

THE UNIVERSITY OF HULL

PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION IN COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ENGLAND AND LIBYA

by

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ABSTRACT OF Ph.D. THESIS

by

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PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION IN COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE:

SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ENGLAND AND LIBYA

There is a great demand for pre-school education in most countries of the world, but while pre-school education has long received only modest consideration within the educationally developed world, it has attracted even less consideration than other levels of schooling especially in the developing countries. There is still a danger that early childhood education may continue to be viewed as something of a luxury. Nonetheless, the past few decades have witnessed much greater interest in pre-school education. Among the reasons for this growing interest are the new knowledge gained in the sphere of child development and the changes which have taken place in social conditions.

Most countries provide some kind of educational opportunities for children below school age, their aims and objectives may differ to a greater or lesser extent from one country to another depending on resources and specific historical, social or religious influences on the way pre-school education has developed, and the way in which different cultures come to view the main aims and objectives of such education.

This thesis is based on a combination of empirical and documentary research. Historically, pre-school education seems to have served similar functions despite difference in time and culture. For that

reason Libya as a developing country should learn from the mistakes of a developed country as England, as well as from such of her insights as are perhaps capable of being transplanted successfully in Libya. It was thought that a comparative study of views of pre-school teachers in two countries with different political, economic, social and ideological systems, would illuminate some current concerns in the field of pre-school education.

This study is designed to arrive at criteria development of pre-school education in general and its teacher training dimension in particular, as an essential background for an improvement in the quality of pre-school education in Libya. The findings of the research revealed that there are major problems in pre-school education in Libya centred around diffused aims, centralised administration, a subject centred curriculum, and teacher-centred methods. Low qualifications among teachers following a mediocre calibre of intake, tutors without professional training, lack of guidance services, the overlooked curriculum, much traditional teaching methods and final examinations demanding all combined to render the task of the few keenly interested in developing a Libyan pre-school sector particularly difficult.

The over-arching conclusion of this study is that fundamental changes should be introduced throughout Libyan education, and that this in itself requires the development of a pre-school sector. Because the relationship between pre-school education and other levels of education is organic - any change in one part will be reflected on the other parts.

The study is divided into three parts. Part A is the context, and consists of three chapters: Chapter 1 gives a brief account of the significance and purpose of this particular study, the scope of the problem, the aims and the methods to be used - both documentary and empirical. Chapters 2 and 3 review the situation of pre-school education in Western Europe and Arabic countries respectively. Part B is the Libyan Dimension: it consists also of three chapters. Chapter 4 traces the development of education in Libya through the various periods of Libya's history. Chapter 5 traces the development of pre-school education in Libya, the influence of the different communities who were settled in the area before Independence on pre-school education. Chapter 6 provides a description and analysis of teacher training and its relationship with pre-school education. Part C is the English Dimension. There are two chapters. Chapter 7 reviews the development of pre-school education from the nineteenth century, including the ideas of leading European reformers and traces the development of nursery education up to the present time. Chapter 8 is concerned with teacher training programmes for teachers and nursery nurses in England and Wales. The final section, Part D, comprises three chapters. Chapter 9 gives a brief description of the two cities where the field studies were conducted, Hull in England and Derna in Libya. It also provides a detailed description of the research design and application in England and Libya. Chapter 11, the final chapter, concerns itself with summarising the study, and also looking towards improvements through a number of recommendations from the author.

It is hoped that the thesis will be a valuable document in retrospect, especially to those keen to develop pre-school facilities there.

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INTRODUCTION

There is a great demand for pre-school education in most countries of the world, but while pre-school education has long received only modest consideration within the educationally developed world, it has attracted even less consideration than other levels of schooling especially in the developing countries. There is still a danger that early childhood education may continue to be viewed as something of a luxury. Nonetheless, the past few decades have witnessed much greater interest in pre-school education. Among the reasons for this growing interest are the new knowledge gained in the sphere of child development and the changes which have taken place in social conditions.

