] In addition, students are trained in some trades which are deemed relevant to agricultural development. These comprise simple carpentry, metal work, foundry work and the use of agricultural machines and their maintenance.[7]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", Document No.5, pp. 8 - 9.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

TABLE 40.

The Weekly Time Table - Agricultural Preparatory Schools, Libya.

SUBJECTS	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.	4th Year.
Religion	2	2	1	1
Arabic	6	6	5	5
English	5	5	5	5
Mathematics	4	4	1	-
Social Studies	4	3	2	2
General Science	4	-	-	-
Zoology and Botany	-	4	-	-
Chemistry (Organic)	-	-	3	-
Chemistry (Soil)	-	-	-	3
Physics	-	-	2	-
Plant Structure	-	-	-	2
Physical Education	2	2	2	1
General Agriculture and Horticulture	4	4	5	3
Bee-Keeping	-	-	-	2
Crops, Soil, Forestry and Pastures	5	5	3	4
Insects and Plant-Protection	-	-	4	4
Livestock, Poultry & Dairy	4	4	4	7
Agricultural Economy	-	-	2	-
Rural Engineering & Workshops	4	4	6	-
Food Industry	-	-	2	2
Agricultural Guidance	-	-	-	2
Total	44	43	47	43

Source: Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education", Document No.5, Tripoli, Libya, 1966.

TABLE 41.

The Weekly Time Table - Agricultural Secondary Schools - Libya.

SUBJECTS.	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.	4th Year.	
				Theoretical.	Practical.
Religion	1	1	1	1	-
Arabic	5	5	4	4	-
English	6	6	6	5	-
Rural Society	-	-	2	1	-
Biology	4	2	-	-	-
Chemistry	3	2	-	-	-
Physics	2	1	-	-	-
Mathematics	3	3	2	2	-
Farm Engineering	4	4	4	2	2
Horticulture & Forestry	6	6	6	2	4
General Agriculture (Crops and soil)	6	6	6	2	4
Livestock & Dairy	5	6	7	3	4
Food Industry	-	1	3	1	2
Agricultural Guidance	-	-	2	1	1
Agricultural Economy	-	2	3	3	-
Total	45	45	46	44	

Source: Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", Tripoli, 1969.

Despite the government's efforts to develop agricultural education, this type of education has not yet received the attention it merits, and is still very much in its infancy. The agricultural schools produce nothing like the numbers of graduates needed to meet the country's economic needs.[1] In terms of quantity, the shortages of qualified agriculturists are grave, but quality-wise the situation is even worse.[2] The Report of IBRD confirms this:-[3]

> "Agricultural schools, if they are to contribute effectively to the development of Libyan agriculture, must succeed in inculcating in their students a practical knowledge of farming and a readiness to apply this knowledge by working themselves in the fields. More emphasis should therefore be placed in the curriculum on field work and less on class work".[4]

Agricultural development is very important in a country such as Libya where over 70% of the population are engaged in farming, and still depend largely on agriculture for their living.[5] The Ministry of Education, in its report of 1966, states the following:-

> "Agriculture in Libya is still one of the important aspects of the country's economy, in spite of the immense wealth which has resulted from the discovery of oil. At least 70% of the population still depend on agriculture for its livelihood".[6]

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "Report on the Present Situation of Agricultural Education", Tripoli, 1971, pp. 1 - 3 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

2 Ibid., p.1.

3 Although the comments of the report were written over a decade ago, they are, nevertheless, still true of agricultural education in Libya.

4 IBRD., Op. Cit., p.262.

5 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", pp. 10 - 14. (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

6 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", Document No.5., p.8.

It is upon agriculture and not oil,[1] that the long-term economic prosperity of the country depends. Yet, farming is the least popular occupation in Libya. The tragic situation, therefore, is that the most needed type of work has the lowest status.[2] This explains the growing tendency to discourage children from following courses which lead to agricultural jobs.[3] Even when a young man considers agricultural training, he often does not intend to be a farmer, but rather an agricultural adviser who keeps his hands clean.[4]

Farming is not regarded a "respectable" job in Libya, or indeed, in most developing countries, and young people prefer to work in an office, usually nicely furnished and equipped with a comfortable chair, a desk and air conditioning. The flight from the land can be attributed to false values imparted by a superficial education and a wrong orientation reinforced by the glamour of occupations not involving manual work.

The problems of agricultural education cannot be overcome if people see no prospects of a good life in the land.[5] Therefore, farming must not only be made to pay; it must be seen to pay. This, however, can never be achieved without radical social and economic

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1 Oil is, undoubtedly, a major source for Libya's prosperity, but its flow is by no means eternal.

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "Memorandum on Technical and Vocational Education in the Light of Skilled Manpower Needs", Tripoli, 1971, pp. 1 - 5 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

changes. It is only in the context of progress in social, economic and administrative spheres that realistic improvement in agricultural education in Libya becomes possible. The same is true of most countries in Africa.[1] T. Solarin writes as follows:-

> "All Africa's new secondary schools must teach agriculture, not in the old nodding acquaintaince with the simplest of the local farming tools, but with a deep initiation into modern agriculture. African agricultural backwardness is the gravest cause of poverty, hunger, misery and even illness. No balanced increase in the standard of life in Africa over a very long period, certainly within the next two generations, is possible without agricultural advance".[2]

C. Commercial Education: This type of education is provided at two levels, preparatory and secondary and comprises two main schools, one at Tripoli and the other at Benghazi.[3] Admission requirements are the primary school certificate for the preparatory level and the preparatory school certificate for the secondary level.[4] The course of study is of four-year and three-year duration for preparatory and secondary levels respectively.[5] Throughout the course, students study general cultural subjects as well as practical ones, with due emphasis on the latter. General cultural subjects include religion, languages (Arabic and English), and social studies, whereas practical subjects include arithmetic, book-keeping, principles of economics and commerce, accountancy and shorthand and typing.[6]

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1 Solarin, T., Op. Cit., pp. 77 - 79.

2 Ibid., p.78.

3 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya 1950 - 1967", pp. 43 - 49.

4 Ibid.

5 The course of study for secondary level was raised to four years as from the academic year 1968/69, see: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya",p.154.

6 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", pp. 7 - 9.

Graduates of this type of schooling are usually absorbed into the public and private sectors mainly in banks, private enterprises and various government departments, where their service is badly needed.[1]

Interest in commercial education has fluctuated in recent years with frequent changes of policy. To strengthen this type of schooling and attract more applicants to it, the Libyan government has taken some steps which are considered of vital importance to its development. Among these are the following:-[2]

1. Graduates from commercial schools to be regarded as equal in grade and position to those graduated from other equivalent schools, and their certificates to be officially recognized.[3]

2. In order to ensure the application of theory to practice, the Ministry of Education has emphasized the importance of visits by students to various institutions and business enterprises such as banks, customs and taxation departments.

3. To improve the quality of practical training, the Ministry of Education made special arrangements for students in their final years of study to obtain some useful training in the fields closely related to their own specialization . This training is commonly done with oil companies in sections such as accountancy, secretarial work, stores and supplies department. The training normally takes place during the summer vacation when students are free from academic responsibilities and thus can benefit more from their training.

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Technical and Vocational Education in Libya", pp. 7 - 9.

2 Ibid., pp. 7 - 9.

3 A cabinet decision was issued on 28th March, 1968, and stated that all graduates from Technical and Vocational schools be treated equally in terms of salary, and that the preparatory school graduates be eligible to get Grade 6 in the salary scale, whereas the secondary school graduates would be eligible to get Grade 5 when appointed in any government job. See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 153 - 154.

TABLE 42.

The Weekly Time Table - Commercial Preparatory Schools - Libya

SUBJECTS.	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.	4th Year.
Religion	2	2	2	2
Arabic	6	6	5	5
English	7	7	5	5
Social Studies	4	4	3	3
Mathematics	4	4	-	-
Physical Education	2	2	1	-
Commercial Arithmetic	-	-	4	5
Book-Keeping	3	3	5	5
Principles of Commerce	2	2	2	2
Principles of Economics	2	2	-	-
History of Economics	-	-	1	1
Commercial Laboratory	-	-	2	2
Model Office	-	-	2	2
Stenography (Arabic)	-	-	3	3
Hygiene	1	1	-	-
Typing (Arabic)	4	4	3	3
Typing (European)	4	4	3	3
Total	41	41	41	41

Source: Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation", Tripoli, Libya, 1969.

TABLE 43.

The Weekly Time Table - Commercial Secondary Schools - Libya.

SUBJECTS.	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.	4th Year. Theoret-ical.	4th Year. Pract-ical.
Religion	1	1	1	1	-
Arabic	7	6	5	5	-
English	10	8	8	7	-
Libyan Society	2	-	-	-	-
Physical Education	1	1	1	-	1
Accountancy and Book-Keeping	5	5	5	4	-
Accountancy of Costs	-	-	-	2	-
State Accounts	2	2	2	-	-
Commercial Arith-metic	3	3	3	3	-
Principles of Accounting	-	-	-	2	-
Arab Commercial Methods	-	2	3	2	-
European Commercial Methods	-	2	3	2	-
Taxation	-	-	-	2	-
Principles of Econ-omics and Commerce	2	2	2	2	-
Statistics	-	-	-	2	-
Economic Geography	2	2	1	-	-
History of Economics	-	1	1	-	-
Commercial Laboratory	-	2	2	-	3
Typing (Arabic)	3	3	3	-	3
Typing (European)	2	2	2	-	3
Total	42	42	42	42.	

Source: Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", Tripoli, Libya, 1969.

4. The Ministry of Education has noticed that commercial education has not yet attracted female applicants. Therefore, it has stressed that the technical needs of the country require the active participation of women, particularly in occupations in which women can excel and which are suited to them, such as typing and secretarial work. Consequently, the Ministry has offered ample facilities for girls to join this type of school. A commercial school for girls both in Tripoli and Benghazi is being seriously considered.[1]

Because of the rising demand for graduates of commercial schools to work as typists, secretaries and book-keepers, accountants and other office work, this type of schooling is rapidly gaining popularity.[2] Some students even leave school before graduation, lured away by lucrative occupations and attractive jobs, either with the government or with private business. At present, Oil Companies seem to attract the majority of commercial school graduates because of the high salaries they offer. However, the government usually takes the number it requires from the graduates before permission can be granted to any graduate to join the oil companies.[3]

The Need for Manpower and the Prejudice Against Manual Work.

> "Any nation, rich or poor, faces the basic economic dilemma: it has infinite aspirations but only finite means to satisfy them. The shortage supply of skilled or even semi-skilled manpower exacerbates the dilemma which is common to most nations of the world".[4]

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1 The Womens' Societies in both Tripoli and Benghazi have exerted special efforts to support the Ministry's attempts by persuading girls as well as convincing parents of the importance of commercial schools for their daughters. An increasing success is being gained.

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Historical Study on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic", pp. 24 - 27.

3 Ibid.

4 Alan Peshkin, "Education in the Developing Nations: Dimensions of Change", Comparative Education Review, Feb., 1966, p.59.

TABLE 44.

Enrolment Expansion of Technical and Vocational Students in Libya, 1963 - 1971.

Academic Year.	Agricultural Schools.		Industrial Schools.		Commercial Schools.		School of Applied Technology.	Total.
	Preparatory.	Secondary.	Preparatory.	Secondary.	Preparatory	Secondary.		
1963/64	96	135	196	8	435	131	50	1051
1964/65	85	150	304	23	327	194	51	1134
1965/66	95	145	294	32	320	204	53	1143
1966/67	90	150	296	8	314	304	70	1232
1967/68	142	149	189	15	177	175	81	928
1968/69	154	181	295	25	247	283	97	1282
1969/70	106	189	372	51	302	335	148	1503
1970/71	168	219	838	133	823	771	238	3190

Source: Ministry of Education, "Education Statistics", Tripoli, Libya, 1970/71.

This quotation is generally applicable to most nations of the world, but it has a deeper meaning and applies more significantly to developing nations.[1] One of the problems of educational planning in the developing countries is that of accurately forecasting national requirements.[2] What is even more difficult is that the rate of change is so great that projections are often out of date before they are implemented.[3] Many factors play a part in altering original projections. Among these are social change and political and economic pressures.[4]

In many developed countries where national development plans have been drawn up, a great deal of importance, and in many cases, top priority has always been attached to manpower development.[5]

Perhaps the most pressing concerns of the developing nations are economic in nature, that is, concerns for improving their standard of living, for increasing work output, for rationalizing agricultural production, and the like.[6] Education relates to economic development by helping a person to become a wiser purchaser of goods and services, by providing a general education which

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1 See: Adams Don and Bjork Robert M., Op. Cut., pp. 148 - 156.

2 Ibid, see also: Coombs Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 74 - 83.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

contributes to an individual's ability to learn the technical skills of his vocation, and by providing credentials which serve as a passport to employment.[1]

Thus education enables the individual to take his place in the society and to respond effectively to the stimuli of his environment.

It is clear that when citizens criticize their schools for not sufficiently helping to meet the needs of society, it is primarily economic needs that they have in mind, and the type of help expected from the school is, in the main, the provision of trained manpower to administer and man the nation's industries and to carry on the required research. A country's economic and social prosperity depends largely on the quality of human resources available to meet the needs of the nation.[2] It is not only the material resources nor the development in modern technology that matter, it is men, without whom all the best instruments of science and technology are of little use.[3]

Unfortunately, in Libya [4] and in most Arab countries, the institutions which produce skilled manpower have not yet received the attention they deserve. Mohammed K. Harby writes:

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1 See: Makulu, H.F., "Education, Development and Nation-building in Independent Africa", SCM Press Ltd., London, 1971, pp. 44 - 57.

2 Ibid.

3 Unesco: "Educational Planning : A World Survey of Problems and Prospects", pp. 107 - 121.

4 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "Memorandum on Technical and Vocational Education in the Light of Skilled Manpower Needs", pp. 1 - 5.

> "The dilemma facing the Arab States is similar to that faced in many other regions: they cannot easily develop their economies without having the skilled manpower required, and such manpower is often difficult to train in the context of an under-developed economy". [1]

Many critics assume that the dilemma of the Arab world in general lies in socio-economic deficiencies, but basically the problem is educational.[2] Therefore, if the productivity of manpower is to be raised, large-scale measures must be taken to make people better educated.[3] In Libya, the increase in education has been uneven, with an unfavourable effect upon Libyan patterns of life.[4] Although the need for manpower development, particularly at technician and foreman level is repeatedly emphasized as essential for economic development, yet, there is no indication that Libya is seriously considering the speedy development of its manpower needs.[5] (Vide Tables Nos. 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50 and 51). Rawle Farley writes:-

> "A survey put the estimated demand for professional personnel in Libya for 1964 to 1969 at 37,154. Against an estimated supply of personnel (including Libyans studying abroad) of 11,222, the overall shortage of professional personnel for 1964 to 1969 was put at 21,998 ..... The manpower situation was, however, indicative of the severe stress under which the Libyan economy was advancing. There was a shortage of skilled agricultural labour. Between mid-1963 and mid-1964, 47,000 expatriate personnel received permission to work in Libya. The prospects that the education system in Libya or training abroad would fill the gap in the near future were dim despite the efforts being made".[6]

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1 Harby, M.K., "Technical Education in the Arab States", Document No.53, Unesco, Paris, 1965, p.1.

2 See: El-Koussy, A.A., "A Survey of Educational Progress in the Arab States, 1960 - 1965", pp. 5 - 12 and pp. 80 - 88.

3 Ibid.

4 El-Koussy, A.A., "The Development of Educational Planning Machinery : The Case of Libya", pp. 14 - 20.

5 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "A Survey of the National Economy", Tripoli, 1970, pp. 22 - 42.

6 Farley Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 94 - 96.

TABLE 45

Estimated Demand and Supply of Manpower in Libya, 1964 - 1969.

Educational Level.	Demand for Personnel.			Supply of Personnel (including Libyans studying abroad).	Shortage.	
	Government Sector.	Private Sector	Total.		Government Sector (assuming entire supply is absorbed in Government.) Columns 2 - 5.	Overall Shortage. Columns 4 - 5.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
University	2,514	2,540	5,054	1,841	673	3,213
Secondary level	10,459	3,898	14,357	7,171	3,288	7,186
Below Secondary Level. Skilled	8,325	5,485	13,809	2,210	6,115	11,599
Below Secondary Level. Unskilled	3,934	-	3,934	Adequate	-	-
Total	25,232	11,923	37,154	11,222(a)	10,076	21,998(a)

(a) - Excluding Unskilled.

Source: A.N.K. Nair, "A Survey of Requirements of Professional, Technical and Skilled Manpower in Libya, 1964 - 1969", Bank of Libya, Monthly Economic Bulletin, V, 12 (December 1965), pp. 108 - 16.

TABLE 46.

The Number of Graduates from Various Technical and Vocational Schools in Libya, 1964 - 1970.

Academic Year.	Preparatory Level.			Total.	Secondary.			School of Applied Technology.	Total.
	Industrial.	Agricultural.	Commercial.		Industrial.	Agricultural.	Commercial.		
1964/65	45	40	60	145	1	17	54	-	72
1965/66	97	-	66	163	8	27	26	12	73
1966/67	33	-	66	99	4	27	66	13	110
1967/68	18	-	20	38	-	-	-	12	12
1968/69	28	47	-	75	-	54	37	14	105
1969/70	34	49	35	118	-	57	61	20	138
Total	255	136	247	638	13	182	244	71	510

SOURCE: Ministry of Education, Department of Statistics, Tripoli, Libya, 1971.

If one accepts A. Lewis's estimates for manpower requirements in any nation, then the figures for Libya quoted by Farley can be seen to be totally inadequate. L.J. Lewis writes:-

> "Arthur Lewis .... estimates that the proportion of population that should receive secondary education, if the needs of a country for educated manpower are to be met, is 4 per cent of each generation".[1]

To meet the manpower needs, the Libyan authorities have tended in recent years [2] to pay more attention to technical and vocational education in an attempt to divert students from academic schools to vocational and technical schools. The authorities were convinced that as soon as a technical or vocational school opened its doors, applicants would flock in from all directions. But, this was not the case, and the authorities had difficulty in attracting even the minimum number of students to these schools.[3] One of the common explanations for the failure of technical and vocational schools to attract a sufficient number of students is that young people dislike manual work; they like to work in an office and prefer a salary to self-employment.

The prejudice against technical and vocational education has been a characteristic of the majority of Libyan students.[4] Therefore, most secondary schools in Libya are geared toward literary

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1 Lewis, L.J., "Education and Political Independence in Africa", Comparative Education Review, June 1961, p.43.

2 Particularly after the discovery of oil in 1959/60.

3 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "Memorandum on Technical and Vocational Education in the Light of Skilled Manpower Needs", pp. 1 - 5.

4 Ibid.

attainment almost to the utter neglect of training in technical or practical skills.[1] Despite official recognition of the urgent needs in technical fields and the efforts made to meet them, indications are that the imbalance between technical and general secondary education may be getting worse. The proportion of enrolment for technical and vocational education at secondary level has not improved over the last twelve years and at tertiary level, enrolment in arts is expanding faster than enrolment in science, (Vide Table 54). Unesco states:-

> "Lastly, in addition to these specific difficulties, the prejudice against technical training compared to purely theoretical secondary or higher education exists in most Middle Eastern Countries. It is to be feared that this prejudice will play an especially large role in Libya, since there are absolutely no trained personnel of any sort in the country. The best pupils will tend to enter the liberal professions or to take up administrative posts, rather than become manual workers or skilled technicians".[2]

Although this comment was written approximately two decades ago, it is, nevertheless, still a valid criticism of the present situation in Libya. There is obviously a clear need to improve the status of technical and vocational education in Libya. However, it should always be borne in mind that the grant of millions of pounds and the establishment of admirable buildings can never make technical and vocational education succeed unless there is an adequate supply of good students. Education in Libya, and in almost

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1 See: Prasad Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 9 - 18.

2 Unesco: "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.68

TABLE 47.

The First Degree Studies Abroad. (Libya)

1970/71.

Field of Study.	Number of Students.
Medicine	291
Construction Engineering	57
Petroleum Engineering	45
Chemistry	44
Veterinary	44
Civil Engineering	40
Dentistry	39
Agriculture	36
Civil Aviation Enginnering	29
Petrochemical Engineering	22
Press	21
Social Service	20
Electronic Engineering	20
Electric Engineering	16
Hydrology Engineering	14
TV and Broadcasting Engineering	14
Political Science	13
Arts	13
Mining Engineering	11
Other 42 Fields of Study	141
Total	930

Source: Ministry of Planning, "Vocational Training in Libya", (Unpublished Paper), Tripoli, Libya, 1971.

THE NUMBER OF FIRST DEGREE SCHOLARSHIPS GRANTED TO LIBYAN STUDENTS IN VARIOUS FIELDS OF STUDY 1953-1968 (STUDY ABROAD)

TABLE NO. 48

Academic Year	Medicine	Veterinary	Dentistry	Electric & Civil Eng.	Architecture	Petroleum Eng.	Aviation Eng.	Pharmacy	Agriculture	Science	Arts, Education Psychology	Economics, Commerce & Political Science	Archaeology	Law	Art & Music	Librarianship	Phys. Education	Regional Planning	TV & Broadcasting	Total
1953/54	17	1	-	12	2	-	-	-	11	1	20	16	-	43	-	-	-	-	-	123
1954/55	12	1	-	4	1	-	-	-	3	2	26	17	-	4	1	-	-	-	-	71
1955/56	9	1	-	6	-	-	-	2	6	9	2	14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	49
1956/57	9	2	-	5	1	-	-	2	3	3	1	7	-	2	1	-	1	-	-	37
1957/58	7	2	2	8	2	1	-	4	-	8	7	1	-	1	-	-	2	-	-	45
1958/59	7	-	1	12	-	-	-	-	1	5	2	4	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	34
1959/60	8	2	3	6	-	1	1	8	3	5	8	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	47
1960/61	23	4	10	29	-	4	-	7	11	5	-	-	-	6	2	-	-	-	-	101
1961/62	16	2	2	4	-	3	-	4	2	-	-	1	-	13	2	-	-	-	-	49
1962/63	11	-	1	8	-	6	-	-	4	2	-	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	35
1963/64	13	-	3	6	-	6	-	8	1	1	2	-	4	1	2	-	2	-	-	49
1964/65	44	-	8	13	4	-	14	9	8	1	3	2	6	1	-	-	-	-	-	113
1965/66	63	-	12	33	2	20	6	1	1	2	4	2	1	2	1	5	-	-	-	155
1966/67	43	1	8	19	27	-	9	12	-	2	2	18	4	6	7	6	7	7	-	178
1967/68	38	-	5	6	19	15	7	10	-	-	12	3	-	2	2	-	8	-	9	136
Total	320	16	55	171	58	56	37	67	54	46	89	87	15	84	19	11	21	7	9	1222

Source: ILO, "Estimated Needs of Skilled Manpower in Libya" Tripoli 1968 (Unpublished paper).

THE NUMBER OF GRADUATES (FIRST DEGREE) IN VARIOUS FIELDS OF STUDY - 1953-67 (STUDY ABROAD)

TABLE NO. 49

Academic Year	Medicine	Veterinary	Dentistry	Electric & Civil Eng.	Architecture	Petroleum Engineering	Aviation Engineering	Pharmacy	Agriculture	Science	Arts, Educ., Psychology	Economics, Commerce & Political Sci.	Archaelogy	Law	Art and Music	Librarian-ship	Physical Education	Regional Planning	TV and Broad-casting	Total
1953/54	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1
1954/55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	4
1955/56	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	2	5	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	16
1956/57	3	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	8	-	14	2	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	37
1957/58	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	2	-	10	9	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	30
1958/59	2	-	-	6	1	-	-	-	1	1	14	7	-	5	-	-	1	-	-	38
1959/60	3	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	4	5	3	8	-	7	1	-	-	-	-	33
1960/61	4	-	-	3	1	-	-	-	1	3	3	6	-	5	-	-	1	-	-	27
1961/62	4	4	-	2	1	-	-	1	-	2	3	6	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	24
1962/63	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	7	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15
1963/64	4	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	3	-	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	13
1964/65	10	-	1	8	-	1	1	4	4	5	-	1	-	2	1	-	-	-	-	38
1965/66	6	1	1	9	-	2	-	2	1	3	1	2	-	3	1	-	-	-	-	32
1966/67	4	1	-	3	1	2	-	3	1	4	3	2	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	26
	42	7	2	36	7	5	1	10	27	26	63	51	-	48	6	-	3	-	-	334

Source: ILO, "Estimated Needs of Skilled Manpower in Libya", Tripoli, Libya 1968, (Unpublished paper).

NUMBER OF POST-GRADUATE SCHOLARSHIPS GRANTED TO LIBYAN STUDENTS TO STUDY ABROAD IN VARIOUS FIELDS OF STUDY - 1957-1968

TABLE NO. 50

Field of Study	Medicine		Veterinary		Engineering		Architecture		Petroleum Engineering		Science		Economics and Commerce		Arts, Education and Psychology		Law		Agriculture		Librarianship		Art & Music		Total	
Academic Year	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.
1957/58	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	1	-	2	-	5	-	-	-	-	8	8
1958/59	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1959/60	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1960/61	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	4	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	6
1961/62	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	1	3	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	13
1962/63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	4	-	2	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	1
1963/64	-	-	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	4	6	1	7	2	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	22
1964/65	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	11	-	4	1	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	19
1965/66	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14	-	2	3	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	19
1966/67	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	-	2	3	8	-	3	3	6	4	2	-	4	-	1	-	1	11	29
1967/68	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	5	18	-	6	3	7	1	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	10	36
TOTAL	-	1	2	1	1	6	-	2	-	3	21	58	6	23	18	48	9	3	6	6	-	1	-	1	63	153

Source: ILO, "Estimated Needs of Skilled Manpower in Libya" Tripoli, Libya, 1968 (Unpublished paper)

M = Master.

NUMBER OF GRADUATES IN POST-GRADUATE STUDIES ACCORDING TO FIELD OF SPECIALIZATION

1957-1968

TABLE NO. 51

Field of Study	Medicine		Veterinary		Electrical and Civil Engineering		Architecture		Petroleum Engineering		Science		Economics and Commerce		Arts, Education and Psychology		Law		Agriculture		Librarianship		Art and Music		Total	
Academic Year	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.	M	Ph.D.
1957/58	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1958/59	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
1959/60	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
1960/61	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
1961/62	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	2
1962/63	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5
1963/64	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9
1964/65	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	3	2
1965/66	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	1	3	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	2	6
1966/67	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	-	5	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16
1967/68	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	1	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10
TOTAL	-	1	-	-	-	2	-	2	-	1	-	16	-	6	3	26	-	1	4	-	-	-	-	-	7	55

Source: ILO, "Estimated Needs of Skilled Manpower in Libya", Tripoli, Libya 1968 (Unpublished paper)

M = Master.

TABLE 52.

Post Graduate Studies According to Fields of Study(Study Abroad) 1970/71.

Field of Study	Number of Students.
Law	25
Economics	23
Education and Psychology	23
Geology	22
Civil Engineering	22
Chemistry	21
Medicine	18
Horticulture	17
English Language	16
Sociology	16
Mathematics	16
Arabic Language	13
Physics	11
Electrical Engineering	10
Business Administration	10
History	10
Agriculture	9
Accounting	9
Librarianship	9
Philosophy	9
Other Fields	109
Total	418

Source: Ministry of Planning, "Vocational Training in Libya", Tripoli, Libya, 1971 (Unpublished).

TABLE 53

The Progress of Post-Graduate Studies Abroad.

1969 - 1971.

	1969/70.		1970/71.	
	Ph.D.	M.A.	Ph.D.	M.A.
Number of Students already Abroad working for the specified Degree	27	30	66	170
Number of Students who initiated studies in the specified year and for the specified Degree	27	164	13	118
Total Number of Students Abroad	54	194	79	288
Number of Graduates in Various Fields.(1)	7	24	8	36

(1) Fields were not specified.

Source: Ministry of Planning, "Vocational Training in Libya", Tripoli, Libya, 1971 (Unpublished paper).

TABLE 54.

The Development of Technical and Vocational Education in Libya as Compared with the Developments in General Secondary and the Faculties of Arts and Science at the University of Libya, 1958 - 1970.

Academic Year.	University of Libya.		Secondary Education.	
	Faculty of Arts.	Faculty of Science.	General	Technical and Vocational.
1958/59	178	52	6639	718
1959/60	227	77	9184	856
1960/61	303	115	11429	959
1961/62	355	152	13500	1155
1962/63	385	168	17399	1497
1963/64	408	180	16700	1190
1964/65	528	239	21592	1027
1965/66	612	278	23046	933
1966/67	861	283	26946	1064
1967/68	940	298	32409	909
1968/69	1002	308	36362	1259
1969/70	1264	333	44620	1457

Source: Ministry of Education, Statistics Department, Tripoli, Libya, 1971.

all parts of the Arab World was [1] until the first half of the twentieth century and even later, the privilege of the few rather than the right of all [2] and was basically geared toward academic and theoretical instruction rather than practical and functional.[3] In connection with this educational philosophy, Unesco writes as follows:-

"But the fact is that, in the region [4] as a whole secondary education is becoming less diversified, not more diversified, and therefore less likely to produce the kinds of manpower required. The regional statistics show clearly that, between 1960/1961 and 1967/1968, the percentage of pupils in general secondary education has increased, and that in technical and vocational has decreased. This is clearly not a trend conducive to the development of the region's human resources on appropriate lines. It would appear that tradition and conservatism are governing public demand for education, and that, rightly or wrongly, general secondary education is considered superior to vocational and technical".5

TABLE 55.

The Percentage of Enrolment in Technical and Vocational Education as Compared with the General Secondary Education in the Arab World, 1961,1968.

