

GROWTH OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
AND PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN LIBYA

by

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INTRODUCTION

This study will deal primarily with the growth of educational administration and public schools in Libya. It will be concentrated mainly on the period following the Libyan independence--from 1951 to 1973--but will also include a brief history of Libyan education during the period from 1551 to 1951. This historical brief will be included as part of the basis for a comparison of educational development and efforts of Libyan government in education between different periods. These comparisons will be displayed in tables and multiply divide growth charts at the ends of chapters I and III.

Population growth in Libya will be investigated for the period from 1911 to 1973 to provide the necessary basis for determining the extent of educational growth and the dimension of the Libyan achievement in compulsory education as a primary goal. Figures of population growth will be utilized to estimate the approximate number of children who would be admitted to the first grade (the first year of compulsory age) if compulsory education ideals were achieved. In addition, the figures will allow a calculation of the number of children who stay out of school for different reasons.

Purpose of Study

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the efforts of the Libyan educational school system and its methods of carrying out its functions. Data concerning educational growth in school enrollment and school administration will represent the main access to an evaluation of different government efforts to enhance educational conditions. But since the main vehicle for the educational efforts of the government is school administration, a condition for such an evaluation is that a more particular evaluation be undertaken of the success or failure of school administration. This evaluation will be done in the light of authority, decision making, personnel selection and personnel assignment.

Method of Study

A combination of descriptive and historical methods of research will be utilized to carry out this study. The main source of information will be Libyan government documents, school system statistics, and educational legislation. In many cases the writer will be obliged to use his own personal experience in the Libyan school system to estimate the number of administrative personnel working in different administrative areas of activities and to deal with other educational problems.

CHAPTER I

HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN LIBYA PRIOR TO INDEPENDENCE

Educational activities before the Libyan independence can be divided into three periods, from 1551 to 1951, during which Libya was submitted to foreign rule. Confining the discussion of educational activities to these three periods does not mean that there was no education before, but that there is a lack of authentic documents and school records concerning the prior period. This is the main reason for ignoring these other periods of education which might have enjoyed better conditions than those which we are talking about now.

The Turkish Period--from 1551 to 1911

The period of the Ottoman Empire in Libya extended from 1551 to 1911 (Pelt, 1970, p. 4). Initially, the Turkish rule was sought by special delegation from Libya in the name of Islamic fraternity to provide Libya with some military aids against European invaders (Ash-shaikh, 1972, p. 30).

The Turkish rule did not have that aspect of colonization which many historians have reported. Beehler

stated in The History of the Italian-Turkish War:

The Libyan inhabitants regarded Turkish rule as a blessing; they enjoyed a greater freedom and were subjected to much less burdensome taxation than before. The protectorate of Tripoli (Libya) was an expense rather than a source of revenue for Turkey (Beehler, 1913, p. 7).

The attitude of the Ottoman Turks toward Libya was negligent in education. The slight activities of education which were established in some areas served some Turkish minorities and some notable natives. There was, however, no comprehensive educational policy or plan established by the Turks. Not only did the Turks fail to establish some new educational system, but also they failed to improve or encourage an already existing system.

Religious education before Turkish rule was well-organized in the form of zawaias (institutions) which established special houses for worship, forts for defense, and classrooms for learning. Some zawaias had established special facilities for the accommodation of visiting scholars who would cross Libya for field studies or other purposes (Farley, 1972, p. 78). The Turkish rule did not help or sponsor these existing activities. Moreover, the Turkish rule was accused of not representing orthodox Islam (Beehler, 1913, p. 6).

The lack of educational progress in Libya during

the Turkish rule should not be attributed simply to the lack of Turkish interest in Libyan education. After all, Italy, which ruled Libya during the early twentieth century, did not have interest in Libyan education, and yet progress in education was greater during the Italian rule. One reason for this is that the Italians' own educational system was more progressive than the Turkish system. So, insofar as the Italians concerned themselves with education, they imported a more organized system of education than did the Turks.

There are not many details about Libyan education in the early Turkish rule, but some data concerning school enrollment in all levels of education were available for the year 1902. This data may not be very accurate; however, I will state it as reported by Ash-shaikh (Ash-shaikh, 1972, pp. 122,123):

Males in elementary school	931
Females in elementary school	160
Males in secondary school	240
Total number of children	1331
School teachers	49

The term 'elementary school' used here means the level of elementary education regardless of the type of curriculum. Also, 'secondary education' does not mean one

type of education but rather the same level of curriculum. Ash-shaikh's classification, from which these figures are derived, was according to type of curriculum.

The Italian Period--from 1911 to 1942

During the late 19th century Turkey began to deteriorate politically. Italy, on the other hand, was becoming more prosperous and was faced with an expanding population. In 1911 Italy invaded Libya to provide herself with a neighboring colony (Askew, 1942, p. 11). The Italian colony in Libya extended from October 5, 1911 to January 22, 1943. The Italians brought their education to Libya immediately after they had placed their feet in Tripoli and other coastal towns.

There was already a small organized educational system in Libya for the Italian minority. The available records of Italian schools during the Turkish administration indicate that the Italian minority had very well-organized elementary, industrial, and commercial schools for both sexes (Ash-shaikh, 1972, p. 123). The colonists' policy was to deny educational opportunity to the native population. Moreover, the circumstances of the conquest and religious differences did not encourage Libyan people to seek Italian education for their children. Most Libyans during the Italian colonization preferred to send their children to their own koranic

schools rather than the Italian modern schools.

However, the educational condition in the late years became relatively good. By the 1939/40 academic year, as John Wright states:

There were over 20,000 Libyan pupils in 121 state elementary schools (fourteen of them for girls) and 629 koranic schools. In all, the Italians built 183 schools in the colony--97 for Libyans, 81 for their own children, 5 for Jewish children, but secondary and higher education for Libyans was definitely neglected. . . A few Libyans were awarded scholarships for study in Egypt or Italy. But the main purpose of education policy in Libya seems to have been to produce relatively large numbers of Italian-speaking pupils, instilled with "respect and devotion" for Italy (Wright, 1969, p. 183).

According to the figures of school enrollment, regardless of the Italian policy of education, the educational condition during the Italian rule was, as was pointed out above, much better than the educational condition during the Turkish rule. The ratio of school enrollment to the Libyan population (763,000) as reported by Wright, was 2.6 per 100, while during the rule of the Turks it was 1.5 per 1000.* However, there is some possibility that the number of children reported in the Italian schools was not accurate; there are some differences between sources in reporting school figures for the Italian period. Farley, for example, has reported 13,000 children in the schools in 1938 for all

*This rate was according to a population of 1,000,000 in 1911.

of Libya. Ash-shaikh reported only 6736 in the government schools in the same year and John Wright reported that in the 1939/40 academic year 20,000 pupils were in the government schools. (See Table 1 for school enrollment figures during the Italian rule, p. 9.)

The English-French Period--from 1943 to 1951

The existence of the English and French in Libya was not planned for the sake of colonizing, but was a result of World War II. However, it was a very good opportunity for Britain to maintain its influence in this area. Both Britain and France had vital strategic military and other interests in the Mediterranean area; these interests dictated their policies toward the Libyan territories for which they were responsible.

It was obviously in English and French interests to establish friendly relations with the people of these territories, who accordingly obtained some benefits in education as well as other services (Pelt, 1970, p. 33).

Educational Situation

In the light of the previous explanation, the English did not take an antagonistic stand against the Arabs as the Italians had done in the past; some schools

TABLE 1
SCHOOL ENROLLMENT DURING THE ITALIAN RULE

Year	Elementary Level		Secondary Level		Trade Schools		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
1911	100						100
1912	313						313
1913	1031						1031
1914	725						725
1915	287						287
1916	422						422
1917	506						506
1918	779						779
1919	558						558
1920	571						571
1921	1885		24		150		2059
1925	1426		7		371		1804
1930	3900		5		449		4354
1934	5818		20		522		6360
1936			52				52
1937			53				53
1938	6736		89		636		7461
1939	18000	2000	77				20077
1940			47				47

Sources: Ash-shaikh, pp. 205, 247, 263, 264, and John Wright, Libya, p. 183.

opened their doors to Arab children, the language of teaching was Arabic, and some administrative posts became available to the learned Arabs which had been prohibited by the fascist colony. School administration was staffed by Libyan people, and some of the assistants to the English Commissioner of Education were Libyan. Also, the number of students at the primary level increased more than fivefold in comparison to the Italian era. The total number of students increased more than sixfold in the period from 1947/48 to 1950/51 at the secondary and technical levels.

However, educational conditions were still bad, especially for females. The learning of girls represented one of the most difficult problems in Libyan life. This is not because the Islamic religion encourages ignorance among women as some people tend to say, but because of the lack of security for girls going to schools, or even going out at all during the Italian colonization. So the only way in which parents could keep the evil away was to keep their daughters at home. Later this procedure became a part of their tradition.

But an increased feeling of security among the citizens under the English improved the educational

situation for females, and encouraged many parents to send their daughters to schools equivalent to those of their sons, so that the number of girls in schools in Tripoli at the primary level increased from 314 to 2,923 between 1943/44 and 1950/51, and from 30 to 700 during the same period in Cyrenaica. Still, the educational situation in the southern part of Libya represented "the desert of education."

The last school year during which the English-French administration ruled Libya was 1950/51. By looking at data concerning this year we can come to understand the extent of the contribution of the English-French administration. The total number of elementary school children was in that year 32,115. There were 300 secondary school students, 237 technical school students, and 89 in teacher's training. The total number in all levels was 32,741 (Farley, 1971, p. 83). This compares with a total enrollment in 1943 of 8000 pupils (Lindberg, 1954, p. 6). (See Table 2 next page and Figures 2 through 5, pp. 17-20, for a somewhat different set of figures for 1950/51.

TABLE 2

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT in 1950/51 (DURING
ENGLISH-FRENCH PERIOD)

Type of School	Male	Female	Total
Elementary	31,861	4,864	36,764
Secondary	580	---	580
Teacher Training	159	---	159
Technical	337	---	337
GRAND TOTAL			37,840

Sources: Ash-shaikh. Educational Development in Libya, 1972, p. 281 and Farley, Planning for Development in Libya, 1969, p. 83.

CHAPTER II

POPULATION GROWTH in LIBYA 1911-1973

There is a difficulty in determining population figures for the period of Italian rule because of the rarity of Italian records and the difficulty of making an accurate census of the entire Libyan population. There are many differences concerning the Libyan population in the beginning of the Italian colony and the beginning of Libyan independence. However, knowing the population figures is very important for evaluating the progress of education in different periods of time. Therefore, I will state the various figures as reported by different sources since 1911:

1. The Turkish census on August 3, 1911 reported 523,176 people (Askew, 1942, p. 11).
2. Askew reported that in 1911 there was a population of less than one million and he rejected the Turkish census results (Askew, 1942, p. 11).
3. Beehler reported that in 1911 there was a total Libyan population of one million and he classified them in the following categories:

A. Turkish, Armenians and Albanians	50,000
--	--------

B. Jews	20,000
C.. Spaniards	15,000
D. Maltese	3,000
E. Italians	1,000
F. Negroes	50,000

The rest of the population was Arab and Berber (Beehler, 1913, p. 7). However, the number he has given for the Italian minority does not conform with the Italian school enrollment reported in Libya during the Turkish period from 1876 to 1910, since the number of children alone totaled between 600 and 800 for each of these years.

4. John Wright estimated the population in 1938 to be 763,000 (Wright, 1969, p. 183).

5." John Lindberg reported that the population in Tripoli in 1911 was 477,000 according to official estimates and increased to 719,000 in 1939/40 (Lindberg, 1952, p. 5). He did not give the number for all of Libya.

6. The 1950 Libyan population was estimated by Lindberg to be one million thirty thousand. This estimate was supported by the official Libyan government census in 1954. (See Table 3, next page, and Figure 1, p. 16.)

TABLE 3
POPULATION GROWTH IN LIBYA FROM 1911 TO 1973

Year	Population
1911 *	523,000
1938	763,000
1950	1,030,000
1954	1,080,000
1955	1,129,000
1959	1,288,000
1960	1,349,000
1961	1,399,000
1962	1,451,000
1963	1,504,000
1964	1,559,000
1965	1,617,000
1966	1,677,000
1967	1,737,000
1968	1,803,000
1969	1,869,000
1970	1,938,000
1971	---
1972	2,095,807
1973	2,257,037

Sources: Wright, Libya, 1969, p. 183; Beehler, The Italian Turkish War, 1913, p. 7; Askew, Europe and Italy's Acquisition of Libya, 1942, p. 11; Farley, Planning for Development in Libya, 1971, p. 310; Ministry of Education, IAR, The Yearly Booklet of Educational Statistics, 1973, p. 10

*Beehler and Askew estimated the population in 1911 at 1,000,000; the figure in the table is according to the Turkish census.