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This study is designed to arrive at criteria for development of pre-school education in general and its teacher training dimension in particular, as an essential background for an improvement in the quality of pre-school education in Libya. The findings of the research revealed that there are major problems in pre-school education in Libya centred around diffused aims, centralised administration, a subject centred curriculum, and teacher-centred methods. Low qualifications among teachers following a mediocre calibre of intake, tutors without professional training, lack of guidance services, the overlooked curriculum, much traditional teaching methods and final examinations demanding all combined to render the task of the few keenly interested in developing a Libyan pre-school sector particularly difficult.

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The study is divided into three parts. Part A is the context, and consists of three chapters: Chapter 1 gives a brief account of the significance and purpose of this particular study, the scope of the problem, the aims and the methods to be used - both documentary and empirical. Chapters 2 and 3 review the situation of pre-school education in Western Europe and Arabic countries respectively.

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PART A

THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER ONE

PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF STUDY

1.1 SIGNIFICANCE AND PURPOSE OF THIS PARTICULAR RESEARCH

The factors which brought the researcher to conduct this research are:

- a) the significance of early childhood;
- b) the poor conditions of pre-school education in Libya;
- c) dearth of research studies in this field;
- d) pre-school teachers seem to lack appropriate training.

The Significance of Early Childhood:

The importance of pre-school education is self-evident because it is concerned with early childhood which is a vital stage of life. There is a growing awareness in many parts of the world of the importance of early childhood education.

"Modern theories of child development stress the importance of the child's early experiences in determining future intellectual growth." 1

The first few years of a child's life are widely recognised as a period of highly significant growth. During this time, the infant makes comparatively more progress, both physically and intellectually, than is apparently achieved in any subsequent period of similar duration. This progress, however, is closely related to the particular environment of the child which is now recognised as having a marked influence on the level and rate of development. The ideal educational environment in these years will afford opportunities for the child to develop physical, intellectual, social and emotional capacities. If lacking in any of these, the response to both

social situations and intellectual stimulation will be, at least, to some degree, adversely affected. The interdependence of the different aspects of a child's growth requires that all aspects should be regarded as of equal importance.

"A carefully planned and structured educational environment can build on and foster that curiosity, which forms the basis of the child's capacity for learning." 2

The entire psychoanalytic theory and practice is based on a series of developmental stages (Freud 1933, Freud 1937, Horney 1936, Sullivan 1953) with the most crucial ones taking place about age six. The resolutions of each stage has consequences for subsequent stages. Similarly, other more eclectic descriptions of development, Harigust (1953), Piaget (1932), Murry (1938), Gessell (1945), emphasize the early years on the basis for inter-development. As Bloom stated:

"We believe that the early environment is of crucial importance for three reasons: The first is based on the very rapid growth of selected characteristics in the early years and conceives of the variations in the early environment as so important because they shape these characteristics in their most rapid periods of formation. ... However, another way of viewing the importance of the early environment has to do with the sequential nature of much of human development. Each characteristic is built on a base of that same characteristic at an earlier time or on the base of other characteristics which precede it in development. ... A third reason for the crucial importance of the early environment and early experiences stems from learning theory. It is much easier to learn something new than it is to stamp out one set of learned behaviors and replace them by a new set. The effect of earlier learning in later learning is considered in most learning theories under such terms as habit, inhibition, and restructuring. ... All three tend to confirm the tremendous power of early learning and its resistance to later attrition or extractions." 3

He also stated that:

"Both types of data suggest that in terms of intelligence measured at age 17, about 50% of the development takes place between conception and 4, about 30% between age 4 and 8, and about 20% between 8 and 17." 4

All the theoretical as well as empirical descriptions of development exhibit the way in which development at a period in the past determines the nature of later developments which in turn influence and determine even more and later development. From each of these viewpoints, the developments that take place in early years are crucial for all that follows. Parents may be able to provide most of the environmental opportunities necessary for their children within their own homes, but the growing demands for organised forms of pre-school education indicate that many parents feel that it is desirable that the environment should gradually be extended beyond the physical and social limits of their own home and family, rather than that there should be an abrupt transition when a child goes to primary school.