Type of Education.	Academic Year. 1960/1961	1967/68.
General Secondary	81.4%	86.0%
Technical and Vocational	15.2%	11.1%

Source: Unesco:"Trends in General,Technical and Vocational Education in the Arab States", p.25.

1 See: Qubaim, Fahim I., Op. Cit., pp. 10 - 12 and pp. 25 - 29 and pp. 41 - 43.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 "Region" here refers to the Arab Countries.

5 Unesco, "Trends in General Technical and Vocational Education in the Arab States", p.25.

Failure of the secondary technical and vocational schools in Libya may be attributed, at least in part, to poor organization of the curriculum and poor administration.[1] In a country like Libya where tradition exalts intellectual knowledge at the cost of manual labour, and where schools have always been academic, with little interest in any laboratory or shop activity or even in sports and social activities, it is difficult to plan a technical and vocational curriculum.

The heritage of the past plays an influential role in almost all Arab countries [2] and tends to hinder development in all aspects of life, particularly in the fields of technical and vocational education.[3] M. K. Harby writes as follows:-

> "In the common life of the Arab Middle East old patterns exist side by side with the new. This existence of the 'old' and the'new' resulted in a complexity in our social institutions despite their apparent simplicity ... Thus, our society consists of diverse generations in terms of their social institutions, ways of thinking, attitudes and interests. This situation has brought a wide difference in the people's outlook and their ends and means in life. Educational institutions are not exceptional in this sense. Moreover, most of the Arab countries have been burdened by different forms of government and institutions, some secular, semi-democratic according to the Western models, others autocratic or reactionary. In this miscellaneous web of institutions, conflicting outlooks, attitudes and policies have emerged to hinder ideals of social progress and material improvement. It is through education that these divergencies

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Recommendations of the Committee for Technical Guidance", Tripoli, 1971, pp. 1 - 2 (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

2 See: Harby, M.K., Op. Cit., pp. 7 - 8.

3 Ibid.

> can be reconciled and Arab ambitions realized. Unfortunately education, instead of being a powerful instrument for economic reconstruction and cultural change, has been too often a mirror for the past, unable to adapt itself to new socio-economic situations".[1]

The difficulty of spreading technical and vocational education in Libya and in the Arab countries in general is not only in building suitable schools, providing adequate facilities and attracting good applicants to this type of schooling, even more serious is the problem of recruiting well-trained teachers who can do their job properly and free themselves from the tendency to be purely theoretical in their teaching.[2] H. Kurani described the situation accurately when he said:-

> "The greatest obstacles to the extension of practical education are the dearth of well-trained teachers, the great expense involved in establishing practical and vocation schools, and the belief, commonly held, that working with the hands is undignified. These obstacles must be overcome before education can become a generative and constructive force in Arab society".[3]

The problem of popularizing technical and vocational education is greatly exacerbated by the comparatively low financial rewards of technical and vocational professions. Therefore, the mass of the population believe that to climb the social ladder they need to join the modern educated class.

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1 See: Harby, M.K., Op. Cit., p.8.

2 See: Qubain, Fahim I., Op. Cit., pp. 29 - 30.

3 Kurani, H., Op. Cit., p.11.

Technical training at secondary school level has not yet proved to be as financially rewarding as employment in the government services. Despite the repeated talk about good salaries and respect for manual work, the fact is that there are few good jobs for technicians, carrying high salaries.[1] A man can live comfortably enough as a village carpenter or mason, supplementing his professional earnings by farming. But such a life has not the glamour of government clerical service, with an incremental salary scale, a pension and the amenities of city life and educated companionship. W.E.F. Ward writes:-

> "But in poor countries,[2] technical education has experienced an even more dizzy swing into popularity. Until the other day, all ambition was concentrated on becoming a clerk, civil servant, an effendi; any occupation which involved getting sweaty and oily was despised as utterly as it was despised by Aristotle".[3]

Technical and vocational education is looked down on by the majority of parents, even the educated ones. Parental prejudice, therefore, plays a major role in confirming their children's aversion to manual work. An African legislator once said:

> "Vocational education is urgently needed for our development and should be encouraged, but it is not for my son".[4]

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Recommendations of the Committee for Technical Guidance", pp. 1 - 2.

2 It is similarly applicable to rich countries but which economically and technologically, are still classified as under-developed or developing countries.

3 Ward W.E.F., "Educating Young Nations", George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London 1959, p.114.

4 Fafunwa, A. Babs, "New Prospectives in African Education ", McMillan and Company (Nigeria) Ltd., Lagos, 1967, p.56.

It is commonly believed that technical and vocational education is only for those who lacked the ability for academic careers. Technical workers were regarded as inferior to those engaged in white-collar work, and consequently they earned lower wages and their status in society at large was extremely low. E.B. Castle writes:-

> "One of the sad circumstances governing the expansion of education in most developing countries has been that those who hold a pen earn more than those who wield a hoe. Young people, therefore, are not to be blamed for clamouring with a passionate insistence for the sort of education which they believe will lift them out of poverty".[1]

It is the common belief among most people of Middle Eastern countries and Africa in general that working with one's hands is a job for the less educated and less intelligent people or even for outright illiterates. For example, it is absolutely degrading to ask an educated Arab or African man to tend his own garden, prune his own roses, wield an axe, wash or repair his own car. It is strongly believed that these pursuits compromise the person's academic or social status. It is below one's dignity to get one's hands dirty, especially if one is an intellectual.[2] The following story cited by John Gunther is a typical example.

> "Once, when most of his helpers were ill, Dr. Albert Schweitzer [2] had to drag some heavy beams under cover before the outburst of tropical rain. This was tedious, physical labour. The Doctor noticed a negro - in a white suit - sitting near a patient whom he had come to visit.

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1 Castle E.B., "Education for Self-Help : New Strategies for Developing Countries", Oxford University Press, London, 1972, p.66.

2 See: Wheeler, D.K., Op. Cit., pp. 307 - 308.

3 Dr. A. Schweitzer was a famous scholar, musician, philosopher and doctor who ran a hospital at Lambaréné in Gabon. He died on September 5th, 1965, see: Fanfunwa, A., Op. Cit., p.76.

> Schweitzer called out, 'Hello, friend! Won't you lend a hand?'. The negro replied, 'I don't drag wood about. I am an intellectual'. Schweitzer replied, 'How lucky you are. I tried to be an intellectual too, but didn't succeed'.". [1]

Indeed, Libya can never hope to improve its standard of living if its policy towards manpower requirements does not change. The need to acquire technical and vocational skills must be stressed and should perhaps be one of Libya's priorities. The type of education that tends to perpetuate the prejudice against the so-called manual and technical occupations is undeniable and detrimental to Libyan overall development.[2] A. El-Koussy writes:-

> "Factors such as the almost universal traditional aversion from the non academic occupations in all developing countries, the polarization effected by university education and the high cost and effort of establishing technical schools must all be considered together if education has to be directed to the economic needs of the country. More attention must be given to the modern techniques of guiding and controlling the flow of education in its various tributaries and for increasing the responsibility and attractiveness of technical occupations".3

It is obvious that manpower development particularly at technician and foreman level is of utmost relevance in Libya, where educational needs are great, the corps of trained teachers small and increased efficiency essential for progress.

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1 Gunther John, "Inside Africa", The Reprint Society., London, 1955, pp. 714 - 715.

2 See: Farley Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 94 - 101.

3 El-Koussy, A.A., "The Development of Educational Planning Machinery : The Case of Libya"., p.16.

CHAPTER FIVE

The Education of Teachers.

> "A country is what its people are, and the people who make the country are what their teachers have made them".[1]

This view stresses the great need for well-qualified teachers for social, economic and political development, and at the same time reflects one of the main requirements of any educational system in any given country, particularly the developing and newly-born nations.

It is generally realized that teacher training is a crucial sector of any educational system.[2] It is axiomatic that the quality and soundness of any educational system depends primarily on the quality of its teachers.[3] The teacher is, therefore, the corner-stone in the educational process. It is often said that the school is a mirror of the society, and no school can be better than its teachers.[4]

Properly trained teachers, especially if there is an opportunity for them to increase their qualifications and to attain preferment through various forms of in-service training, constitute an important segment of the community.[5]

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1 Unesco, "Final Report of the Meeting of Experts on the Adaptation of the General Secondary School Curriculum in Africa", held in Tananarive, 2 - 13 July 1962, Paris, 1962, p.34.

2 Curle, Adam, Op. Cit., pp. 147 - 149.

3 Ibid.

4 See: Fafunwa, A.Babs, "New Perspectives in African Education", McMillan and Company (Nigeria) Ltd., Lagos, 1967, pp. 82 - 111.

5 Ibid.

In Libya, the problem of teacher supply is not only one of numbers, it is first and foremost a problem of quality: of getting a large enough quantity of the right quality.[1] There is a genuine desire on the part of the educational authorities to promote the quality of education by giving adequate attention to the training of teachers at different levels. But so far their efforts have been insufficient.[2] There is also a general trend towards raising the standard of people admitted to teacher training institutions and consequently to the teaching profession.[3]

Nevertheless, there continues to be a general dissatisfaction with the work of teachers and with the quality of educational attainment in general.[4] Educational attainment at the primary stage in particular is below the required standard and not commensurate with the money and effort spent on it.[5] This state of affairs is ascribed to a group of factors, the most important of which is the inadequate academic and professional standards of teachers.[6]

Higher learning institutions in their turn express their dissatisfaction with the standard of their entrants, and blame the

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1 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Teacher Training", Tripoli, 1968, pp. 1 - 3. (Unpublished).

2 Ibid.

3 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Primary Teacher Training", Op. Cit., pp. 4 - 6.

4 Prasad, Maya, "Current Supply of Educated Manpower : Trained School Teachers in Libya", Working Paper No.2, Tripoli, 1972, pp. 2 - 5 (Unpublished).

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

teaching in the lower stages.[1] The rector [2] of the university of Libya, in one of his recent comments states the following:-

> "One of the grave problems that Libyan education faces today, is the inadequate training of the national teacher particularly in the primary and preparatory stages. If we are to improve our education, we should first improve the quality of our teachers".[3]

One of the main difficulties the Libyan Ministry of Education faced in the early years of independence[4] was the lack of qualified Libyan teachers.[5] A Unesco report describes the situation in 1952 as follows:-

> "Dealing first with the most urgent problems, the authorities have done their best, with the means at their disposal, to provide the people of the three provinces with the educational opportunities that they desired, and to make up for time lost during the war years. Hence the twofold policy of bringing teachers from abroad and recruiting as many Libyan teachers as possible. In recruiting foreign teachers, budgetary difficulties were soon encountered; as for the recruitment of Libyans, this policy - although essential at the beginning - was bound in the long run to have serious disadvantages. The standard of teaching declined as the number of inexperienced teachers increased, and the latter having no great professional ability, were ill-paid and worked without enthusiasm or hope".[6]

The deficiency in the number of qualified teachers increased as a result of the opening of new schools and classes to meet the

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1 Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", Working Paper No.1, Tripoli, 1971, pp. 13 - 18 (Unpublished).

2 He is called 'President' in the Libyan System.

3 Shibani, O.Tumi, "The Objectives of Teacher Training in Libya", Tripoli, 1970, p.1. (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

4 See: Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", pp. 10 - 18. See also: Farley, Rawle, Op. Cit., pp. 76 - 91.

5 Ibid.

6 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.31.

increasing demands of the people for education.[1] Thousands of pupils who were - during the Italian colonial rule - deprived of the right to education, flocked to the newly-opened schools.[2] In a situation such as this where hundreds of teachers were required, no nation could be expected to develop an ideal solution, and Libya was certainly no exception.

Libya, since independence, has consistently followed a policy of expansion in the field of education, both in educational facilities provided in Libya itself and in the training of Libyan students abroad.[3] The Ministry of Education established teacher training institutes both for men and women, just as quickly as was financially possible, and tried to produce as many full-trained teachers as possible.[4]

Despite these efforts, the number of teachers produced each year was far from sufficient and the Ministry found it imperative to employ expatriate teachers, and was also forced to recruit a considerable number of uncertificated[5] Libyan teachers.[6] In 1960 the report of the International Bank describes the situation as follows:-

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1 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.31.

2 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Teacher Training in Libya", Document No.7, Tripoli, 1966, pp. 3 - 6.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 The uncertificated teacher is one who holds no teaching diploma and has not received the required training which qualifies him for the profession.

6 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Qualifications of Libyan Teachers in the Primary Stage", Tripoli, 1970, pp. 1 - 6, (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

> "The supply of suitable teachers is likely to be the principal factor limiting the expansion of the school system at all levels, and while a large proportion of secondary school teachers must continue to be recruited abroad for the time being, the highest priority should be given to expanding the facilities for the training of Libyan teachers".[1]

Individuals who held the preparatory, secondary, and to some extent the primary school certificate, were recruited as untrained teachers.[2] These teachers were originally appointed on a temporary basis to meet the "emergencies",[3] but as time went on, the Ministry became so dependent on such teachers that any attempt to do without them will certainly create an acute problem which will affect the whole educational system. The Ministry of Education realizes this fact and therefore, while keeping most of them, provides the necessary facilities and encourages them to try to get the required diplomas and training as soon as possible.[4] Unfortunately, up to 1970, the Ministry's efforts have been met with limited - though appreciable - success insofar as primary school teachers are concerned.[5]

Pre-Service Training.

Realizing the urgent needs for qualified teachers, the Ministry of Education made special efforts to establish a considerable number of teacher training institutes throughout the country both

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1 IBRD., Op. Cit., p.254.

2 Vietmeyer, W.F., "The Training of Untrained Teachers", Tripoli, 1968, (Unpublished), pp. 1 - 3.

3 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Qualifications of Libyan Teachers in the Primary Stage", pp. 1 - 6. (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

4 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Teacher Training in Libya", Document No.7, pp. 3 - 6.

5 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education,"Qualifications of Libyan Teachers in the Primary Stage", pp. 1 - 6. (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

for men and women. The first of these attempts was initiated as early as 1950 [1] when the nucleus of a teacher training institute was established in "Sidi al-Misri", Tripoli, by the British Military authorities,[2] and then was enlarged and developed by the Libyan authorities when the responsibility of ruling the country was handed over to them.[3] The main purpose of this institute was to produce qualified and fully-trained teachers for the primary stage.[4]

Unesco's Report describes this institute during its early days:-

> "At this centre, installed in some former Italian barracks, there are 168 trainees, 122 of whom are boarders; and 250 trainees could easily be accommodated in the buildings at present available. With other buildings which could be repaired at relatively low cost, it is estimated that the centre could take in as many as 400 students. The buildings are spacious and the boarding-house very well run. The teaching staff consists of a Palestinian director, appointed on 1 October 1951, and 15 teachers, 10 of them Palestinians and 5 Libyans. All the Palestinian teachers are very comfortably housed at the centre; they all have university degrees and are experienced teachers". [5]

This institute has since then undergone several changes both in the length of its course and the programme of studies.[6] Its

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1 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.22.

2 Ibid.

3 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Primary Teacher Training", Op. Cit., pp. 4 - 6.

4 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", pp. 22 - 23.

5 Ibid. p.22.

6 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Notes on Libyan Primary Teacher Training", Tripoli, 1969, pp. 1 - 4 (Unpublished).

course was originally two years in length and was extended to three years in 1952 and to four years in 1957.[1] The admission requirement was initially the primary school certificate or its equivalent, in addition to physical fitness.[2] But the educational authorities have made several changes, which affected both the admission requirements and the length of course.[3]

There are now several institutes of this type spread all over the country.[4] But despite these efforts by the Libyan educational authorities, neither the number nor the quality of teachers required for the primary schools is as yet adequate.[5] As regards the latter point, the report of the International Bank states:-[6]

> "The number of teachers graduating from the existing colleges appears to be adequate to meet the needs of the primary schools, but standards of training leave much to be desired. Six years of primary school is clearly not an adequate preparation for admission to a teacher's training college, and however necessary it may have been initially to set the admission requirements so low, it is essential that they should be raised as rapidly as circumstances permit".[7]

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Development of Programmes and length of study in various stages of the Libyan Schools", Documentation Centre, Tripoli, 1972, p.1.(in Arabic) (Unpublished).

2 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education , "Organization of Education in Libya", pp. 39 - 45 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

3 Ibid., (see p.256).

4 Prasad, Maya, "Current Supply of Educated Manpower : Trained School Teachers in Libya", Working Paper No.2., pp. 2 - 4.

5 Ibid.

6 This report describes the situation of teacher supply in Libya in 1960. There were miscalculations in its estimation of teacher supply which were probably due to wrong information and misleading statistics from unreliable sources. However, its criticism in regard to the quality of teachers was valid and strangely enough - it is still valid. The situation has changed radically since then as a result of the rapid expansion in the number of schools and pupils.

7 IBRD., Op. Cit., p.259.

This report gives a general idea of the standard of teachers on whom Libya has largely depended for educating its young generation. The standard is obviously low and the training is far from being adequate. In 1964 (4 years after the IBRD., report had been published), Unesco's Mission writes:-

> "All statistical data supplied to the Mission prior to its arrival in Libya indicated that there was such a serious shortage of teachers that it was necessary for the Ministry to employ large numbers of expatriate teachers. It was, therefore, most surprising to find in the schools that teachers, particularly at the senior levels, were given extremely light programmes ... The Mission considers that the staffing situation is most unsatisfactory and should be remedied as soon as possible".[1]

However, the educational authorities in an effort to raise the standard, have since 1958,[2] changed their policy with regard to the training of primary school teachers.[3] The course was shortened to two years instead of four, and the admission requirement was raised to the preparatory school certificate instead of primary school certificate.[4]

At present, the training of teachers is carried out at several teachers' training institutes and university faculties which prepare primary, preparatory and secondary school teachers

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1 Unesco: "Educational Planning Mission : Libya", (Confidential), pp. 27 - 29.

2 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Development of Programmes and Length of Study in Various Stages of the Libyan Schools", p.1. (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

by means of courses of various lengths in which general education is combined with professional training.[1] There are now three major sources for the supply of teachers for various levels, which are as follows:-[2]

a) The General Teachers' Training Institutes.

b) The Special Teachers' Training Institutes.

c) The University of Libya.

a) <u>The General Teachers' Training Institutes</u>:- These institutes are known as the "general course", and recruit students from among those who have completed their preparatory education.[3] They offer a two-year course leading to the general teaching diploma.[4] Graduates from this type of institute are prepared to be class teachers, and are normally appointed to primary schools.[5]

Most of the teaching staff at the primary teachers' training institutes are expatriates.[6] Figures show that these institutes are generously staffed as regards teacher student ratio.[7] The majority of the staff are from various Arab states, particularly Egypt, who are recruited on a yearly contract basis.[8] The number of Libyan staff is small, but it is growing steadily year by year.[9]

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Report of the Libyan Delegation Concerning the Training of Teachers in the Libyan Arab Republic", Submitted to the Conference on the Training of Teachers in the Arab States, held in Cairo,1972 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

2 Ibid.

3 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "The Training of Teachers for the Primary Stage", Tripoli,1971,pp. 1 - 7 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

4 Ibid

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

7 See:Vietmeyer, W.F.,"Some of the Problems of Libyan Primary Education with Emphasis on Teacher Training Courses Conducted in the Last Few Years",Tripoli,1969,pp. 6 - 8 (Unpublished)

8 Ibid.

9 Ibid.

Pre-service training of primary school teachers now takes place at the following institutes:-[1]

1. Tripoli, two institutes (one for men and one for women).
2. Zawia, one institute (for men).
3. Garian, one institute (for men).
4. Homs, one institute (for men).
5. Misrata, one institute (for men).
6. Benghazi, two institutes (one for men and one for women).
7. Beida, one institute (for women).
8. Derna, one institute (for women).
9. Sebha/Obari, one institute (for men).

These are the main institutes [2] which are in charge of supplying the teachers for primary schools, but because of the rapidly growing number of pupils, the number of primary school teachers produced every year is still insufficient.[3] It is still, and will continue for some years, to be necessary to rely on uncertificated teachers. In connection with this matter, W.F. Vietmeyer writes:-[4]

> "In developing countries, wherever they may be situated, the pre-service training of primary teachers forms a basic difficulty because the education system leading to the production of trainees, has not functioned for long enough to produce such trainees in sufficient numbers, and until the system has been organized and planned to do so, the Ministry has probably to: (a) hire teachers from elsewhere, or (b) make do with "untrained" teachers. In most cases, it is the latter situation which has to be chosen because most countries of the world are short of good primary teachers for their own schools and so cannot permit them to be sent to other countries".[5]

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1 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Statistics for Secondary and Professional Schools", Statistical Bulletin No.3m 1969/70, pp. 29 - 63 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

2 They were divided here according to educational zones.

3 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Statistics for primary schools", Statistical Bulletin No.1, 1969/70 (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

4 Although he writes a general comment applicable to most developing countries, he refers here specifically to Libya.

5 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Problems of Libyan Primary Education",p.8.

Many developing countries suffer from the problem of unqualified teachers at the primary stage. F. Harbison and C. Myers comment:-

> "The poor quality of primary education is even more striking than its meagre quantity. Many of the schools are operated by "voluntary agencies" or missionary organizations, and the variations in curricula and standards are wide. In most of these countries,[1] the bulk of the primary school teachers are 'unqualified', which means that they have had practically no training as teachers and perhaps little more than six or seven years of primary schooling themselves. Primary school teachers who have completed secondary school education or its equivalent are rare".[2]

b) <u>The Special Teachers' Training Institutes</u>:- These institutes are known as "special course", and offer a four-year course leading to the special teaching certificate.[3] Graduates from this type of institute are appointed as preparatory school teachers.[4] Students are trained to be subject specialists and follow a common programme in their first year of study.[5] As from the second year, students are required to specialize in one of the following:-[6]

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1 Refers to underdeveloped countries; to use their own term (first level countries).

2 Harbisons F., and Myers,C., "Education, Manpower and Economic Growth", McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1964, p.54.

3 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", pp. 39 - 45 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

a. Arabic Language and Religion.

b. Science and Mathematics.

c. English Language and Social Studies.

d. Arts and Crafts.

e. Physical Education.

Since it is planned to abolish the general type of institute in the near future,[1] the Ministry of Education focusses its attention upon the special type of institute as a major source for the supply of qualified teachers in the future.[2]

However, it will be unrealistic to implement these plans in the near future, as the present demand for teachers, particularly at the primary stage, is immense.[3] But in the long run, the policy of abolishing the general type of institute to be replaced with the special type, is certainly wise and sound for it would be a step towards improving the quality of both the teachers and the pupils. The standard of primary school teachers is, currently, low,[4] but the immediate task is clearly that of replacing the uncertificated teachers, who at present constitute 40%[5] of the total, by teachers who have at least some qualifications for the profession. This is one of the major objectives of the Ministry

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Teacher Training in Libya", Document No.7, pp. 3 - 7.

2 Ibid.

3 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "The Present basis and Future Plans for the Training of Primary School Teachers in Libya", Tripoli, 1971, pp. 3 - 25 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

4 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Qualifications of Libyan Teachers in the Primary Stage", pp. 1 - 6 (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

5 According to the Ministry of Education (Department of Statistics) there was a total of 11,559 Libyan teachers at the primary stage in the school year 1970/71, of whom 4,363 were unqualified, (see Table 57).

of Education, but there is no prospect of its being achieved in the near future.[1] W.F. Vietmeyer writes:-

> "The 'untrained' teaching plans have shown considerable success, although I do not think them a means of really solving Libya's increasing problems. They do help to keep the system partly functioning, but not very successfully. The great weakness is that there is still no structure for the training and re-training of all teachers by means of in-service courses taking place all the year and in all subjects ..... Teacher training has made tremendous strides, particularly over the last two and a half years, for primary directors, inspectors and 'untrained' primary teachers, but the major job of a continuous type of training for all primary teachers has not yet been reached, and it is an absolute priority for advancement in the whole educational set-up."[2]

c) <u>The University of Libya</u>:- The main faculties in the University of Libya are entrusted with the task of producing secondary school teachers namely, the Faculty of Education in Tripoli and the Faculty of Arts in Benghazi.[3] Graduates from the latter faculty are not trained professionally to be teachers, though, in fact, most of them become government teachers.[4] Many of them lack interest and enthusiasm for the profession and prefer to engage in other professions

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1 Vietmeyer W.F. "Primary Teacher Training" pp. 1-11

2 Ibid., p.5.

3 See: "The Report of the Libyan Delegate Concerning the Training of Teachers in the Libyan Arab Republic" submitted to the Conference on the Training of Teachers in the Arab States, (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

4 This is based on the number of annual University graduates who are recruited as teachers.

which offer better salaries and prospects.[1] In regard to this matter, the IBRD, in its report of 1960 comments:-

> "The recruitment and training of teachers for preparatory and secondary schools is one of the most difficult problems Libya has to face. If an extra 11,000 pupils are to be enrolled over the next five years, at least another 400 teachers will be required, or an increase of 80 a year. This is more than the total numbers that will be graduating from the Libyan University during this period, and only a proportion of the University graduates will want to become teachers, though every encouragement should be given to them to do so. There is yet no other institution in the country capable of turning out properly qualified teachers for schools at the preparatory and secondary levels."[2]

The Faculty of Arts had by the academic year 1969/70 turned out a total of 948 graduates of whom 71 were women.[3] Although most of them were originally appointed as teachers, a considerable proportion of them have already left the profession and obtained posts under the government.[4] As yet, there is no obligation to teach, and they are

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1 Although there are no available statistics of the number who do actually leave the profession, the official sources in the Ministry of Education confirm the fact that a considerable number of University graduates who were originally recruited as teachers did leave, or planning to leave ,the teaching profession.

2 IBRD., p. 264.

3 University of Libya, Faculty of Arts "Faculty Graduates" Benghazi, 1970/71 (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

4 This view is based on information obtained from official sources in the Ministry of Education (by personal interview).

free to leave the profession whenever they desire.[1] This is a difficult problem which neither the Ministry of Education nor the University has as yet dealt with adequately. On the one hand, the University should give proper training to the students of the Faculty of Arts so that they become professionally capable and the Ministry of Education, on the other hand, should work out a system by which teachers should have some obligation to remain in the profession.[2]

At present, the Faculty of Education is the only higher institute which is designed to prepare professional and fully-trained teachers for secondary and preparatory schools, but it also needs further improvement and development.[3]

In the academic year 1969/70 it turned out 95 graduates of whom 22 were women.[4] Obviously, the number of graduates is still too small, but it is increasing steadily. Both the Ministry and the University should give every encouragement to this Faculty so that it can function

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1 There is, as yet, no statement either in the University statute, or in the Ministry of Education Regulations which stipulates that teaching is compulsory for the concerned University graduates.

2 Since the Libyan Revolution of 1969, there were serious attempts to solve this problem. Attempts are being made to establish another faculty of Education in Benghazi by the beginning of the academic year 1973/4. Also, the whole situation concerning teacher supply in Libya is being reassessed and special attention is given to the problem of those who leave the teaching profession.

3 There is need for radical change in the whole programme and system of training.

4 University of Libya "University Graduates 1958-70" Benghazi 1971, pp. 93-96, (in Arabic) (Unpublished).

properly. At the moment the low salaries of teachers does not encourage students to train for the profession.[1]

In-Service Training

In-service courses usually have the basic aim of making teachers more efficient in the classroom and so, much of the work is concerned with methods of teaching and ways of dealing with and understanding pupils.

In-service training in Libya involves two main groups namely, the unqualified[2] teachers and the fully-qualified[3] teachers. The Ministry of Education is most concerned with the training of the former type of teachers who constitute approximately half the total number of the teachers at the primary stage.[4] (see Table 56).

Although the number of unqualified teachers is gradually decreasing,[5] thanks to the efforts exerted by the Ministry of Education in the last few years, the situation is, nevertheless, still unsatisfactory. The low quality of the teachers impairs the efficiency of the whole educational system.[6] This situation has been strongly criticised by

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1 There was an attempt in 1968 to raise the salaries of university graduates engaged in teaching, but for unknown reasons, the attempt was unsuccessful.

2 "Unqualified" and "uncertificated" will be used as synonymous terms here.

3 "Qualified" refers to those teachers who hold a teaching diploma and have received the required training which qualify them as teachers.

4 According to the statistics of 1969/70 there was a total of 11,122 teachers (all nationalities) of whom 5617, were uncertificated.

5 See (Table 57).

6 Vietmeyer W.F. "Teacher Training in Primary Schools : Pre-Service Training" Tripoli, 1968, pp. 1-5 (Unpublished)

TABLE 56.

Number of Teachers and Their Qualifications in Different Levels of the Libyan Public Schools, 1969/70.

LEVELS.	University Degree			Teacher's Training Dip.(General & Special)			Uncertificated Teachers.			Grand Total.
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
PRIMARY SCHOOLS	35	49	84	4,356	1,065	5,421	4,252	1,365	5,617	11,122
PREPARATORY SCHOOLS	497	117	614	1,406	78	1,484	281	68	349	2,447
SECONDARY SCHOOLS	560	38	598	89	44	133	91	11	102	833
TEACHERS' TRAINING INSTITUTES	361	69	430	49	40	89	23	14	37	556
VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS	99	1	100	10	-	10	110	-	110	220

Source: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Statistical Bulletin No.3, 1969/70", Tripoli, 1970.

TABLE 57

Number of Teachers and Their Qualifications in Different Levels of the Libyan Public Schools, 1970/71

Qualifications	NUMBER OF TEACHERS.				
	Primary	Preparatory	Secondary	Teachers' Training Institutes.	Technical and Vocational Schools
University Degree	296	1154	874	463	184
Special Teachers' Training Diploma	1417	1493	-	-	-
General Teachers' Training Diploma	5454	-	-	-	-
Other Qualifications	631	-	-	-	29
Uncertificated Teachers	4363	-	-	-	-
Number of Libyan Teachers	11559	1641	213	99	71
Teachers of Other Nationalities	1602	1006	661	364	260
Total Number of Teachers	13161	2647	874	463	331
Total Number of Pupils	348371	37047	8260	5377	3088
Teacher/Student Ratio	29	14	9.5	12	9

Source: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Statistical Bulletin No.3, 1970/71", Tripoli, 1971.