FIGURE 1

POPULATION GROWTH IN LIBYA 1911-1973

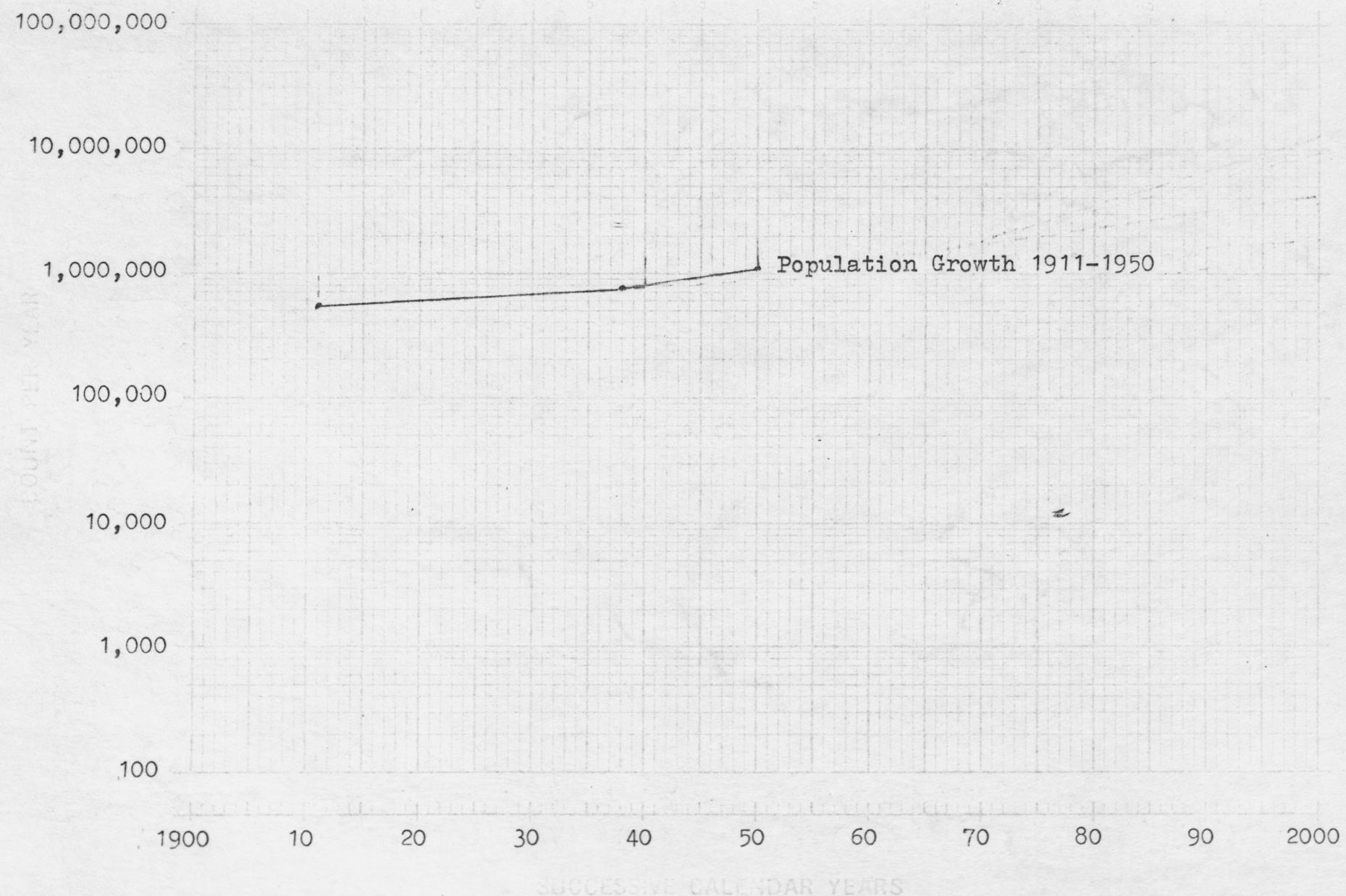


FIGURE 2

ALL LEVELS OF SCHOOL ENROLLMENT 1902-1950

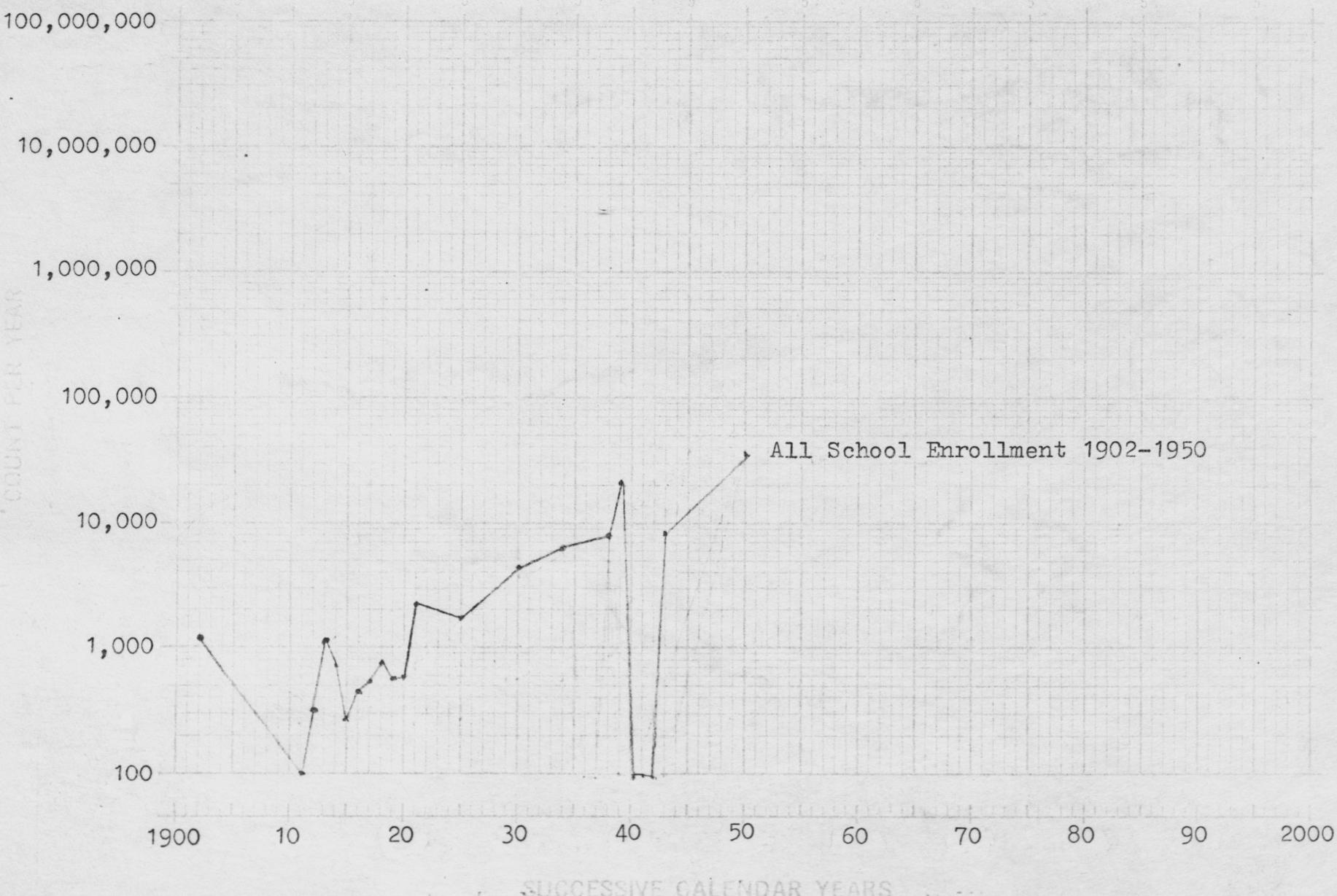


FIGURE 3

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BOYS 1902-1950

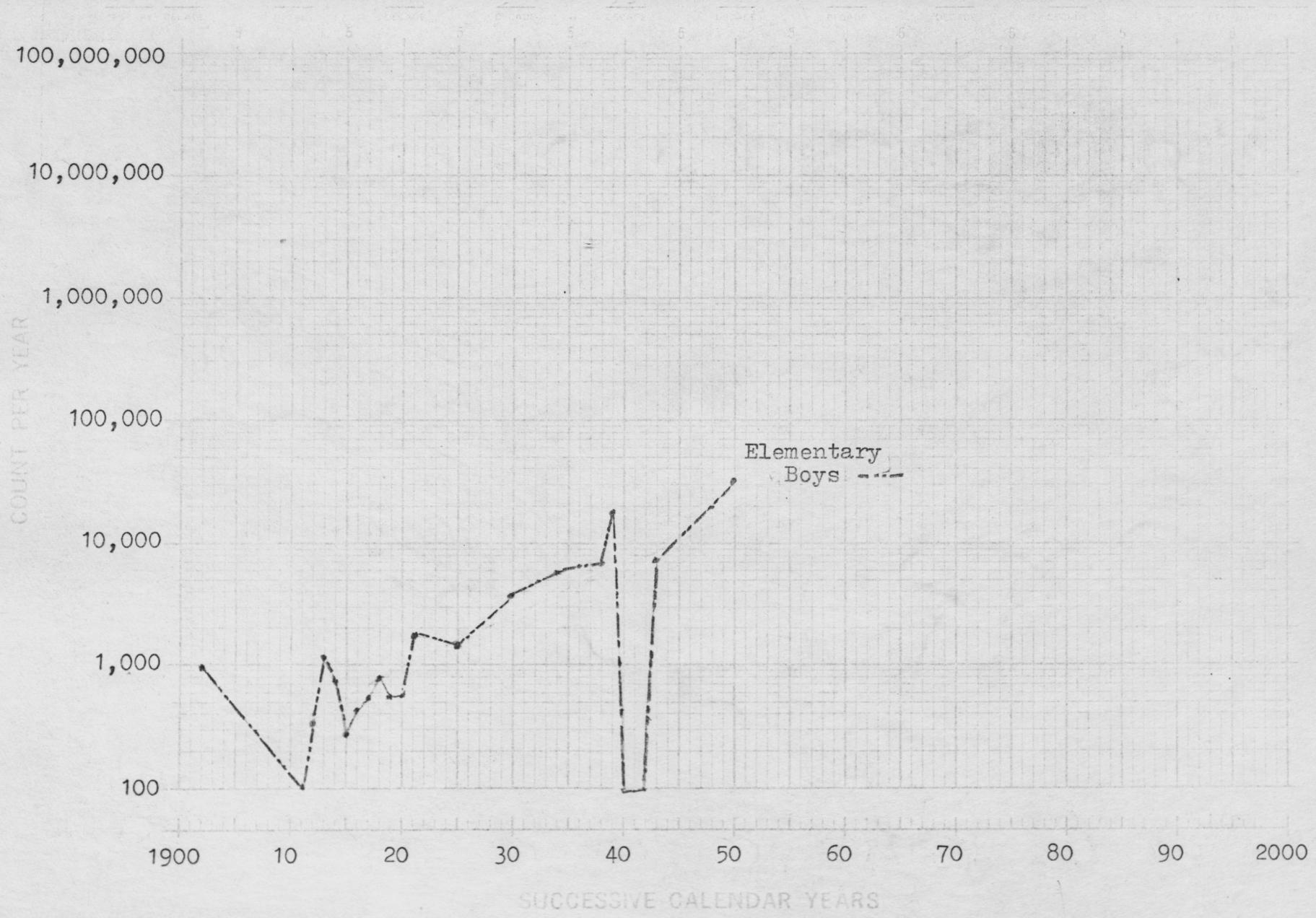


FIGURE 4

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GIRLS 1902-1950

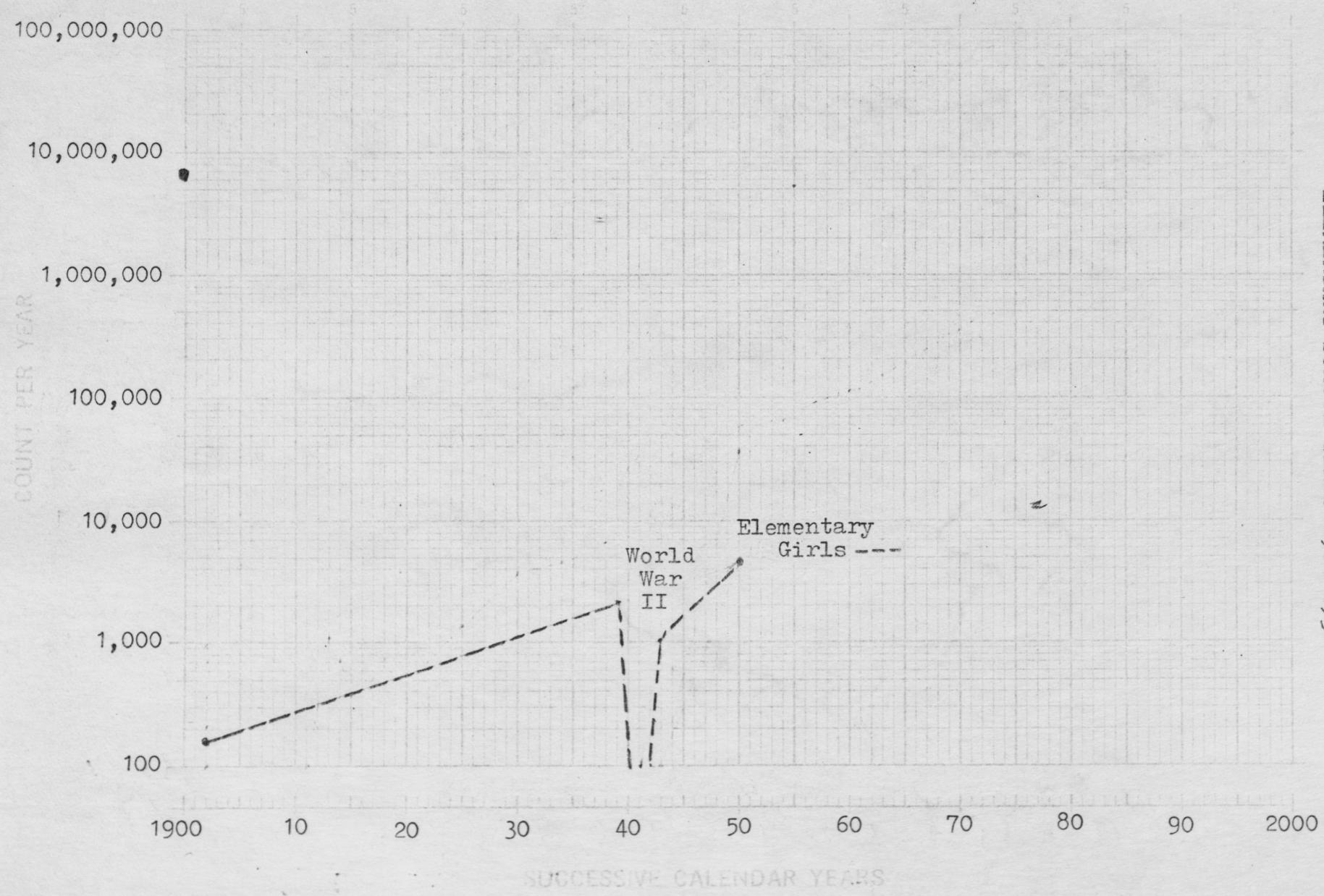
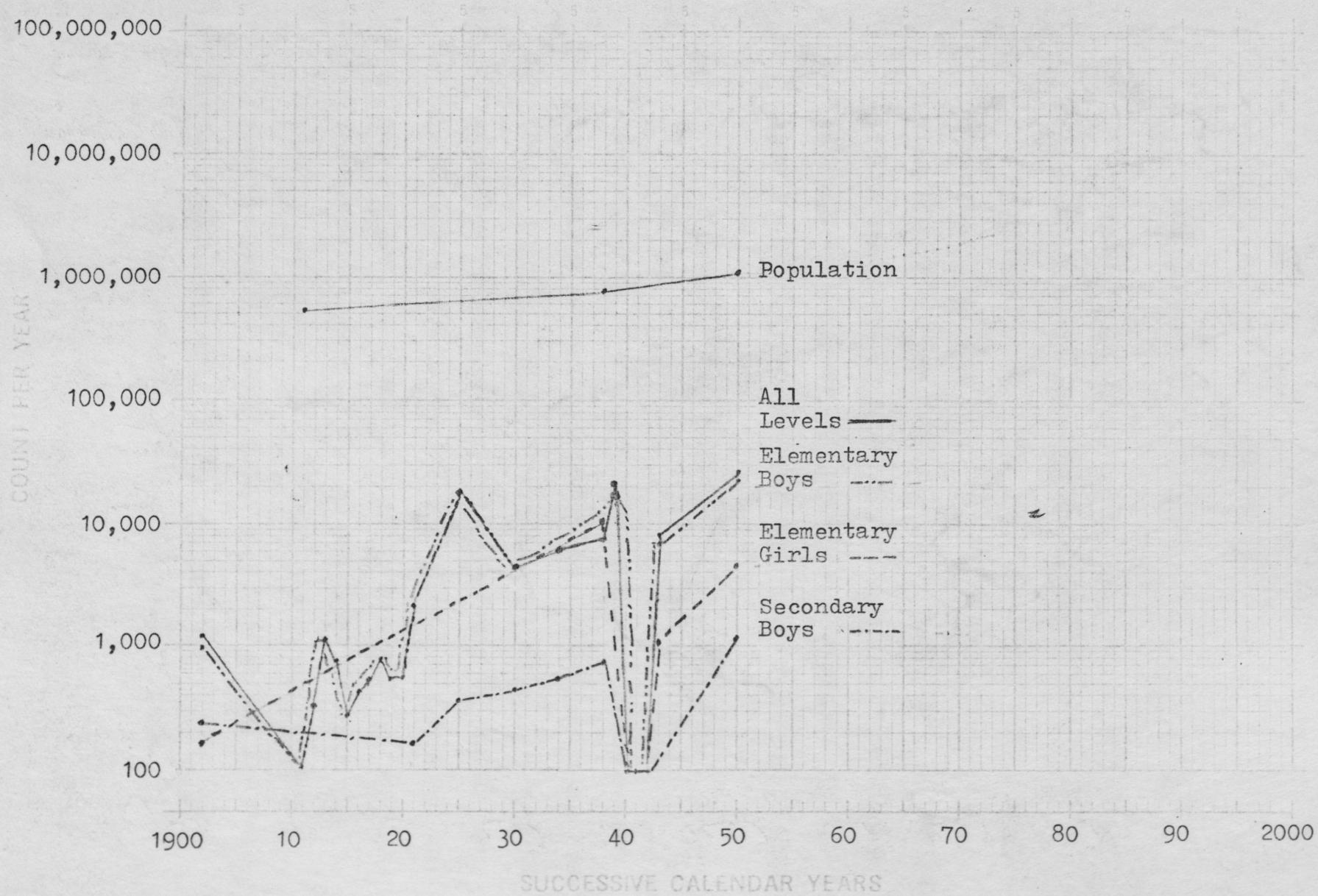


FIGURE 5

COMBINED FIGURES

20



CHAPTER III

EDUCATIONAL GROWTH IN LIBYA AFTER INDEPENDENCE

There have been three important periods in the educational development of the independent Libya. Each one represents a very wide jump in the growth of the educational enrollment. However, the compulsory education code still has not been applied and the possibility of its application might take five years or more. The shortage of manpower and school facilities are controlling the situation more than any legislative procedures.

The Federal Period--from 1951 to 1962

During this period the educational system was controlled by three local governments which represent the members of the union: Tripolitania, Cyrenaica and Fezzan (Pelt, 1970, p. 903). (See Map 1, p. 37.) The federal government was supposed constitutionally to assume the legislative power over the entire school system in the country and the local government was supposed to assume the executive power. But in the final analysis the local governments had full legislative and executive power, since any educational legislation had to obtain the initial approval of the Supreme Council of Education, whose members were the executive figures of

education in the local governments.