TABLE 20

Number of General and Special Teachers' Training Institutes, students, classes and Teaching Staff in Libya, 1969/70.

Educational Zone	Number of Institutes (General and special).			Number of Students (General and special)	Number of Classes (General and special)	Total Number of Teaching Staff.
	MALE	FEMALE	Total.			
Tripoli	2	1	3	2011	64	197
Zawia	1	1	2	847	29	99
Garian	1	-	1	436	18	43
Homs	1	-	1	218	11	27
Misrata	1	-	1	117	7	18
Benghazi	1	1	2	611	22	80
Beida	-	1	1	125	7	35
Derna	-	1	1	28	1	13
Sebha/Obari	3	1	4	332	17	44
Grand Total	10	6	16	4725	176	556

Source: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Statistical Bulletin No.3, 1969/70", Tripoli, 1970.

W. Vietmeyer who writes:-[1]

> "On figures supplied by the statistics section of the Ministry of Education, it appears evident that about half of our teachers in primary schools are untrained ... This is a frightening situation, but it is one which just has to be faced, because of the urgent need and the lack of trained personnel. No one is to blame for this situation, because it is the result of Libya's history, her independence, and the feelings of urgency about education felt by most Libyan people. The Libyan government has done its best to deal practically with a very difficult situation".[2]

This situation is true not only of Libya, but many developing countries seem to suffer from the problem caused by the dearth of trained teachers particularly in the primary stage. L.J. Lewis makes the following comment:-

> "Whatever the financial resources that may be available, an education system cannot function without men and women to serve as teachers in the schools and colleges and in the administration of the system. The new countries are severely handicapped in this respect. In few of them are more than fifty per cent of the primary school teachers trained, and of those who are trained few have received more than two years professional training after six to ten years of general education".[3]

Although this comment was written almost a decade ago, it is still true of many developing countries, and Libya is no exception. One of the causes of this state of affairs seems to be the rapid expansion in the educational system itself which brings about several problems particularly in the supply of teachers, textbooks and equipment.[4] Libya is not a unique example in these matters, as many African countries suffer from the same problems.

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1 In 1968.

2 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Teacher Training in Primary Schools: Pre-Service Training", p.2.

3 Lewis, L.J., "Education in the New Countries", Published by the Liberal Publication Department, London, 1964, p.12.

4 Curle, Adam, Op. Cit., pp. 81 - 93.

"The second problem of rapid expansion is how to maintain the supply of adequate teachers. If at an earlier date the great majority of teachers in the underdeveloped countries had been highly trained, the whole proposition would have been easier. But at least half of them, certainly in Africa, had no more training themselves than a primary education, supplemented, if they were lucky, by an occasional short course. This is not the sort of teacher force which it is easy to expand efficiently". [1]

The training of unqualified teachers in Libya is, at present, carried out through summer courses which are arranged by the Ministry of Education.[2] The Ministry is planning to give every possible opportunity to the unqualified teachers to qualify themselves and gain their teaching diplomas as soon as possible.[3] It is envisaged that possibly by the end of the school year 1975/76, the unqualified teachers should no longer be allowed to continue teaching.[4]

It is worth noting here that a considerable number of the unqualified teachers are among the best experienced and best primary school teachers, and that their failure to acquire the necessary qualifications is largely due to family and other obligations which prevent their attending courses and therefore from gaining the required diplomas.[5] Once these obstacles and commitments are

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1 Curle, Adam, Op. Cit., p.86.

2 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the problems of Libyan Primary Education with Emphasis on Teacher Training Courses Conducted in the Last Few Years", pp. 9 - 11.

3 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Report on the Policy and Objectives of Teacher Training in the Libyan Arab Republic", Tripoli, 1972, pp. 1 - 20 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

4 Ibid.

5 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Annual Report", Tripoli, 1968, pp. 6 - 14 (Unpublished).

overcome, there is every reason to believe that they would prove capable of gaining the required qualifications.[1]

> "In many underdeveloped countries there are, in fact, considerable numbers of keen and intelligent teachers who have never had the opportunity of obtaining higher qualifications. Many of these have kept to their studies as far as possible by correspondence courses and would, after a year's training, be excellent teachers in all but the top levels of secondary schools. To prepare them effectively for this would probably involve establishing special training centres, including some attached to the universities. Attendance at these courses should count towards obtaining a degree: this would be a powerful incentive to people both to remain in the profession and to keep up their studies".[2]

Training courses in Libya for the unqualified teachers are, at present, organised in the main cities where village teachers and those who live in the remote rural areas find it difficult to attend these courses even when attendance is compulsory.[3] The Ministry of Education is planning to set up as many training courses as possible to cover the rural as well as the urban areas so that the problem of inconvenience caused by long distances is reasonably solved.[4]

In 1968,[5] the Ministry of Education developed a scheme which, had it continued, could have been an ideal way for the training of

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1 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Annual Report", Tripoli, pp. 6 - 14. (Unpublished).

2 Curle, Adam, Op. Cit., pp. 148 - 149.

3 See: Prasad, Maya, "Current Supply of Educated Manpower: Trained School Teachers in Libya", Working Paper No.2, pp. 1 - 8.

4 Ibid.

5 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Problems of Libyan Primary Education with Emphasis on Teacher Training", p.10.

unqualified teachers. The course began in January and ended in June 1968,[1] and at the end of six months training, examinations were held for all the participants. Although opportunities were limited for unqualified teachers to attend this type of course, enrolments were large and encouraging.[2]

About 2,108 unqualified men and women teachers attended.[3] The training covered both general and special courses.[4] The results were quite satisfactory and should have encouraged the Ministry to continue such courses. There were 478 teachers who obtained their general teaching diplomas, and 212 got their special teaching diplomas, making a total of 690 qualified teachers in both sections.[5]

For unknown reasons, this experiment was unfortunately discontinued in the subsequent years, and training was again restricted to the short summer courses. These courses are, however, too short and do not give adequate training for the unqualified teachers.

The basic remedy for certificating and giving the professional training for unqualified teachers is to encourage them to attend courses organized by the Ministry of Education, and at the same time make it clear to them that, should they fail to get the required qualifications within a certain period, their services will be terminated.[6]

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1 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Problems of Libyan Primary Education with Emphasis on Teacher Training". , p.10.

2 Ibid., pp. 10 - 12.

3 Ibid., p.10.

4 Ibid., pp. 10 - 12.

5 Ibid., p.10.

6 Ibid., pp. 10 - 12.

W.F. Vietmeyer makes the following suggestion in regard to the problem of unqualified teachers. He says:-

> "The basic cure for "untrained" teachers is not to be in the position of having to employ them. The Ministry must therefore plan to produce sufficient graduate students from institutes each year to replace losses and supply teachers for the annual new intake of pupils. This is being done to the utmost of the Ministry's ability, but the problem of untrained teachers will remain for several more years".[1]

Apart from summer courses, a feasible plan for the training of unqualified teachers is to send them back to teachers' training institutes. This might sound impracticable, but by careful arrangement it would be possible for the vast majority of these teachers to attend a teachers' training institute course without, at the same time, disturbing their actual work in the classroom.[2] If they are assigned for afternoon work in their respective schools, which is the case with most unqualified teachers throughout the country, they could attend the course in the morning or vice versa.[3] As long as there is genuine interest, and real intention, difficulties can be overcome, and there is every possibility of making the necessary arrangements.

There remains, however, the problem of those teachers who live far away in the interior and rural areas and have no teachers' training institutes in their areas. For this group, special arrangements would be necessary.[4] For those who are able to attend the course, they

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1 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Problems of Libyan Primary Education with Emphasis on Teacher Training", p.11.

2 This could be arranged in consultation with the various concerned departments in the Ministry of Education.

3 For those who cannot attend morning courses, special arrangements for them could be made so that they could attend evening courses.

4 Teachers in the remote and rural areas are not usually easily induced to attend training courses even for their own benefit, unless ample facilities such as transportation, lodging, and the like are provided, which may encourage them to attend the required courses.

should be encouraged, and as soon as a reasonable standard is reached, the trainee should be examined and, if successful, should be awarded the teaching diploma.

In-service training is also vital for qualified teachers who require the stimulus of new ideas in order to keep them up-to-date with the changes continually taking place in the field of education.[1] Most effort exerted by the Ministry of Education has been so far restricted to the training of unqualified teachers.[2] But qualified teachers too need the opportunity of attending courses to help them develop their professional skills and techniques and to become more efficient in handling classroom problems.

At the present time, there are only a few summer courses which are organized occasionally for the benefit of a selected number of qualified teachers.[3] These courses are insufficient and affect only a small number among the qualified teachers.[4]

However, qualified teachers have the opportunity of discussing their school problems with their directors, colleagues and inspectors who constantly offer advice and guidance to teachers. But this, although helpful, is certainly not enough, for teachers always need to broaden their outlook and know about new theories, discoveries, methodology and other aspects of education which affect the proficiency of their teaching. Many developing countries seem to suffer

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Report on the Policy and Objectives of Teacher Training in the Libyan Arab Republic", pp. 1 - 20 (in Arabic)(Unpublished.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Many participants fail to attend these courses or tend to leave at the middle of the course. This is primarily due to lack of strictness on the part of the educational authorities on the one hand, and lack of interest on the part of the trainees on the other hand.

from inadequate in-service training courses and thus insufficient supply of qualified teachers. L.J. Lewis comments:-

> "... In different countries, in-service courses, sandwich courses, correspondence courses, courses based on radio and television, and combinations of these approaches are being explored. Nowhere, however, has there been a systematic, comprehensive and integrated attempt to solve the problem of the supply and training of teachers".[1]

Well-organized summer courses can be a useful way of adding to the knowledge of teachers who have had some basic training and experience.[2] It is very important to have good and experienced lecturers to these courses, but it is equally important to have a group of participants who themselves can take an active part in the discussions.[3] This means that the numbers should be carefully arranged so that the participants can be broken up into small discussion groups with a competent leader for each. In this type of course, discussions should always be emphasized and encouraged and the participants themselves should take an active part in them - lecturing without discussion is inappropriate to this type of course.

The in-service training courses should concentrate on improving teaching and encouraging teachers to change from the lecture approach to more active methods; to relating classroom work to life around, to improving teaching materials; to evoking a sense of professionalism and idealism in the teachers and to providing the schools with advice and technical assistance.

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1 Lewis, L.J., "Getting Good Teachers for Developing Countries", International Review of Education, Volume XVI, No.4, 1970, pp. 397 - 398.

2 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some Aspects of Teacher Training", (A Memorandum submitted to the Ministry of Education) Tripoli 1969, pp. 1 - 3.

3 Ibid.

Salaries and Promotions.

The Libyan teachers are treated on the same basis as other government employees as far as salaries are concerned.[1] Teachers' salaries are generally linked to degrees, diplomas and length of experience.[2] Teachers as well as other civil servants, with the exception of those engaged in judicial, defense and diplomatic affairs,[3] are paid according to a uniform national salary scale. The basic initial salary of holders of equivalent educational qualifications is uniform.[4] Men and women teachers of equal qualifications enjoy equal conditions of service. Uncertificated teachers are paid on the basis of personal contracts which vary from one individual to another according to experience and qualifications.[5]

Differences in salaries between the various grades within the profession are mainly dependent on the kind of certificate the teacher holds as well as the length of service.[6] It is not unusual therefore to find teachers doing the same work in the same school, who are paid different salaries.

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964" (in Arabic)., pp. 57 - 162.

2 Ibid., p.74.

3 Ibid., p.62.

4 Ibid., p.74.

5. The Ministry of Education is entrusted with full authority to deal with these temporary appointments to meet the "emergencies".

6 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964", pp. 57 - 162.

Promotion from one grade to another is made on the basis of proficiency and length of service as well as on character as estimated by annual reports.[1] Like other state officials, teachers are supposed to be promoted at two-year intervals for the fifth grade and at three-year intervals for the fourth and sixth grades.[2] Such promotions are conditional upon the existence of vacancies in the state cadre.[3] Promotion is made by recommendation of a special promotion committee appointed by the Minister of Education. This Committee is usually composed of chief heads of various departments with the under-secretary for technical affairs as its chairman.[4]

The length of time that has elapsed since the last promotion and length of service and qualifications seem to be the main factors considered by the Committee.[5] Quality of work may serve as a negative rather than a positive factor in determining promotions.[6] This is mainly because promotions are largely dependent on annual personal reports in addition to experience and length of service. A person can even be demoted or dismissed as a result of a bad

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964", pp.57 - 162.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 The organization of the committee or committees is left entirely to the Minister of Education who decides about the arrangement of these matters in consultation with the Prime Minister and the Minister of Civil Affairs.

5 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964", pp. 57 - 162.

6 This is the common practice at present.

annual personal report. In general, it all depends on the accurate assessment of the work of teachers by principals, inspectors and heads of various departments who handle these matters. However, poor work and unsatisfactory behaviour may retard promotion, but a teacher of outstanding ability is rarely given preference over a teacher of commonplace ability but more years of service.[1]

Opportunities for promotion among teachers are so limited that the Ministry of Education cannot keep pace with other ministries and governmental departments. Thus, after a few years of service, a teacher finds himself quickly surpassed by another civil servant in another ministry or governmental department, though they may hold the same educational qualifications and have served the state for similar periods.[2]

Slow promotions affect not only teachers' salaries, but also their pensions. Although the same Pension's Law is applied to all civil servants, the teachers are at a disadvantage because pension scales are based on the last salary received by employees directly before retirement,[3] and since teachers' promotions are slow, they

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1 This view is based on the present system of promotions adopted by the Ministry of Education.

2 This state of affairs is common in most governmental departments of various Ministries in Libya. Although the salary scales are the same for all civil servants, promotion systems, however, tend to put teachers at a disadvantage because the Ministry of Education applies a rigid system of promotion. It gives very few chances for teachers' promotions each year, whereas other Ministries and governmental departments give ample facilities and a chance, insofar as promotion opportunities are concerned. It is therefore suggested that salary structure should be planned so as not to give rise to injustices or anomalies which tend to put teachers at a disadvantage.

3 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964", pp. 165 - 234.

usually end their services with a lower salary. Their pensions, therefore, have come to be much lower than those of other civil servants. This situation is further aggravated by the fact that no teacher is allowed to undertake any outside work,[1] whereas other civil servants have ample opportunities to do so.[2] However, teachers get a special teaching allowance equal to 20% of the basic salary which is given throughout the academic year while teachers are actually at work.[3]

This state of affairs makes it difficult for the Ministry of Education to attract able people to the profession. It is argued that a good teacher should never expect to receive remuneration commensurate with his work, for the results of his work are immeasurable.[4] But on the other hand, money is, undoubtedly, a stimulus to the recruitment of teachers and a satisfaction to existing ones. A little appreciation from the authorities is a great incentive to further effort.[5] A genuine profession cannot be easily created by an under-privileged, low-status body of men and women.[6]

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Civil Service, "Civil Service Law of 1964", pp. 57 - 162.

2 Although all government officials are forbidden by law to do outside work, this seems to be applied to teachers only, for there are many cases where many government employees such as engineers and physicians who have ample opportunities for outside work.

3 Regulations stipulate that the allowance should not be given during long vacations such as the summer vacation. When time spent and effort exerted are considered, this allowance is not commensurate with the actual work done.

4 See: Coombs, Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 34 - 45.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

> "Any government which desires to promote development should therefore select, train, pay, and provide for the further education of its teachers more lavishly and efficiently than is the rule".[1]

The teachers' morale is affected by good salaries.

> "The future quality of the teacher corps in every country will be decisevely influenced by what happens to teacher salaries relative to other salaries".[2]

Teachers' salaries in all countries, particularly developing ones, is an important issue which deserves consideration from the relevant educational authorities, and for the sake of the future citizens, attention should be given to it in the very near future.[3]

Philip H. Coombs comments:-

> "But if the rise in teacher salaries continues to lag behind other salaries, education will continue to get the poorest pickings of the available manpower supply. Timing is of great importance. It is not enough for teachers' salaries to rise; they must also rise soon enough".[4]

Curricula and Textbooks.

It is highly desirable that the training institutes which prepare teachers should be closely associated with the process of

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1 Curle Adam, "Educational Strategy for Developing Societies", p.148.

2 Coombs Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", p.38.

3 Ibid., pp. 34 - 45.

4 Ibid., p.39.

primary and secondary school curriculum development in the country.[1] They should also be fully informed of present changes and probable trends in this field.[2] They have, of course, the task of preparing the would-be teachers to teach the curriculum of the day; but they must also attempt to give them the flexibility of mind to face the changes they will meet during their career.[3]

The curriculum introduced in various teachers' training institutes in Libya, including the University, is neither adapted to the needs of the would-be teachers, nor to the needs of the country as a whole.[4] Many developing countries suffer from the same dilemma. L.J. Lewis writes:-

> "The curriculum pursued in teacher education is largely the result of historical accident, an accumulation of bits and pieces of knowledge that at different times have been assumed to be of importance as part of the equipment of the teacher. The outcome up to the present has for the most part been unsatisfactory".[5]

The curriculum adopted by Libyan teachers' training institutes tends to be too academic and neglects the problems of method and classroom organization.[6] The subjects taught are themselves of little

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1 For curriculum planning in Teachers' Training Institutes and in primary and secondary stages, in the Arab States in general, see Unesco, "Meeting of Experts on General Secondary Education in the Arab States", held in Tunis (August 23 - September 1, 1962), Paris, 1962, pp. 1 - 46.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 When the new teachers are assigned to schools, they are expected to teach any subject that the school requires, regardless of the teachers' interest and field of specialization. It is, therefore, not uncommon that a teacher whose field of specialization is languages, would find himself obliged to teach social studies or vice versa. This is particularly true of graduates from both Special Teachers' Training Institutes and University Faculties.

5 Lewis, L.J., "Getting Good Teachers for Developing Countries", p.399.

6 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "A Study of Primary Teacher Training", Tripoli, 1969, pp. 2 - 3 (Unpublished).

relevance to the future needs of the prospective teachers who, as is the case in most Libyan schools, tend to memorize facts rather than understand them.[1] This tends to produce fact-grinders and examination crammers who swallow facts but do not digest them. Their main objective is merely to pass final examinations and get a degree or diploma which has become a symbol rather than a qualification. About this problem W.F. Vietmeyer makes the following criticism:-[2]

> "The curriculum too, tends to be old-fashioned and largely based on rote academic learning. There does not appear to be nearly enough thought and application of the principles of discovery and research. In a word, the approach is not modern. The whole education system including the teacher colleges is crippled by a rigid examination system with subsequent rigidity of curriculum. The non-examinable subjects must and do suffer under such a system, and there is great wastage owing to student failure and drop-out. Many subjects and areas essential to the development of an individual, are just not possible under such a system. Unfortunately, at the moment, with all the difficulties, nothing much seems possible to be done about this aspect".[3]

The curriculum of any school is a design for the education of a particular group of young persons which aims at providing for them a continuous and progressive course with definite objectives in view.[4] It should be based upon some well-established principles.[5] Of these, perhaps the most important is that the curriculum should serve the immediate educational needs of the particular students for whom it is designed.[6]

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1 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "A Study of Primary Teacher Training", Tripoli, 1969., pp. 2 - 3.

2 In 1969.

3 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Notes on Libyan Primary Teacher Training", p.2.

4 See: Tyler Ralph, W., "Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction", The University of Chicago Press, Chicago,1971, pp. 1 - 43.

5 Ibid.

These principles are almost totally neglected in the institutions where Libyan teachers are currently trained.[1] The immediate needs of the would-be teachers are not given any priority, and the teachers in the teachers' training institutes are required to follow closely the prescribed syllabuses and to use the prescribed textbooks.[2] There is little choice in the selection of the latter.

The text-books which are currently in use in all teachers' training institutes, with the exception of the university, are of the old-fashioned type,[3] and most of them are unsuitable to the needs of Libya, and particularly to the needs of the would-be teachers.[4] This is applicable to most text-books being used, but more specifically to Arabic and English Languages, history, geography and mathematics.[5] In history for example, prospective teachers study ancient and medieval history in detail, but modern and contemporary history are very briefly dealt with. This state of affairs is not applicable solely to history, but, unfortunately, most subjects suffer from the same disease, particularly in the fields of humanities and social sciences. For example, in Arabic and English languages the syllabus is old-fashioned in the sense that it tends to only cram the students' minds with facts. Prospective teachers memorize certain abstract facts in grammar and

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1 Refers to the situation in 1970.

2 This is common in all Libyan schools of various levels and objectives.

3 They still use outdated techniques which cannot keep pace with the new developments and rapid change of the twentieth century.

4 Libya needs a well-educated generation, but the teachers are not being prepared for the task properly, this will lead them, eventually, to failure in their careers.

5 Many of these books which were used in the early 1950's are

literature which were worthwhile centuries ago, but certainly unrelated and not particularly useful in dealing with young children in the present age.[1] They memorize these facts parrot-fashion and when they go into the profession and face classroom problems they find themselves in a dilemma simply because they cannot analyze and explain what they have memorized in their school days.[2] What is even worse is the fact that prospective teachers find that what they have studied in their school days has little or no relevance to what they actually teach after their graduation.

In short, most curriculum contents adopted by teachers' training institutes in Libya are not up-to-date, irrelevant to future problems and above all, they ignore the fact that we live in a time of rapid growth.

The branch of the Ministry of Education which is responsible for the provision of text-books, must build up a series of text-books more suitable to local needs;[3] these should be tested in the schools and amended in the light of experience.[4] Over two decades ago, a Unesco report writes the following comment in regard to textbooks used in Libyan schools. It states:-

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1 See: Anderson H., Hepkin J., and Plaskow M., (Ed)., "Education for the Seventies", Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., London, 1970., pp. 69 - 79.

2 A large proportion of the new teachers are faced with this problem.

3 See: Prasad Maya, "Current Supply of Educated Manpower: Trained School Teachers in Libya", Working Paper No.2, pp. 1 - 8.

4 Ibid.

> "The foreign textbooks now used, whatever their intrinsic merit, are not adapted to the country. It is essential, therefore, to prepare and publish, with the least possible delay, Libyan textbooks which use the best tested teaching methods and at the same time take into account actual conditions in the country".[1]

This was the situation about twenty years ago, but, ironically, it is still a valid criticism of present day curricula adopted by most Libyan schools and institutions.

In planning the curriculum for any school, there are certain elements which should be identified and carefully considered.[2] These elements usually serve as the threads that weave a more integrated curriculum.[3] The educational objectives aimed at are only attained when these matters are taken into consideration.[4] However, the curriculum applied in the Libyan teachers' training institutes is not based on an analysis of objectives, and teaches the would-be teachers facts which are of little use to future needs. This seems to be the situation in most Arab states. Unesco writes:-

> "The number of weekly lessons of teacher-training institutes in the different countries[5] vary from 35 to 38. This was one of the chief causes of dissatisfaction at the conference where it was felt that the number of lessons was far too high, that too many different subjects were being taught and that the curriculum in general involved too much theoretical study and too little practical training ... In order to ensure the improvement of the quality of teacher training, it was proposed that each country should establish a model college where experiments and research work could be undertaken and the experience gained be passed on to the other teacher-training colleges".[6]

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1 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.44.

2 See: Tyler Ralph W., Op. Cit., pp. 3 - 43.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Refers to the Arab States.

6 Unesco, "Compulsory Education in the Arab States", Paris, 1956, pp. 62 - 63.

Although this was the state of affairs approximately twenty years ago, but a most recent conference of the Arab Ministers of Education held in Kuwait in 1968, reiterated almost the same recommendations.[1] It stated:-

> "The curricula for teacher-training colleges adopted by most Arab States should undergo drastic changes in order to meet the national needs of the countries concerned, and to create a well-qualified teacher who has confidence in himself and is capable of producing sincere and good future citizens". [2]

The curriculum used by teacher-training institutes in Libya should be changed and modified in such a way as to meet the required needs. Provided that a student's short-range needs are never neglected, his educational experiences can well include much that will be of great value in preparing him for the fuller responsibilities which he will be required to assume later as a teacher and as a member of society.

Teaching Methods.

Methods of teaching are essentially the same in primary and preparatory stages of Libyan schools;[3] they differ slightly in the secondary stage.[4] In the main,methods are based on the initiative and activity of the teacher in the classroom.[5] Great stress is laid on the teacher's explanation in class by lecture and demonstration methods, and through questions and answers.[6] The teacher

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1 The Arab League, "The Third Conference of Ministers of Education in the Arab States", held in Kuwait (17 - 22 February, 1968). Cultural Department, 1968,(in Arabic).

2 Ibid., pp. 124 - 125.

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967", pp. 21 - 34 (in Arabic).

4 Ibid., pp. 35 - 39.

5 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Semi-Annual Report"(January 1969-June 1969), Tripoli. 1969 (Unpublished), pp. 7 - 25.

is the prime mover and few, if any, classroom activities are initiated by the children.[1] Little emphasis is laid on student activity.[2] They therefore learn mostly by rote rather than by understanding and come to rely on the teacher for clarifying the subject. Their main duty is to learn what has been explained and be ready to recite it back when required. Students often write summaries down in their notebooks,[3] but they do not, as a rule, acquire a habit of self-reliance and self-instruction.

The prevailing practice is that textbooks and readers are largely the tools of teaching. Textbooks are chosen and provided by the Ministry of Education, and are uniform for all public schools.[4] Students as well as teachers rely entirely on the textbook which is followed closely, lesson by lesson and chapter by chapter.[5] Reading outside the textbook is rarely done, and most teachers tend to assign no reference work.[6] It is the rare teacher who tries to stimulate students' interest in reading outside magazines, periodical newspapers or books. Reliance solely on a textbook, particularly in an age of rapid change, is certainly insufficient.[7] Philip Coombs makes this point:-

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1 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Semi-Annual Report", (January 1969 - June 1969), Tripoli, 1969 (Unpublished). , pp. 7 - 25.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Teacher Training in Libya", Document No.7, pp. 3 - 7.

5 The Regulations require so.

6 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Semi-Annual Report", pp. 7 - 25.

7 See: Coombs Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 104 - 110.

> "In an age when the quantity of human knowledge is doubling every decade, the textbook and the teacher, for all too familiar reasons, inevitably become purveyors of obsolete knowledge. The obsolete, moreover, not only perpetuates itself in the content of education, but in the methods for conveying knowledge - or to add a further point, in the very architecture of the school".[1]

A considerable number of teachers know no way of teaching but lecturing and chorus repetition. There are many teachers - among those who teach in Libyan teachers' training institutes - whose teaching is nothing but chalk and talk, or even nothing but talk.[2] The traditional methods of training teachers which consist of taking them from school at some suitable stage, giving them a course of training and returning them to the schools as teachers, are obviously inadequate. Libya is not unique in this problem, and it seems to be a common problem in many developing countries. L.J. Lewis comments:-

> "... The quality of the staff leaves much to be desired, there being a lack of academic qualification and generally no specific professional training. It is assumed that previous teaching experience fits a person to train others to be teachers. One consequence of this latter fallacy is that much instruction of teachers-in-training results in the candidates for entry to the profession being taught as small children are taught instead of being treated as adults".[3]

W.F. Vietmeyer writes the following comment about the role of Libyan teachers' training institutes. He says:-

> "Teacher institutes should be the places where young people who have been students all their lives are given the opposite side of the picture and are taught the characteristics of the pupils they are to teach and are developed into thoughtful research students, who study all their teaching life how best to help their students grow both as individuals and as scholars. The methods that teacher college lecturers use in trying to do this are most important, and the methodology that the students are taught to use in the classroom will have a tremendous impact on the lives of young Libyans".[4]

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1 See: Coombs Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 104 - 110.

2 This state of affairs can be found in most schools, particularly in the lower grades (in rural schools as well as urban).

3 Lewis, L.J., "Getting Good Teachers for Developing Countries", p.398

4 Vietmeyer, W.F., "A Study of Primary Teacher Training", p.1.

This state of affairs is further exacerbated by too frequent transfers among school teachers particularly at the primary stage. Frequent transfers are the rule among primary school teachers and principals. This is especially true of the teachers who work in the rural areas, but even in urban schools, there is much shifting about.[1] This practice makes for instability and lack of continuity of policy and planning in the school, and at the same time destroys personal interest on the part of teachers and principals in their own schools.

Teachers and principals tend to lay the blame for the shortcomings of the school on the shoulders of their predecessors. Responsibility for good or bad school management is lost, and it is difficult for the Ministry of Education to appraise the work of the teachers.

The normal practice carried out in most Libyan schools at present is that in the lower primary grades (first, second, third and fourth), a teacher is usually assigned to a whole class, whereas in the upper primary grades (fifth and sixth) and all the way through preparatory and secondary stages, classes are distributed among teachers by subjects.[2] In some village primary schools, a teacher may have to take more than one class, or even a whole school. In this latter case, however, the school rarely exceeds two grades.[3] The art of simultaneous teaching of more than one class is far from being perfected. The teacher usually teaches one group while the other pupils sit idle.[4]

Occasionally, a teacher gives one item to one group, moves to the next

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1 This seems to be a major part of the Libyan educational authorities policy.

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Report of the Libyan Delegation Concerning the Training of Teachers in the Libyan Arab Republic", Submitted to the Conference on the Training of Teachers in the Arab States, held in Cairo, 1972.

3 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Problems of Libyan Primary Education", pp.6-15.

4 Ibid

group for a few minutes, and then moves back to the first group, the other group being idle in the meantime.[1]

It is the practice in almost all Libyan schools for the children not to be divided into streams according to their ability, but rather for them to be placed in various classes at random. In this way, even the successful and the most able teacher can hardly plan his lessons to suit the abilities of all his children.

Individual differences are, undoubtedly, a major issue in the learning process.[2] This, however, is entirely neglected in virtually all Libyan schools. Children with different backgrounds and various capabilities are grouped together and are expected to learn and progress at almost the same pace. The teacher is saddled with too heavy a responsibility and entrusted with so big a task that he can hardly cope. Quality and attainment are inevitably adversely affected.

If teaching is to progress on a sound basis in the Libyan schools, the teacher must ultimately be free to work out his own technique according to all the circumstances involved in any particular piece of teaching. As far as teaching methods are concerned, there is no "rule of the road", but all depends on the teacher's initiative and his assessment of the given situation.[3] All that can safely be said is that certain methods, in a given set of circumstances, are better than other methods, or that some ways of approaching a professional problem are likely to succeed while others are practically certain to prove a failure.[4] A hard and fast adherence to any set of rules

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1 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Problems of Libyan Primary Education". pp. 6 - 15.

2 See: Tyler, Ralph W., Op. Cit., pp. 3 - 43.

3 See: Kerr, F., "Curriculum Change in Emergent Countries", Developing a New Curriculum, edited by A.G. Howson, Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., London 1970, pp. 53 - 78.

4 Ibid.

produces a mechanical and rigid uniformity which detracts from teaching efficiency.[1] As a general rule, therefore, the whole matter must be left over to the teacher's assessment and reasoning according to various circumstances.[2] John Vaizey writes as follows:-

> "The rapidity of change in education, and the scarcity of resources - especially the scarcity of skilled and exciting teachers - means that we have to look very closely at the techniques of teaching .... The differing scarcities of teachers and of materials, and changing views about how to teach, have led to different educational structures throughout the world. Methods of teaching have changed too". 3

Recruitment, Selection and Status of Teachers.

The problem of recruitment and selection of Libyan teachers for the various stages, has two aspects which are sometimes difficult to reconcile: one of the quantity, and the other of quality.[4] The remarkable increase of enrolment particularly in the primary and preparatory stages has created a general shortage of teachers.[5] The situation is further aggravated by the growth in the school-age population as a result of high birth-rates.[6] The shortage of teachers is particularly serious in the fields of mathematics and science, since experts in these fields can find more remunerative jobs in other professions.[7]

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1 See: Kerr, F., "Curriculum Change in Emergent Countries", Developing a New Curriculum, edited by A.G. Howson, Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., London, 1970., pp. 53 - 78.

2 Vaizey, John, "Education in the Modern World", World University Library London, 1967 (second impression 1969), pp. 190-218.

3 Ibid. p.190

4 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Some of the Problems of Libyan Primary Education", pp. 6 - 15.

5 Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 4 - 24.

6 Ministry of Planning, "Statistical Abstract 1968", Census and Statistics Department, Tripoli, 1968 (in Arabic).

7 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Semi-Annual Report", pp. 3 - 23.

This seems to be a world-wide problem.[1] Philip Coombs comments on this point:-

> "It is an open secret that in the last decade most countries have been plagued by teacher shortages. This condition has generally reflected both an over-all shortage of well-qualified manpower and the competitive disadvantage of education. In many places it has also reflected a lag in the expansion of teacher-training capacity. The most acute shortages of well-qualified teachers have cropped up in the sciences, mathematics, and various technical fields, where over-all manpower shortages have also been greatest. The net result of these various factors has been widespread decline in teacher qualifications". [2]

The problem is not only of securing the required number of teachers, but also of ensuring that the right kind of people are admitted to the profession.[3] This problem raises the question of the availability of large numbers of applicants from whom prospective teachers may be selected.[4] In Libya there is usually an insufficient supply of candidates for training as teachers, and even of those who do join the profession, by no means do all regard teaching as their life's work. Many of them have failed to get admitted to a secondary school or another profession and look on the teacher's training institute as better than nothing.

> "Qualifications for entry to teacher training appear to be a function of general educational and vocational opportunities rather than of deliberately determined professional requirements. In this last respect quality is also related to status. In most of the developing countries the status of the teaching profession is subordinate to that of public administration, law, medicine and sometimes the armed forces". [5]

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1 Coombs Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 34 - 45.

2 Ibid., p.35.

3 Ibid., pp. 34 - 45.

4 Ibid.

5 Lewis, L.J., "Getting Good Teachers for Developing Countries", p.398.

With such attitudes, the supply of willing candidates is not easily secured. The standard of those admitted is another matter. Many of the prospective teachers in Libya come to the profession with a general education that is quite inadequate, and with ideas about the teacher's function, and his relations with his pupils which are, to say the least of it, old-fashioned. These negative attitudes are generally attributed to a group of factors such as the low pay of teachers; their prestige and place in society and their role as individuals, which is usually underestimated.[1] The more privileges a profession presents its members in terms of social prestige and financial rewards, the more it attracts the largest possible number of promising practitioners.

The whole policy and system of selecting prospective teachers for all Libyan primary, preparatory and even secondary stages, appears to be, at the moment, totally wrong. While institutions providing for example, for the education of doctors, engineers and scientists, are in a position to select candidates of the highest academic and intellectual standards, the position is very different in the institutions for teacher education.[2] Libya is not a unique example in these problems, for many nations, particularly the developing ones, suffer from the same dilemma.[3] Philip Coombs comments:-

> "... In the competition to win back enough of its own best quality products, education is usually at a disadvantage. It often ends up with a high proportion of 'second choice' candidates. Education is at a disadvantage because other competitors with larger purses set the standards for attractive salaries". [4]

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1 See: Beeby, C.E., "The Quality of Education in Developing Countries", Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1966, pp. 41 - 47.

2 See: Coombs Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 34 - 35.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid., p.34.

Not only teachers' salaries, but also what people think of them, the kind of life they lead, the conditions under which they work, and the social class from which they come,[1] all are factors that determine the nature of the status of teachers in the Libyan society. This seems to be a common problem in most Arab states.[2] Fahim I. Qubain comments:-

"Generally speaking, the teaching profession below the university level does not attract the best qualified men and women. Such people tend to enter other professions. There are several reasons for this. First, on the whole, public school teachers are grossly underpaid as compared with their responsibilities and amount of work. Second, the possibilities of promotion and advancement are rather limited as compared with government and private employment. Even after many years of service, when the public school teacher is able to reach the top of his professional ladder, his salary would not provide reasonable financial security for himself and his family or even create a standard of living commensurate with his social status. Third, in the past, the teaching profession in the Middle East carried with it considerable social prestige, and the teacher was treated with great respect. For a variety of reasons, this is no longer the case".[3]

These facts, however, have far-reaching repercussions on the social status and general attractiveness of teaching and, at the same time, explain why most capable students are unwilling to become teachers. Good students, therefore, are induced to avoid the teacher training institutions and hence to bypass the teaching profession as a career.

The Ministry of Education is also confronted with the serious problem of "wastage".[4] Many candidates who initially accept to serve

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1 Refers mainly to the difference between white-collar and working classes.

2 Qubain Fahim I., Op. Cit., pp. 1 - 5.

3 Ibid., pp. 4 - 5.

4 See: Prasad Maya, "Current Supply of Educated Manpower: Trained School Teachers in Libya", Working Paper No.2., pp. 2 - 5.

the government as teachers regard the profession as a stepping-stone towards more promising careers.[1] As soon as the opportunity is available for other more suitable and more remunerative jobs, they leave the profession.

There is no immediately obvious remedy for this situation,[2] and the educational authorities have so far, done nothing to alter it. If this policy is to continue, sooner or later the country will find itself with most of its children in school, but only a small proportion of the teachers needed available.

For various and obvious reasons, the Ministry of Education in Libya should give a very much higher priority to the development of teacher training. The main reasons can be summarized as follows:-[3]

a) A stage is already reached by which people themselves give education priority over almost everything else, they are willing to tax themselves for education before they will tax themselves for health or other social services. People have, so clearly, become determined to have education for all even at the expense of quality.

b) The sudden expansion of education in almost all levels has called for the establishment of new schools, and consequently for trained teachers.

c) As everyone in the education circles knows, the social consequences of ill-considered education are unpleasant, if not dangerous. If the

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1 See: Prasad Maya, "Current Supply of Educated Manpower: Trained School Teachers in Libya", Working Paper No.2., pp. 2 - 5.

2 At the moment, it does not seem possible that laws and regulations would enable the educational authorities to force unwilling teachers to stay in the profession. The more practical way would be a serious attempt to create attraction in the profession itself.

3 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "The Five-Year Plan, 1969-1974: Education", Tripoli, 1969, pp. 49 - 56. (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

country has a reasonable proportion of its teachers adequately trained when all the children are in school, it can hope that the education they receive will be moderately satisfactory. If, before that day arrives, it has a very high proportion of its teachers trained, the schools will then turn out a good nucleus of well-educated people. Trained teachers are never wasted. They are one of the most valuable reserves and the most productive forms of investment.[1]

> "Teachers, next to students, are the largest, most crucial inputs of an educational system. They are also, by all odds, the most expensive inputs,[2] even when they are underpaid".

In a rapidly changing age, no doubt the teacher is becoming the focus of attention. The philosophy that underlies the new pedagogical techniques is deeply rooted in psychology and in the whole series of sociological studies, and it is concerned with the learning process itself in relation to the child, and the child in relation to the teacher.[3] This has important consequences for teacher training.[4] John Vaizey writes as follows:-[5]

> "The educational system needs highly competent personnel. Teachers are the keystone of any system and the only hope for the accomplishment of educational reforms. Whatever the programs of studies may be, whatever standards are established, whatever experiments are tried, the solution depends ultimately on the teaching staff ... To make them into true educators, it is desired to give all future teachers true pedagogical training, based on adequately advanced studies in psychology and the social sciences".[6]

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1 See: Coombs Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 34 - 45.

2 Ibid., p.34.

3 See: Tyler Ralph W., Op. Cit., pp. 33 - 43.

4 Vaizey John, "Education in the Modern World", pp. 190 - 218.

5 A Quebec (Canada) report, cited by J. Vaizey.

6 Ibid., p.195.

If the Libyan teachers are to cope adequately with the monumental tasks that lie ahead of them, the first step the Libyan educational authorities should do is to raise the educational levels of the existing teachers and to seek to give them some in-service training. To achieve this goal, the whole concept of a teaching profession - a cadre of trained teachers - needs to be established. The quality of prospective teachers does not depend solely on the type of training they get, but the right selection of those who are admitted to the profession has a lot to do with standards.[1] Philip Coombs says:-

> "Educational systems must undergo a shift of emphasis. The new stress must be not so much on producing an educated person as on producing an educable person who can learn and adapt himself efficiently all through his life to an environment that is ceaselessly changing. If an educational system itself is not adaptable to changing environmental conditions, how can it expect to produce people who are?". [2]

It is obvious that the services of the teacher are indispensable to any nation, particularly a developing one, for it is in the hands of teachers that the nation's destiny lies. Therefore, the Libyan educational authorities should recognize this fact and make serious attempts to improve the social and economic status of teachers. They should specifically improve their living and working conditions, their terms of employment and their career prospects. These are certainly the best means of overcoming any existing shortage of competent and experienced teachers, and of attracting to and retaining in the teaching profession, substantial numbers of more able and fully-qualified persons.

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1 See: Coombs Philip, "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 104-110.

2 Ibid., p.109.

CHAPTER SIX

Higher Education.

There has been a growing demand for higher education in Libya as a result of the expansion of secondary education particularly after independence. This situation gave rise to the idea of founding a state university with appropriate faculties in order to meet these new demands.

A Royal Decree of December 15, 1955, provided for the foundation of a state university under the name "University of Libya", and thus was created the first national university in the country.[1] The first group of students was admitted in January 1956 to the faculty of Arts, which was the first faculty inaugurated to constitute the nucleus of the university.[2]

Higher education in the modern sense of the word did not exist in Libya until the university was established.[3] Prior to 1955, Libyan students who desired higher education were forced to go abroad.[4] Higher education at the present time is provided almost solely in the nine faculties which make up the university of Libya.[5]

The Ex-Islamic University.

Until November 1970, there existed in Libya a religious University called the "Islamic University", or more usually, "The Islamic University of Muhammad Ibn Ali as-Sanusi".[6] It was established in 1962 [7] in Beida,

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", p.49.

2 Ibid.

3 Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., p.321.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 The Islamic University was abolished by Law No.144, of 1970, issued in Tripoli on 25th November 1970.

7 A royal decree was issued on 29th October 1962, to establish the Islamic University.

and was an institution of higher education with the aim of producing religious teachers for preparatory and secondary schools as well as the religious leaders which the country needs.[1]

When independence was attained, the Libyan authorities were determined to revive religious instruction which the Italian colonial authorities had attempted to abolish.[2] As a result, it was decided to make the religious Zawiyah of al-Jaghbub the nucleus of an Islamic university.[3]

During the period 1956 - 61, a number of religious institutions were established in the Kingdom.[4] In 1962, these institutions were reformed and made into a single University under the name of "The Islamic University of Muhammad Ibn Ali as-Sanusi".[5]

The moving spirit behind the establishment of the Islam University was the former King of Libya.[6] To his patronage it owed much of its prestige and from his generosity it derived much of its finance. But this reliance on royal authority, led to the corruption of its administration, and instead of working for sacred objectives, it tended to concentrate its activities on minor and rather unimportant matters and

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Organization of Education in Libya", p.77.

2 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Religious Education in Libya", Document No.4, pp . 12 - 13.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid., p.11.

5 Ibid., p.13.

6 Ibid., p.11.

spent too much money on the erection of magnificent buildings and paid excessively high salaries to its teaching staff and other administrative employees.[1]

This policy prompted severe criticism from various sources, particularly from the intelligentsia. But the Libyan educational authorities, relying on the support of the king, ignored these criticisms and continued to maintain the Islamic university spiritually and financially.[2]

When Libya was declared a "Republic" in September 1969, a reorganization of the Islamic University was considered. In November, 1970, the Revolutionary Command Council (RCC) made a bold decision to abolish the Islamic University altogether and amalgamate higher religious education with higher secular education represented by the university of Libya.

As a result the three faculties which the Islamic University comprised, were replaced by a single faculty affiliated to the university of Libya, under the name of "Faculty of Arabic Language and Islamic Studies".[3]

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1 Although the Islamic University had statutes which were, theoretically, supposed to govern its affairs, but in practice, the university authorities used to administer their affairs freely and irrespective of the statutes particularly in regard to their financial policy.

2 See the Memorandum submitted to the Revolutionary Command Council (RCC) by the Minister of Education in November 1970 explaining the reasons why the Islamic University should be abolished (published in the Libyan Arabic daily newspaper, al-Raed on 26th November, 1970).

3 See: The Libyan Arabic daily newspaper, al-Raed of 26th November, 1970.

University of Libya

The 1968 statutes of the University of Libya state that, in addition to its responsibilities for higher education, the university shall encourage scientific research and artistic studies and shall supply the country with specialists and experts in various scientific disciplines.[1] The University of Libya shall endeavour to revive the legacies of the Arabs and Islam and work towards the propagation of Arab and Islamic cultures.[2] It shall also strengthen cultural and scientific ties with other academic bodies and institutions.[3]

The University has a legal personality with the right to own and dispose of property. It may accept financial contributions and donations, provided that they do not violate the objectives laid down in the statutes.[4]

The University as a Project:- The idea of founding a national University in Libya had been conceived several years before its establishment was formally announced.[5] The foundation of the university was the culmination of continuous educational efforts by the Libyan authorities.[6]

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1 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", p.161.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Abu-Hadeed, F., Op. Cit.,pp. 4 - 42.

6 Ibid.

TABLE 59.

Number of Students and Teaching Staff in the Islamic University, 1965 - 1969

Academic Year.	Faculty of Arabic Language.		Faculty of Theology.		Faculty of Muslim Jurisprudence.		TOTAL.	
	No. of Students.	No. of Teaching Staff.	No. of Students.	No. of Teaching Staff.	No. of Students.	No. of Teaching Staff.	No. of Students.	No. of Teaching Staff.
1965/66	115	24	63	17	109	21	287	62
1966/67	128	17	94	13	119	14	341	44
1967/68	152	17	115	13	132	15	399	45
1968/69	214	24	108	15	137	17	359	56

Source: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Statistical Bulletin No.3, 1969/70", Tripoli, 1970.

TABLE 60

Number of Students in the Primary, Preparatory and Secondary Quranic Schools in Libya, 1968 - 1970.

Location.	Primary.		Preparatory.		Secondary.		Total.	
	1968/69.	1969/70.	1968/69.	1969/70.	1968/69.	1969/70.	1968/69.	1969/70.
Beida	83	90	126	79	140	98	349	267
Ahmed Pasha	125	110	149	155	87	128	361	393
El-Asmari	86	90	56	60	46	48	188	198
Sebha	37	50	25	20	-	-	62	70
Garian	59	47	-	18	-	-	59	65
Derna	54	24	-	-	-	-	54	24
Benghazi	54	48	-	-	-	-	54	48
El-Jaghbub	52	44	-	-	-	-	52	44
Zawia	112	112	27	62	-	-	139	174
Misrata	77	65	-	39	-	35	77	139
Tarhuna	69	44	-	-	-	-	69	44
Homs	-	83	-	-	-	-	-	83
Total	808	807	383	433	273	309	1464	1549

Source: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Statistical Bulletin No.3, 1969/70", Tripoli, 1970.

These efforts were of the greatest importance and can be best appreciated when the financial difficulties of the country, particularly during the early years of independence, are recalled.[1] In the unfavourable financial situation, most educational advisers were, at best, not enthusiastic in their support of the government's plan.[2] Their objections were based on the grounds that the numbers of potential students would be insufficient to justify the very large costs of the enterprise.[3]

Nevertheless, in spite of these objections, the Libyan authorities were quite determined to carry out their plans. Thus the Libyan-American Technical Assistance Service (LATAS) which had been set up to assist and advise on technical programmes for the development of the country, was asked to study the project and give a detailed report on its feasibility.[4] A Mission from the University of Nevada (U.S.A.) was sent to Libya and was entrusted with the responsibility of studying the project and reporting on its soundness.[5] After an accurate assessment of the whole situation, the Mission made its report which contained the following suggestions:-[6]

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967", p.69.

2 See: Abu-Hadeed, F., Op. Cit., pp. 41 - 42.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

a. A higher educational institution with a two-year course rather than a university should be established.

b. The course of study should be a general one comprising 25 subjects, divided into departments and a student could select a group of subjects.

c. Graduates from the suggested institution would be appointed as secondary school teachers, assistant engineers, assistant technicians or other similar jobs.

d. Outstanding graduates would be granted an extra year to acquire better qualifications, and the outstanding graduates from the latter group could be granted a scholarship and sent to U.S.A. for the completion of their higher studies.

e. The programme of study should be similar to that followed at the University of Nevada (U.S.A.).

f. The director of the proposed institution should have full authority in running its affairs.

g. The teaching staff at the proposed institution should be familiar with the programmes, techniques and procedures followed at the University of Nevada.

The Mission's report was submitted to the Libyan authorities for approval, and the financial difficulties were, at least partly solved by an offer of £L. 500,000 by LATAS to facilitate the establishment of the proposed institution.[1]

Obviously, the Mission's suggestions implied a considerable domination of the proposed institution by American staff both administratively and academically. The Libyan authorities were very dissatisfied with the proposals as outlined by the University of Nevada Mission.[2] In the end these suggestions were totally rejected.[3]

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1 See: Abu-Hadeed, F., Op. Cit. p.41.

2 Ibid., p.43.

3 Ibid.

However, rejecting these proposals did not mean giving up the idea of establishing a national university. The Libyan authorities were quite determined to establish a university rather than a higher institution, whatever sacrifices might be involved.[1]

As a result, the Libyan authorities turned to Egypt for educational assistance and advice.[2] It was known that Egypt was prepared to offer assistance to Libya, particularly in the field of education.[3] As expected, Egypt reacted positively to Libya's request and sent Mr. Fareed Abu-Hadeed, a man with long experience in educational affairs who came to Libya for the purpose of studying the situation and making recommendations.[4] The Egyptian expert, after making a close appraisal of the situation, wrote the following report:-[5]

> "I was very surprized when I read the report which was prepared by the University of Nevada Mission. I realized from the outset that the sort of university they proposed was not a university in the proper sense of the word. The university which they proposed was not a Libyan university in any sense and clearly was not intended to serve the needs of Libya. The only obvious objective behind it was to deter Libyan students from joining Egyptian Universities, a fact which would necessarily result in depriving youths from acquiring university education.
>
> Realizing the intentions as expressed in the Mission's report, I strongly refused to participate in a plan for the proposed university based on the Mission's report. I made it clear to the Minister of Education then that I would not like to saddle myself with a big responsibility in participating in such a bold endeavour based on the University of Nevada' Mission's suggestions. However, I was assured that my own report would be given adequate consideration and that I should not hesitate to give my own views and

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967", pp. 69 - 70.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Abu-Hadeed, F., Op. Cit., p.42.

recommendations whatever the result was. Dr. Paul Pitman (LATAS representative), an outstanding expert in educational affairs, was asked to collaborate with me, but we immediately discovered that we both agreed to disagree upon the matter under question. He acted on the instructions of the University of Nevada Mission, and I expressed what I considered most needed and academically more appropriate for the young developing nation. I was informed, later on, that the Libyan government had endorsed my plan - the basis on which the University of Libya was established". [1]

This report was written early 1957, after the university establishment was officially announced. It seems that the Libyan government was encouraged by the Egyptian authorities to accept the plan for the national university as outlined by their representative, Mr. Abu-Hadeed. There is ample evidence for this. For example, the Libyan authorities were promised continuous support and aid by the Egyptians particularly in terms of teaching staff, equipment and textbooks.[2] As a result, Libya procured the service of a well-chosen and an outstanding team of Egyptian scholars who came to run the nucleus of the University of Libya, both academically and administratively.[3] Considering Libya's financial difficulties, the Egyptian staff were directly paid by their own government.[4] Useful equipment, textbooks and a considerable number of books and references for the library were also supplied free.[5]

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1 Abu-Hadeed, F., Op. Cit., p.42.

2 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya, 1950 - 1967", pp. 69 - 71.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

This support continued for several years, until the university could stand on its own feet. These initial steps were of great importance for the university. It may be fair to state here that without this generous assistance from Egypt, any attempt to establish a national university on firm grounds would have failed, simply because Egypt was the only Arab country potentially capable of supplying Libya with its basic requirements for establishing a national university.

Organization and Administration.

The university (Jamiah) is organized in major divisions known as "Kulliyat", a term usually translated as faculties. Within the general regulations of the university, the faculty formulates its own curriculum and exercises a considerable amount of control over its internal affairs.[1]

The university statutes of 1968 stipulate that the Minister of Education is the supreme head of the university.[2] The university is administered by a president (Raes) and a university council.[3]

The president, appointed by a presidential decree upon the recommendation of the Minister of Education, is responsible for the administration of the university, acts as its representative on official occasions and before other bodies, and presides over the university council.[4]

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1 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", Benghazi 1973, p.111 (in Arabic).

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", p.162.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

The president appoints minor clerical officials of the university, recruits the required staff, and is responsible for preparing the budget.[1] At the end of each academic year, he is required to submit to the Minister of Education, a full report on the university and its academic activities.[2] The president is assisted by a secretary general and a vice-president who acts on his behalf during the president's absence.[3] Both the president and vice-president must be men of academic distinction and must possess higher qualifications.[4]

Although the president and vice-president have - theoretically - a considerable amount of freedom to run the university affairs in the way they deem appropriate, yet their decisions are always subject to the approval of the government represented by the Minister of Education. This policy has created several difficulties and acted as a brake on the development of the university.[5] The fact that the Minister of Education is rarely chosen on the grounds of his academic career, and more often on his social background and political role is the key problem for the university development. This state of affairs has led to many rigid and unfavourable interferences in the university's purely academic affairs. For example, in 1964, when the university attempted

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1 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", p.37.

2 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legisation in Libya", p.162.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Particularly since 1964, there has been a continuous interference in the university's affairs.

to act more freely in appointing its teaching staff from among the most qualified and well-known scholars, regardless of their nationalities, creed and race, the Minister of Education refused to sanction this. This incident, unfortunately, led to the loss of many administrative privileges granted to the university previously and as a result a considerable number of less qualified and inexperienced teaching staff found their way into the university. Moreover, some faculties were even threatened with closure if they rejected these arrangements or instigated their students to riot and protest against their implementation.

However, although this policy led to unexpected confusion and continuous student unrest, which spread all over the country, the Ministry, nevertheless, disregarded the opposition and continued its policy of interfering in the university's internal affairs and determining its future. This has continued to be the general policy of the Libyan government towards the University of Libya up to the present time.[1]

This policy has affected the university development and hindered its progress. No university can ever dream of making any appreciable progress unless its freedom is secured and its academic autonomy is guaranteed.

The university council is composed of the president of the university as chairman, the vice-president, the under-secretary of state for education, the deans of the faculties, and three members appointed by a vote of the Council of Ministers on the recommendation of the Minister of Education after due consultation with the president of the university.[2] These latter members are appointed for a term of two years.[3] They must be

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1 The university decisions and actions still require the approval of the Minister of Education.

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 162 - 163.

3 Ibid.

chosen from among those who enjoy a prominent academic and social status in the country.[1] The members of the council receive a monthly remuneration which is determined by the university council and sanctioned by the Minister of Education.[2]

The university council meets at least once every three months during the academic year, and the president of the university may convene it whenever he deems it necessary.[3]

Except for matters which require legislation or a decision of the Council of Ministers, or which fall within the jurisdiction of the Minister of Education, the university council acts on all matters pertaining to university affairs and its decisions are final.[4] The council has full control of the financial business of the university, building projects and maintenance, and deals with all appointments, promotions, transfers and discipline of the university staff and higher university officials.[5] The council also conducts examinations, determines admission regulations, student discipline and the beginning and the end of the academic year.[6] In addition, the council grants scholarships, determines the general organization of the academic work, awards degrees, diplomas and confers honorary degrees.[7]

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 162 - 163.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72",pp.38 - 39.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

Although the university council has a great deal of freedom to run the university affairs, its policy, however, is greatly influenced by the general policy of the government, represented by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry, having a full right to interfere in the university affairs, never hesitates to reverse any decision taken by the university council. The Ministry of Education regards the university as one of its major departments.

If sound development in the University of Libya is to be achieved, the government's interference should be very much diminished. The university as a higher academic institution should have its own freedom and autonomy because autonomy is a basic requirement of the university.

> "A true university is by nature autonomous or it is not a true university".[1]

The University of Libya is divided into faculties, and each faculty is subdivided into subject departments.[2] Each faculty has a dean and a vice-dean.[3] The dean and vice-dean are appointed by a decision of the Council of Ministers upon recommendation of the Minister of Education with due consultation of the president of the university.[4] Their appointment is for a two-year term subject to renewal, and they must be members of the teaching staff.[5]

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1 Lima, A.A., "Autonomy of the University", The University Today: Its Role and Place in Society, World University Service, Geneva, 1960, p.150.

2 The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/1972", pp. 112 - 113.

3 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 162 - 163.

4 The University Statutes of 1968.

5 Ibid.

Each faculty is administered by a dean and a faculty council.[1] The dean convenes the faculty council, implements the university laws and regulations and carries out resolutions of the university council affecting his faculty as well as the decisions of the faculty council.[2] At the end of each academic year, the dean is required to submit to the president of the university, a report on the affairs and activities of his faculty.[3]

The vice-dean assists the dean in the administration of the faculty and acts on his behalf during the latter's absence.[4] He is required to perform the following specific duties; control the students' registers and keep the faculty seals, edit and publish the faculty prospectus, maintain the faculty buildings and furniture, and attend to the affairs of the faculty graduates and maintain contacts with them.[5]

The faculty council is composed of the dean, the vice-dean and the professors.[6] When necessary, members from among the associate or assistant professors may be included in the council by a decision of the president of the university upon recommendation of the dean of the faculty.[7] The council has a secretary chosen from among its members, whose duty it is to prepare the minutes of the meetings.[8]

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1 The University Statutes of 1968.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

8 Ibid.

The faculty council meets under the chairmanship of the dean or his deputy.[1] It supervises the academic work, conducts examinations and maintains discipline in the faculty according to the regulations.[2] In addition to these functions, the council may also lay down rules regarding attendance of students, curricula and other academic matters, determine courses of study, allot teaching duties to members of staff and propose plans of study to the university council.[3]

The minutes of the faculty council's meetings must be communicated to the president of the university.[4] He should also be notified of the council's resolutions that come under his jurisdiction or those of the university council, within eight days from the date they have been passed.[5]

The university faculties could have benefited much from this administrative organization, but they were hampered by the continuous interference from the central administration of the university. The fact that the faculties' decisions and plans are always subject to the approval of the central administration which in turn requires the approval of the Ministry of Education, has complicated the whole situation and impeded the faculties' development. Both students and teaching staff have

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1 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", p.112.

2 Ibid.

3 See: The University Statutes of 1968.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

suffered from this intricate organization because new plans and suggestions have to wait for a long time before they can be implemented. One consequence is that when plans are, for example, approved by the central administration, their timeliness might no longer be appropriate. The time factor is one of great importance in an age of rapid change.

The administrative organization of the faculties should be re-organized in a more systematic way so that co-operation can be achieved and rapid development attained. The present organization cannot produce good results in terms of skilled human resources, unless it rids itself from the administrative routine work which tends to complicate matters and delay or impede academic progress. A. Fafunwa writes:-

> ".... Academic freedom carries with it certain academic responsibilities. But, on the other hand, a university unlike a political concourse must be free and untrammelled in its pursuit of truth if it is to live up to its responsibility".[1]

Each faculty in the University of Libya has what came to be known as a "Basic Regulation" as well as an "Internal" one.[2] The former is issued by a special decision of the Council of Ministers and deals, primarily, with the plans of study, subjects of instruction, academic degrees and the conditions under which they are awarded.[3] The latter is issued by the president of the university, subject to approval by the university council.[4] The Internal Regulation is a more specific one and deals with the internal affairs of the faculty.[5]

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1 Fafunwa, A.Babs, Op. Cit., p.119.