The educational system during this period had achieved an exceptional increase in the public school enrollment in comparison to the available capacity of funds and manpower. The total school enrollment in 1962 at the end of this period was 167,000 children in different levels of education. The mere increase of school enrollment was not affected apparently by the type of political system--federal or unity--but rather affected by the national revenue and citizens' awareness.

This period of education represents the hardest time in the Libyan educational system since there were so many different limitations. Everything was limited: the educational budget, national revenue, school teachers, citizen income, and government administrators. In addition there was a high rate of illiteracy among citizens. However, more people were more grateful and satisfied than at any other time. Although the living was so hard and tight, people had unlimited faith in God, which apparently replaced the abundance of wealth.

The transition from the Federal Period to the United Period did not affect the general trend of educational growth but may have affected other aspects of education. The school enrollment in the next period reached a high level but the increase was almost at the

same percentage annually.

The federal form of government ended in 1963. The state of economic development in 1964 improved and this allowed the government to start that year the first planning for educational development, in order to meet the rapid growth in school enrollment.

The United Period--from 1963 to 1968

During this period the first planning for development was achieved and school facilities took top priority among government activities. The policy of leasing school facilities reached its peak in 1968 when 28 percent of the total school buildings were rented (Libyan Arab Republic Ministry of Education, 1973, p. 40), in some cases because of educational interest and in some because of personal benefit. Whatever the reason, school facilities became more available and the enrollment of public schools soared in different levels of education. They enrolled, according to the Ministry of Education statistics in 1968, 313,000 children in the public school system. The enrollment in the elementary schools has come very close to compulsory achievement goals; the compulsory age was 12 years before the revolution but since has been extended to 15 years of age.

The following data about population growth and

the analysis of the first grade school enrollment might give a clear idea of the educational condition in 1968 and the educational condition in 1973.

Population growth rates used by expert sources in 1972 varied between 3.1 and 3.7 percent per year for the 1968-1971 period. They projected a doubling of the population by about 1985. During the early years of independence there was a steady flow of Libyans into the country, many of whom were returning from political exile, mainly in Tunisia and Egypt. Between 1964 and 1967 the country received about 5,000 immigrants a year. Population experts assumed that immigration would continue at about the same rate and that some 26,000 immigrants would be added to the population between 1969 and 1973 (Nyrop and others, 1973, p. 58)*.

We can see from this that the basic source of the population growth in Libya is the birth rate. This justifies using the population growth to determine whether compulsory education goals are being met. In order to do this we should compare the population growth of certain years with first grade enrollments six years later (see Table 3 for population growth and Table 4 for school enrollment, pp. 15 and 25, respectively). For example, school enrollment in the first grade in 1968/69 was:

1. boys	49,289
2. girls	32,088
Total enrollment	81,377

*There might be one other small source of population growth, viz., through the marriage of Libyan youth to non-Libyan girls.

TABLE 4
SCHOOL ENROLLMENT 1957-1973

Year	Elementary Schools		Junior Level		Secondary Level		Teacher Training		Tech-nical	Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female		
1957	73956	16769								90725
1958	81625	16438	4876	182	1536	45	1401	275	718	107096
1959	86380	21828	7150	305	1651	78	1584	297	856	120129
1960	97561	25872	9011	472	1821	125	1778	375	959	137974
1961	105771	25327	10541	675	2126	158	1732	430	1155	147915
1962	116116	29809	13880	811	2508	200	1752	543	1477	167116
1963	125854	28738	13393	893	2228	186	1725	682	1190	174889
1964	136293	32898	16208	1503	3513	368	1665	723	1027	194198
1965	149104	53189	17108	1612	3888	438	2118	1212	933	229602
1966	153500	62851	20093	1945	4312	496	2900	1781	1064	248942
1967	173650	75081	24277	2137	5257	738	2986	2268	905	287299
1968	183080	87537	25637	3544	6287	944	2956	2203	1259	313397
1969	203799	107047	30609	5707	7233	1071	3049	1676	1457	361648
1970	219662	128709	30493	6554	7002	1258	3392	1985	3088	402143
1971	245869	159566	34291	9055	7852	1574	4087	1897	3202	467393
1972	261693	190235	42016	12728	8918	1990	6986	4087	3375	532028
1973	270106	214880	54747	19181	10996	2475	8032	7574	3411	591402

Sources: World Survey of Education, UNESCO, Belgium, 1966, p. 744; Ministry of Education, LAR, Dept of Planning, A General Statistic, 1972-73, pp. 3,4,5; Ministry of Education, LAR, Year Booklet, 1973-74, pp. 11, 13, 14, 15, 16-19.

The estimated population increase in 1962 was 50,000 according to many sources. This amount of growth represents the approximate number of children who should have entered the first grade in 1968/69. The reported number of children six years old who enrolled in the first grade in 1968/69 was around 44.3 percent of the total enrollment in the first grade, or 36,050 children. With the reduction of 36,050 children from the estimated growth of the population (50,000) the remainder--almost 15,000--represents children who, although school age, did not enter school in 1968/69. In other words, the number of school age children in 1968 reported in the first grade represented only 70 percent of the total number of school age children. Thirty percent must have stayed out of schools in 1968/69 (see Tables 3 and 4, p. 15 and 25, respectively, and Figure 6, p. 29).

The following observations can be made:

1. The ratio of girls enrolled to the total number of children in the first grade was 39.4 percent.
2. The ratio of children enrolled in the first grade to the total enrollment in the elementary schools was 30 percent (the total number of children in the elementary schools in 1968/69 was 270,617).
3. The ratio of girls to all children in the

total elementary enrollment in 1968/69 was 32.3 percent.

The Revolutionary Period--from 1969 to 1973

The educational situation in the first grade in 1973/74 is as follows:

Boys enrolled	43,970
---------------	--------

Girls enrolled	43,780
----------------	--------

Total enrollment	87,750
------------------	--------

First graders over six	20,207
------------------------	--------

First graders under six	10,000
-------------------------	--------

Non-Libyan first graders	4,000
--------------------------	-------

Libyan first graders not six years of age	34,207
--	--------

(See Tables 3 and 4, p. 15 and 25, respectively, and Figures 6-10, pp. 29-33)

Subtracting 34,207 from the total enrollment of 87,750, indicates that there were 53,543 six year old Libyan children in the first grade in 1973/74. The population increase in Libya in 1967, representing the number of children who should have begun school in 73/74, was approximately 63,000. So almost 85 percent of the children born in Libya in 1967 enrolled in elementary schools in 73/74, and only 15 percent stayed out of school for different reasons.

Observations:

1. The enrollment of girls in the first grade in

73/74 represents 49.9 percent of the total first grade population..

2. The ratio of school age children enrolled in the first grade is much higher in 73/74 than it was in the 68/69 academic year.

3. A new policy was applied in the promotion of children from grade to grade in the first four grades of the elementary level, so the ratio of repetition is very low compared to the previous year.

FIGURE 6

POPULATION GROWTH IN LIBYA 1951-1973

29

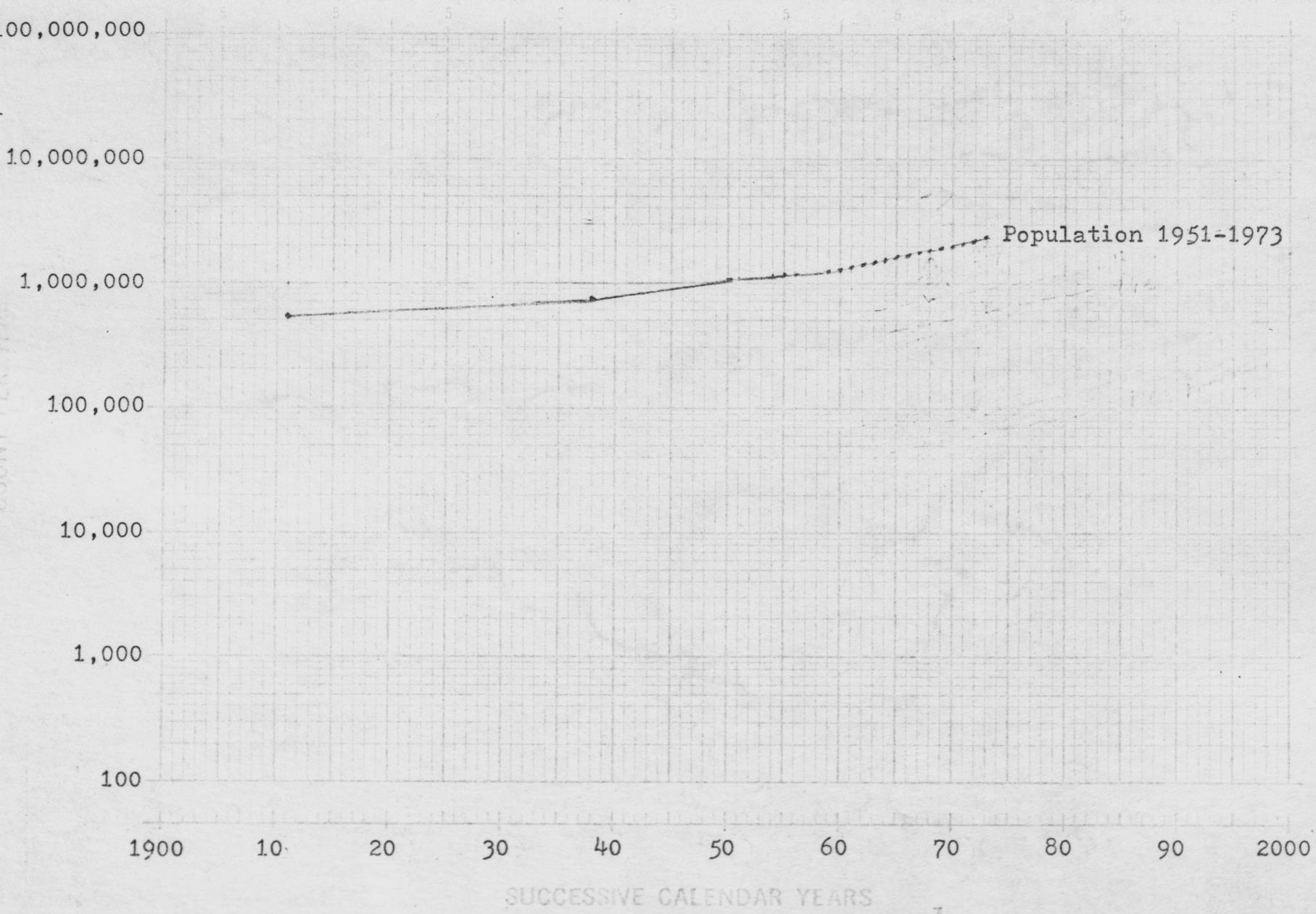


FIGURE 7

ALL LEVELS OF SCHOOL ENROLLMENT 1951-1973

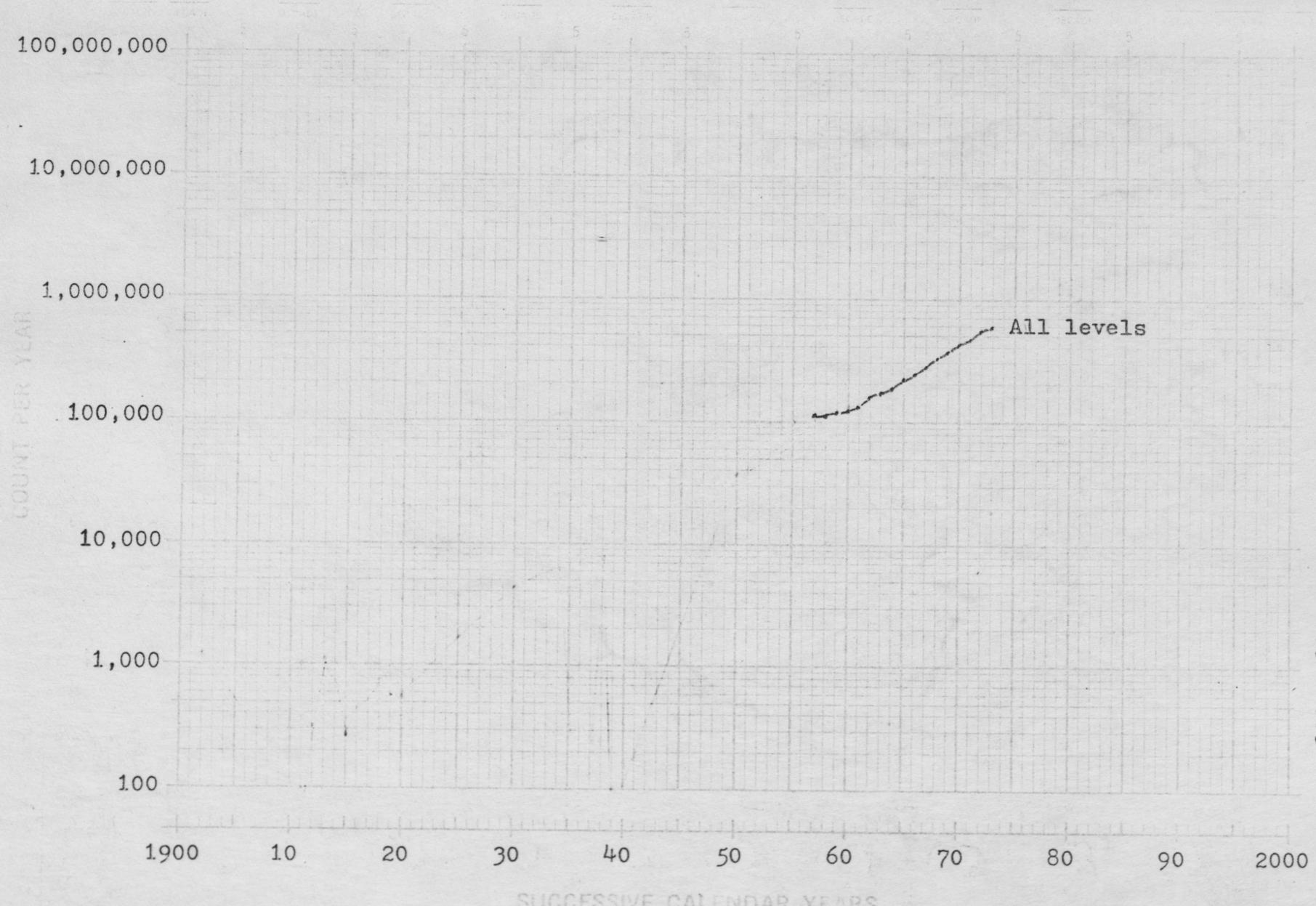


FIGURE 8

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BOYS AND GIRLS 1951-1973

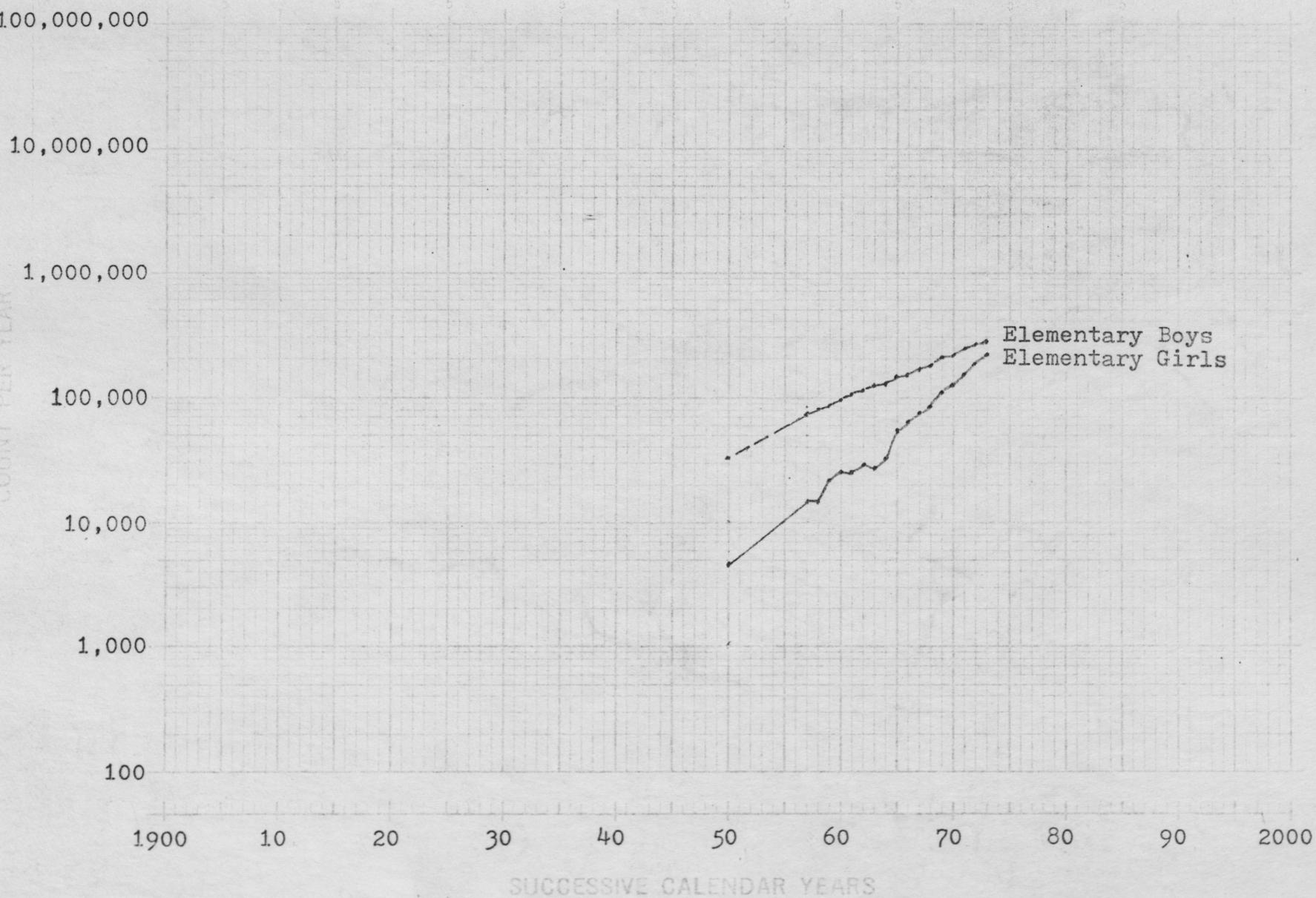


FIGURE 9

JUNIOR SCHOOL BOYS AND GIRLS 1951-1973

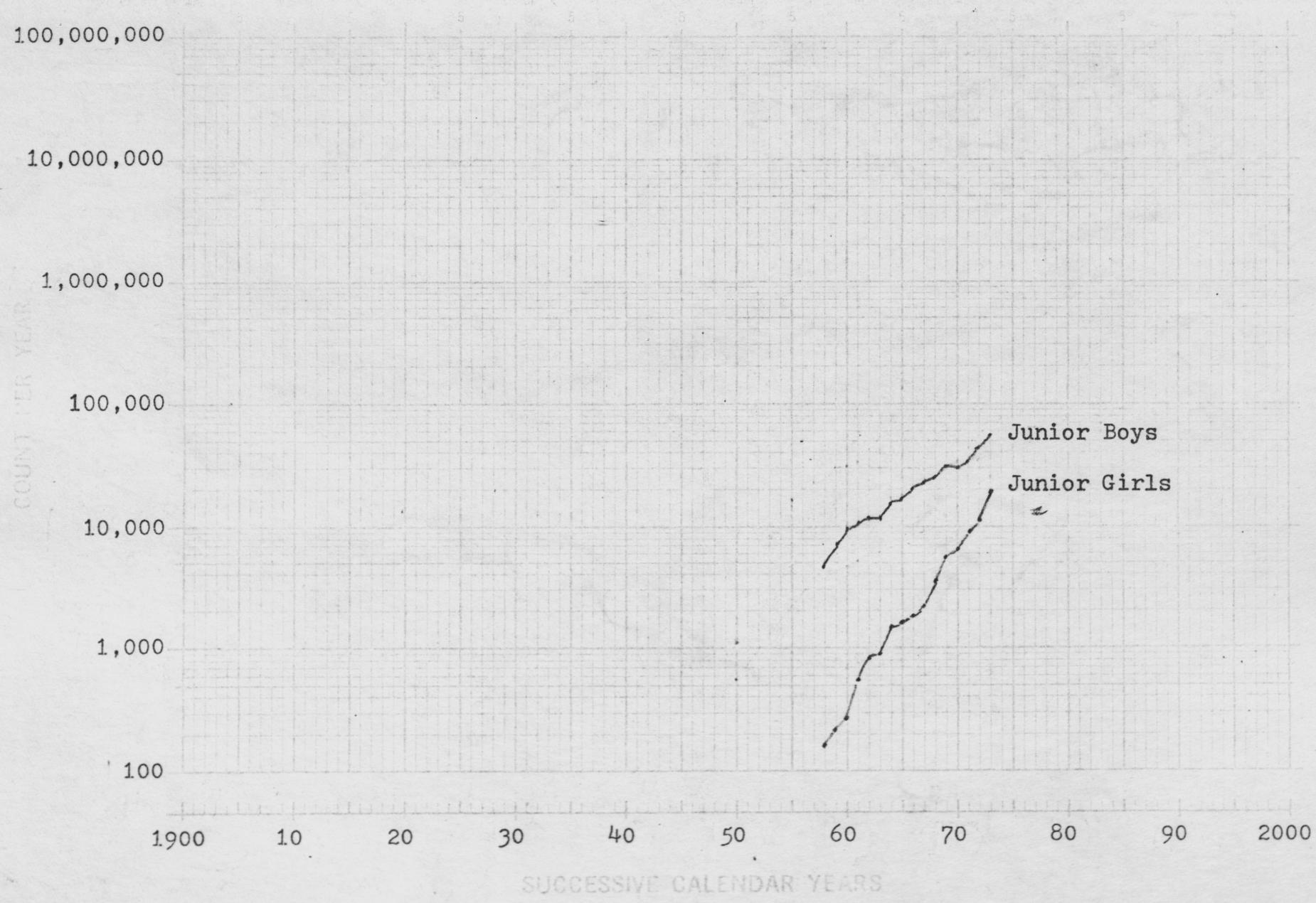
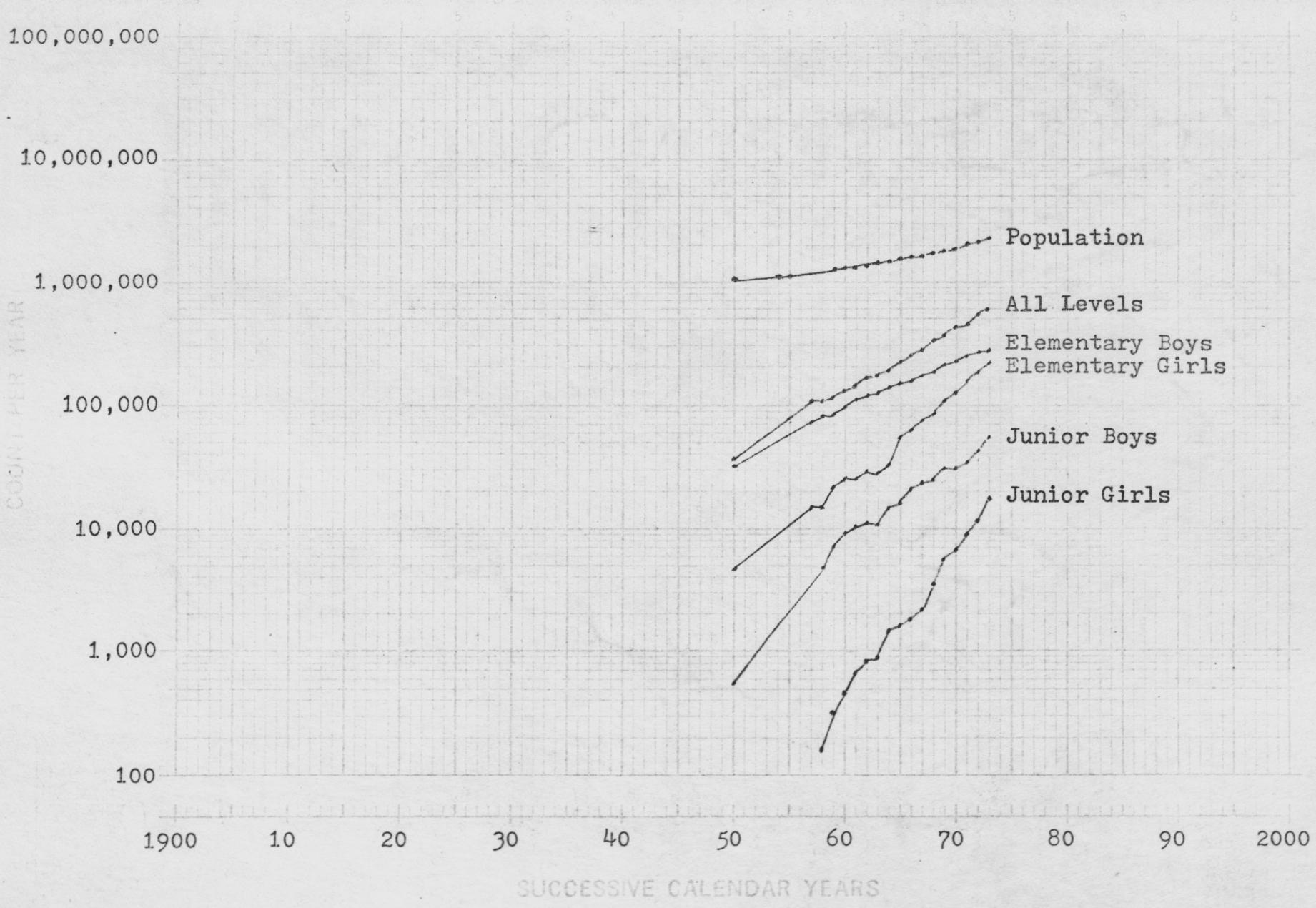


FIGURE 10

COMBINED FIGURES 1951-1973



CHAPTER IV

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE DEVELOPMENT SINCE INDEPENDENCE

On December 24, 1951, Libya was declared an independent country (Pelt, 1970, p. 843) and became a new member of the international society. It achieved its independence eight years after the English-French occupation in 1943. The administration of the English-French military established relatively reasonable circumstances which provided Libyans with some opportunities to assume some junior administrative positions in educational administration.

The first committee for education was formed of English officers by the English administration in Tripoli and Cyrenaica in 1943. This committee was to prepare for the academic year of 1943/44. It held its first meeting in Tripoli on June 5, 1943. The agenda of its meeting consisted of three points:

1. Number of schools to be opened
2. Necessary budget for operation
3. Curriculum and textbooks (Ash-shaikh, 1972, p. 275).

In compliance with recommendations of this committee a

number of schools for Muslims were opened: fifty elementary schools in Tripolitania, with 4,835 pupils, 20 elementary schools in Cyrenaica, with 2,300 pupils. During the same time the French administration in Fezzan opened 11 elementary schools. The total number of schools for Muslims was 81; in addition there were some other schools for Italian and Jewish minorities in both Tripolitania and Cyrenaica (Lindburg, 1952, p. 6).

The administrative staff of the English-French administration had been transmitted into the Libyan government in 1951 (Pelt, 1970, p. 795). It became the basis of educational administration during the early years of the independence.

Administrative Structure

The structure and development of educational administration was formed and affected by various factors during the last 23 years of the Libyan independence. These factors can be summarized in the following way:

1. Forms of political system
2. Enhancement of national revenue
3. Growth of public school enrollment
4. Broad job opportunity in the school system

Ministry-State Structure (Federal Period, 1951-1962)

Educational administration during this period was

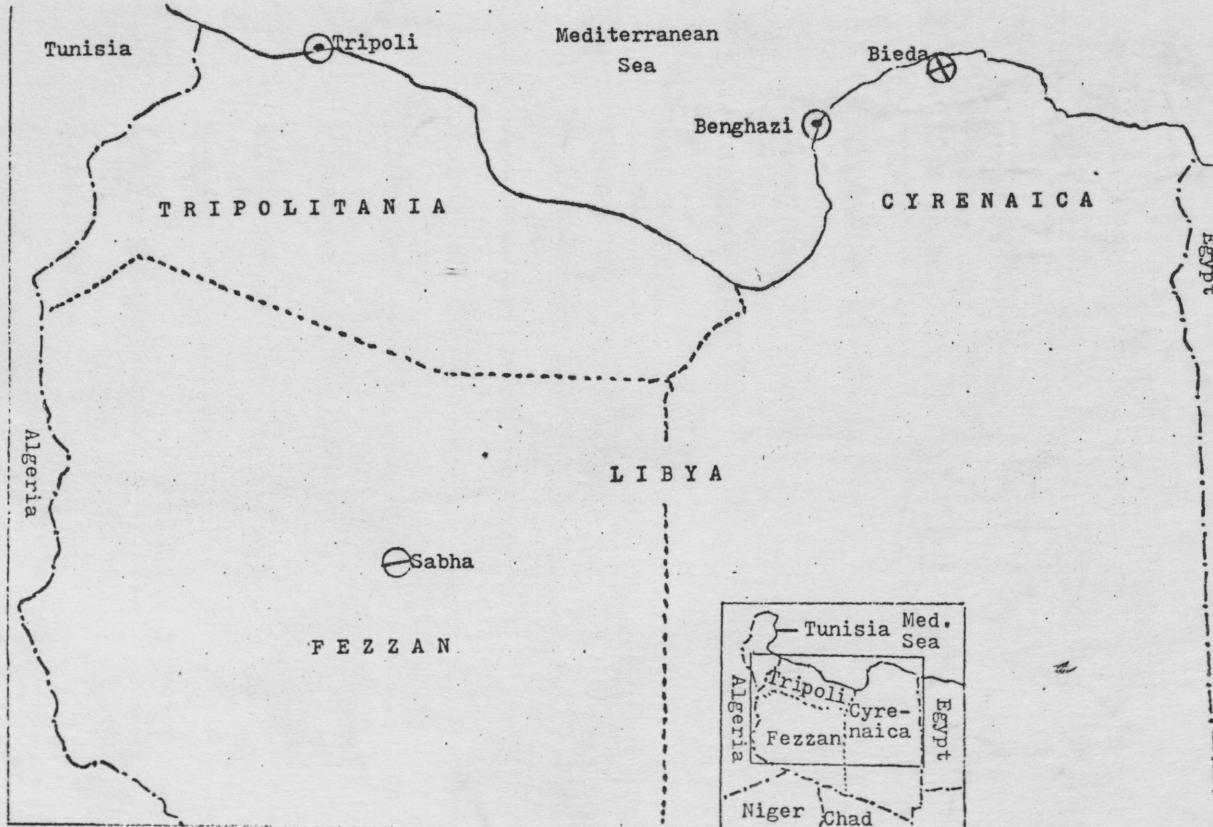
divided into two types of administration--local and national.

Central administration

The Ministry of Education was part of the national government. It represented the central administration for the entire school system. It was concerned with general policy and educational legislation on a national level.

Intermediate administration

The Nazart of Education was part of the local government of the state. It exercised its executive authority within the boundary of the state. The country was divided into three states: Tripolitania, Cyrenaica, and Fezzan (Pelt, 1970, p. 903). (See Map No. 1, p. 37, for state boundaries and locations of state and national capitals.) Each of these nazarats continued with the former staff of the English-French administration; Tripoli and Benghazi received the English prepared staff and Sabha received the French prepared staff. There was no gap between the English-French and the Libyan administrations, so the characteristics of the latter structure stayed the same as the former at first. Administrative personnel in both administrations were appointed primarily for the purpose of meeting essential



- International boundaries
- - - Provincial boundaries
- (○) Provincial and national capitals
- (○) Provincial capital only
- (⊕) National capital only

0 50 100 200 km. The
Sudan

MAP 1

LOCATIONS OF CENTRAL AND INTERMEDIATE
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIONS DURING THE
FEDERAL SYSTEM 1951-1962

37

educational activities within the limited available budget. The estimated number of personnel and areas of activities in 1951 are given in Table 5.