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", pp. 164 - 165, see also: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus, 1971/72", p.113.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid.

The Teaching Staff

The teaching staff in the University of Libya is made up of professors, associate professors, assistant professors and lecturers.[1] Demonstrators are not considered regular members of the teaching staff and they work under a contract which is renewed annually.[2] They are appointed from among outstanding graduates who have attained at least the grade of good[3] in their university first degree. They act as laboratory or class assistants and they usually engage in graduate studies and may undertake certain teaching functions or any other work entrusted to them by the department concerned under the close supervision of the teaching staff of the faculties.[4]

Demonstrators are appointed by the president of the university on the recommendation of the department concerned and with the approval of the faculty council.[5] However, the president of the university reserves the right to reject candidatures submitted to him by any faculty council.[6] A year after his appointment, a demonstrator may be sent by the university on a mission for study abroad.[7] While on the

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1 See The University Statutes of 1968.

2 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", pp. 97 - 98.

3 This is the minimum requirement but priority is usually given to outstanding applicants.

4 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", pp. 97 - 98.

5 See: The University Statutes of 1968.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

mission he receives his full salary and for purposes of promotion and pension, he is considered in the service of the university. The demonstrator's full fees abroad, monthly grants and book expenses are paid by the university under the auspices of the Ministry of Education.[1]

Professors, associate professors, assistant professors and lecturers are appointed by a decision of the president of the university with the approval of the university council.[2] In order to be eligible for appointment as a member of the teaching staff, a candidate must be of a commendable character and of good reputation. The candidate must hold at least a Master's or an equivalent degree.[3]

One of the main conditions governing the appointment of a lecturer is that the candidate must have a Master's or an equivalent degree, and that a period of at least four years must have elapsed since he received his Bachelor's degree.[4] The candidate must have good experience in university teaching and must have carried out academic research.[5]

A candidate for an assistant professorship must have spent at least two years in teaching at a university college or an equivalent institution, and six years must have elapsed since he received his Bachelor's degree.[6]

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1 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", pp. 97 - 98.

2 Ibid., p.90.

3 This condition is applicable mainly to the Libyans, but expatriates must hold a doctorate degree.

4 Although the University Statutes stipulate so, the general practice is that foreign staff are appointed on the basis of their long experience in addition to their holding a doctorate degree.

5 See: The University Statutes of 1968.

6 Ibid.

Furthermore, a doctorate is considered a basic requirement for appointment as an assistant professor.[1]

To achieve promotion, both associate professors and professors must, in addition to the requirement of an assistant professorship, have made significant and original contributions in their fields and have served for at least three years as assistant professors and five years as associate professors respectively.[2] Moreover, for the former, ten years must have elapsed since the attainment of their first university degree, and fifteen years for the latter, before promotion can take place.[3]

It is worth noting here that, until recently, no Libyan held any academic post in the University of Libya, and most of the administrative staff were either non-Libyans or unqualified Libyans. This was mainly due to the lack of qualified Libyan candidates who could fill such posts. Now, almost all the administrative staff, including the President of the university, Vice-President, deans and vice-deans are qualified Libyans with their doctorate degrees. This is the natural outcome of the University's policy [4] in its attempt to Libyanize its administrative and academic staff. A considerable number of demonstrators in various branches were sent abroad to complete their higher studies. There are at present approximately 250 candidates who are working for their Master's and Ph.D. degrees in various fields of specialization.[5] (see Table 61). The

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1 See: The University Statutes of 1968.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 The government encourages the university policy of Libyanizing the university staff.

5 The number of candidates for Master's and Ph.D. degrees rose to 448 in 1972 (see The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", p.328).

number of qualified Libyans engaged in academic work and teaching at the university is rapidly increasing, and it is estimated that by the end of the academic year 1977/78, most of the staff at the university of Libya will be qualified Libyans.[1]

However, it should be borne in mind that dispensing with all non-Libyan staff merely for the sake of replacing them by qualified Libyans may be a dangerous enterprise which could adversely affect academic work at the university level. This is,by no means,due to the entire dependence on Libyan staff, but largely due to the fact that academic work of high standard and worthwhile research require good and diversified experiences from various sources, regardless of their origin. C. Abouss-ouan writes:-

> "The university should encourage the free play of ideas in the work of its research workers, and there should be no consequent surrender of the conclusions arrived at to the appeasement of social or political groupings and to the detri-ment of truth".[2]

Instruction can be highly enriched by acquainting students with new ideas, experiences and successful experiments undertaken by other universities, particularly those which have comparable problems. Experience from other institutions of higher education throughout the

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1 This is based on the assumption that the majority of the Libyan candidates studying abroad will finish their studies in the required period and upon finishing will come back to teach at the university. There are at present approximately 400 expatriates in all the university faculties, and the number of Libyan candidates currently abroad is over 400.

2 Aboussoun, C., "The University as a Centre of Research", The University Today: Its Role and Place in Society, World University Service, Geneva, 1960, p.75.

world may stimulate the students' work and they may resort to the experience of others in seeking solutions to their particular problems.

It is, undoubtedly, a healthy policy that a university should depend, basically, on a sufficient number of qualified national staff whenever it is possible, but on the other hand, reliance solely on national staff may work to the detriment of academic research and hence jeopardizes the university's development. The elimination of foreign staff altogether, particularly in fields such as foreign languages and other important specializations may be done at the expense of the quality of education.

Therefore, it should be a matter of policy to continue engaging a number of well-qualified foreign scholars, partly to maintain a high standard of the university, and partly to benefit from the knowledge of persons prominent in some highly specialized subjects.

Intra-mural Teaching.

The academic year in the University of Libya runs from the beginning of October to the end of June, and is divided into two semesters.[1] Generally, there are no fixed dates for either the beginning or the end of the academic year, and they vary from one year to another depending on circumstances. Decisions about these matters are entrusted to the university council and the Ministry of Education.[2]

All the university faculties provide a four-year course for the degree of B.A., or B.Sc., except in the faculties of Engineering and

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1 The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", p.49.

2 Ibid.

THE NUMBER OF DEMONSTRATORS IN THE VARIOUS FACULTIES WHO ARE WORKING FOR THEIR MASTER'S AND DOCTORATE DEGREES

1970/71

TABLE NO.61

F A C U L T I E S

Country of Study	Arts		Economics		Science		Engineering		Law		Education		Agriculture		Medicine		Total	
	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D	M	D
U.S.A.	15	5	28	2	19	6	27	8	-	-	39	6	20	1	-	1	148	29
U.K.	15	5	2	5	6	14	6	11	-	-	8	2	-	-	13	-	50	37
France	5	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	15	-	5	1	-	-	-	-	26	2
Egypt	7	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	9	-	-	-	-	-	18	1
W. Germany	-	1	-	1	1	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	4
Turkey	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
TOTAL	42	12	31	8	27	20	33	22	16	1	61	9	20	1	13	1	243	74

M = Master's Degree

D = Doctorate Degree

Source: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", Benghazi, 1973 (in Arabic).

Medicine where the duration of study is 5 and 6 years respectively.[1] Students are required to follow the lectures for the courses for which they are enrolled, and participate in the exercises, practical work, training or seminars included in the programme of studies laid down by the faculty concerned.[2] The faculty council is entitled, on the request of the department concerned, to deprive students whose attendance has been unsatisfactory of the right to sit for all or part of the examinations; in such cases, the student is failed in all or part of the examinations.[3]

The regulations require that students shall attend at least 75 per cent of the lectures given, follow their studies adequately, take part in the practical lessons and seminars and may have to carry out some research work.[4] Regular and punctual attendance is required of all students at lectures, classes and other forms of instruction as may be prescribed for their course of study in conformity with the academic regulations.[5] A student whose attendance is unsatisfactory may be debarred from entry to the examinations.[6] The president of the university has the right to penalize unpunctual students by depriving them of the right to sit for an examination.[7]

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1 The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", pp. 49 - 50.

2 Ibid.

3 This is usually regulated by the "Internal Regulation" for each faculty.

4 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", p.50.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

Much of the instruction at the university is given through lectures which may extend from one to two hours at a time, to groups of students ranging from a score to several hundreds. In small classes, teaching is usually a combination of informal lectures and discussions based on a prescribed text, or on other material.

However, university education in Libya has been the focus of considerable criticism, particularly in recent years.[1] Critics claim that the system is not fully satisfactory even from the purely academic point of view.[2] It is true that there is no system of education which is free from defect, but this does not mean that defects and weaknesses which are discovered should be neglected, but rather, effective measures should take place to remedy them and remove them immediately.

The system of education at the University of Libya has been criticised on the grounds that it fails to develop in the students the power of independent thought and balanced judgement.[3] Even when syllabuses are well-prepared in terms of the actual needs of the students and in the light of the country's most urgent needs, they are, nevertheless, not rigorously pursued.[4] This may be attributed to the fact that teachers at the University of Libya have shown more interest in their salaries than in scholarship. Thus, many of them lost their enthusiasm and seriousness in imparting knowledge and hence they lost that sense of

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "University Students and Fields of Study", pp. 16 - 20 (Unpublished Report).

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

idealism which used to be one of the characteristics of university education.

These factors tended to lower the morale of university scholars, and the hardships suffered by honest men tended to lower the general moral standards, and in the end, truth was the first casualty. The result was inevitably reflected on the achievement of the learners themselves, who could not but be affected by this state of affairs.

In such a situation, final examinations at the University of Libya became the focal point of attention from both the students and the university teachers alike. Students have, in fact, developed a tendency to amass information without understanding. This was mainly due to the undue emphasis and the nature of the final examinations which became more often a test of memory than of understanding and judgement.

As a result, students tended to neglect their work throughout the whole academic year, and seek to cram in the last few weeks, enough information to somehow get through the final examinations. This has various undesirable effects upon the students. Since, during the major part of the year, the energies of the students are not fully employed, they tend to seek an outlet in various kinds of activities, some of which are destructive and anti-social. The present system of education at the University of Libya also encourages a habit of intermittent work so that many of the students become incapable of steady and strenuous effort over long periods. What is even worse, the undue emphasis on final examinations may, and at times does, encourage a tendency for adopting unfair means as a short cut to success.

The possession of a university degree has become increasingly an essential condition for employment in Libya at a higher level, whether

under government, or in private business.[1] This has aggravated the evils created by the emphasis on the final examinations. Students who have done hardly any work throughout the year, pin all their faith on the final examinations and adopt various undesirable methods to achieve success. Besides this, insistence on a degree induces hundreds, if not thousands, to enter the university who have neither the capacity for, nor the interest in, higher education. Many of the students at the university are of a type altogether unable to follow academic work at university level. The presence of large numbers of uninterested or inefficient students not only brings down standards and retards the progress of more able students, but also creates grave problems which hinder the progress of university education. Students who have neither the interest nor the ability to follow lectures tend to disturb the whole class and create indiscipline. What is even worse is the fact that this attitude does not remain confined to the classroom; once students get into the habit of breaking rules in class, they become rebellious and begin to break rules in society at large.

Student Life, Welfare, and Student Unrest.

Each student enrolled at the University of Libya enjoys some social services other than academic services. This means that the university is not only interested in teaching, but also in satisfying some other needs of the student. The social services offered by the university are based on a philosophy of education which believes that the academic achievement of the individual student is not only contingent upon the kind of instruction which he gets, or upon the type of library facilities or of teachers whom he has, but also on the way in which he handles the problems of growth and development which he faces.

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1 See: Farley, R., Op. Cit., p.98.

Each Libyan student enrolled at the University of Libya receives a government grant of £L.25 per month.[1] Foreign students, particularly Palestinians who are granted scholarships by the University of Libya are treated on an equal basis with the Libyans. Lodging facilities in hostels are available for students of both sexes who must live away from home.[2] There is at present, hostel accommodation for 25% of the regular students.[3] This seems to be far from being sufficient for students' needs of university accommodation, and there is a continuing demand from students for the substantial expansion of residential accommodation.

There are various student societies and clubs that hold regular meetings and receptions.[4] Some societies occasionally hold parties at which skits and comic plays are presented.[5] Each faculty is provided with a coffee-bar which sells tea, coffee, sandwiches and refreshments to students and staff members.

The Students' Union usually handles the activities of students and societies in both Tripoli and Benghazi campuses.[6] All students are considered members of this Union, which is organized and administered

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1 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", p.67.

2 Ibid., p.68.

3 External students are excluded.

4 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", pp. 78 - 79.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

entirely by the students themselves. The main aims of the Union are to develop the corporate life of the university, both between the students themselves, and between them and the staff.[1] The Union presents student interests before the university administration and tries to promote and co-ordinate cultural, social and athletic activities in the university as a whole. To this end the Union has established societies covering a wide range of cultural and athletic activities and has power to set up additional societies and clubs as and when required.[2]

Students form their own associations, which are entirely independent of the university authorities. These associations do not usually extend their activities beyond the university limits, and are primarily concerned with arranging cultural, academic, sport and welfare activities.

Free medical facilities are available to all students.[3] The University has a medical service for the provision of free health facilities to its students, including the dispensing of medicines and hospitalization.[4] The goal of these various services, in general, is to help the student stand on his own feet and face and solve his own problems.

However, despite these generous services, students at the University of Libya are dissatisfied with university life and not content with the kind of services offered. There have been many occasions on which students have reacted violently to the university actions.[5] A spirit of general riot and rebellion has spread among large sections of the university students.[6] There were cases in which things have gone so

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1 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72",

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid., p.68.

4 Ibid.

5 See: Wright John, Op. Cit., pp.260 -262.

6 Ibid.

far that members of the teaching staff or invigilators in examinations, have been insulted or attacked. In others, there have been clashes with the police or with the government authorities.[1] Some of this is, no doubt, part of a general sense of unrest throughout the world, which is partly due to the destruction of old values and the failure, so far, to create new ones. There are, however, some special factors which contribute to students' dissatisfaction and indiscipline in Libya.

While the present situation rightly causes concern, the situation is not yet beyond control, and effective measures can restore a more normal attitude among students. On the other hand, failure to take effective steps at this stage may aggravate the problem, because student unrest is a cantagious disease.

Student unrest and student revolt all over the world is a phenomenon which gathered momentum as a result of increasingly larger student groupings.[2] The main causes which seem to determine student unrest in Libya, particularly at the university level, are closely associated with the political situation and Libya's attitude towards the main Arab issues, particularly the Palestinian cause.

> "Political factors and, most significantly, the Palestine problem had been the major causes of student unrest in the Arab countries of the Middle East".[3]

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1 See: Wright, John, Op. Cit., pp. 260 - 262.

2 American University of Beirut, "University Development: Continuity and Change", Beirut, 1969, p.109.

3 Ibid., p.115.

The main aim of student revolt in Libya is, apparently, to try to force the authorities to recognize their movement and identity so that their voice could be strongly heard. They usually express their views and feelings with demonstrations which may last for several days or weeks and which may end with their clashing with the authorities or the police.

The Libyan authorities, both at the university and government levels seem to fear organized student agitation, particularly at the university level, because their activities and demonstrations affect the preparatory and secondary schools and even the general public. An example is the case of January 1964, when student demonstrations started at the university and spread to students all over the country. The main cause of these demonstrations was an objection to the government's interference through the Ministry of Education, in the university's pure academic affairs. On this occasion,the appointment of a considerable number of non-qualified teaching staff who were, apparently, loyal to the ruling regime, was enforced.[1] However, one cannot deny the fact that a small proportion of the student body is well motivated and has the best intentions, namely, to seek to protect the rights of their colleagues, but these constitute a minority and the fact remains that the majority of students are apt to go to extremes; if they do participate in any action, they insist that the action should get results.

The Libyan authorities reacted with great strictness to the 1964 events and decided first to close the university down indefinitely, and second to suppress the students' Union altogether. This led to more riots and demonstrations which in turn led to several clashes with the

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1 For political reasons, the chosen staff was primarily from loyal countries such as Lebanon, Syria and Jordan, but Egypt was deliberately avoided as a major source for staff recruitment.

police who were ordered to use force and to fire if necessary. This ended with the death of a number of student leaders and a considerable number of students were imprisoned.[1]

After the elapse of approximately three months, the authorities decided to reopen the university, studies were resumed and the imprisoned students were released. The students' demands were only partly met by dismissing a number of the non-qualified staff members, in addition to a promise that interference with the university's internal affairs will be reduced to a minimum and thus a compromise was reached. In addition, the Students' Union was allowed to resume its previous functions, provided that it did not involve itself with political issues or participate in political gatherings.

Students, all over the world, have constantly played a militant role in the politics of their countries, particularly those which are mainly governed by military juntas. Academic demands which were complementary to political ones, included the autonomy and immunity of the university.[2] Libya was no exception to this general state of affairs. The students desperately try to find a means of expressing themselves. Their dreams, their thoughts, are not communicated to the authorities, to the older generation and even to their professors, and that is one of the main reasons for the unfortunate revolts. They often discuss things among themselves, but the authorities and the older generation have not sufficiently tried to understand what they are saying, and what is even worse, they do not always want to understand.

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1 See: Wright John,Op. Cit., pp.260 - 262.

2 See: American University of Beirut, Op. Cit., p. 114.

If university students in Libya are to be adequately prepared to play a more constructive role in the university affairs, and to be more concerned with their immediate problems, a lot still remains to be done to restore the differences between the authorities and the students. A more harmonious relationship between the university authorities and students, greater co-operation and better communication would lead to more understanding and eventually to more participation by the students in the learning process. They would feel they are more a part of the university as a whole. At present, though they feel they are part of the political life of the nation, they feel only casual on-lookers, or mere spectators in the university.

The university, represented by its teaching staff, could exercise a positive role in encouraging open discussion of controversial issues in the classroom. Some mechanism has to be found which can afford opportunities for adequate expression by the students, a means by which they can take an active part in the community they live in, and understand its various problems and its intricate social structure. At the same time, it is necessary to ensure that the autonomy and identity of the university is not jeopardized and that its primary purpose, to provide a sound academic atmosphere, is not lost.

Problems and Trends.

Despite the remarkable efforts being made by the university authorities to develop university education in Libya, many problems are still acute and hamper the development of higher education.[1] The lack of adequate buildings, particularly for the arts faculties, is

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1 See: Farley, R., "Education, Training and Planned Economic Development with Some Limited Remarks on the Role of the University of Libya", 1964, pp. 29 - 31 (Unpublished).

Faculty	1955/56		1956/57		1957/58		1958/59		1959/60		1960/61		1961/62		1962/63		1963/64		1964/65		1965/66		1966/67		1967/68		1968/69		1969/70		1970/71	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Arts																																
	31		79		109	5	169	9	212	15	287	16	337	18	357	28	373	35	470	58	551	61	773	88	820	120	864	138	1704	190	1317	246
Economics					48		110	2	237	5	303	8	373	10	405	18	436	19	413	18	455	26	449	31	386	33	399	36	506	47	621	60
Science					32		52		77		115		143	9	152	16	155	25	198	41	231	47	234	49	251	47	255	53	275	58	232	76
Engineering													50	2	62	2	103	2	171	3	195	5	229	2	268	14	338	16	411	16	569	36
Law															71	1	129	3	184	5	227	11	227	12	286	17	393	18	432	12	486	15
Education																					62	19	86	31	137	45	231	63	285	76	507	112
Agriculture																							43		94	4	191	6	242	11	302	11
Arabic Language and Islamic Studies																															559	
Medicine																															44	5

TABLE 63

THE NUMBER OF GRADUATES IN THE VARIOUS FACULTIES

1958/59- 1969/70

Faculties	ACADEMIC YEAR												
	1958/59	1959/60	1960/61	1961/62	1962/63	1963/64	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69	1969/70	Total
Arts	31	38	27	50	78	72	86	72	45	105	116	228	948
Economics			29	37	42	66	54	50	52	48	54	56	488
Science			11	23	30	32	42	49	45	62	72	62	428
Engineering							13	17	29	49	52	160	
Law							23	22	27	44	35	151	
Education										57	38	95	
Agriculture											28	28	
Total	31	38	67	110	150	170	182	207	181	271	392	499	2298

Source: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", Benghazi, 1973 (in Arabic).

TABLE 64.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE TEACHING STAFF IN THE VARIOUS FACULTIES

1955/56-1970/71

Faculties	ACADEMIC YEAR															
	1955/56	1956/57	1957/58	1958/59	1959/60	1960/61	1961/62	1962/63	1963/64	1964/65	1965/66	1966/67	1967/68	1968/69	1969/70	1970/71
Arts	6	10	18	24	27	26	26	30	39	42	41	43	45	53	56	50
Economics			4	5	7	11	9	11	12	17	24	26	22	20	21	16
Science			6	11	18	20	18	19	23	30	34	43	46	57	60	59
Engineering											56	66	69			64
Arabic Language & Islamic Studies																42
Law						4	6	14	14	15	15	19	18			18
Education											24	42	58			57
Agriculture											7	20	31			36
Medicine																2
Total	6	10	28	40	52	57	53	64	80	103	113	127	215	277	313	344

Source: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", Benghazi, 1973 (in Arabic).

one of the major problems confronting the university administration.[1] Although the new campuses, when they are ready, will certainly mitigate the difficulty, it will be only a temporary relief because these new buildings were designed several years ago, and the number of students has increased far beyond the level that was then anticipated. This enormous growth in numbers has falsified the calculations of nearly everyone concerned with the planning of higher education. This expansion is the result of a widespread desire for higher qualifications, for better jobs and for a place at the top in the new technocracy.[2]

The pressure on the university in Libya has thus arisen initially from two factors, the actual increase in the population of young people,[3] and the demand, for economic and social reasons, for more highly qualified individuals. But these are not the only forces at work. More vague, but not less powerful, has been the growing feeling in the whole community that education is a good in itself; that the university in particular has a prestige of its own as the apex of an educational hierarchy concerned not only with vocational needs, but also with the good life.[4]

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1 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "Development of the University of Libya during the Second Five-Year Plan, 1968 - 1973", 1968, pp. 4 - 6 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

2 See: Farley, R., "Education, Training and Planned Economic Development", pp. 34 - 35.

3 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "Statistical Abstract 1970", Census and Statistical Department, Tripoli, 1970.

4 See: Farley, R., "Education, Training and Planned Economic Development", pp. 34 - 36.

These factors were clearly not sufficiently considered when the new university buildings both at Tripoli and Benghazi were designed. These new buildings will soon be overcrowded, and the university authorities will face an urgent and difficult problem. The problem is aggravated by the fact that the new campuses were so expensive to build that the university has no funds for additional ones in the foreseeable future.[1]

Understandably, the nation wants buildings that are worthy of a national university, but to combine this with low costs takes imagination from architects as well as from administrators. The good intentions of those who founded the university are undoubted, but good intentions alone, however, are insufficient to ensure success, and in certain respects the university is in danger of repeating costly errors made elsewhere in developing countries.

Unless high-cost buildings are avoided, it becomes too expensive to provide university places in the numbers required. Furthermore, high cost dormitories, dining halls and other facilities which the university of Libya generally offers, tend to accustom students to a style of living which the country can only afford for a few, and for a limited time.

Another critical problem is the accommodation for students, which has not been given adequate attention. This question has not been dealt with carefully, and there is a growing tendency among the university authorities not to consider hostels as part of the university.

The present residential facilities are sufficient to accommodate not more than 25% of the total number of university regular students.[2]

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1 It is estimated that about £L 30 million were allocated to the project, and this figure is still not sufficient.

2 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", pp. 67 - 68.

The result of this policy is that students who are refused accommodation in the university hostels, have to look for accommodation outside the university. Such accommodation is usually very expensive and far from adequate as far as academic work is concerned. Students, therefore, find it difficult to pursue their studies where suitable accommodation facilities are not available. Home conditions in Libya for the majority do not provide the quiet and privacy essential for concentrated study. Those with homes outside the university campus encounter difficulty through scarcity of accommodation, its unsuitability or its expense.

According to the present policy, the university, at present, pays annually over £L 1 million to its students as grants, on the basis of £L. 25 per month for each regular and non-boarding student. In addition, approximately two million pounds are spent on boarding students to cover food expenses and other boarding facilities. This amount could easily be utilized for other purposes such as building new hostels, providing research centres and in other areas which are now relatively neglected.[1] A mission from the International Bank made this point in 1960.

> "The mission would further suggest that the Ministry of Education reconsider its policy of granting free tuition, maintenance, books and special allowances to every university student. This is a wasteful use of public funds, and one cannot be justified by considerations of economy or equity. In our judgement, exemption from tuition fees should be the most that the university should offer all its students indiscriminately. A university scholsrship board should be established to grant aid for maintenance to needy students on the basis of demonstrated special capacity and genuine need". [2]

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1 See: IBRD., Op. Cit., pp.266 - 267.

2 Ibid., p.267.

Another defect hindering the development of education in Libya at the university level is the inappropriate curriculum adopted. The extension of higher education is one of the necessities of modern technology and society cannot function adequately without the extension of this type of education to all social classes.[1] Industrialization, with increasing use of machines is equally dependent on it. As the use of machines grows, so does the need for the wider dissemination of literacy at a higher level. Thus the spread of education, particularly at a higher level, has a direct relation to the degree of industrialization attained by a society. Libya is seeking to plan her future consciously and deliberately and with the knowledge and participation of her people.[2] This ambitious ideal, however, can be achieved only if there is, throughout the country, an enlightened leadership and a sufficient number of university graduates inspired by common ideals.[3]

Education, however, becomes unreal and barren unless there is constant interplay between theory and practice. To a large extent, the University of Libya has neglected this aspect of higher education in its curriculum, and thus has failed to carry out one of the main purposes of a university. It is true that a large proportion of the products of the University of Libya are suited to white-collar employment, but the university was not established mainly to produce clerks. There is little doubt that a large number of those who come to the university do so only because they look upon a university degree as a passport to employment.

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1 Prasad, Maya, "Current Supply of Educated Manpower", pp. 7 - 8.

2 See: Farley, R., "Education, Training and Planned Development", pp. 34 - 36.

3 IBRD., Op. Cit., pp. 266 - 267.

The public thus has come to associate university education solely with employment. The university has failed to offer adequate training to its graduates, except in one limited sphere which is not sufficient for a developing nation such as Libya.

University education in Libya is modelled on foreign patterns. It is a mixture of English, American and Egyptian systems of higher education. The absence of a system of national education in the university was reflected in the curriculum, which equally borrowed foreign principles. Foreign textbooks and materials are being used in the university without any adaptation to local needs, and a curriculum which ignores the basic needs of the nation is adopted in almost all the faculties of the University of Libya. This seems to be a common problem in most Arab universities.[1] F. Qubain writes:-

> "For the most part, the curricula used in the universities were borrowed wholesale from Western sources with little or no critical evaluation. Western textbooks (or books based entirely on Western sources), references, and illustrations are used. Little of this material is adapted to local, national, and regional needs".[2]

If a university is to do its job properly, it must consider the culture and needs of the society it represents.

> "A university, in any worthy sense of the term, must grow from seed. It cannot be transplanted from England or Germany in full leaf and bearing. It cannot be run up, like a cotton mill, in six months to meet a quick demand". [3]

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1 Qubain, F.I., Op. Cit., pp. 51 - 52.

2 Ibid., p.52.

3 Lewis, L.J., "Education in the New Countries", p.9.

The significance, variety and vitality of Libyan culture cannot be understood unless the sources from which it is derived are known. It is the role of the university as a repository of culture and a pioneer of progress to evolve courses which reflect the many-sidedness of Libyan life.[1] A. Fafunwa writes:-

> "Every university in Africa must be involved in Africa in a deep and fundamental sense. Like universities everywhere, universities in Africa must represent the focal point of the culture of the society of which they are a part".2

The pressure of external events is continual and no living society can be immune from change. The university should, therefore, provide a meeting ground where values inherited from the past in Libya can be combined with the fresh influx of knowledge and experience from other nations. If the University of Libya is to serve its true purpose, it must provide an arena in which the different trends of the Libyan culture are brought into one common focus of study and evaluation. Higher education in Libya has to be deeply rooted in the Libyan culture and must derive its objectives from Libyan sources.

During recent years, particularly since 1960,[3] a great deal of emphasis has been laid on scientific planning in the area of university education in Libya. This has been reflected by the creation of faculties of applied sciences, such as faculties of Science, Engineering, Agriculture and the most recent establishment, the faculty of Medicine.

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1 See: Farley, R., "Education, Training and Planned Economic Development", pp. 34 - 39.

2 Fafunwa, A., Babs, Op. Cit., p.120.

3 This may be associated with the discovery of oil and its industry which required skilled technicians and experts to run it.

These policies have been conceived as an attempt to co-ordinate higher education with the economic needs of a rapidly developing nation.[1] There has been a marked increase in the technical and scientific facilities, both in terms of laboratories and equipment, and of staff.[2] At the same time new courses have been introduced in the humanistic studies.[3]

Another recent trend is the training abroad of the would-be university teachers.[4] A considerable number of scholarships is offered every year to outstanding students in different fields of specialization to undertake postgraduate study abroad. These scholarships are now being offered in approximately equal numbers for science and the humanities.[5] In the past, the latter group predominated, but the present university policy is to put more weight on the scientific and technological fields.

The scholarships are often offered in groups enabling integrated teams of students to study abroad and cover different aspects of one field. In the past, most scholarships were restricted to Egypt, the United Kingdom and the U.S.A., regardless of the subject of study, it is now the subject to be studied that determines the country to which the candidate is sent (See Table 61).