TABLE 5

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF PERSONNEL AND AREAS OF ACTIVITIES IN THE MINISTRY AND THE NAZARATS OF EDUCATION IN 1951

Areas and Positions in the Ministry of Education	Number of Personnel		
Minister of Education		1	
Director of Education		1	
Testing Office		2	
Secretary		1	
Areas and Positions in the Nazarats	Number of Personnel in The Three States		
	Tripolitania	Cyrenaica	Fezzan
Nazer of Education	1	1	1
Director of Education	1	1	1
Finance and Equipment	3	3	1
Administrative Secretary	1	1	1
School Supervision	1	1	1
Adult Education	1	1	---
Personnel	1	1	---
Testing Office	1	1	---
TOTAL	10	10	5

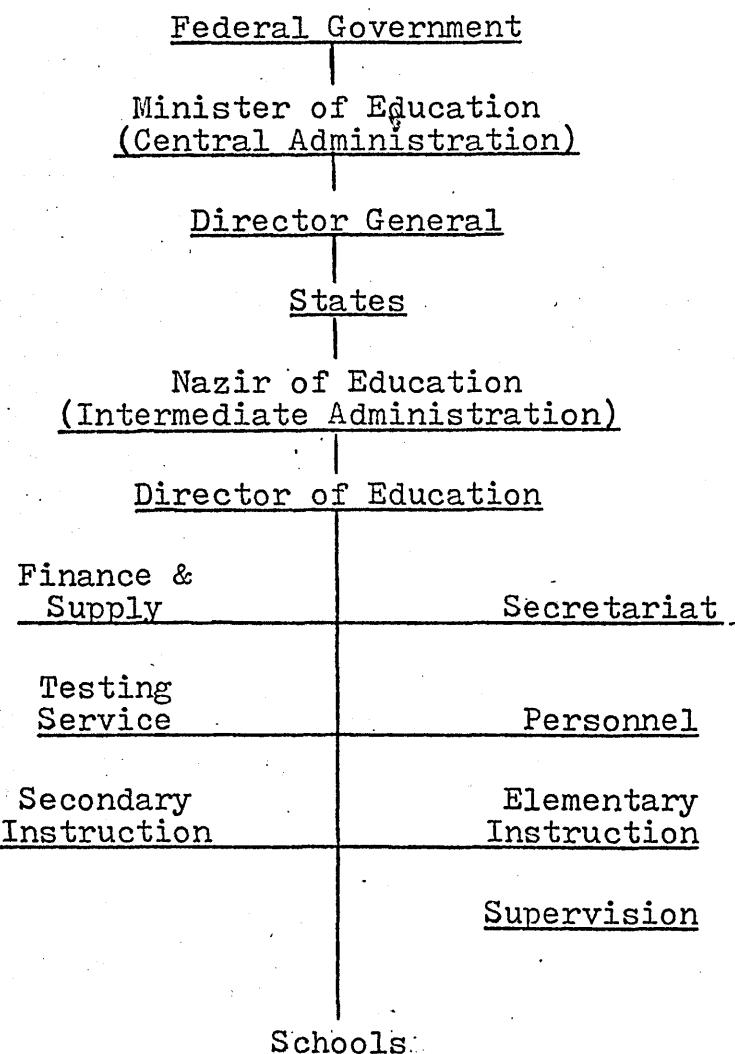
Source: As-shaikh, Educational Development in Libya, 1972, p. 281.

However, the administration grew gradually during the Federal Period in accordance with the essential need for, and availability of, personnel, and the availability of funds. The growth mainly took place in some areas of very essential services such as personnel, the testing section, and the counting and equipment section. (See Organizational Chart 1, p. 40, for the period 1951-1962 and see Table 6 concerning educational administration size in 1962, p. 41.)

Distribution of Power Between the Ministry and the Nazarats of Education During the Period of 1951-1962

The Libyan constitution of 1951 had provided a reasonable distribution of power among national and state governments. The Ministry of Education, as a part of the national government, was concerned with foreign relations, higher education and educational legislation, while the provincial governments were concerned only with local policy and executive power. However, the Education Code of 1952 had imposed restrictions on the Minister of Education's autonomy through the Supreme Council of Education. He had to abide by its opinions in different educational matters not only to meet the provisions of this law but to guarantee minimum implementation of his instructions and guidance (Education Code of 1952, Article 5. Educational Legislation in Libya, 1969, p. 15.) (See Map 1, p. 37, for locations of school administrations during the Federal Period.)

ORGANIZATION CHART 1
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE FEDERAL-STATE
STRUCTURE, 1962



Note: The administrative organization of each of the 3 states, Tripolitania, Cyrenaica, and Fezzan is almost identical to that set out above; the main activities of each of the three are those listed above.

TABLE 6
PERSONNEL IN ADMINISTRATIVE AREAS 1962

Areas and Positions in the Ministry of Education	Number of Personnel
Minister of Education	1
Director of Education	1
Assistant Director	1
Testing Office	4
Secretariat	3
Scholarships Office	2
Other areas	7

Areas and Positions in the Nazarats	Number of Personnel in the Three States			Total
	Tripolitania	Cyrenaica	Fezzan	
Nazer of Education	1	1	1	3
Director of Education	1	1	1	3
Finance & Stores	15	12	2	29
Personnel	10	8	2	20
Testing Section	7	6	3	16
Elementary Education	2	2	---	4
Secondary Education	2	2	---	4
Supervision	2	2	1	5
Adult Education	2	2	1	5
Dorms	1	1	---	2
Housing for Foreign Teachers	1	1	---	2
Extra curricula	1	1	---	2
Secretariat	4	4	1	9
Other areas	6	6	---	12
TOTAL	55	49	12	116

Ministry-County Structure (United Period 1963-1968)

The united form of government in 1963 brought together all administrative activities, which had been distributed among the federal and state governments. The Ministry of Education in the united system assumed both executive and legislative authority over the entire school system. During the Federal Period, the Ministry of Education had been obligated to abide by the recommendation of the Supreme Council of Education; however, during the United Period, the Council retained only an advisory role. This change came about as a result of the provisions of the Education Code of 1965. (Ministry of Education, p. 19). The Ministry of Education in the light of the new system became extremely centralized.

School administration

The united form was supposed to exclude some higher personnel who were holding similar positions in the federal and state governments; but apparently because of some abundance in the budget, the Ministry managed to absorb them all. It also established ten minor administrations in the counties to replace the former nazarats of education in the dissolved states (Nyrop and others, 1973, p. 60).

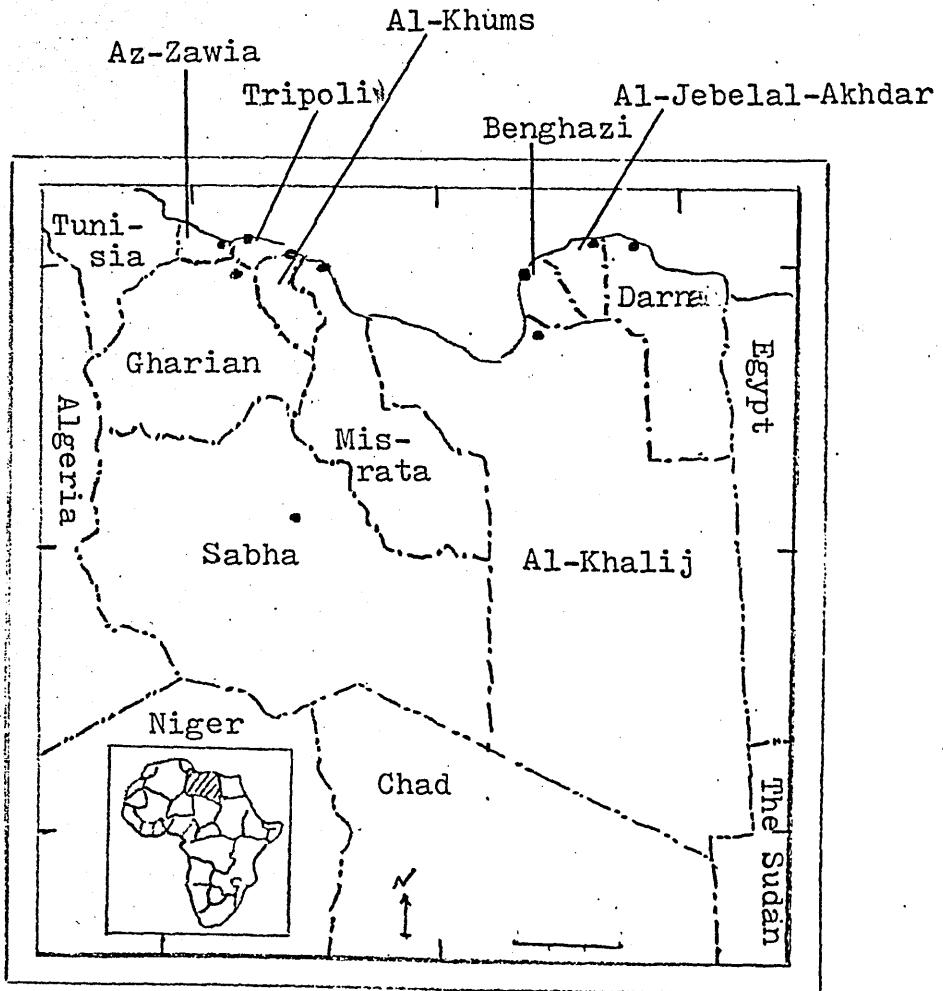
In the light of the united form of government, school administration was divided internally into two levels:

1. Central administration (the Ministry of Education) represented the personnel who worked under direct supervision of the Minister of Education and his under-secretary.

2. The Intermediate administration (the county departments) consisted of the personnel who worked under direct supervision of the school superintendent. These counties were not actually established according to education codes but rather to other government legislations. (See Map 2, p. 44, for county locations.) Both of these levels were actually submitted to the authority of the Minister of Education.

There is no exact record of the number of administrative personnel; records concerning the county departments are especially inexact. One of the main reasons for this is that the educational administration recruited its staff from the teaching force without special procedures to change the status of the teacher to that of administrator. A person might be counted as a teacher in the Ministry of Education's statistics, although he had been working in an administrative position for a number of years. Therefore, it is difficult to

MAP 2
COUNTY DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION



- International Boundaries
- Governorate Boundaries
- Governorate Capitals

find an accurate record of the number of administrative personnel in the county departments as well as in the central administration. However, the personnel who actually engaged in various administrative activities in 1968 can be estimated at both levels within the ranges indicated in Tables 7 and 8 (See pp. 46 and 48; see also Organizational Chart 2, p. 47, for administrative structure in 1968).

Ministry-County Structure (Revolutionary Period 1973)

The administrative structure of 1973 which still is in effect, was designed as a response to the provisions of the Local Administration Law enacted in 1972 by the Revolutionary Command Council (RCC). This structure would be practically isolated from the real educational process if the provisions of the Local Administration Law of 1972 were applied literally. The local governor in accordance with the provisions of articles 9, 10, 11, and 12, has total executive authority over the school system in his county (Local Administration Law, 1972).

Central administration (Ministry of Education)

The central administration structure, as a result of the Local Administration Law, became so large that

TABLE 7

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF PERSONNEL IN
CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION IN 1968

Senior Personnel	Number of Personnel
Minister of Education	1
Under-secretaries	3
Assistant under-secretaries	6
Areas of Activities	
Finance & Stores Department	30 - 35
Personnel	12 - 14
School Health & Nutrition	15 - 20
Transportation	10 - 15
Adult Education	4 - 6
Planning & Follow Up	8 - 10
Cultural Affairs	16 - 22
Examination	10 - 15
Technical Education	4 - 6
Technical Inspection	4 - 6
Curriculum & Textbooks	3 - 4
General Education	9 - 14
Private Schools	3 - 4
Other areas of activities	<u>10 - 15</u> <u>148 196</u>

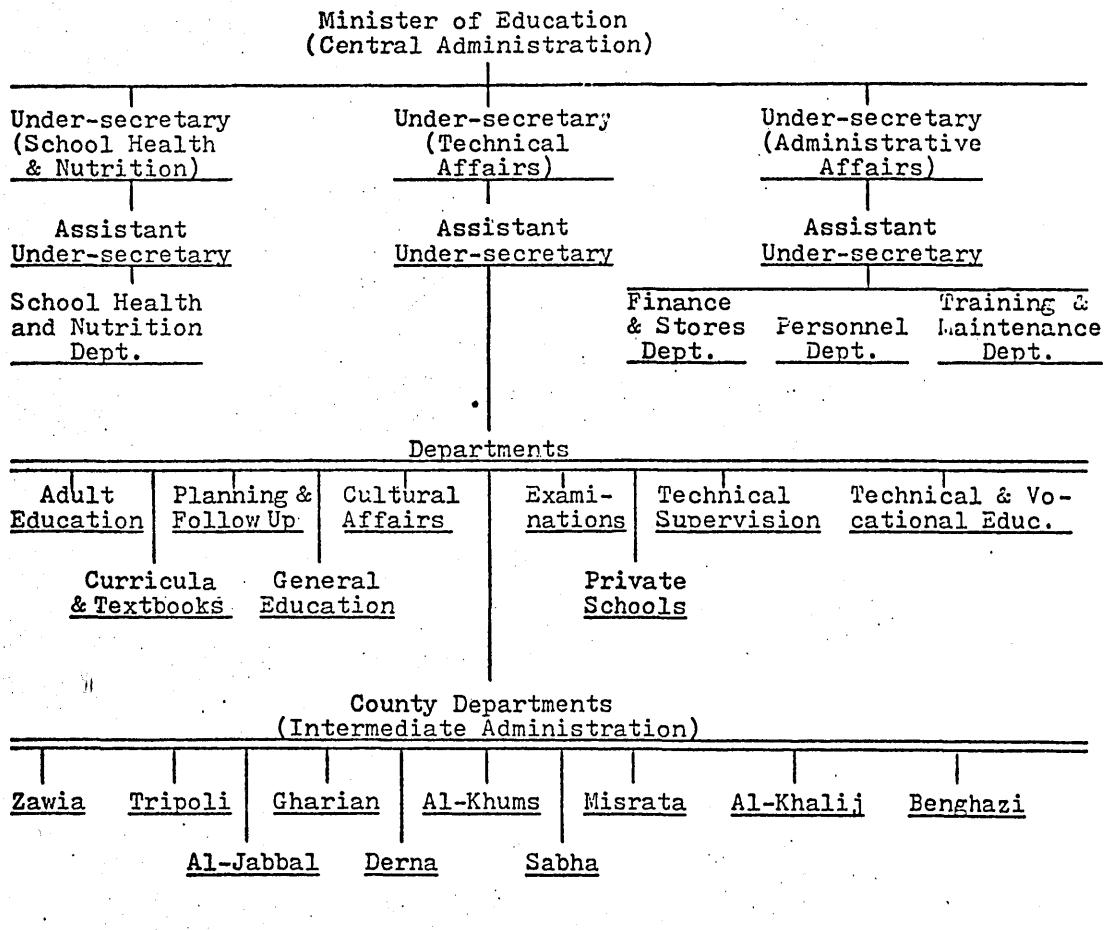
Source: World Survey of Education, 1971, Belgium,
p. 757.

Note: Use is made in the text of the means of the
ranges set out in Tables 7 and 8.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART 2

47

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE 1963-1968



Source: UNESCO World Survey of Education, V. 5, Belgium 1971
p. 757.

TABLE 8

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF PERSONNEL IN
INTERMEDIATE ADMINISTRATION IN 1968.

Senior Personnel and Areas of Activities	Number of Personnel in All Counties
<u>Senior Personnel</u>	
School Superintendent	9
Secretary	9
<u>Areas of Activities</u>	
Finance and Stores	80 - 90
Technical Inspection	30 - 35
Personnel	40 - 60
Examination	40 - 50
Adult Education	20 - 22
Foodservice	20 - 22
Extra Curricular Activities	12
Maintenance	40 - 60
TOTAL	300 - 369

Source: World Survey of Education, 1971, Nyrop, 1973, p. 60.

Note: There were 10 counties in 1968, but since two of them were run by a single administrative body, there were actually 9 structures rather than 10.

it is confined to the limited function of working on planning and general policy for the school system. The contents of this structure as designed by the decree of the Council of Ministers in March, 1973 and the decree of the Minister of Education in April, 1973 (regarding internal functions) are classified in the following way:

1. Minister of Education
2. Under-secretary of Education
3. Minister's and Under-secretary's special staff
4. Standing committees
5. Standing councils
6. Institutions and organizations
7. Legal and educational counsels
8. Ministry of Education Press
9. Heads of technical supervision
10. Coordinating Office

The basic activities of the central administration have been grouped into seven areas under the term, 'Department Generals'"

1. Planning and Follow Up
2. Educational Affairs
3. Affairs of the Schools and Institutes of Religion
4. Educational Services
5. Scholarships and Foreign Cultural Affairs

6. School Construction

7. Secretariat General of the Ministry of Education

Each one of these departments general has been subdivided into sections, offices and other minor subdivisions. There are 27 sections and 29 offices carrying the main functions of the Ministry of Education in addition to some other single personnel. (See Organization Chart 3 for 1973, p. 51.)