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1 See: Farley, R., "Planning for Development in Libya", pp. 250 - 251.

2 See: The University of Libya, "University Prospectus 1971/72", pp. 49 - 50.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid., pp. 97 - 98.

5 Ibid.

The Function of the Teacher and Needs of the Student

If university education in Libya is to improve on its past achievements and widen its horizon of knowledge and discovery, it will certainly need an atmosphere of freedom to do the job adequately; an atmosphere in which there are no constraints or coercions.[1] In order to implement this objective, university professors and teaching staff in general should be secure in their office, particularly in respect of adequate salaries and pensions and not be liable to arbitrary dismissal by authorities inside or outside the university.[2] Academic qualifications for teaching and research should be the deciding factors in appointments, dismissals or promotion to higher academic posts.

N.K. Sidhanta writes:-

> "One of the first postulates we have to emphasize is that the academic thinker must have a completely open field, that for him all questions are open, all assumptions tentative, all conclusions provisional. He need not work within a fixed framework, and he should not start his process of reasoning from authoritative premises".[3]

Higher education in Libya is an obligation of the state, but state aid does not imply state control over academic policies and practices. Intellectual progress demands the maintenance of the spirit of free inquiry, and the pursuit and practice of truth, regardless of consequences, must be the ambition of the university. The state must forbid demagogy and damage to healthy conceptions of sovereignty and national dignity. Neither teachers nor students should be submitted to political tests of any kind, nor should they be compelled to adhere to any ideology, political or religious.

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1 See: Banerjea, B.N., Op. Cit., pp. 1 - 5.

2 Ibid.

3 Sidhanta, N.K., "Autonomy of the University", The University Today: Its Role and Place in Society, World University Service, Geneva, 1960, p.198 .

University teaching in Libya is still not getting the numbers of able people it must attract, if the country is to have an adequate proportion of teachers of high quality and intelligence.[1] One of the defects of university education in Libya arises out of inadequate staff and a mistaken attitude to higher education. The staff is inadequate, not only in numbers but also in quality.[2] Most Arab universities suffer from the same problem.[3] F. Qubain writes:-

> "Another critical problem facing the universities in the Arab World today is the question of competent staff, for it has a direct bearing on the quality of instruction and research and on the kind of contribution the universities can make to Arab life".[4]

To raise the prestige and the attractiveness of the teaching profession, the appointment and the salary scales of university staff in Libya should not be under the jurisdiction of any authority other than the university itself. Generally speaking, university staff, particularly the native ones, are poorly paid and therefore many of the ablest men and women turn away to other professions.[5]

> "In the underdeveloped countries, it is particularly important that the best minds should be attracted to the universities, and this can be done realistically only with the provision of good salaries and other practical benefits".[6]

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1 See: Banerjea, B.N., Op. Cit., pp. 1 - 5.

2 Ibid.,

3 Qubain Fahim I., Op. Cit., pp. 54 - 56.

4 Ibid., p.54.

5 The salary scale for the Libyan teaching staff is much lower than the one set for expatriates.

6 Chabbi, L., "Autonomy of the University", The University Today: Its Role and Place in Society, World University Service, Geneva, 1960, p.201.

The development of the university in Libya will be, in important respects, dependent on the quality of the staff it can attract, but this is not solely, not even primarily, a matter of salaries. Good working conditions, limited hours of class teaching, and ample opportunities and facilities for research are similarly vital. While staff is the prime cause of university status, status itself attracts staff.

Once the teachers' rights are safeguarded, they then have no excuse whatsoever for not doing their job properly. Of the many demands on a university teacher, four stand out, that he should teach well, that he should contribute to worthwhile research, that he should administer effectively, and that he should give an impulse to the kind of social life which a university should provide. University teachers in Libya may be good at any one of these and bad at the others, but all of them are valid and indispensable activities.[1] It is essential that the university teacher should be loyal to his subject as well as to his students. It is only when he recognizes both that he will have any success in his university career.[2] He must advance the knowledge of his subject, or his teaching will grow sterile.

Personal contact between student and teacher is one of the main necessities in university life. Such contacts between teachers and students are still largely lacking in the University of Libya. At present, a student has few chances of meeting or talking with his lecturers during the years spent in the university. There is no instruction in subjects outside the student's own field of specialization.

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1 See: American University of Beirut, Op. Cit., pp. 125 - 127

2 Ibid.

His reading is mostly confined to his textbooks, usually one or two for each subject, in addition to the lecture notes, which are in many cases identical to the textbook, often written by the lecturer himself.[1] This cannot be called university education in the true sense of the term. Under such circumstances, the student's only duty is to memorize a very limited range of material. The lecturers are concerned only to rehearse the material provided in the textbooks. This sort of teaching produces graduates whose only asset is a stock of ill-digested knowledge of doubtful utility. This is the outcome when students learn mostly by rote, and are rarely encouraged to think for themselves.

It seems that those who draw up the syllabuses for the various faculties of the University of Libya, particularly the humanistic ones, and perhaps those who conduct the teaching, believe that the university is either a mere continuation of the secondary stage of education, or a school for mastering certain facts in various professions.

In Libya, as in most developing countries, the need for the training of the whole personality, in addition to basic professional training is even more important than in more advanced countries. Engineers, administrators, agriculturists, teachers, lawyers and the like need to be equipped also with some knowledge of social science in order to achieve real success in professions which involve contact with people who are illiterate or semi-illiterate, more or less superstitious and very sensitive to the kind of approach that is made to them. The professional should be psychologically as well as academically capable of speaking their language and interpreting their needs. He should be well versed in their traditions and aware of their history and con-

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1 This practice is receiving severe criticism from both students and university administrators.

sequently able to gain their sympathy and confidence. This is particularly important in the remote and distant rural areas in Libya where professional work requires more skill in personal approach and contact than is usually needed in urban areas.

The University of Libya has, so far, failed to do its job as far as these matters are concerned, and instead of moulding today's youth to be tomorrow's solver of society's problems, it has trained and encouraged him to escape from these very problems.[1]

If this is the role in society which university graduates have to play, it should be beyond dispute that they receive proper training in social matters and in many other aspects while still in the university.[2] Their programme should not be restricted to lectures and textbooks alone, but should permit actual contacts and participation in various activities. It is here suggested that the long summer vacation, rather than being wasted aimlessly as is the case at present, should be utilized for such social activities as voluntary social aid to villages and rural areas in Libya, participation in literacy campaigns, study camps and the like.[3]

The present policy adopted at the University of Libya with regard to the programme of studies followed in the various faculties does not give sufficient opportunities for training in social affairs. Students, particularly in the faculties of applied sciences, stick closely to their fields of specialization and have, apparently, no interest in

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1 See: Banerjea, B.N., Op. Cit., pp. 1 - 3.

2 Ibid.

3 University students will be more than willing to participate in any activities which can keep them busy during the long summer vacation. Their useful energies, rather than being utilized for the good of society, are carelessly wasted.

subjects of general knowledge. Narrow specialization in such professions as engineering, medicine and agriculture, tends to produce narrow-minded graduates as far as their public relations are concerned.

Under the present circumstances in the University of Libya, there seems to be no room for instruction in the humanities or other branches of knowledge outside the student's field of specialization. The present state of affairs makes it very difficult to include in the syllabus of such specialized training, any material which is not strictly relevant to the course of study. An example is the experiment attempted by the faculty of Science in the academic year 1962/63.[1] The faculty tried to introduce educational subjects such as educational psychology, principles of education and teaching methods into its purely scientific programme and gave equal importance to these subjects with those of pure science. The students, however, did not take these subjects seriously and ignored the fact that they had equal importance to the science subjects. As a result, a large number failed in the first examination and had to sit for the supplementary one.[2] The science teachers were not fully committed to the policy and some of them resented the fact that a considerable part of the time of their students was devoted to non-scientific subjects.

The reasons for such an experiment in the faculty of science were the continuous criticism and complaint from employers of university science graduates, that they lacked the psychology of public relations and failed to deal adequately with people and treat them in an acceptable manner. The matter was even more serious among those graduates who

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1 The faculty of Science, "Faculty Prospectus 1964/65", Tripoli, 1965 (in Arabic).

2 This was derived from the examination results announced by the faculty in 1965.

became teachers, because they had to deal with young people who required much care, patience and a genuine knowledge of how to deal with young learners. Thus, both the Ministry of Education and the University of Libya decided that such an experiment should be initiated in one of the science faculties.

Unfortunately, the experiment did not last long and was discontinued after a short and unsuccessful trial of approximately two years. The results of this experiment point to the fact that students are reluctant to study topics which are not, or do not seem to be, relevant to their field of specialization. However, the situation could change favourably and students could benefit much if science teachers were not indifferent and tried to encourage their students to study courses of human perspective and at the same time endeavoured not to overlook the human aspect when teaching or discussing specialized subjects.

Everyone, in practising his own profession, has to deal with other human beings and an understanding of their feelings is as important as an understanding of their technical needs.[1] This is a common fact which applies to all professionals such as engineers, administrators, agriculturists and technicians who are all field-workers essentially involved in relationships with human beings.[2]

As it is important for science students to study courses of humanistic value, arts students equally should acquire a good general understanding of the sciences and their methodology. In order to make students aware of the importance of such training for their professions,

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1 See: American University of Beirut, Op. Cit., pp. 12 - 18.

2 Ibid.

and as members of society, the study of these subjects should be continued throughout their university career. The students' interest can be aroused if the results of such training were to affect their academic awards. Every student should be required to achieve a minimal standard in general education, provided that it should not encroach on the time devoted to the degree syllabus. The student should accordingly try to secure as good a result as possible in his non-professional as well as in his professional work. It is absolutely essential that the standard of the professional or specialized degree should be maintained at a high level and there should be no lowering of standard in order to accommodate subjects of general education.

One point whose importance is not often obvious in the University of Libya is the sheer difficulty many students experience in actually tracking down lecturers or professors in various faculties, with whom they would like to make contact in leisure hours. However good their reasons, some members of the university staff, and in some faculties the majority of them, seem to spend extraordinarily little time on university premises when they are not actually lecturing or attending official meetings.

Further, university staff on the whole do not participate in student activities outside the academic sphere. This attitude tends to make the university life and experience less full and uninteresting, simply because teachers do not influence the students as much outside the lecture hall as they do academically within it. It is highly desirable that teachers in the University of Libya should be active members of committees for student affairs, whether for sports or social activities. The whole organization of student-teacher relationships at the various faculties of the University of Libya should aim at placing the experience of teachers at the disposal of students, not only through lectures, but also through working together and co-operating in out-of-class activities of all kinds.

The Role and Responsibility of the University

In developing countries, the university plays a relatively more important role than in well-established communities, because it is the main source of supply of the scientists, technicians and highly qualified individuals whom the country needs.[1] With regard to the role of the University of Libya, R. Farley writes:-

> "The final concept is to institutionalize effectively and to require that the University of Libya plays the largest possible national role, as historically happened in Britain, Canada and America particularly".[2]

It is generally accepted that nations, and particularly the developing ones, can only change through the development of their people.[3] To achieve this, education is the most powerful instrument available to a society. This means people whose education has made them free and flexible, not those who have merely learned to perform a task, however useful. This strategy is based on the belief that in order to develop, a country must have a very considerable proportion of trained and educated citizens, not only to act as doctors, engineers, teachers, agriculturists, scientists and the like, but to create a new class sufficiently large and hence sufficiently strong to establish its own values of justice, freedom and objectives of development.[4]

It is, therefore, desirable, and in fact necessary, that a

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1 See: Farley, R., "Education, Training and Planned Economic Development", pp. 30 - 36.

2 Ibid., p.30.

3 Adams Don, and Bjork Robert, Op. Cit., pp. 58 - 60 also pp. 83 - 86.

4 Ibid., pp. 65 - 67.

maximum number of young people receive a university education otherwise the qualities of leadership will be lacking.[1] In Libya and in most developing countries, universities are expected to play an effective and a dynamic role in transforming their backward societies in order to face the challenge of modern age. A. Fafunwa writes:-

> "Universities in under-developed countries face the type of challenge that has never been faced by European and American universities at any one period of their history, that is: to uphold higher standards, ensure unification of Africa, conduct research in African culture and heritage and then perpetuate the cultural heritage so defined, dispel misconceptions about Africa, develop human resources, educate the "whole man" for nation building and evolve a distinctly African pattern of higher education".[2]

One thus comes to the conclusion that the university should be open to young people who desire higher education, and that courses such as those necessary to serve the actual needs of Libya should be introduced. For all these reasons, policy-makers in Libya have to find every possible way of utilizing and building on existing skills, abilities and energies, and of making sure that no potentiality is wasted.

Obviously, lack of skilled manpower impedes development, and Libya is desperately in need of experts in all the professional and technical fields.[3] The prime role of the University of Libya is to meet this need.[4] The university therefore bears great responsibility towards the whole society, and it cannot escape criticism if it operates in isolation from the needs of society.

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1 See: Coombs Philip H., "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 156 - 161.

2 Fafunwa, A.Babs, Op. Cit., pp. 116 - 117.

3 Farley, R., "Planning for Development in Libya", pp. 94 - 101.

4 Ibid.

A university is first of all a centre for learning, that is for the transmission of acquired knowledge.[1] The formation of the complete personality which does not exclude professional training is the true objective of the university.[2] If this spirit is lacking, it can be a good school for professional training or even for pure research, but it will not be a university.[3]

The university is a corporation ultimately directed towards a common good.[4] In the pursuit of this good it governs and directs, by its own proper organs, its own life, and is able to preserve and perpetuate this life for new generations and into new eras.[5] As an ideal, the university in modern society should be both conservative and progressive.[6] It should preserve, interpret and rewrite human knowledge. Nothing in the past life of humanity should escape its attention: modes of life, traditions, developments of human mind, steps taken to conquer nature and harness it to the common good.[7] All these are fields which are currently neglected by the various departments of the University of Libya. The university is required to put great emphasis on these fields

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1 See: Coombs Philip, H., "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 156 - 158.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 See: Blagojevic, B., "The University as a Centre of Research", The University Today : Its Role and Place in Society", Geneva, 1960, pp. 57 - 64.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

in which various departments should collect facts, study problems, impart knowledge and co-ordinate data into a unified whole.

The community in Libya as a whole, as never before, is interested in the university and concerned about its relevance to the needs of the nation.[1] The idea that the university is an ivory tower is vanishing, instead, the Libyan people, particularly the intelligentsia, see the university as indispensable to the national economy and an important factor in social development.[2] One of the country's most urgent needs is for more university graduates.[3] The following quotation supports this view:-

> "The universities, being at the apex of the educational system, are expected by tradition and common consent to provide the system with its leadership. In addition, they are intended to be the guardians of truth, the seekers of new truths, and the upsetters of old dogmas, the conservators of society's heritage, the moulders of its youth, and the pathfinders of its future. To accomplish these heavy tasks, the university is allowed a privileged sanctuary. It stands at one remove from the hurly-burly of society's day-to-day commitments, quarrels, and passions, the better to see them more clearly". [4]

The public in Libya look upon university graduates and students as the intellectual elite who should not only serve the country in their own fields of specialization, but should also play an active role in social and political matters.[5] Yet, if the University of Libya is to retain its primary function with regard to the pursuit of learning and search for truth, it must not be detached from the Libyan society and its teachers and students must not be isolated from the community.[6]

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1 See: Shaikh, R.G., Op. Cit., pp. 321 - 22.

2 Farley, R., "Education, Training and Planned Economic Development", pp. 34 - 36.

3 Ibid.

4 Coombs, Philip H., "The World Educational Crisis", p.157

5 See: Farley R., "Education,Training and Planned Economic Development" pp. 30 - 36.

6 Ibid.

R. Farley writes:-

> "The most amazing experience, to be directly frank, is the extent to which the rest of Libya - except for the university students - lies untouched by the University of Libya, a distant existence akin to the pre-industrial revolution ideals of universities in Europe". [1]

It is expected that the university should not only be a centre of research and teaching, but also a training establishment whose graduates will be equipped for professional and specialized work and for the social services. The university should provide the professional and administrative staff to equip the various services and should act as a source from which society as a whole can receive intellectual sustenance. In short, Libyan society expects its university to revive Arab learning as it was at the height of Arab civilization, and at the same time to draw level with the advanced nations in modern technology.

No one denies, however, that the first responsibility of the university in Libya is to its students inside the walls.[2] The university has to cater for students who are growing up differently orientated from their predecessors. They have different attitudes to work, to politics, to religion and to the future of Libya from those of yesterday. No university student ought to be encouraged simply to fit in thoughtlessly with the dominant ideals and motives around him. Society needs people who are brought up in an intellectual environment; where thought and discussion is free and vital, so that they can fill jobs which are themselves intellectually as well as technically demanding. The main point is that the university should prepare the soil and nurture the plant of the student's personality in such a way as to enable it to

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1 See: Farley, R., "Education, Training and Planned Economic Development", p.31.

2 See: Banerjea, B.N., Op. Cit., pp. 1 - 3.

grow and blossom to his own and society's best advantage.

The larger the proportion of the country's intelligentsia passing through university, whether as undergraduates or postgraduates, the more the nation has a right to expect its university to produce people who know their own minds and have minds to know.

The university is a place where intellectual discussions and arguments can take place, a place where mind can meet and clash with mind.[1] Freedom of action, and even freedom of thought have been lacking in the University of Libya, particularly since 1964, after the instability in the university caused by student unrest and revolt which spread all over the country in that same year. Since then, government interference in the university affairs became a continuous practice rather than a passing interruption. A university can hardly function properly when its freedom is jeopardized by outside influences. Therefore, we must ensure that academic freedom prevails and the teaching is calculated to release human creativeness and ingenuity from the inertia of ignorance, tradition and fear.

After laying a solid educational foundation, the university must ensure opportunities for individual research by the student and the teaching staff. University education should always seek to open up new horizons and to stimulate individual research. The university, in expanding research, the emphasis must be on practical research, without thereby minimizing the worth of the university with regard to its other objectives. Education and research are never incompatible, and a true university education assumes individual research on the part of staff and students alike.[2]

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1 See: Coombs Philip, H., "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 156 - 161.

2 See: Blagojevic, B., Op. Cit., pp. 57 - 64.

Another aspect which is deemed important and even essential for the success and progress of the university in Libya, is its autonomy. Continuous interferences exercised by the Ministry of Education in the purely academic affairs of the University of Libya have created considerable problems for the university and endangered its autonomy. If the university is to remain properly a university, doing its real job, it is essential that it must have a certain degree of autonomy. This requirement is very closely linked to its primary function, which is the search for truth in an atmosphere free from the intrusion of outside influences. The university must be endowed with as great an autonomy as possible, with exclusive competence in all questions of administration, recruitment, and remuneration of administrative and teaching personnel.

Without intellectual freedom, one cannot speak of the university as an autonomous institution, and when a university is not autonomous, it loses its character of a university by right, and retains it only in name. When the authority emanates from sources outside the university itself, its autonomy will always be in a precarious position. Therefore, the university of Libya must be an autonomous, but by no means, an isolated institution.

CHAPTER SEVEN
PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

One of the greatest and most urgent tasks which faced Libya immediately after her independence was the reconstruction and expansion of her national system of education. The new policy aimed to provide free primary education for all Libyan children between the ages of 6 and 12.[1] Steps had also to be taken to reorganize secondary and vocational education on a sound basis and to initiate and promote higher education necessary for the development of the country.[2] It was also necessary to revive relations with other Arab countries and establish educational contacts where little or none had existed before.[3]

A main objective of the new educational policy was to initiate educational programmes which were more responsive to the needs of the nation and which, in the long run, would serve the real interests of the country.[4] Such an educational policy seems to be common to most emerging nations once the initial goals of independence and freedom have been achieved.[5] D. Adams and R. Bjork write:-

> "The overriding goals of contemporary African nations are national unity, economic growth, and social justice. These goals mean, on the one hand, a rejection of much of the colonial and noncolonial past and, on the other hand, the utilization of selected existing institutions as part of the foundations of new societies".[6]

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1 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya 1950 - 1967", pp. 1 - 3, see also: Shaikh, R.G., Op.Cit., pp. 288 - 289.

2 Ibid.

3 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, pp. 9 - 10.

4 Ibid.

5 Adams, Don and Bjork, Robert, Op. Cit., pp. 60 - 61.

6 Ibid., p.60.

Thus, educational expansion and reform in independent Libya became an integral part of the national policy, for at least two main reasons. First, primary education was treated as a constitutional right, to be made universally available both for its own sake and to eliminate the injustices which the colonial systems, whether by accident or design, had imposed.[1] Second, there was a pressing and obvious need for training skilled manpower at all levels, partly to provide for the new needs of the nation, and partly to make up for the loss of the foreign skilled and professionally qualified persons who had to leave the country as a result of its independence.[2]

Under the national system of education, indigenous people were thus trained to be administrators, clerks, hospital orderlies, nurses and teachers.[3] More and more schools were established both in the urban centres and in the villages and remote areas. The function of the school in independent Libya was conceived as primarily to help the development of a backward economy particularly in agriculture; to enrich life in the villages, and to inculcate in the Libyan child habits of industry and respect for the traditions and customs of his people.[4] Of particular importance in the post-independence period, is the fact that education was gradually beginning to be understood as a much broader process for development than was the case in the past. The belief, that primary education was sufficient, was replaced by the notion that the body

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1 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya 1950 - 1967", pp. 1 - 3.

2 See: Farley, R., "Planning for Development in Libya", pp. 81 - 82.

3 Ibid., p.82.

4 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "The Development of Education in Libya", Document No.1, pp. 9 - 12.

of information acquired at the primary stage was too short and too uncertain to adequately equip the individual for life, and at the same time it was seen as too limited to lead to development and advancement.[1]

The Libyan authorities made strenuous efforts to develop education at all levels.[2] Between 1951 and 1970 a remarkable quantitative increase in enrolments was achieved.[3] Also, there was a substantial qualitative improvement in the programmes of schools at different levels.[4]

In spite of these efforts, Libya still suffers many of the educational problems and weaknesses common to most developing countries. Of these many acute problems, three stand out as the most urgent. These problems are:

a) Adult education and the eradication of illiteracy.

b) The education of women.

c) The need for educational Planning and Reform.

Adult Education and the Eradication of Illiteracy.

Adult education is one of the important branches of education which is increasingly gaining attention by most nations of the world.

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1 During the pre-independence period, people used to think that the primary school certificate was good enough for obtaining a good job, either with the government or in private business. This attitude has changed after the attainment of independence. People became more ambitious and came to realize that primary school certificate was not sufficient for good education.

2 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Education in Libya 1950 - 1967", pp. 1 - 4.

3 Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 20 - 22.

4 Ibid.

In developing countries, ignorance and sickness, coupled with poverty, combine to retard movement towards social betterment and economic growth.[1] In these countries, adult education is needed to combat the high rate of illiteracy and to fight epidemic diseases which reduce the capacity of men and women to work productively.[2] W. A. Lewis writes:-

> "The quickest way to increase productivity in the less developed countries is to train the adults who are already on the job. Education for children is fine, but its potential contribution to output over ten years is small compared with the potential contribution of efforts devoted to improving adult skills".[3]

The provision of well-qualified and capable adults is, therefore, essential, if skilled manpower requirements are to be met by nationals rather than by expatriates. This is a matter of particular importance in developing countries where skilled manpower requirements are acutely lacking.[4]

In most Western countries, adult education has a long history and has been part of an integrated process directed towards the creation of a literate and well-informed public.[5] In developing countries, the introduction of adult education is a recent enterprise and has been given,

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1 See: Makulu, H.F., Op. Cit., pp. 75 - 77.

2 Ibid. See also: Fafunwa, A.Babs, Op. Cit., pp. 155 - 156.

3 Lewis, W.A., "Education and Economic Development", cited by Coles, Edwin, T., "Adult Education in Developing Countries", Pergamon Press, London, 1969, p.11.

4 See: Coombs, Philip, H., "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 74 - 76.

5 See: Makulu, H.F., Op. Cit., p.76.

so far, scant consideration.[1] In some countries, it has been given third or fourth priority and in most developing countries it is not regarded as an essential part of the educational system.[2] A. Fafunwa writes:-

> "One of the most neglected national resources in under-developed countries is the adult. His need for education is second only to that of the school-age child..... It is erroneous thinking to assume that illiterate adults will die away within a generation or two. The truth of the matter is that the size of the illiterate adult population is increasing, while the pace of social and technological changes is accelerating phenomenally".[3]

In Libya, although the authorities recognize the importance of adult education, yet there is no sign of a serious attempt to improve and develop it.[4] With regard to this point, A. Abdel-Aziz writes:-

> "Generally speaking, adult education and literacy activities were assigned a low position on the scale of educational priorities. The assumption was that 'eventually' illiteracy will be eradicated through universal primary education. That illiteracy represents a present problem which has to be solved now in order to avoid its socio-economic consequences, seemed somewhat remote. The need for public information was evident".[5]

Adult education was not formally introduced in Libya until the country became independent.[6] And even then, it had only a nominal start, because, apart from financial difficulties, attention had to be

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1 See: Makuly, W.F., Op. Cit., p.75.

2 Fafunwa, A.Babs, Op. Cit., pp.155 - 157.

3 Ibid., p.156.

4 See: Abdel-Aziz, A.F., "Final Report", 1968, pp. 3 - 4 (Unpublished).

5 Abdel-Aziz, A.F., Op. Cit., p.4.

6 See: Husain Mir Moazam, "Problems of Adult Education in Libya", 1961, pp. 10 - 11 (Unpublished).

focussed upon more urgent problems which confronted the country on the threshold of her independence.[1] Unesco's report of 1951 states:-

> "Adult education is practically non-existent, except in Tripoli; it consists mainly of night classes for the teaching of English. There are 903 students grouped in 40 classes - half of them are Libyans and half Italians. The Ministry is arranging for the printing of books composed in accordance with Laubach method. As soon as they are ready, a campaign against illiteracy will be launched amongst the Arab population".[2]

Adult literacy programmes were officially initiated in Libya in 1953, when the Libyan government invited Unesco to establish a programme for adult education in the ex-province of Fezzan.[3] This was the first official attempt towards the development of adult education in Libya, after which several literacy programmes for adults were started throughout the country.[4] With regard to the Fezzan experiment, the Ministry of Education reports:-

> "The project started in 1953 and was expanded through the years to include hundreds of classes and community centres. The Fezzan experiment has shown some of the most effective methods in motivating women by relating the three Rs to home economics. This experiment continued in co-operation with Unesco".[5]

In Tripolitania and Cyrenaica, adult literacy programmes were started in 1957.[6] Regular courses have been started for illiterates

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1 See: Husain Mir Moazam, "Problems of Adult Education in Libya", 1961, pp. 10 - 11 (Unpublished).

2 Unesco, "Libyan Education and Its Development", Paris, 1951, p.31.

3 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Eradication of Illiteracy and Adult Education", Document No.8, p.5.

4 Ibid.

5 Ibid., p.5.

6 See: Husain Mir Mozam., Op. Cit., p.11.

and semi-illiterates in the ex-provinces. The classes were conducted under the guidance of the Libyan graduates of the Arab States Fundamental Education Centre at Sirs-el-Layyan/Egypt.[1]

These early attempts were important, though not sufficient steps in the country's efforts for universal literacy. The initial programmes were handicapped largely by lack of funds and shortage of staff.[2] Lack of interest on the part of adults themselves was also one of the main factors which hindered the implementation of some adult literacy programmes, particularly in the villages.[3]

In 1964, the Ministry of Education established a general department for literacy and adult education which was entrusted with the task of planning and studying programmes of literacy and adult education in Libya.[4] The efforts of this department began to show results in the period between 1965 and 1968, when a number of projects were accomplished.[5] These efforts proved successful and many illiterate adults were induced to join literacy programmes.[6] When formal education began to spread, some citizens contributed to the financing of courses and some teachers and students likewise volunteered to teach in the courses and

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1 See: Hussain, Mir M. Op. Cit., p.11.

2 See: Abdel-Aziz, A.F., Op. Cit., p.13.

3 Ibid., p.4.

4 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Report on Adult Education", 1971, p.2. (unpublished).

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid., pp. 3 - 4.

take part in the illiteracy campaigns.[1]

Some initiatives were taken during this period which aimed at developing programmes of adult education in Libya.[2] The Ministry of Education had suspended all literacy activities for the academic year 1964/65, and Unesco's assistance, which started in 1953, was terminated. But the Libyan government had committed itself at the Arab States Regional Conference to start its literacy campaign on 1st November 1965, along with all the other Arab States. The Crown Speech of 22nd May 1965, had invited the government to prepare comprehensive plans for the eradication of illiteracy in the country, in cooperation with both the international and regional organizations concerned.

In 1965, the Ministry of Education announced a comprehensive plan to eliminate illiteracy throughout the country within a period of 15 years (1965 - 1980).[3] After 3 years (1968), the first Law to organize adult education and literacy programmes in Libya, was enacted.[4] It emphasized the initial steps taken by the Ministry of Education in the domain of adult education, and stressed the implementation of the comprehensive plan as outlined by the Ministry.[5]

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1 See: Husain Mir M. Op. Cit., p.14.

2 See: Abdel-Aziz, A.F., Op. Cit., p.3.

3 See Chapter Two, pp. 77 - 78.

4 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", p.243. This Law was superseded by a new Law of 1970, which reorganized adult education and literacy programmes in Libya.

5 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Eradication of Illiteracy in Libya", 1970, p.6. (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

Under the revolutionary regime, some serious attempts were made to develop adult education and improve literacy programmes.[1] The most important of these was the campaign of 1970/71 during which literacy programmes covered the whole country.[2] In 1971, there was a total of 67705 male and female adults who attended literacy programmes.[3] (see Table 65). In terms of enrolments, this was regarded as a successful attempt compared with the discouraging enrolments of previous campaigns.