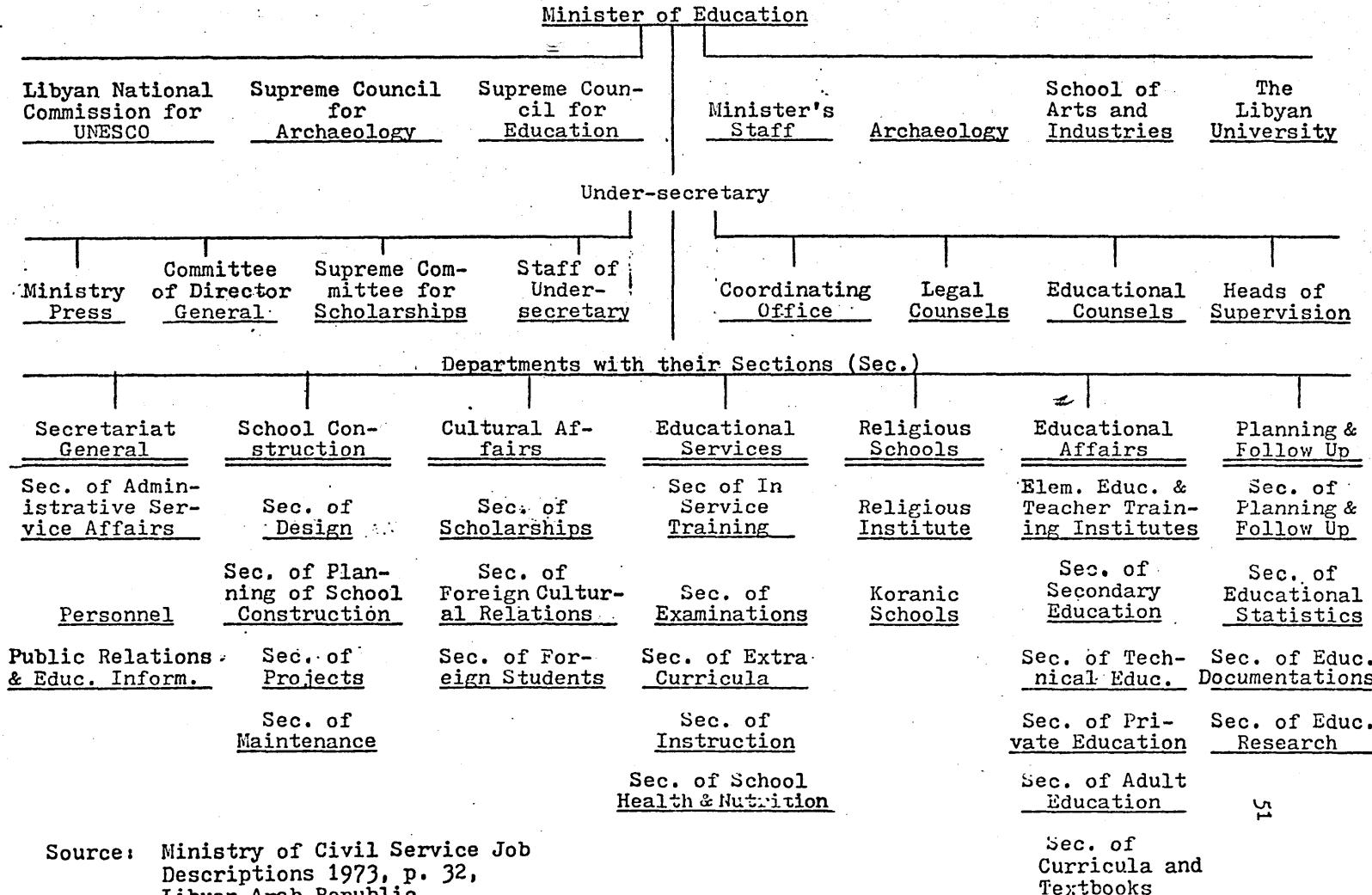
The total number of positions in this structure as described by the Handbook of Job Descriptions (published by the Ministry of Civil Service) is 235; most of these positions were occupied by more than one person, according to the nature, location, and extent of the activities being engaged in. The total personnel who occupied this structure fluctuated between 300 and 400 in 1973. It can be increased whenever a greater number of personnel are needed. The number would be larger if the personnel in the cultural sections of Libyan embassies were included. (See Organization Chart 3 and Table 9, p. 52, for comparison.)

Intermediate administration (county departments)

In the light of the Local Law of 1972, county departments assumed all of the activities which were held by the central administration, except planning,

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART 3

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE, 1973



Source: Ministry of Civil Service Job Descriptions 1973, p. 32,
Libyan Arab Republic.

legislative matters and foreign relations. The estimated number of personnel in all intermediate administrative activities according to data provided by the five Directors of the county departments of Tripoli, Darna, Zawaia, Misrata and Sabha was estimated between 1200 and 1400. In Table 9 is presented a more specific breakdown for the 10 county departments for 1973; this is shown in comparison with the number of students in each county in that year. (See Figure 11, p. 57, for the total number of personnel and students during 1951-1973.)

TABLE 9

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF COUNTY DEPARTMENT PERSONNEL AND NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN 1973

Counties	Number of Personnel (est.)	Number of Students
Az-zawia	90	71,667
Tripoli	300	209,542
Gharian	82	41,309
Al-Khums	72	36,040
Misrata	74	41,295
Al-Khalij	40	20,369
Benghazi	168	84,713
Al-Jabel-Al-Akdar	66	33,276
Darna and Tubruk	100	30,689
Sabha	92	26,165

Source: Five Directors of county departments of Tripoli, Zawaia, Misrata, Sabha, and Darna.

Growth of Administrative Personnel and Students

Between 1951 and 1973 rapid growth took place in both educational administration and school enrollment, especially from 1968 until 1973. A summary of this rapid growth is presented for selected years in Table 10.

TABLE 10

THE GROWTH OF ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL
AND STUDENTS BETWEEN 1951 and 1973

Year	Estimated Number of Administrative Personnel	Students in Public Schools
1951	30	37,000
1962	135	174,000
1968	506	360,000
1973	1394	590,000

Four types of information are shown in Figure 11 on page 57. The top line indicates population growth from 1951 to 1973. The solid line indicates the actual population and the broken line indicates the projected population up to 1980, which will be around 3,000,000 according to the present growth rate of 4% per year.

The second line of information indicates the enrollment in the public schools from 1951 to 1973

in different levels of education. The solid line indicates the actual enrollment and the broken line indicates the projected enrollment up to 1980, which is figured on the basis of the average school enrollment growth rate of 13% during the past 5 years. According to this growth rate there will be about 1,400,000 children in school in 1980. However, it is expected that before 1980 the school enrollment growth rate will begin decreasing. Eventually it will conform with the population growth rate. Assuming that the population growth rate continues at 4% per year, then school enrollment, at the time when the school enrollment growth rate matches the population growth rate, and thereafter, will amount to 30% of the population, or 1 student for each 3.3 members of the population. It is expected that the actual percentage will be slightly larger since there will be children who repeat the same grade one or more times.

The third line from the top represents the compulsory education level--elementary and junior high schools--from 1958 to 1973. The solid line indicates the actual enrollment and the broken line indicates the projected enrollment at the compulsory education level. Compulsory education goals should be reached about 1976

to 1977. School enrollment at that point will be between 800,000 and 900,000 children including a number of children older than their grade levels*. The enrollment growth rate at this point will begin decreasing and will continue to do so gradually until it conforms with the population growth rate. The number of children at the compulsory education level should be 1 out of 3.8 (24.5%) of the population, and should not exceed this percentage.

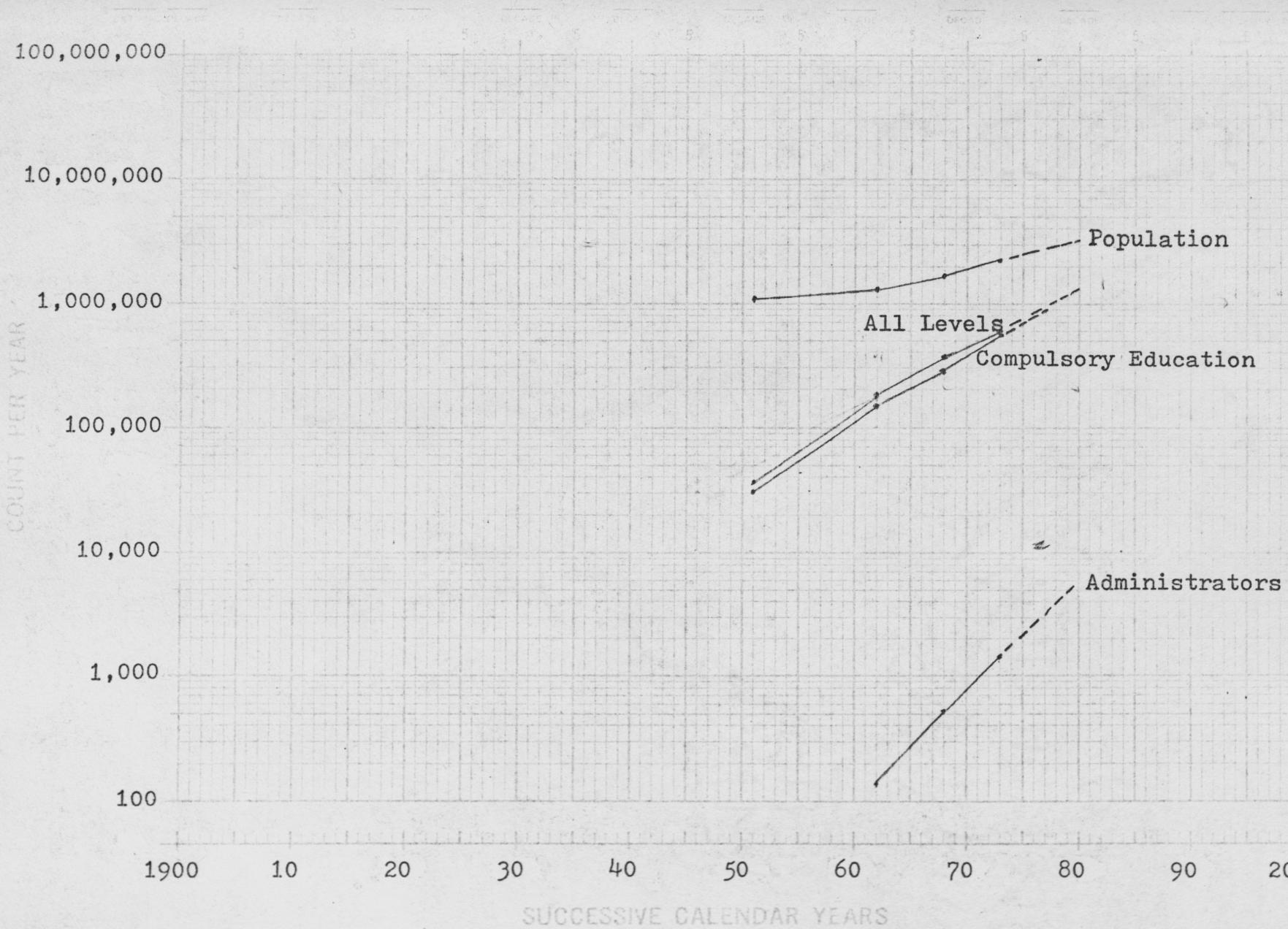
The bottom line indicates the estimated number of administrative personnel in the central and intermediate administration from 1962 to 1973. Here, too, the solid line indicates the actual number and the broken line indicates the projection up to 1980, which will be about 6000 persons, with the exception of supervisors, janitors, drivers and daily workers. For each administrator there will be about 208 students. There is no suggested limit for growth of administrative personnel in relation to the school enrollment, but different circumstances will determine the suitable ratio between the number of administrators and the number of students. The government policy will play a major role in determining the size

*This would include children who begin elementary school after 6 years of age and those who begin junior school after 12 years of age, and children who drop out of school and then return.

of the school administration according to the economic and employment circumstances.

FIGURE 1.1

PROJECTED POPULATION, STUDENTS AND
ADMINISTRATORS TO 1980



CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Problems of Educational Development

Many problems were connected with the rapid educational development in Libya. Some people suppose that money is capable of solving everything, but in reality, such is not the case. Most official attention today is concentrated on the basic problems which rapid development produced.

Shortage of School Teachers

The shortage of Libyan school teachers represents the most pressing issue in any planning for education on any government level. There are many factors responsible for this situation:

The rapid growth of school enrollment

The infiltration of teachers to other government areas

The over-assignment of teachers to some school areas, either because many teachers originally came from a particular area, or because of the availability of better services and a more comfortable life in the area.

The mis-distribution and mis-assignment of teachers is also caused by senior officers in the government,

and other influential figures in the society, when they work to relocate teaching friends in preferred areas. The call for a harsh discipline and a free capable administration to put things in their rightful places is always welcomed and supported by all, but only in theory. As a result of these circumstances, the problem of teacher shortage is always increasing instead of decreasing.

The number of non-Libyan teachers in elementary schools in 1973/74 was 32.3% of the total teaching force, or 6,562 teachers out of a total of 20,289. However, there would be a need for fewer non-Libyan teachers if there were good distribution and proper assignment, where the number of teachers conformed as much as possible to the number of classes, in accordance with Article 10 of the instructional regulations of elementary schools. This article says, "the general rule in this stage is to assign one teacher to the whole class to teach all subject areas from first up to sixth grade. A teacher should continue with the same children up to the end of the fourth grade as far as it is possible and in the welfare of the children..." The Official Paper, Vol. 10, March 11, 1974, pp. 390,391).

By applying the provision of Article 10 which

necessitates one teacher to each class, the number of teachers would be reduced by 2740 to match the number of classes.

Shortage of School Facilities

The problem of school facilities stands as an obstacle to adequate educational growth as well. It affects the length of the school day, extra-curricular activities, and adequate application of school curriculum. Today, every school building in the elementary level is used for two sessions a day, and some buildings for three sessions a day, which decreases the length of the school day and the level of school achievement. Children in elementary schools do not obtain a complete three hours of learning under direct supervision of their teachers because classes must be ready for afternoon sessions. This problem is not only the responsibility of school administrators but involves many other government agencies, such as public works, the labor department, and contractors of construction, and also involves expenditure regulations and budget allocations.

The Growth of Public School Enrollment

In the first chapter we showed that Libya achieved extraordinarily rapid growth in school enrollment over

the past 23 years, doubling every five years. Twenty-four percent of the Libyan population was attending schools, according to Ministry of Education statistics of 1973/74. The commitment of the state to provide every child with a minimum education was responsible for bringing about this expansion in quantity.

Providing a minimal education for the masses might be supported by the argument that as a starving person cannot wait for luxurious food, neither can uneducated children wait for a high quality education. The real problem is not to spread minimum education to meet public demand and legislative provisions under a very limited financial capacity; rather, it is that the government continues with the same minimum under a very tight policy of expenditure although there are very good financial circumstances. The policies for school facilities that were established 23 years ago should be reviewed; the entire school system should be systematically examined and improved to conform with prerequisites of reasonable educational processes based upon the national revenue.

Counting and charting the number of school enrollments is very important for educational decision making, but our decisions must be based upon more than

enrollment statistics. Satisfaction with adequate enrollment might lead to ignoring other important educational aspects such as school equipment, libraries, communications, and extra curricular facilities. Over-emphasis of quantity might also lead to falsifying statistics by counting children in public schools who are no longer really attending schools.

Qualitative Expansion

Before we can determine whether educational growth in Libya has been accompanied by increased quality or not, we must define the term 'quality education', because the term might mean different things to different people.

A quality education, in the viewpoint of some lay Libyan citizens, is that which will enable the learned person to achieve what the unlearned person cannot do, regardless of educational objectives or what the student actually studies. A school graduate, just by virtue of having some degree, might be asked by these citizens to solve any one of a multitude of technical problems, whether or not the graduate has specialized in these problems. These kind of people conceive education in this way because they are so pragmatic and obsessed with the practical results of education rather than with pure knowledge. According to this conception,

teaching itself and studies of humanities and other similar areas are considered a waste of time. However, this conception of education might correspond with some modifications to the points of view of some philosophers who hold that the main purpose of education is to ensure human survival.

According to these philosophers, quality in education should be understood in the light of educational objectives whether one is learning to read or chop wood or collect crops in the field. According to William Baker:

The first modern objectives were probably those of Herbert Spencer, an English philosopher-biologist who in 1860 stated that the first major purposes of education were related to direct survival--how to avoid being hit by the horse (Baker, 1969, p. 375).

He continued to state his own definition to the term 'quality education' in relation to the educational professional's point of view rather than that of the lay citizen:

Quality is a good reading to a good level of competence, speaking and writing the language sufficiently well to perform adequately according to individual potential, having a good working acquaintance with mathematics, being familiar with the requirement of citizenship and versed in their practice and so on (Baker, 1969, p. 375).

However, neither Spencer nor William Baker provide a perfect definition, since they did not make reference

to valid measurement, which is necessary in order to determine the quality of education. A quality education overall is the adequate achievement in definite educational objectives in accordance with valid educational measurement.

To judge objectively whether the rapid growth of the Libyan school system implies any degree of quality or not one has to look at the degree of quality of different educational conditions in which students are exposed to the educational process. This method, although it may not always lead to correct judgments, is yet a valid one. Conditions for a quality education are as follows:

1. Qualified teachers
2. Sufficient school facilities
3. Sufficient availability of school libraries
4. Sufficient expenditure on education
5. Sufficient extra curricular facilities
6. Good school-family cooperation
7. Flexible curriculum and textbooks
8. Effective school administration
9. Satisfaction of school personnel

These are the most important variables and have tremendous effect--either positive or negative--on the

educational process and the outcome of product. There are some educational efforts in Libya to achieve minimum requirements in some of the above conditions. These efforts were expressed in educational legislations first then followed by actual implementations.

Teacher qualifications

Minimum qualification has been required by school regulations. In 1973, for example, elementary school regulations had provided that the elementary school teacher and the school principal must hold at least a teacher-training school diploma (Ministry of Education, 1974, p. 391). To meet this provision of this regulation, the Ministry of Education launched two plans: first, to establish a large number of teacher-training schools, and second, to eliminate the uncertified teachers by establishing systematic in-service training sessions to qualify those who already were working in education without suitable certificates. It established 10 year planning for improvement of already qualified teachers and qualification of new teachers (Ministry of Education, 1974, p. 391). (See Table 11 for figures on qualified teachers in elementary and junior high schools, p. 68.)

Sufficient expenditure on education

Education cost and expenditure is the most important criterion for determining the quality of education. In the fiscal year of 1971/72 the public school budget was 37,000,000 Libyan dinars which is equivalent to 125,000,000 US dollars. This sum, if divided by 470,000 public school students in 1971/72, shows that there were 78 Libyan dinars per student, or 265 US dollars per student, in that year. Not only was this expenditure very small, but it was also neither spent wisely nor only for the sake of education to bring about a good product. Thirty percent of this sum was actually paid for nonessential employees, such as extra janitors, drivers, and teachers, only for the sake of fulfilling a general obligation to provide a living to the Libyan people. The actual expenditure for the educational process in different areas of the school system, with the exception of the above-mentioned nonessential persons, did not exceed 60 Libyan dinars or 200 US dollars per student per year, while in comparison, the lowest student cost in the United States is 590 dollars and the highest, 1584 dollars, per student per year (National Education Association, 1972, Reader's Digest Almanac 1974, p. 200). So, according to the previous

figures of expenditure per student, in addition to the high cost of living and school materials, the Libyan government did not actually allocate adequate funds required for a good quality education.

School expenditure is the key word

There is no need for investigation of other educational conditions because most of them depend on an adequate appropriation of money. Since the budget was so tight the situation ought to be understood as not being capable of reaching a high level of educational quality.

TABLE 11

NUMBER OF QUALIFIED AND NON-QUALIFIED TEACHERS
 IN ELEMENTARY AND JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS
 1971/72, 72/73, 73/74

	Qualified Teachers		Non-qualified Teachers		Total
	Number	% of Total	Number	% of Total	
1971/72					
Elementary	9399	65.8	4878	34.2	14277
Junior High	2561	82.4	545	17.6	3106
Total	11960		5423		17383
1972/73					
Elementary	12188	69.4	5364	30.6	17552
Junior High	3430	90.7	352	9.3	3782
Total	15618		5716		21334
1973/74					
Elementary	17417	85.8	2871	14.2	20288
Junior High	4750	93.4	335	6.6	5085
Total	21640		3733		25373

Sources: Ministry of Education, A Statistical Brief, 1971/72, p. 21, Table 22, and 1972/73, p. 28, Table 31; Ministry of Education, The Yearly Booklet, 1973/74, p. 48.

Note: A qualified teacher is one who holds the minimum certificate required by school regulations, or a higher certificate. A non-qualified teacher is one who does not hold such a required diploma, even if he has a high school certificate.

The Growth of Public School Administration

The observed growth in educational administration is caused not only by growing services in the school system, but also by other contributing factors such as:

1. The general tendency of school teachers to become administrative personnel rather than staying in their teaching positions.
2. The recruitment and assignment of administrative personnel is not always submitted to pre-administrative planning and does not always take administrative need into account.
3. Educational administration is considered a subdivision of the school system which allows teachers to move from teaching positions to administrative areas without special qualifications.
4. The educational administrative structure makes possible one way traffic in the teacher's mobility process; a teacher can transfer easily to an administrative position, but once he enters, the administrative position becomes the final destination in his career. Administrative personnel who transfer in this way never decide to go back to their former positions. This method of one way flowing has led to too many people in the administration.

Problems of Administrative Growth

During the period from 1963 to 1968 certain characteristics were recognized in the school administration.

These were:

1. The growth of senior personnel; there were, for example, three under-secretaries and six assistant under-secretaries splitting the leadership position.
2. Less cooperation and familiarity among personnel as a result of the sudden consolidation of four former administrations and multiple leadership positions.
3. The emergence of new administrative behavior, especially among former administrators who reluctantly accepted lower positions in the new system. For example, there was extreme competition for higher positions.
4. The decline of leadership in school administration. The different levels of the school system administration have increased in size, but at the same time have decreased in terms of the role and effectiveness of leadership. In many cases senior officers do not have that authority which, if delegated, would enable subordinates to use necessary discipline and control with the school management. Moreover, in those cases where senior officers have authority, they do not delegate it. The seniors also fail to extend their direct

supervision and authority to distant administrative areas. Thus, the senior officers themselves maintain the power of final decision concerning every small matter.

5. The apathy of employees. Whereas the activities of a small number of personnel in a small school system might easily be controlled by societal norms and values, as soon as the system gets bigger, these basic norms and values have a greater tendency to be violated. Thus, rules and regulations become necessary, as well as enforcement, by those in authority, of these rules.

Most of these characteristics were not confined to the educational administration, but rather prevailed throughout the government system as a result of political and social transition.

Attempts for Improvement

The declined quality of the administrative machinery of the government was and is still the most chronic problem facing the government. There were many attempts to deal with the situation, for example the forcing of undesirable personnel to retire from their positions in return for some extra pension or allowance. In 1964 the state enacted a new civil service code which authorized the Council of Ministers to discharge undesirable

personnel within six months after applying the new law (Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Civil Service, New Civil Service Laws, Article 4, p. 22). After the revolution, the government made more generous offers to the people who wanted to retire, but most of the people who took advantage of this offer were more desirable than those who stayed in.

A second attempt to improve the administration was through the formation of popular committees in 1973. The phenomenon of apathy among employees was one of the basic reasons for the beginning of these committees. In 1973, the chairman of the Revolutionary Command Council (RCC), declared his program of five points in a speech which has been called the Declaration of the Administrative Revolution. He said:

. . . those people who sleep in their homes, and those people who formed insulation between the revolution and the popular masses, those who leave their work if there is no one controlling them, or those people who close their offices in the face of the citizens and procrastinate in the execution of the peoples' interests; all of those people are bureaucratic bourgeoisie who do not achieve their duties voluntarily but by fear; those people require the declaration of administrative revolution by the popular masses who I will arm to destroy the bureaucracy that functions as an insulation . . . and I do know that there is an administrative machinery that insulates the masses and which is getting bigger day after day; it is necessary to declare the revolution against this machinery and destroy it; verily the one has been excused who did warn (Libyan Arab Republic, Ministry of Information and Culture, From our Revolutionary Thought 12, 1973, p. 41).

What is important in this situation is not the content of the chairman's reaction, but rather the strength of his reaction against this particular phenomenon.

The establishment of local administration by the RCC in 1972 was another attempt to reform the government administration. But according to the declaration of the chairman of the RCC to the national convention of the Libyan Socialist Union held in Tripoli in November, 1974, this attempt did not achieve any level of effective administration. Therefore, the convention recommended that the system of counties and districts be canceled and that the ministers hold full and direct responsibility for administering all the units of their ministries.

(Al-Fajr Al-Jadid, Tripoli, Libya, Nov. 1974, no. 681).

Any further solution to the problems of education would require decisive administrative action, which it is difficult for any single government agency to engage in. This is because any administrator, under many circumstances, must abide by the social considerations and general policies of the state, rather than the provisions of civil service or educational legislation. A common social principle in Libyan society is opposed to any harmful financial punishment which goes beyond the individual himself to cause hardship in the family.

Administrative action taken in order to put things in their rightful places does not easily take its course since such action would usually lead to financial hardships for the employee's family. In the very few cases in which some courageous administrator tried to apply the employment regulations, such as transferring a teacher against his wishes, dismissing a teacher, or giving an unsatisfactory evaluation to some employee, he was usually obliged to retreat in his decision under a wave of opposition, blame, and criticism from both those in public office and private citizens.

It was mentioned above that one of the problems was apathy among employees. However, government employees are not apathetic by nature. In many cases they are forced to be so and are treated as undesirable personnel in the government structure. The single administrative policy which is applied to every employee regardless of his individual needs and abilities represents a significant reason for administrative failure. Many administrative personnel, although unproductive under inflexible government rules would, if they found better administrative conditions and more appreciation, be very successful.

In the view of this writer, the administrative

leader, in order to achieve maximum productivity among his subordinates, should base his leadership in a systematic way upon the principles of rewards and punishments. This is partly because natural human tendencies are antithetical to regular work requirements (Martell, 1972, p. 104). Such a system of rewards and punishments cannot be applied under the current rules of employment.

CHAPTER VI

RECOMMENDATIONS

Educational Legislations

None of the education codes--of 1952, 1965, and 1970--had established comprehensive educational provisions to deal with the daily problems of the school system. There were and still are many vital educational issues either left to the employee's judgement or else turned over to the Council of Ministers or the Minister of Education for the enactment of suitable provisions in the form of educational regulations.

The lack of comprehensive legislations brought about much confusion especially in educational administration. There are no legal provisions indicating the legal status of the Under-secretary of the Ministry of Education, or the dimension of his power and authority. He does not have distinctive legal authority in the school system; he is not recognized as a chief administrative officer, in charge of the entire school system, through whom the Minister can exercise his responsibility. Everything is apparently left to the common tradition, where the Minister and his Under-

secretary take part in the administration without the magnitude of their responsibility being clearly defined. This is also the case with school superintendents and school principals.

Furthermore, the education codes totally failed to specify which individual or group was to be held responsible for such activities as organizing or dis-organizing the school administration and dividing it into counties, districts, sub-districts or other divisions. There is no one even authorized to make recommendations concerning such things. The absence of such provisions encouraged most school administrators not to consider whether the division of school administration into 10 counties is successful or unsuccessful.

It has not been shown whether the present classification of school administration into 10 counties (which goes back to the Turkish era) serves the school system effectively or not. This classification was applied first and mainly by the Ministry of the Interior; every other government agency then followed that system since the Ministry of the Interior has that security function which other agencies depend upon. But this is not an adequate reason for the Ministry of Education to follow the classification into 10 counties. It is a

mistake to suppose that establishing one administrative department for the entire county of Tripoli--which had a population of 700,000, and more than 200,000 students in 1973/74--is the best way to go about administering that area. Educational administration should apply that division which best facilitates the educational process, regardless of whether any other government agency applies the same division.

The only way to provide the Ministry of Education with maximum capacity is to revise and update its legislation in the form of a new education code. There are many areas in the school system which have been left without basic provisions or only with brief hints by the education codes. Some of these areas, and aspects within them left without basic provisions, are the following:

1. Personnel in central and intermediate administration (viz., the Under-secretary, school superintendents and their assistants, supervisors, and principals).
 - A. Qualification
 - B. Methods of selection
 - C. Duties
 - D. Extent of authority

2. Students

- A. Compulsory attendance
- B. Discipline
- C. Progress reports
- D. Student records
- E. Student safety
- F. Truancy officer

3. Teachers

- A. Qualifications
- B. Evaluation
- C. Duties and responsibilities

4. Establishing of school districts and schools

- A. Authority to form, disform, divide and consolidate

5. Educational programs

- A. Purposes and objectives
- B. Organization of schools
- C. Curriculum
- D. Specialized instructional services
- E. Continuing education
- F. Guidance
- G. Textbooks
- H. Testing programs
- I. Student activities
- J. School libraries

6. School management

- A. Length of school year, school day, and school session
- B. School records
- C. Evaluation of school management

7. School facilities

- A. Establishment of school sites and determination of space
- B. Supervision of physical plant and custodial services

8. Fiscal management

- A. Purchasing authority
- B. School property disposal procedures
- C. Special bids

9. Auxiliary services

- A. Pupil transportation
- B. Food service
- C. Health service
- D. Personnel needed
- E. Evaluation

(Sources: National Organization of Legal Problems of Education, The Yearbook of School Laws, 1973; State of Kansas, School Statutes, 1949; State of Michigan, General School Laws, 1936; Liberty School District, Liberty, Missouri. Board Policy, 1971; Lawrence Unified School District, Policy Manual, 1969.)

There are many legislations that might cover a large part of what has been mentioned above, but the growing school system should be provided with more up to date legislation capable of dealing adequately with the daily problems. The financial rules, for example, do not permit a school principal to buy even a pound of carrots or tomatoes for use in home economics classes without long procedures. Also, the type of auditing system obstructs more than it helps education.

School Administrative Organization

The administrative organization of the school system should not stay with a particular form without reasonable justification; rather it should continuously seek the best form. Any administrative organization should avoid as much as possible establishing administrative positions only for the welfare of certain personnel or to make more room for more applicants. The welfare of the educational system must take first consideration regardless of how large or small is the size of the administrative structure. More personnel without enough jobs to keep them busy will lead only to more problems. Also, the educational administration must establish very effective leadership positions based on

educational and administrative competency reinforced by legal power and authority if it is to be capable of providing the school system with effective leadership and suitable professional guidance.

However, there are a number of educational personnel who continue to challenge the leadership role in one way or another. The only way to establish the necessary confidence in leadership positions is to select the leading figures in accordance with very objective rules, whether administrative or educational. Top personnel, especially the Under-secretary, school superintendents, school principals, school supervisors, and the assistants of all these, should represent the elite in the system. As Lane, Corwin and Monahan stated:

Officials are appointed, rather than elected to office and they should qualify on the basis of skill rather than personality characteristics alone. Thus, the basis of official superiority is supposed to rest on competence and knowledge (Lane, Corwin and Monahan, 1968, p. 183).