Despite these efforts, however, illiteracy among adult Libyans, particularly women, was very high.[4] According to the general population census of 1954, the percentage of illiterate males was over 74%, and that of females was over 97%.[5] The general percentage of illiterates of both sexes, according to the same census, was over 85%.[6] In 1964, the percentage of illiteracy among males was about 53%, and among females about 94%.[7] The general percentage of illiteracy for both sexes among the population was about 73% according to the 1964 general census.[8] According to the estimates of 1970, Libya has a

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1 Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Report on Adult Education", p.2.

2 Ibid., pp. 3 - 4.

3 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Report on National Voluntary Literacy Campaign", 1971, p.9.

4 Ibid., pp. 7 - 8.

5 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Report on Adult Education", p.2.

6 Ibid.

7 Ibid.

8 Ibid.

TABLE 65

Literacy Campaign in Libya - 1971

MUHAFAZAT (Governarates)	No. of Schools & Centres.		No. of Classes.			No. of Volunteers			No. of Enrolments.		
	School	Centre	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total.
TRIPOLI	153	15	835	71	906	835	71	906	20768	1700	22468
BENGHAZI	49	2	219	-	219	230	-	230	5217	-	5217
SEBHA	43	1	110	-	110	151	-	151	2179	-	2179
ZAWIA	137	22	548	10	558	548	10	558	10563	437	11000
DERNA	47	4	115	-	115	161	-	161	2310	-	2310
GARIAN	130	-	478	-	478	478	-	478	5451	-	5451
EL-JABAL EL-AKHDAR	85	9	183	19	201	216	13	229	4228	-	4999
EL-KHALIJ	44	-	75	2	77	113	2	115	1954	40	1994
MISRATA	151	-	337	1	338	352	1	353	6413	16	6429
HOMS	151	-	337	-	337	352	-	352	6429	-	6429
Total	990	53	3237	103	3340	3436	97	3533	65512	2193	67705

Source: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Report on National Voluntary Literacy Campaign", 1971.

total of 1,025,580 illiterate males and females of above 15 years of age,[1] (see Table 66).

Table 66.

The Number of Illiterates of above 15 years of age among the population of Libya in 1970.

Age Group	Sex	Population 15+	No. of Illiterates.	Percentage	Total of Population.
15+	Male	730,208	390,662	53.5	997,500
	Female	675,446	634,918	94	938,500
Total		1,405,654	1,025,580	72.7	1,936,000

Source: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Eradication of Illiteracy in Libya", 1970, (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

According to the estimates of 1970, over half of the Libyan population is practically illiterate.[2] The existence of such a large illiterate community in Libya is not only a serious problem, but also a national liability as it is a handicap on economic development. Illiteracy stunts growth in almost every sphere of development, and unfortunately most developing countries, particularly in Africa, suffer from this difficulty.[3] S. Spaulding writes:-

1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "Eradication of Illiteracy in Libya", p.1. (in the Appendices).

2 Ibid.

3 Spaulding, S., "Advanced Educational Technologies", in "Prospectus in Education", a Quarterly Bulletin, Vol.1, No.3, Unesco, Paris, 1970, pp. 9 - 10.

"For all of the quantitative expansion of education, we still have more and more illiterate adults in the world each year. Estimates are that there will be a world total of some 810 million adult illiterates in 1970, compared to 740 million in 1960, if the present rate of increase in illiteracy continues. In Africa alone, there will be about 4 million more adult illiterates each year during the 1970s, if current projections based on what seems reasonable are accurate".[1]

In Libya, the existence of a large number of illiterate adults among its population constitutes a grave problem. What is even worse is the fact that the number of illiterates is increasing as a result of the school drop-outs and school-leavers, who tend to lapse into illiterates after giving up schooling.[2]

If literacy is to be increased in Libya, and if the deficiencies caused by incomplete schooling are to be overcome, adult education must be given adequate attention and must be assigned high priority. The situation in Libya is quite favourable insofar as the development of adult education is concerned. The people genuinely desire education even faster, and on a larger scale than the state is potentially capable of providing it.[3] There is a growing recognition that the lack of education is one of the major causes of Libya's slow progress.

Therefore, if Libya is to accelerate its pace of progress, it should exert special efforts to overcome the handicap of widespread

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1 Spaulding, S., "Advanced Educational Technologies", in "Prospectus in Education", A Quarterly Bulletin, Vol.1, No.3, Unesco, Paris, 1970, pp. 9 - 10.

2 The number of school drop-outs is very high at the primary stage. They leave school before the habit for reading becomes well established, and thus they soon turn into illiterates or semi-illiterates.

3 Although this was not the case when literacy programmes were first initiated in Libya, the situation, however, has changed when illiterate adults became more aware of the benefits of education for their careers.

adult illiteracy. It is often said that there is no country which is intrinsically rich or poor, but it is what its people make of the available resources. Therefore, illiteracy must be eliminated because it is the twin sister of backwardness.[1] A. Fafunwa writes:-

> "We have also stressed that it is not a mere coincidence that illiteracy and under-development go hand in hand, and today, over seventy per cent of our adult population in Africa is illiterate; that illiteracy impedes progress and that a country with a high percentage of illiteracy cannot hope to develop to maximum capacity for as long as the situation remains relatively unchanged".[2]

In Libya, illiteracy poses a formidable obstacle to economic and social development. There can hardly be any dramatic change in the situation unless the authorities take the matter seriously and start a nation-wide mass literacy campaign.

The Education of Women

> "Educate a man and you educate an individual; educate a woman and you educate a family".[3]

This famous 'saying' clearly emphasizes the important role that educated women can play in improving and transforming their respective societies. Once literacy and education are spread among women, the problem of education of the future generation becomes very much simpler. No society can aspire for progress and advancement without active participation of literate women in its various affairs.

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1 Fafunwa, A.Babs., Op. Cit., p.157.

2 Ibid., p.156.

3 Ward, W.E.F., Op. Cit., p.95,

Most of the Arab states are currently in periods of evolution and rapid change.[1] In these countries, education for social and economic development is increasingly gaining attention.[2] The role of education has not only been widely recognized, but it has been regarded as a necessity rather than a luxury.[3] This view is supported by figures which show that remarkable expansion in school enrolments at various levels, has been achieved by most Arab states.[4]

However, in spite of these great achievements, one of the most striking features of the educational development in Arab countries in recent years, has been the massive expansion of school enrolments for boys rather than for girls.[5] Girls' education is rapidly improving, but it has not kept pace with the expansion for boys. One of the reasons, apart from cultural factors, is the fact that girls' education is a recent phenomenon in the Arab World.[6] Unesco writes:-

> "Most of the Arab countries, in the early stages of their educational development, devoted themselves entirely to the provision of facilities for boys. As it happened, this was itself one of the main factors which eventually led to the establishment of girls' schools .... Nevertheless, the position is still unsatisfactory and the proportion of the school-age girls enrolled is far smaller than that of boys".[7]

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1 See: Akrawi M., and El-Koussy, A.A., Op. Cit., pp. 181 - 182.

2 Ibid.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

5 Girls' education in the Arab countries has, certainly, made a remarkable progress, but the rate of increase is much greater for boys than it is for girls.

6 See: Unesco, "Compulsory Education in the Arab States", pp. 67 - 69.

7 Ibid., pp. 67 - 68.

Although the situation has changed, and girls' education has greatly improved, yet, even after two decades, the position of girls in many parts of the Arab world is still unsatisfactory.[1] Unesco writes:-

> "It is interesting to compare the proportion of enrolment taken up by girls in the Arab states with other regions in the world. It can be seen that, at all levels, the percentage of females in total enrolment is considerably lower in the Arab states than in either the rest of Africa or the rest of Asia and well below the average world rates".[2]

This may be attributed to the fact that in many Arab countries, the value of women's education and their contribution to national progress has not yet been adequately realised.[3] But the most influential factor is, no doubt, the socio-cultural barrier which stands as a great obstacle to girls' access to education.[4] Many Arab societies suffer from this problem. The following story is a typical example:-[5]

> "Five years ago, a woman from the United Nations who was concerned about human rights went to a Sheikh in one of the Gulf states to talk about rights for women. She was trying to promote women's rights in his country. She spoke of the need for education; he nodded, because this was a good idea. She spoke about the need to learn to read, and he nodded, She mentioned the need to learn to write, and he raised his head and said, "Write to whom?". I suppose he was afraid some of the women in his country would write to men".[6]

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1 Unesco: "Comparative Statistical Data on Education in the Arab States : An Analysis : 1960/61 - 1967/68", Paris, 1970, pp. 40 - 43.

2 Ibid., p.41.

3 Unesco: "Access of Girls to School Education in the Arab States", Paris, 1964, p.20.

4 Ibid., pp. 21 - 22.

5 May be not a good example in urban areas as it is in some conservative rural ones.

6 American University of Beirut "University Development: Continuity and Change", p.97.

The relegation of girls' education to a secondary position to that of boys is a manifestation of long-standing social traditions and attitudes concerning the place of women in Arab societies. In almost all Arab countries, it is much harder to get girls to school than boys.[1] The prevalence of traditional attitudes in some Arab societies forces parents to bow to traditions and object to the education of their daughters simply because they fear that a girls' appearance in public will be construed as a sign of bad character.[2] There are also many parents who still believe that a girl's place is in the home, and that she does not need schooling; a boy must be educated because he has to be prepared for a job, but a girl's job is matrimony.[3]

Libya shares with other Arab states the problems encountered in the area of girls' education.[4] The fact that the bulk of the Libyan society is traditionally religious and conservative makes the problem of womens' education in Libya even more difficult.[5] Women are socially secluded and custom requires them to wear the veil when appearing in public. This situation has aggravated the problems, and made progress towards womens' emancipation in Libya incredibly difficult. Thus, womens' access to social activities, particularly those which involve the participation of men, is not yet possible.

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1 See: Unesco, "Access of Girls to School Education in the Arab States", pp. 20 - 24.

2 Ibid.

3 Many parents who live in the villages and rural areas in Libya are under strong conviction that a girl's job is mainly to be a housewife.

4 Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Women Education in Libya", Document No.6, 1966, pp. 3 - 5.

5 Ibid.

In Libya, as in most Arab countries, socio-cultural factors play a dominant role in determining the access of girls to school education.[1] Unesco writes:-

> "However, education for girls has not as yet advanced very far in Libya. This backwardness is due, not to Moslem law itself, but to the traditional interpretation given to that law in Libya, as in the rest of North Africa. The difficulties arising in connexion with education for girls are consequently not merely budgetary but psychological,[2] and can only really be overcome by a woman".

Although this quotation describes the situation in Libya during the early years of independence, it is still a valid criticism of many parts of Libya today. Many parents, particularly in rural areas are still opposed to the education of their daughters. They are reluctant to educate their daughters because they believe that girls should stay at home to help their mothers with the house duties and responsibilities, particularly when there are many children in the family. In these areas and in many urban centres parents prefer to send their girls to local women trachers to learn sewing and other household skills, and when chances for education are granted, priority is usually given to boys rather than girls.[3] Early marriages, which are a common practice in Libya, particularly in rural areas, do much harm to the development of women's education, and in many cases determine school drop-outs.[4]

Although womens' education in Libya was initiated before independence, it had only a minimal start and its development was not taken seriously until the country became independent.[5] This meagre start,

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1 See: Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", pp. 38 - 40.

2 Ibid., p.39.

3 The preference of educating the boys rather than girls, is a common practice in rural areas.

4 In urban areas, although this phenomena is not unusual, it is rapidly vanishing.

5 ~~Soo~~ Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Women Education in Libya". pp.1.

however, can only be appreciated when the country's traditions and numerous difficulties are recalled. Unesco describes the situation in 1952:-

> "Taking the customs of the country into consideration, it is not surprising that girls' education should be backward. On the contrary, it is encouraging to learn that nearly 3,000 girls attended public schools in 1950/51, that there is a girls' school even in the distant village of Hon.".[1]

Despite the fact that the Libyan laws and regulations give equal educational opportunities for boys and girls,[2] the facilities provided for girls, as yet, are far from adequate.[3] Even when need in some areas for the education of girls is strongly felt, its expansion is limited by the lack of personnel, particularly of teaching staff.[4] The problem of girls' education in Libya is aggravated by the fact that co-education does not obtain in Libyan schools, except at the university level.[5] Traditions require that girls should be segregated from boys and thus schools for girls had to be established separately. Men teachers are rarely allowed to teach in girls' schools.[6] Unfortunately, Libya suffers from acute shortages of female teachers, and this, coupled with the refusal and unwillingness of female teachers to work in the villages and rural areas, has helped to hamper the dev-

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1 Unesco, "Report of the Mission to Libya", p.23.

2 See: Libyan Arab Republic,Ministry of Education, "Education Legislation in Libya", p.13.

3 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Girls' Education in Libya", 1967, pp. 2 - 4. (Unpublished).

4 Ibid.

5 In some rural areas, co-education is tolerated when there are no girls' schools in the area, but even then it is practised in the lower grades at the primary stage.

6 There are exceptions to this generalization in some urban areas when recruitment of women teachers becomes difficult because of the shortage of women teachers.

elopment of girls' education in the whole country.[1] Unesco writes in 1964:-

> "In Libya, the shortage of female teachers is one of the major obstacles to the extension of primary education for girls. The difficulty of persuading teachers to work in any town, except their own, adds to the problem, as does the traditional opposition to appointing men teachers in girls' schools". [2]

Despite the fact that girls' education in Libya is making impressive and continuous progress,[3] it is still in its infancy particularly in the villages and rural areas.[4] Enrolment figures at the primary stage, for example, clearly indicate that as one goes up the school grades, the proportion of girls to boys declines sharply[5] (see Table 67). In some urban areas, girls make up as much as 50 per cent of the total number of children in primary schools, but the proportion drops to about 10 per cent or less in rural areas.[6] Rural areas are, in fact, at a disadvantage as far as girls' education is concerned.[7] W. Vietmeyer writes:-

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1 Unesco, "Access of Girls to School Education in the Arab States", pp. 20 - 22.

2 Ibid., p.21.

3 Vietmeyer, W.F., "Girls' Education in Libya", pp. 2 - 3.

4 See: Prasad Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 20 - 24.

5 Ibid.

6 Ibid.

7 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Girls' Education in Libya", pp. 2 - 4.

"The Ministry of Education faces many problems in girls' education, but it has to study the differences between the needs of rural girls as compared with urban girls. In the cities, the Ministry has taken suitable buildings and villas and used them for schools of various types ... In general, however, the girls in rural communities have not had the same opportunities as girls in cities. In many country towns there exists a boys' primary school, but none for girls".[1]

According to the general census of 1964, there was a total of about 140,000 girls in Libya between the ages of 6 and 12.[2] The number of girls enrolled in the primary stage in all Libyan schools was approximately 33,000 in the academic year 1964/65.[3] In 1969/70, there was a total of 107,047 girls in all Libyan primary schools.[4] In preparatory and secondary stages the proportion of girls to boys drops to about 15 per cent and 12 per cent respectively.[5] At the university level, the proportion of girls to boys is approximately 9 per cent in the academic year 1970/71.[6]

These figures are a clear indication of the sort of problems girls' education faces in Libya at present. In the estimated total population of the country, in 1970, there are about 187 thousand boys and 182 thousand girls of the age group 5 - 11.[7] Yet, the proportion

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1 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "Girls Education in Libya", pp. 2 - 3.

2 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of National Economy, "Statistical Abstract 1964", Census and Statistical Department, 1964.

3 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Educational Statistics in Libya", 1971.

4 Ibid.

5 In the academic year 1969/70. See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 20 - 24,

6 Considering the difficulties, this is regarded as a great achievement indeed.

7 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", p.5.

TABLE 67

The Proportion of Girls to Boys in Libyan Primary Grades, 1969/70.

GRADE:	BOYS:	GIRLS:
First	58.72	41.28
Second	62.28	37.72
Third	65.11	34.89
Fourth	70.38	29.62
Fifth	75.15	24.85
Sixth	79.81	20.19
Total Percentage	65.56	34.44.

Source: Statistics Published by the Ministry of Education - Libya, 1970.

of girls to boys at the primary stage remains roughly 1:2.[1]

In a situation such as this in Libya where illiteracy rates are high and where the majority of women are still confined to the inner part of the home, hopes for economic and social progress become very difficult to achieve. On this point, the IBRD comments in 1960:-

> "The status of women in society also has an important bearing on economic development. As one of the best known authorities on the subject has said, "Restrictions on the work women may do are also everywhere a barrier to economic growth. .... One of the most serious handicaps to economic and social development in Libya is the difficulty of finding people for jobs which in most other countries are filled mainly, or in part by women - for example, nurses, teachers and stenographers".[2]

Neglect of women's education in Libya is, in fact, a loss of one of the nation's richest sources for development. It is unsound policy of education which favours the education of boys at the expense of girls. Women should have the access to education not only because they have to share the heavy burden of responsibilities of life with men, but also because it is their legal right. The Prophet Mohammad said: "Quest for learning is a sacred duty for every Muslim, be he man or woman".

The remedy lies in the hands of the Libyan educational authorities,[3] who are called upon to treat the problem of women's education with more

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1 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", p.5.

2 IBRD., p.10.

3 There are, of course, many social and cultural problems which may be seen to be beyond the authorities' control, but serious attempts with faith and will may prove fruitful and not without good results.

sincerity and seriousness and as a matter of urgency. There are, of course, many difficulties in the way, but these difficulties have to be courageously faced if education in Libya is to be worth the name.

The Need for Educational Planning and Reform.

Mere quantitative increase of enrolments in any educational system is not necessarily a sign of its adequacy or soundness. The wrong kind of education provided in relation to a country's needs may be more harmful and a waste of human and economic resources than having too little education.[1] Therefore, the task of defining educational aims and setting priorities in a clear and meaningful manner becomes one of the necessities of any sound educational system.[2] For any educational strategy, this process requires good experience, skill and above all requires over-all educational planning, otherwise, the system may produce more frustrations and disappointments than positive and desirable results.[3]

When people show a genuine desire for education, they do not necessarily want the kind of education that is most likely to serve their own interests and at the same time complies with the needs and aspirations of the nation as a whole. Therefore, systematic educational plans are highly desirable to determine educational priorities

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1 See: Coombs Philip H., "The Challenge to Educational Planning", International Development Review, June, 1968, p.7.

2 See: Coombs Philip H., "The World Educational Crisis", pp. 99 - 101.

3 See: Unesco: "Problems and Strategies of Educational Planning: Lessons From Latin America", Paris, 1965, pp. 3 - 6.

and set programmes for accelerating the growth of the human attributes deemed necessary for economic and social development.[1]

Libya is now undergoing a period of accelerated change and growth.[2] Growth is a good thing, but it brings in its wake problems and difficulties. Unless these problems are tackled at an early stage, they soon multiply. Within the field of education, the planner has heavy responsibilities. One of his principal tasks is to draw the attention of the authorities to the dangers of embarking upon any planning, the aims of which have not been clearly defined.

In Libya, although heroic efforts are being made to develop education throughout the country, many of the projects were merely a waste of time and money.[3] What is even worse is not the fact that so much went badly, but that so much is still going wrong.[4] The discrepancy between the ambitious aims of the educational plans and the means for implementing them seems to be the most important cause of this state of affairs.[5] Another reason is the lack of liaison between the educational planning bodies and the political authorities who make decisions and determine policy.[6] A large number of the educational plans implemented in Libya were not sufficiently

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1 See: Winn, Ira J., "Strategies for the Implementation of Educational Plans in Developing Countries", International Review of Education, Vol. XVII, No.3, 1971, pp. 265 - 266.

2 See: Kingdom of Libya, Ministry of Education, "Development of Educational Planning and Its Machinery in Libya", Tripoli, 1966, pp. 3 - 4.

3 Waste may be inevitable in the initial stages, but continuous repetition of erroneous actions is certainly not justified.

4 See: Young, T.C.J., "Student Statistics for Educational Planning", Education Statistics Document No.14, 1968, pp. 3 - 7 (Unpublished). see also: Young, T.C.J., "Educational Statistics and Educational Planning", Educational Statistics Document No.18, 1968, pp. 1 - 5. (Unpublished).

5 Ibid.

6 This lack of liaison can be seen in most governmental departments in Libya.

carefully projected. Some of them proved to be irrelevant to the needs of the community they were intended to serve. For example, a large school was recently [1] built in the vicinity of Tripoli, which was originally intended to be a primary school. When the building was completed, the authorities decided to change it to a preparatory school and finally it was turned into a secondary school.[2] When the school-year started, the school was attended by only a handful of students, a number which, by no means, justifies the money spent and the efforts exerted. Apparently the community was not in need of this type of school, which should have been built in another area where it was badly needed. In this example, the authorities had obviously not studied the area where the school was planned to be built, or tested the actual needs of the community. Unfortunately, this is not an isolated incident, for there are many parts of the country which similarly suffer from irrelevant projects.[3]

One of the outstanding features of primary education in Libya, in recent years, has been the tremendous growth in enrolment.[4] This expansion reflects an increasing demand for education. But primary education has been the privilege of a small minority, and has so far been conceived to comply with the needs of urban areas rather than

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1 In 1970/71.

2 Vietmeyer, W.F. also gives a number of examples for this type of waste in his interesting paper "Possible Wastage in Primary School Buildings", 1968, particularly pp. 8 - 15 (Unpublished).

3 Ibid., See also: Young, T.C.J., "Capital Expenditure on Education Versus Recurrent Expenditure", Education Statistics Document No.16, 1968, pp. 3 - 6 (Unpublished).

4 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 20 - 24.

rural ones.[1] At root, problems such as this which confront educational planning in Libya are not peculiar to any country in the region.[2] Most Arab countries suffer from imbalance in education.[3] A. A. El-Koussy writes:-

> "There is also noticeable lack of balance as regards education provided in rural and urban areas. In cities we find the technical schools, the secondary schools and the higher. In rural areas we only find a small number of small primary schools. Even agricultural schools are to be found in most Arab countries in the cities".[4]

Rural areas are also at disadvantage in terms of teaching staff, equipment and school facilities.[5] The majority of unqualified teachers are assigned to rural areas,[6] which tends to retard progress and adversely affect the quality of education in those areas. This situation is aggravated by the fact that the Libyan population is rapidly increasing. It is envisaged that the population of Libya will reach 3 million by 1986.[7] The birth rate is known to be very high in rural areas.[8] But as yet, there seems to be no serious action on the

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1 See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Education, "A Study to the Problem of Educational Wastage at the Primary Stage", Department of Educational Planning, 1970, pp. 1 - 14 (in Arabic)(Unpublished).

2 Refers to the Arab World as a whole.

3 See: El-Koussy, A.A., "A Survey of Educational Progress in the Arab States", pp. 84 - 86.

4 Ibid., p.86.

5 See: Vietmeyer, W.F., "The Training of Untrained Teachers", pp.1 - 2.

6 Ibid.

7 Eastmond Jefferson, N., "Education in Libya by 1986", 1966, p.2. (Unpublished).

8 The death-rate is also high in rural areas, but health conditions are improving.

part of the authorities for a large-scale plan to meet the expected growth, either in rural or in urban areas.

One of the other aspects which requires adequate planning is that of manpower requirements.[1] It is often said that one of the prime purposes of education is to produce the men and women required to operate the intricate machinery of the nation. Libya's over-all development is conspicuously handicapped by acute shortages of all kinds of specialized manpower.[2] In 1971, it was estimated that about 27,000 skilled personnel were needed.[3] The various institutions in Libya were capable of supplying only 4,500 skilled workers in that year.[4] The gap had to be filled with expatriates. Unesco refers to this problem in 1964:-

> "In Libya shortages of many types of key personnel are now acute ... The root cause of this problem is the shortage of suitably educated personnel. Without men able to undertake the responsibility of running a business and the skilled operators or tradesmen capable of working and maintaining the equipment, industry will not expand no matter how great the demand for its products .... Education can play an important part in solving this problem, if there is a good education system".5

In such a situation, priority should have been given to producing those types of skilled manpower most needed for economic growth.

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1 See: Charkiewicz, M., "Labour Force Projections by Sex and Age, 1964 - 1978", 1968, pp. 4 - 8 (Unpublished).

2 Ibid.

3 Teachers in various levels were excluded. See: Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Planning, "Vocational Training", 1971, p.33. (Unpublished).

4 Ibid., p.34.

5 Unesco, "Educational Planning Mission : Libya", p.9.

Even when the authorities are fully aware of such needs, last-minute actions usually take the place of long-term planning.

Despite continuous declarations on the part of the Libyan educational authorities of their acceptance and adoption of educational planning as a key process in maximizing education's role in development, in reality there is an abyss between the words and facts.[1] Educational plans are rarely defined with precision and therefore educational targets are not often attained.[2] Among the difficulties which hinder effective planning are the lack of trained personnel to operate national planning affairs, inefficient administrative machinery, inadequate data and the lack of political stability and continuity.[3]

In Libya, the main educational targets have been, so far, to boost the number and percentage of young children attending educational institutions at every level.[4] Educational progress has been measured by indicators such as the educational expenditure and the remarkable expansion in absolute figures. These are misleading criteria of assessment and evaluation,which take too little account of the quality of education.

However, in spite of these deficiencies, the picture is not altogether gloomy. There is at present a pre-eminent desire for reform and the educational authorities are beginning to sense the need

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1 What is officially announced to be implemented is not always accomplished.

2 See: Young, T.C.J., "Educational Statistics and Educational Planning", pp. 1 - 5.

3 In Libya, change of administration is a strong cause for discontinuation in some projects.

4 See: Prasad, Maya, "The Primary, Preparatory and Secondary School Graduates in Libya", pp. 20 - 24.

for over-all educational planning.[1] Educational problems are increasingly receiving more and more attention. The first and second educational conferences held in Libya in 1970 and 1971 and the conference held in the Sudan in 1970 were devoted to the discussion of problems related to educational development in the country. There is a good prospect of drastic change in the whole educational strategy in the foreseeable future.

Nevertheless, immediate educational reform must be urgently initiated. Education has to be geared to plans for economic and social development. Educational planners are required to determine which levels of education should receive priority. Highest priority should be attached to teacher education, for it is the branch through which reform in other areas can be achieved. It is true that much growth has been achieved in the past, but only through haphazard methods and through trial and error policies. In these circumstances much time and money were unnecessarily wasted.

If education in Libya is to proceed on a sound basis, educational planning must be the instrument of rapid and desirable change. It is highly improbable that Libya can make any appreciable progress in education unless she alters her approach to the necessity of educational planning. It should become a major part in her educational strategy.

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1 When Libya became a "Republic" in 1969, a campaign to reasses the educational situation in the country was started. Urgent educational problems became the focus of attention, and some of them were adequately dealt with, but still there is a lot to be done.

Appendix I.

The Education Law of 1965.

Chapter I.

Aims and Terms of Reference.

Article 1.

The terms "Minister of Ma'aref (Knowledge)" and "Ministry of Ma'aref (Knowledge)" shall be substituted by the terms "Minister of Education" and "Ministry of Education".

Article 2.

The Ministry of Education shall aim at creating a well built generation ethically as well as mentally and physically that believes in and is devoted to its Moslem religion, is proud of its Arab culture and is loyal to its King and participates constructively in the progress of its country and is aware of its duties and responsibilities towards itself and its community.

Article 3.

In order to realize these aims, the following are the terms of reference of the Ministry of Education.

1. To draw the general policy of Education in conformity with the national aims within the framework of the general policy of the state, and the setting of the projects and programmes required to execute this educational policy in accordance with the needs and the development of the country.

2. To lay down the best methods needed to extend education in all parts of the country within the limits of the general plan and the potentialities of the State.

3. To realize equal opportunities to all citizens in the field of education with regard to the needs of each environment and its circumstances.

4. To set the school curricula and textbooks regardful of the complete balance between the different syllabi, in order to bring the pupil to that level of knowledge and experience which suits each level of education.

5. To establish and administer educational and governmental schools of different types and levels and to make available the school buildings needed to accommodate them and the maintenance of these buildings.

6. To provide school teachers for each level of education, to define their levels and the adequate means to reach these levels and develop them.

7. To undertake the upgrading of school teachers culturally as well as socially and professionally.

8. To attend to the health of the pupils and provide them with means of prevention against disease and of treatment.

9. To endeavour to strengthen the physique of pupils and develop moral value by physical and military training.

10. To attend to the development and the strengthening of relations between the school and the environment by means of school communities and parents' organizations and others.

11. To attend to statistical evaluation and assessment of educational activities and to publish annual reports on the results of statistics and their analysis.

12. To undertake to strengthen cultural as well as educational relations between Libya and the Arab and African countries and others, making use of the educational and scientific activities abroad and the exchange of experts, teachers and pupils.

13. To supervise the private schools (free schools), to ensure that these schools conduct their mission of disseminating education and bringing up citizens in line with their religious and national heritage and thereby endeavour to associate them with their local environment.

14. To supervise Libyan universities and institutes of higher education.

15. To attend to scholarship and fellowship matters.

16. To encourage scientific, literary and artistic movements, to ensure the fulfilling of their mission in developing the Libyan community and in disseminating knowledge among the Libyan citizens.

17. To organize cultural anniversaries, lectures and the publication of educational and scientific periodicals.

18. To attend to antiquities and historic remains by digging, repairing and maintaining them and by publicising them within and without the country and by the establishment of museums and maintaining and repairing antique remains.

19. To eradicate illiteracy and disseminate adult education.

20. To disseminate culture among the Libyan people in such a way as to create cultural consciousness among citizens.

21. To convene educational conferences, both national and international, for studying problems of education.

22. To establish copyright laws on literacy and artistic property.

Chapter II.

The Supreme Council of Education.

Article 4.