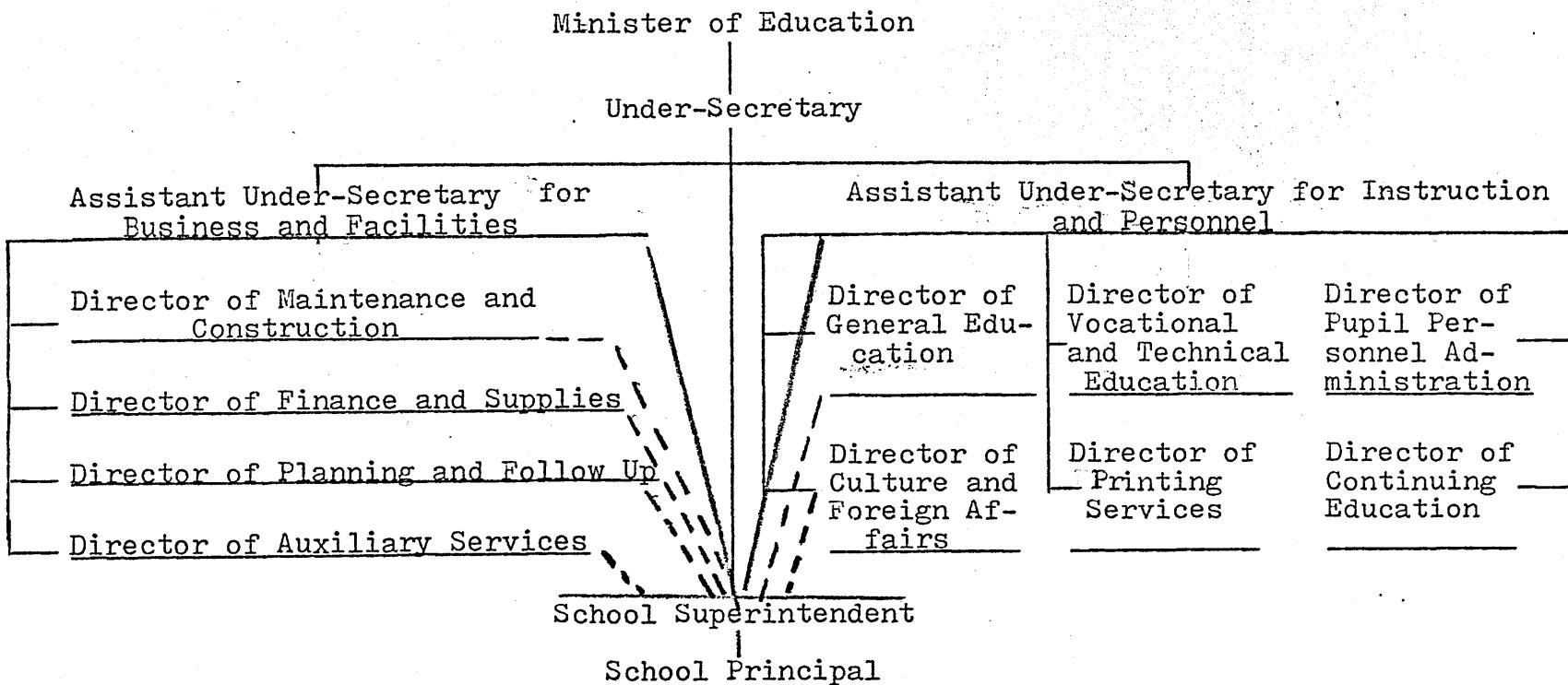
Recommended Administrative Structure

I will recommend a pyramidal shape for administrative structure in different levels of the school system in which the authority will flow from the top to the bottom, in the form of a chain of command, with participation of the bottom in the planning for decision

making. The top should be very narrow and the Under-secretary should exercise his authority through his assistant only and the top leader should be appointed upon the recommendations of the Under-secretary if he (the Under-secretary) is to be held fully responsible. Every person in the hierarchy should exercise his authority through his immediate subordinates; in this way each person keeps a certain responsibility and authority. (See Organization Chart 4 for suggested structure of central administration.)

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART 4

SUGGESTED CENTRAL EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE



Note: the solid line indicates flowing authority; the broken line indicates cooperation.

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APPENDIX
**ARABIC LETTERS WITH THEIR
ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS**

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

((ربنا افتح بيننا وبين قومنا بالحق وانت خير

الفاتح))

((صدق الله العظيم))

الجمهورية العربية الليبية

وزارة التعليم وال التربية

مراقبة خدمات التعليم والتربية بالزاوية

رقم / م

التاريخ / ٥ / ربیع الاول / ١٣٩٥
الموافق / ١٧ مارس / ٢٠١٥م

الى /

كشف بعدهد موظفي مراقبة الخدمات التعليمية بالزاوية

الوظيفة	عدد الموظفين	عدد الموظفين بالاجر اليومي
مراقب عام المراقبة	١	
شؤون الموظفين	١٦	
الحسابات	٢٣	
المخازن	١٤	
الامتحانات	٤	
تعليم الكبار	٣	
الامانة العامة	١	
والتجذية والصحة الدراسية		
النشاط المدرسي	٤	
التوجيه الفنى	٢	
الصيانة والمبانى المدرسية	٨	
موظفي اداريين بالزاوية الثانوية	٤	١ امين محمل
الوسائل التعليمية	١	١ مخزنجي



الجمهوريّة العربيّة الليبيّة

التاريخ ٤٠ مئو / ١٣٩٥

الموافق ١٣ / مارس / ١٩٧٥

رقم

محلّة طرابلس

مديريّة التعليم والتربية

٢٣٠٦٠ / ٣٨١١٨

كتاب يصدره مديريّة التعليم والتربية بجمع اقسام

العدد	الاسم	العدد	الاسم
٢٣	قسم تعليم الكرة	١	١ مدیر التما
١٦	برش مدیر التما	٢	٢ نائب مدیر التما
١٤	التوجيه النفسي	٣	٣ نون الوظائف
٣٥	قسم المالي	٤	٤ الامان
		٥	٥ مائس مدرسة
		٦	٦ شذبي
		٧	٧ قسم الفن
		٨	٨ قسم الوسائل التعليمية
		٩	٩ قسم التأهيل
		١٠	١٠ قسم الملاك والترقيات
		١١	١١ قسم النشاط الدراسي
		١٢	١٢ قسم الاج
		١٣	١٣ مكتب توجيه الرهائن
		١٤	١٤ امرأة دلهم سوق الجمعة
		١٥	١٥ = النساء
		١٦	١٦ = جنود
		١٧	١٧ قسم النساء
		١٨	١٨ قسم التدريب وعون الطالب
		١٩	١٩ قسم ثير صنفين
		٢٠	٢٠ امرأة السوان والغزلان
		٢١	٢١ بن
		٢٢	٢٢ الادارة
		٢٣	٢٣ امرأة مانق الايداع
		٢٤	٢٤ قسم الامانات



١٢١٦

التاريخ : ٢٤ ربيع الاول ١٣٩٥ هـ

الموافق : ٦ / ٤ / ١٩٧٥ م

جدول اصائين بالعاملين بالجهاز الاعلى لمراقبة النعم التعليمية والتربوية بمصراتة

رقم	القسم	عدد الموظفين						ملحوظات	
		١٩٧٥/٢٤		١٩٧٤/٧٣		١٩٧٣/٨٢			
		اداريون	عامله	اداريون	عامله	اداريون	عامله		
١	الماءة ومكتب المراقب	١٠	١٠	٦٦	٦٦	٦٣	٦٣		
٢	التوجيه الفنى بديوان المراقبة	٤٠	٣٠	٣٠	٣٠	٢٠	٢٠	بعضهم ادارى واحد	
٣	الاطفال التربوي	٤		٣		٣			
٤	الاتصالات	٤		٣		٣			
٥	الوسائل	٣		٢		٢			
٦	النيلط المدرس	٢		٦		٥			
٧	التدریب	١		١		١			
٨	تعليم الكبار	٢		٣		٣			
٩	التنمية والصحة المدرسية	٦	٤	٢	٤	٣٣	٥	بنطقة مصراتة	
١٠	الهانى والمخازن للتربيدات	١١	١٤	١٩	١٠	٢٠	٢	" "	
١١	الصيانتة	٣٣	٢	٢٣	٢	٢٥	٢	" "	
١٢	القسم السالى	١١	١٠	١	١٠	١	٩	" "	
١٣	المستودع " للسيارات "	٢٢	٢	١٥	٢	٢٥	٣	سائقاً سائقاً سائقاً	
١٤	ضرائب الثانوية	٦	٦	١٨	٦١	٢٠	٦		
١٥	مكتتبوجيه زليطن	٢٦	٢٩	١٥	١٤٣	١٠	١٢	بعضهم سائقين	
١٦	الجفوة	١٨	١٣	٩	١٠٢	٨	٦	بعضهم موجهين و سائقين	
	المجموع المختل	١٥٤	١٥١	١٢٣	١٢٧	٤٥	٩٩		

م / ع ٠٢٠ متر / ط / المجموع

احمدانة لعدم الارثمنت الاداري من مختلف الامانات بغير مرافقته القائم والرس دين طيف

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ



ان الله تعالى يحب اذا عمل
احدكم مثلا ان يتلقنه
(حديث شرط)

”بِنَا إِلَّا حَجَّ بِنَنَا وَمِنْ قَوْمًا بِالْحَقِّ رَأَيْتُ خَيْرَ الْمُدْعَىْنَ“

(مدح الله العظيم)

الموضوع:

الأخ / محمد علي مهلهل المعتزم

بعد التحرير

رسالتك بتاريخ ٢٦/١٢/١٩٧٤م استطاعت يوم ٢٦/٢/١٩٧٥م والي

يطلب فيها أحسمائية بالموظفين الاداريين لهذه المراقبة فيما يلى المطلوب:

لعدد

- ١- مترقب خدمات التعليم وال التربية وال ثانية
 ٢- الا مادة ابدل مثليين الموظفين
 ٣- الحسابات
 ٤- المثانة
 ٥- الخدمة الدراسية
 ٦- النشاط الدراسية
 ٧- الملاحظات
 ٨- الاحيان
 ٩- المهارات
 ١٠- التوجيه التربوي (التطبيق سابقا)
 ١١- مواد المية وعلم الكهار
 ١٢- المانيا الدراسية
 ١٣- القتل
 ١٤- قسم الخدمات التعليمية
 ١٥- مكتب الوسائل التعليمية
 ١٦- " التعليم لما في الابداعي
 ١٧- " الابداعي في تعليم الاطفال
 ١٨- " التعليم
 ١٩- الدراسة الطانية
 ٢٠- مكتب الدوچمه الاداري بالشارط
 ٢١- " بابارى
 ٢٢- " بابات
 ٢٣- " بعلق

مَدَّ اللَّهُ زَانِدَ الْقَنْبُوْيِ

م / مهد حمه / مهد الله / ماده

TRANSLATION OF THE TEXT OF THE LETTER ON PAGE 89

Libyan Arab Republic Ministry of Education
 Zawia Controlling Office of Educational Services

Date: March 17, 1975

List of Administrative Employees in Zawia Department of Education

Type of Employment	Number of Employees
Controllor General of the Controlling Office	1
Personnel	16
Counting	23
Stores	14
Examinations	4
Adult Education	3
Secretariat General	1
Nutrition and School Health	--
Extra Curricular Activities	4
Technical Supervision	2
Maintenance and School Construction	8
Administrative Employees in the Zawia Secondary School	4
Instructional Aids	1

Note: although it was not specified in the letter, it can be estimated that there are 4 persons in school food services and 9 persons in offices of school supervision. Including these and excluding secondary school administrative personnel results in there being a total of 90 persons in intermediate administration in the Zawia Department of Education. The writer did not exclude 10% of the personnel reported here, as was done with the reports of some of the other counties, since it was believed that there was no growth of personnel in Zawia in 1974/75.

TRANSLATION OF THE TEXT OF THE LETTER ON PAGE 90

Libyan Arab Republic Governorate of Tripoli
 Directorate of Education

Date: March 13, 1975

List of Employees of the Directorate in All Sections

Type of Employment	Number of Employees
Director of Education	1
Deputy Director of Education	1
Personnel	23
Secretariat	25
School Construction	7
Nutrition	12
Contracts Section	12
Instructional Aids Section	4
Confidential Reports Section	2
Salary Schedule and Promotions Section	8
Extra Curricular Activities Section	20
Statistics Section	13
Supervision Office of Adult Education: Females	7
Controlling Office of Administrative Supervision: Suq Aljomaa	15
Administrative Supervision of Females	15
Office of Administrative Supervision: Janzur	18
Stores Section	32
Training and Student Affairs Section	8
Noncertificated Personnel Section	17
Controlling Office of Administrative Supervision: Assawani and Azzizeyah	8
Controlling Office of Administrative Supervision: Ben Ghasheer	13
Controlling Office of Administrative Supervision: Tripoli	7
Controlling Office of Secondary Supervision	7
Examinations Section	22
Adult Education Section	23
Workshop of the Directorate	126
Technical Supervision	114
Financial Section	35

Note: for the purposes of this study, 10% of the personnel reported has been excluded, since this represents growth during 1974/75. Also, supervisors, and drivers, janitors and other workers have been excluded. After these exclusions, the total number of personnel is 300.

TRANSLATION OF ONE COLUMN OF THE LETTER ON PAGE 91

Libyan Arab Republic Ministry of Education
 Statistical Section Controlling Educational Services
 in Misrata

Date: April 6, 1975

A Statistical Table of the Workers in the Administrative Machinery

Section	Number of Employees
Secretariat and the Office of the Controllor	21
Technical Supervision in the Controlling Office	30 (Supervisors; Among them is 3 one admini- 3 strator)
Educational Statistics	
Examinations	
Educational Aids	2
Extra Curricular Activities	6
Training	1
Adult Education	3
Nutrition and School Health	4
Construction Stores and Supplies	10
Maintenance	2
Financial Section	10
Garage	2
Misrata Secondary School	6
The Office of Supervision (Ziliten)	18
The Office of Supervision (Jufra)	10

Note: for the purpose of this study, school administration figures of 1973/74 only are translated from the Arabic; these, with the exclusion of school supervisors, and janitors, drivers, and other daily workers, give a total of 74 administrative workers in Misrata during 1973/74.

TRANSLATION OF THE TEXT OF THE LETTER ON PAGE 92

Statistics of the Number of Administrative Employees of the Various Sections in this Controlling Office of Education: Darna and Tubruk

Name of the Section	Number of Employees	Observations
1 The Secretariat	11	Darna
2 Section of Statistics	4	"
3 Construction and Maintenance Section	9	"
4 Nutrition Section	3	"
5 Personnel Section	11	"
6 Examinations Section	5	"
7 Adult Education Section	3	"
8 Educational Stores Section	15	"
9 Administrative Supervision Section	4	"
10 Technical Supervision	35	"
11 Inspecting Office of Education	8	Tubruk
12 Administrative Supervision	10	"
13 School Nutrition	2	"
14 Personnel	4	"
15 Educational Statistics	3	"
16 Maintenance	6	"
17 Extra Curricular Activities	2	"
18 Adult Education	4	"
19 Stores of Education	7	"
20 Examinations	4	"
21 The Store of Jaghbub	2	"
22 Ibrahim Ossta Omar Secondary School	8	
23 Tubruk Secondary School	4	
24 Janitors and Guards	79	Darna
25 Janitors and Guards	42	Tubruk

Date: March 8, 1975

Note: for the purpose of this study, 1.0% of the personnel reported has been excluded since this represents the growth during 1974/75. Also, supervisors and drivers, janitors and other workers are excluded, as are Darna and Tubruk secondary school employees. This gives a total of 100 administrative employees in Darna and Tubruk.

TRANSLATION OF THE TEXT OF THE LETTER ON PAGE 93

Libyan Arab Republic Directorate of Education, Sabha

Date: February 26, 1975

Statistics of Administrative Employees of this Controlling Office.

	Number of Personnel
Controllor of Educational Services and His Deputy	2
Secretariat (Instead of Personnel)	6
Counting	10
Stores	8
School Nutrition	2
Extra Curricular Activities	7
Archives	5
Examinations	6
Maintenance	17 (Workers)
Technical Supervision (Formerly Called Inspection)	4 (Administrators, plus
Eradication of Illiteracy and Adult Education	8 19 super-visors)
School Construction	3
Transportation	4
Section of Educational Services	2
Office of Instructional Aids	5
Office of Instruction for the Level Above Elementary Education	2
Office of Instruction and Nursery Schools	2
Training	1
The Secondary School	4
Office of Administrative Supervision in Ash-shatti	4
Office of Administrative Supervision in Awbari	3
Office of Administrative Supervision in Ghat	3
Office of Administrative Supervision in Murzuk	4

Note: excluding the 17 maintenance personnel and 4 Sabha secondary school employees, there was a total of 92 intermediate school administration personnel in the Sabha County Department. The writer did not exclude 10% of this total, since it was believed by him that there was no growth of personnel in Sabha in 1974/75.