A council shall be established at the Ministry of Education and shall be called "The Supreme Council of Education". The terms of reference of this council shall be to advise on the following matters:

1. The general policy of education at all levels and of all types in the light of the needs of the country and the facilitation for realizing the national, social, economic, cultural and scientific objectives.

2. The draft of laws, ordinances and regulations dealing with education.

3. The co-ordination of the university studies with the academic degrees in the different universities.

4. The co-ordination among the faculties (colleges) and the corresponding departments and the co-ordination among the faculty members of the universities.

5. The annual allotments provided by the Government to each university.

6. Other matters proposed by the Minister or any university to this Council.

Article 5.

The Supreme Council of Education shall be formed of the following members:

1. The Minister of Education (in the Chair).

2. The Under Secretaries of State to the Ministry of Education.

3. The rectors of universities and higher institutes as members.

4. Deans of Faculties (Colleges) as members.

5. The Under Secretaries of State to the Ministry of Development and Planning, the Ministry of Industry, the Ministry of Agriculture and the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs as members.

Article 6.

The Supreme Council of Education shall have a Secretary General appointed by the Minister from among the personnel of the Ministry of Education, whose grade in the Civil Service cadre is not below the first. His terms of reference shall be: To collect all the data and statistics; to undertake a special study of the subjects to be considered by the Council. He shall be assisted by a technical staff formed by an order issued by the Minister of Education.

Article 7.

The Council shall meet once a year at the least by the invitation of the Chairman. The meeting of the Council shall not be according to rule unless ten of its members at least attend. Recommendations shall be issued by a majority of votes of those present. When the opposing votes are equal, the side with the Chairman's vote decides the issue.

The Council shall formulate its own Rules of Procedure and shall be issued by a ministerial order.

Article 8.

The Council has the right to call to its meetings those who can assist by their advice or experience. These advisers shall have no vote in the meetings.

The Council may form from among its members or otherwise permanent or provisional committees and shall regulate their functions.

Chapter III.

The Organization of Matters of Education.

Article 9.

Special laws (regulations) shall be promulgated, not in contradiction with the ruling of this law, regarding the following:

1. University and higher education.

2. Private free education.

Article 10.

The Cabinet of Ministers shall publish Regulations regarding the following:

1. Public Education: Primary, Preparatory and Secondary.

2. Technical and Vocational Education.

3. Men and Women Teachers' Training Institutes. And other institutes which the Ministry of Education decides to establish.

4. Academic degrees (titles) with the provisions that the Regulations referred to in items (1), (2) and (3) shall contain the following:

(a) Conditions of admission in each level of education.
(b) The curriculum.
(c) Fundamental requirements of examinations and school diplomas (certificates).
(d) The academic level to be reached at each level of education.
(e) Organizing Teachers Training with the aim of upgrading teachers, improving their productive efficiency and acquainting them with new theories and techniques in the field of education.

Article 11.

The following shall be regulated by orders issued by the Minister of Education.

1. The curricula and the syllabi.
2. The rules for registering pupils.
3. The minimum number of schooldays and school hours.
4. School registries and school statistics.
5. Dates of commencement of school finals and school holidays.
6. Accrediting results of public examinations.
7. Grants and their provisions, prizes for pupils and remunerations.
8. Matters of education which the Ordinance of Education has not entrusted to other authorities.
9. Rules of Discipline to pupils; procedures and the authorities to exercise them.

Article 12.

The Ministry of Education may establish nursery schools or kindergartens to bring up children who completed their third years and have not reached the six years of their age. The schools shall form an independent level preceding the primary level.

These schools may be attached to the girls schools when necessary. An order by the Minister of Education shall be issued to regulate these schools, their programme of study, school fees and conditions of exemption therefrom. The fees shall in no way exceed ninety Libyan pounds a year.

Article 13.

The Ministry of Education may establish experimental or model schools aiming at developing mental faculties or special talents of some pupils or promoting the development of excelling pupils. The Minister of Education shall issue the order regulating the programme of study in such schools. By a ministerial order, an allowance may be given to pupils enrolling in such schools for encouragement.

Article 14.

The Ministry of Education may establish schools or classes for physically or mentally retarded pupils in which a certain programme of study is applied qualifying them for certain levels. An order by the Minister of Education shall regulate these schools, including the programme of study.

Article 15.

The Cabinet of Ministers shall define by a ministerial decree the academic qualifications of teachers at every level and in all types of schools. No teacher shall be confirmed in the profession until he passes a certain training course in conformity with the school level he is engaged in. Training courses shall be organized for the administrative staff with the view of upgrading them and improving the quality of their output. Passing successfully the training courses shall be considered an element in appraising the efficiency of a school teacher.

Chapter IV.

Scholarships and Equivalence of Academic Attainments.

Article 16.

The Cabinet of Ministers shall regulate scholarships and fellowships by a ministerial decree.

Article 17.

The Supreme Council of Education shall be authorized to decide the equivalence of foreign academic attainments to the certificates, diplomas and degrees awarded by the Libyan academic institutions. The Council shall equate any Libyan Certificate which has never been academically equated.

Chapter V.

School Personnel and their Place in the Civil Establishment (Cadre).

Article 18.

Teaching personnel and education officers shall be subject to the Law of the Civil Service and the Regulations issued in accordance therewith.

Article 19.

An order of the Minister of Education shall regulate the special provisions for awarding participants in examination work from among the officials of the Ministry and school personnel without being bound by the regulations regarding the awards for overtime work given to Government officials.

Chapter VI.

General Rules

Article 20.

The Law of Education No.5 for the year 1952 shall be annulled. Any text contradicting the articles of this Law shall be annulled. Notwithstanding regulations and rules in force at the time this Law is effective shall be in force provided they do not contradict its provisions until they are amended, deleted or substituted by others in accordance with the rules of this Law.

Article 21.

The Minister of Education shall execute this law. He is authorized to issue the regulations needed for its execution. It shall be effective as from the date of its publication in the Official Gazete.

Appendix II.

Law No.20 of 1968 Concerning the Organization of the University of Libya.

Chapter One.

General Provisions.

Article 1.

The University of Libya shall be a public academic body concerned with all matters related to higher education which is provided by faculties and affiliated institutions. The University shall supply the country with specialists and experts in the various scientific disciplines. It shall strive to promote the advancement of literature and arts, and to spread culture and scientific research.

The University of Libya shall endeavour to revive the legacies of the Arabs and Islam and shall strengthen cultural and scientific ties with other academic bodies and institutions.

Article 2.

The University of Libya shall consist of the following Faculties and Colleges:

1. Faculty of Arts, to be situated in Benghazi.
2. Faculty of Economics and Commerce, to be situated in Benghazi.
3. Faculty of Science, to be situated in Tripoli.
4. Faculty of Law, to be situated in Benghazi.
5. Faculty of Engineering, to be situated in Tripoli.
6. Teachers' College, to be situated in Tripoli.
7. Faculty of Agriculture, to be situated in Tripoli.

The University shall include any other faculty which may be created and the residence of which may be determined by a decision of the Council of Ministers after consulting the University Council.

Institutes affiliated to the faculties may be established by a resolution of the Council of Ministers after consulting the University Council.

Article 3.

The University of Libya shall be a public juridical body and shall be fully qualified to initiate legal proceedings. It may accept contributions from Waqf bequests, wills or donations or other sources provided they are not at variance with the original purpose of the University, in accordance with the provisions of this Law.

Article 4.

The University of Libya shall administer its own funds without prejudice to the provisions of the law in Waqf matters. Under the section of Ordinary Revenue, the University budget shall include the allocations made to the University under the State budget as well as the revenue accruing from the proceeds yielded by its fixed and movable property, fees, donations, surplus of ordinary revenues in past years and monies from any other sources. These revenues shall be allocated to meet the expenditure of the University.

Article 5.

In the administration of its funds, the University shall apply the rules governing the administration of State funds. Its accounts shall be audited by the Diwan of Audit.

Article 6.

The University shall have a separate budget which shall be prepared by the University Council. The President of the University shall submit this budget to the competent authorities.

Article 7.

The Minister of Education shall be the supreme President of the University.

Chapter Two.

Administration of the University.

Article 8.

The University shall be administered by:
1. The President of the University.
2. The University Council.

Article 9.

The President of the University shall be appointed by a Royal Decree at the submission of the Minister of Education and with the approval of the Council of Ministers. He must have experience in university education. He must be well-known for his academic activities and must hold higher degrees.

He shall undertake the administration of the academic, administrative and financial affairs of the University and shall represent the University before other bodies.

Article 10.

The President shall be the Chairman of the University Council. He shall convene it and carry out its decisions as well as supervise the implementation of the University laws and regulations. He shall prepare the budget and final accounts and shall submit them to the University Council. He shall issue orders regarding expenditure and shall, at the end of each academic year, submit to the Minister of Education a report on the University and its academic activities, after it has been presented to the University Council.

Article 11.

The University shall have a Vice President who shall assist the President and perform his functions when the latter is absent or when his post becomes vacant. He shall be appointed by a decision of the Council of Ministers at the suggestion of the Minister of Education and after consulting the President of the University. He must have experience in university education. He must be known for his academic activities and must possess higher qualifications.

Article 12.

The University Council shall be constituted as follows:

The President of the University, who shall be the Chairman.
The Vice President.
The Deans of the University Faculties and Colleges.
The Under-Secretary of the Ministry of Education.
Three members to be appointed by a decision of the Council of Ministers at the submission of the Minister of Education and after consulting the President of the University, provided they enjoy a prominent academic and social status in the country. They shall be appointed for two years and the appointment shall be renewable.

The members of the Council shall receive a monthly remuneration which shall be determined by a decision of the University Council with the approval of the Minister of Education.

Article 13.

The University Council shall:

1. administer, invest and dispose of the University funds;
2. authorise the President of the University or his Deputy to institute civil legal proceedings;
3. supervise the maintenance of the University buildings and the construction of new ones;
4. prepare budget estimates and final accounts;
5. nominate candidates for the teaching staff, promote teaching staff members and effect their transfer from the University;
6. create academic chairs;
7. endorse plans of study and fix the duration of academic sessions and vacations;
8. draft pro-forma regulations for the Faculties and Institutes;
9. supervise the general organization of the University, its Faculties and Institutes;
10. award degrees, diplomas and other certificates;
11. confer honorary degrees;
12. generally supervise the organization of examinations and related matters;
13. determine conditions of admission and disciplinary regulations.
14. suspend studies in the Faculties and Institutes;
15. exchange teaching staff members with foreign universities; grant scholarships and approve academic commissions;
16. prepare rules related to the University fees, the mode of their payment and conditions of exemption therefrom, remunerations and subventions of all kinds;
17. prepare administrative and financial regulations.

The Council may form sub-committees from its own members or from others for the purpose of dealing with specific matters falling within the Council's jurisdiction.

Article 14.

The University Council shall meet at least once every three months during the academic year. The President of the University may convene it whenever he deems it necessary. He shall also call it when he receives from a majority of its members a written request to that effect, showing causes for the meeting.

The discussions of the Council shall not be deemed valid unless an absolute majority of the Council members are present. If at the first call to session the quorum requirements are not fulfilled, the Council shall be called again within one week of the date fixed for the first meeting. In this case the meeting shall be considered valid irrespective of the number of members present.

The decisions of the Council shall be passed by a majority of votes. In the event of an equal division of votes, the side of the President shall prevail.

The resolutions and recommendations of the Council shall be notified to the Minister of Education.

Article 15.

The University shall have a Secretary-General with the status of a ministerial Under-Secretary. He shall be appointed by a decision of the Council of Ministers at the suggestion of the Minister of Education after consulting the President of the University. He must hold an academic degree and have experience in administration. He shall perform the administrative work of the University under the supervision of the President or Vice President of the University. He shall also undertake

correspondence and writing. In particular, he shall:

(a) control and keep students' registers;
(b) keep the University seals and supervise the work of recording and filing;
(c) edit and publish the University calendar;
(d) supervise and administer the accounts and stores, and collect monies due to the University;
(e) maintain the buildings and furniture of the University;
(f) perform the secretarial work of the University Council, and write and record the minutes of the meetings in a special register which shall be signed by him and the President;
(g) carry out any other work at the request of the President of the University.

Chapter Three.

Administration of the Faculties.

Article 16.

Each Faculty shall have a Basic Regulation which shall be issued by a decision of the Council of Ministers. The Regulations shall lay down the plans of study, subjects of instruction, academic degrees and diplomas and the conditions under which they are awarded.

Each Faculty shall also have an Internal Regulation which shall be issued by the President of the University with the agreement of the University Council.

Article 17.

A Faculty shall be administered by:

1. The Dean of the Faculty.
2. The Faculty Board.

1. DEAN AND DEPUTY DEAN.

Article 18.

Each Faculty shall have a Dean to be appointed by a decision of the Council of Ministers at the submission of the Minister of Education and after consulting the President of the University. His term of office shall be two years, and the appointment shall be renewable.

The Dean must be a member of the teaching staff of the University.

As an exception to the provision of this Article, the Dean may within a period not exceeding eight years from the date of the operation of this Law be appointed without applying the rule of membership of the teaching staff.

Article 19.

Each Faculty shall have a Deputy Dean who shall be appointed by a decision of the Council of Ministers at the submission of the Minister of Education and after consulting the President of the University. His term of office shall be two years and the appointment shall be renewable.

The Deputy Dean must be a member of the teaching staff of the University.

As an exception to the provision of this Article, the Deputy Dean may within a period not exceeding eight years from the date of the operation of this Law be appointed without applying the rule of membership of the teaching staff.

Article 20.

The Dean shall convene the Faculty Board. He shall undertake the whole administration of the Faculty. He shall implement the University laws and regulations and the resolutions of the University Council affecting the Faculty as well as the decisions of the Faculty Board. At the end of each academic year, he shall submit to the President of the University a report on the affairs and activities of the Faculty. He shall also communicate any necessary resolutions to the competent University authorities.

Article 21.

The Deputy Dean shall assist the Dean in the administration of the Faculty and act for him in his absence. He shall perform the administrative work of the Faculty under the supervision of the Dean. In particular he shall:

1. control students' registers;
2. control the Faculty seals and supervise the work of recording and filing;
3. look after the health and social affairs of the students;
4. attend to the affairs of graduates and maintain contacts with them;
5. edit and publish the Faculty calendar;
6. administer accounts;
7. maintain the Faculty buildings and furniture.

2. FACULTY BOARD.

Article 22.

The Faculty Board shall consist of:

(a) the Dean.
(b) the Deputy Dean.
(c) the Professors.

When necessary, members from among associate or assistant professors may be included in the Board by a decision of the President of the University at the suggestion of the Dean of the Faculty.
The Dean or his Deputy shall be the Chairman of the Board.

Article 23.

The Faculty Board shall administer the academic training and examinations and maintain discipline in the Faculty according to the regulations.

Article 24.

In addition to the functions provided under this Law, the Faculty Board may:

(1) lay down rules regarding attendance of students, curricula and other academic matters;
(2) determine courses of study; allot lessons and lectures to members of the teaching staff; determine the system and dates of examinations and divide the related tasks among the board of examiners; propose to the University Council plans of study and conditions for the award of degrees and diplomas; suggest rules of admission to students to the Faculty and any other matters related to the progress of instruction and the maintenance of discipline in the Faculty;
(3) nominate candidates for the teaching staff and demonstrators.

Article 25.

The Faculty Board shall have a Secretary who shall be chosen from its own members. He shall prepare the minutes of the meetings and enter them in a register which shall be signed by him and the Dean.

Article 26.

The Dean shall convene the Faculty Board whenever he deems it necessary. He shall also call it to session upon the written application of a majority of its members, which application shall show reasons for the meeting. The discussions of the Board shall not be deemed valid unless an absolute majority of its members are present. Resolutions shall be carried by a majority of votes. In case of an equal division of votes, the side of the Chairman shall prevail.

The Board may form sub-committees from its own members or from others for the purpose of dealing with specific matters.

Article 27.

Each member of the Faculty Board shall be entitled to submit proposals falling within the Board's competency. The proposals shall be submitted in writing to the Chairman and shall be read during the meeting. They shall be considered at the following meeting.

Article 28.

The minutes of the Faculty Board's meetings shall be communicated to the President of the University, who shall also be notified of the Board's resolutions that come under his jurisdiction or that of the University Council, within eight days from the date that they have been passed.

Chapter Four.

Academic Departments in the Faculty.

Article 29.

The Academic Departments of each Faculty shall be specified by the Internal Regulations of the Faculty. The Department shall be concerned with all academic, scholastic and social matters. The Departmental Council shall determine the text-books and subjects of instruction. It shall allot lessons, lectures and practical and training work to members of the teaching staff, demonstrators and all others concerned with instruction in the Department. It shall also organize and co-ordinate scientific research and the work of the teaching staff, subject always to the approval of the Faculty Board.

Article 30.

The Head of a Department shall be the professor with the longest seniority of service in the Department. Should there be no professors, the associate professor with the longest seniority of service in the Department shall act as Head of the Department. Should there be no professors or associate professors, the Acting Head of the Department shall be the assistant professor with the longest term of service in the Department and he shall be deemed to be a member of the Faculty Board. The Dean of the Faculty shall issue a decision appointing Heads of Departments.

Article 31.

The Head of the Department shall be in charge of the scholastic and administrative matters of the Department. He shall be responsible for the progress and smooth running of the Department and shall notify the Dean of any matter affecting such progress.

Article 32.

The Department shall have a Council which shall be composed of the professors and other members of the teaching staff. Demonstrators shall attend its meetings but they shall not be entitled to vote. The Departmental Council may invite to its meetings all staff members who teach subjects that fall within its jurisdiction.

Article 33.

The Head of the Department shall convene the Departmental Council at least once every month during the academic year. He shall also call it at the request of a majority of the members or of the Faculty Dean for the purpose of dealing with specific matters.

Article 34.

The Departmental Council shall each year choose a Secretary from its own members. He shall prepare the minutes of the Department's meetings and shall sign them together with the Head of the Department. He shall also keep the minutes' register.

The minutes of the meetings shall be notified to the Dean of the Faculty within eight days of the meeting.

Chapter Five.

Teaching Staff.

Article 35.

The teaching staff shall consist of:

1. Professors.
2. Associate Professors.
3. Assistant Professors.
4. Lecturers.

Professors, associate professors and assistant professors shall be appointed by a decision of the President of the University with the approval of the University Council.

In order to be eligible for appointment, a member of the teaching staff must, in addition to the other conditions laid down in the following Articles:

1. have a commendable character;
2. have a Bachelor of Arts or a Bachelor of Science degree from the University of Libya, or an equivalent degree.

Article 36.

The following conditions govern the appointment of a lecturer:

1. He must have obtained a university first degree at least four years before.
2. He must have obtained the Master's degree from the University of Libya, or an equivalent degree.
3. He must have had teaching experience at university level or have carried out valuable academic research.

The President of the University may at the suggestion of the Faculty Board and with the approval of the University Council appoint lecturers without complying with the stipulation regarding the possession of a Master's degree.

Article 37.

The following conditions shall govern the appointment of an assistant professor:

1. He must have obtained a university first degree at least six years before.
2. He must have obtained the Doctorate of Philosophy degree from the University of Libya, or an equivalent degree.
3. He must have taught capably for at least two years in a university college or an equivalent institution.

Consideration shall be given to any notable social or athletic activities displayed by the candidate during his period of work at the university.

The President of the University may at the submission of the Faculty Board and with the approval of the University Council appoint assistant professors without complying with the stipulation regarding the possession of a Doctorate of Philosophy degree, provided the candidate has had at least four years of teaching experience in a universiry or has carried out valuable academic research.

Article 38.

The following conditions shall govern the appointment of an associate professor:

1. He must have obtained a university first degree at least ten years before.
2. He must have occupied the post of assistant professor for a period of at least three years.
3. He must have obtained the Doctorate of Philosophy degree from the University of Libya, or an equivalent degree.
4. He must have carried out valuable academic research.

Consideration shall be given to any notable social or athletic activities displayed by the candidate during his period of work at the University.

The President of the University may upon the nomination of the Faculty Board and the approval of the University Council appoint associate professors from among the teaching staff members, without complying with the stipulation regarding the possession of the Doctorate of Philosophy degree, provided that they have occupied the post of assistant professor for at least six years and have carried out valuable academic research.

Associate professors may also be appointed from outside the University, provided they fulfil the following requirements:

1. They must have obtained a university first degree twelve years before.
2. They must have obtained the Doctorate of Philosophy degree or its equivalent at least three years before.
3. They must have published original academic research.

Article 39.

The following conditions shall govern the appointment of a professor:

1. He must have obtained a university first degree at least fifteen years before.
2. He must have occupied the post of associate professor in the University of Libya or any other equivalent university or institution for a period of at least five years.
3. He must have published original academic research.

Consideration shall be given to his past supervision of or participation in academic research work.

The President of the University may upon the nomination of the Faculty Board and with the approval of the University Council appoint professors from staff members other than associate professors provided they fulfil the following conditions:

1. They must have obtained a university first degree at least fifteen years before.
2. They must have obtained the Doctorate of Philosophy degree at least eight years before.
3. They must have published original academic research related to their fields of specialization.

Should there be associate professors who can meet these requirements, professors from outside the University shall not be appointed.

Article 40.

The University Council shall upon a proposal from the Faculty Board set up an Academic Committee for the purpose of evaluating the research work of teaching staff members nominated for promotion. The members of this Committee must be specialist professors.

Article 41.

Members of the teaching staff shall maintain order in all classes and laboratories. They shall submit to the Dean or his Deputy a report on any incident affecting discipline and the relevant action taken.

Article 42.

Members of the teaching staff may by a resolution of the University Council and after consulting the Faculty Board concerned, be asked to carry out other work related to teaching. They may also be transferred and nominated to perform public functions.

Article 43.

A teaching staff member may with the approval of the Faculty Board be nominated to lecture in another Faculty or Institute, provided instruction in them is given at a university level.

Article 44.

Members of the teaching staff shall not engage in any political or commercial activity nor shall they participate in the management of any commercial, financial or industrial enterprise. The University Council shall be entitled to prevent any member of the teaching staff or any one else concerned with teaching from practising any work considered by the University Council to be at variance with the teaching profession, its dignity or its good performance.

Members of the teaching staff shall not give private lessons. Neither they nor any others concerned with teaching shall undertake any work based on their experience or tender advice on any specific subject save with the permission of the President of the University at the request of the Dean concerned.

Chapter Six.

Disciplinary Regulations.

Article 45.

The President of the University may institute an investigation into the conduct of any member of the teaching staff if the latter acts in a manner which infringes the provisions of this Law or invites censure. The enquiry shall be conducted by a board comprising a Dean of one of the University Faculties, as Chairman; a teaching staff member from the Faculty of Law, as member; and a judge to be appointed by the Minister of Justice, as member. The Dean and the teaching staff member shall be nominated by the President of the University.

The Board of Enquiry shall submit a report to the President of the University who shall, with the approval of the University Council, be empowered to refer the staff member concerned to a Disciplinary Council.

Article 46.

Should it be necessary in the interest of investigation, the President of the University may suspend any member of the teaching staff from work.

The period of suspension shall not exceed three months except by a decision of the Disciplinary Council.

The full or partial payment of the salary shall not be suspended during the period of suspension unless the Disciplinary Council rules otherwise.

Should the proceedings reveal the innocence of the staff member or should they not lead to his indictment, he shall be reinstated in his work and shall receive the salary that may have been suspended by a decision.

Article 47.

The President of the University shall by registered letter requiring acknowledgement serve upon the staff member referred to the Disciplinary Council a statement of the accusations made against him together with a copy of the investigation report, at least twenty days before the appointed session for the trial.

Article 48.

The teaching staff member referred to the Disciplinary Council may acquaint himself with any particulars affecting himself and with the charges brought against him on the days fixed by the President of the University.

Article 49.

The Disciplinary Council for Members of the Teaching Staff shall be composed of the Vice President of the University as Chairman, a counsellor from the Civil Appeal Court to be nominated by the Minister of Justice and a professor from the University to be chosen each year by the University Council, as members.

Should the Vice President of the University be absent or should he be hindered from performing his work, a dean of one of the Faculties to be chosen by the President of the University shall act for him. The Disciplinary Council shall hold secret sessions. The decisions shall be carried by a majority of the votes. The staff member shall attend in person before the Council. He may submit his defence in writing and choose a member of the teaching staff of the University to defend him. The Council may ask the staff member to present himself in person. Should he refuse, judgement may be passed in absentia after ensuring that notice had been served upon him.

Article 50.

The disciplinary penalties that may be imposed upon teaching staff members are:

1. Warning.
2. Censure.
3. Censure and postponement of the annual increment for one year.
4. Dismissal from the post while reserving his entitlement to pension or gratuity, or dismissal and deprivation from all or part of the pension or gratuity, without prejudice to the provisions of the Law of Retirement.

The decisions of the Disciplinary Council must show grounds for the decision. An explanatory note on the reasons for the decision must be filed after the decision is pronounced. Decisions shall be final except in the event of dismissal. In this case the condemned may appeal against the decision within twenty days of the date he has been notified thereof by registered mail requiring acknowledgement.

Article 51.

The appeal shall be made through a report to be submitted by the condemned to the Disciplinary Council. The Chairman of the Disciplinary Council of Appeal shall fix a date for the meeting of the Council and shall notify the condemned of that date by registered letter requiring acknowledgement. The date of the session shall be set at one month after the date of notification. The judgement of the Disciplinary Council of Appeal shall be final.

Article 52.

The Disciplinary Council of Appeal shall be composed of the President of the University as Chairman, a counsellor from the Supreme Court and the Head of the Department of Legal Opinion and Legislation, Ministry of Justice, as members.

Article 53.

The disciplinary action shall lapse by the resignation of the teaching staff member and the acceptance of the resignation by the University Council.

The disciplinary action shall not affect the criminal and civil actions arising from the same incident.

Article 54.

The President of the University may either verbally or in writing draw the attention of or impose the disciplinary punishment of warning upon the member of the teaching staff who neglects his duties, after hearing his statement and investigating his defence. The decision of the President of the University shall show the reasons for the decision and shall be final.

The Dean shall notify the President of the University of any neglect or breach of duties or obligations committed by members of the teaching staff in his Faculty.

Chapter Seven.

Expatriate and Part Time Professors.

Article 55.

When necessary the teaching staff may include expatriate members whose qualifications are deemed fit for this purpose. Appointments shall be made by a decision of the President of the University with the approval of the University Council.

Their terms of service shall be defined by a regulation to be issued by the University Council.

Article 56.

With due regard to the provisions of the preceding Article, teaching staff members on loan from other universities or from other institutes of higher education comparable with the University of Libya shall retain the academic titles which they held in those universities or institutes.

Article 57.

Part-time professors may be appointed in the Faculties. They shall be distinguished and experienced scientists and scholars in their fields of research and the subjects of instruction which will be allotted to them.

They shall be appointed by the President of the University with the approval of the University Council. They may combine the professorship with a government appointment or any other work.

Chapter Eight.

Demonstrators.

Article 58.

Demonstrators may be appointed in the Faculties. They shall carry out studies and academic research and undertake tutorial and any other work entrusted to them by the department concerned under the supervision of the teaching staff. They shall also perform any other work at the

instruction of the Dean and shall be subject to the provisions of Articles 42, 43 and 44 of this Law. They shall be appointed after advertising the vacancies. The department concerned shall propose candidatures for demonstrators from among those who have attained at least the grade of 'Good' in their university first degree.

Candidatures shall be submitted to the Faculty Board. When approved, a decision regarding appointment shall be issued by the President of the University who shall also be entitled to object to the candidates proposed by the Faculty Board.

Appointments shall be made under contract of one year, renewable, after consulting the Faculty Board concerned.

Article 59.

Should a demonstrator fail to obtain the Master's degree or two diplomas of higher studies, as the case may be, within six years from the date of his appointment as demonstrator, his contract shall be terminated.

The services of the demonstrator who fails in his higher studies may be terminated before the expiry of this period by a decision of the President of the University with the approval of the University Council.

Chapter Nine.

Final Provisions.

Article 60.

Except as otherwise provided by this Law, the teaching staff, demonstrators and administrative personnel of the University shall be subject to the provisions of the Civil Service Law and the regulations issued thereunder as well as the provisions of the Retirement Law and relevant regulations.

Article 61.

Without prejudice to the provisions of this Law, the President of the University shall assume the powers of a minister in his ministry according to the provisions of the Civil Service Law and the regulations issued thereunder.

The University Council shall undertake the functions of the Civil Service Commission. The Secretary-General of the University shall exercise the functions of the Civil Service Administration.

Article 62.

The salaries of the President, Vice President and members of the teaching staff of the University shall be fixed in accordance with the attached Table.

Article 63.

The University shall have a vacation which shall begin at the conclusion of the work of the final examinations for the academic year and shall end at the commencement of studies in the new academic year, in accordance with a decision of the University Council. The vacation period shall be considered to be the ordinary leave of the teaching staff members and demonstrators.

Article 64.

The Arabic language shall be the medium of instruction in the University and the language of the University Council. In special cases the University Council may decide that a foreign language be used.

Article 65.

Resolutions or orders passed by the University authorities and affecting students shall not be challenged before any judicial body by means of petitions for annullment or stay of judgement.

TABLE OF SALARIES.

Post & Grade.	Annual Salary.		Annual Increment.	Number of Increments
	Minimum	Maximum		
1. President of the University	Salary & allocations of a Minister.		-	-
2. Vice President of the University.	3500	4300	100	8
3. Professor	3200	4000	80	10
4. Associate Professor.	2700	3500	80	10
5. Assistant Professor.	2100	2800	70	10
6. Lecturer	1600	2200	60	10
7. Demonstrator	1200	1440	40	6

In addition to the salaries they receive as members of the teaching staff, the Dean and Deputy Dean of a Faculty shall be granted an annual increment to be fixed by a decision of the Minister of Education after consulting the President of the University.

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