"The child who in his early years has had little or no social contact with other children or with adults other than within his immediate family circle may be at a disadvantage when he eventually has to mix with others." 5

Nursery education can make its contribution in the field of compensatory education. It would seem to be doing so in providing intellectual stimulation in a social setting for children whose early experiences have been limited and narrow because of environmental deficiencies. Such children enter primary school with comparatively poorly developed visual and oral discriminations, they lack power of concentration and the ability to organise their thoughts and the language to express them. The nursery school offers them a learning environment and a range of activities selected by teachers who are aware of the individual child's state of development and, most important, interested adults who will talk to them, listen to them, explain things, and

allow for sufficient time to work out a problem in their own way. Greater knowledge about how the natural endowment of a child is affected by the environment and of the importance of both social contact and intellectual stimulus in furthering personal development has led many educationists and parents to seek an extension of the environmental opportunities of the home. This has resulted in an ever-increasing demand for pre-school education.

As stated by McCreech:

"The young child is a product of his total environment, he learns not only bodily skills, he also develops mental skills. He learns to think and express himself in the language and thought of his environment ... The nursery school should be a catalyst and expansion of the environment. It should be concerned not only with the socialising of young children, but should provide for their intellectual, emotional, physical and moral development also." 6

It is only in the twentieth century that society has been giving the child increasing legal and moral status, with the declaration of the rights of the child. However, this change in outlook did not occur so suddenly. The 1959 Declaration stated that:

"The child shall be protected against all forms of neglect, cruelty, and exploitation... The child shall not be admitted to employment before an appropriate minimum age; he shall in no case be caused or permitted to engage in any occupation or employment which would prejudice his health or education, or interfere with his physical, mental, or moral development." 7

Whilst pre-school education has long received only modest consideration in the educational world and attracted considerably less attention than other levels of schooling, the past few decades have witnessed much greater interest in pre-school matters. Developmental psychology has yielded considerable evidence of the negative effects of early deprivation. Animals and young children living in unstimulating conditions show retarded growth and the deficiencies are difficult to remedy later. The prospects of

successful compensation in an enriched environment are, however, all the greater the sooner additional stimulation is provided. As Karl Stukat puts it:

"The increased complexity of modern life has created a need for children to learn social necessities at an early age. In many countries, there is, too, pressure to this end from above, namely from the primary school. Pre-school is seen as a possible means of preventing school failure... The social, ideological, scientific and educational factors mentioned above may, therefore, be said to have been jointly responsible for arousing the current interest in pre-school matter. At the same time this development has brought to the fore a number of issues, some of which have become important research problems." 8

The Poor Condition of Pre-School Education in Libya

A study conducted in Libya pointed out the following deficiencies:

- a) Nursery teachers lacked appropriate training;
- b) Nursery school buildings are inadequate;
- c) Nursery schools are still very limited.

Dearth of Research Studies in this Field

In fact, the only study that has been carried out in this field was by Mrs A El Sheibani in 1984 which was titled as "The influence of pre-school education on the social adjustment and the educational achievement of the children at the primary schools" which produced some recommendations for the improvement of pre-school education.

Pre-School Teachers Lack Appropriate Training

Libyan education authorities have established a teacher-training sector from primary to secondary, without paying any attention to the pre-school teachers and their needs. The problem is further complicated when one finds that many pre-school teachers in Libya are serving with low

qualifications or without any qualifications at all. It is partly in order that the case for improved teacher quality in this field in Libya can be supported that this research has been undertaken by the writer in the form of a comparative study.

1.2 THE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study is concerned with pre-school education in Libya in relation to pre-school education in England and Wales. In it the pre-school provision in Libya ~~will~~ be investigated, its historical development described, its present situation discussed, and its teacher-training development analysed. Documentation from both countries is considered and empirical work carried out in both locations is reported on.

1.3 THE AIMS OF THE STUDY

In this study, the following questions will be examined and answers attempted:

i) What are the aims of pre-school education in Libya; why were these aims chosen and who selected them?

ii) Is pre-school education necessary for Libyan society? If so, why, and by what authority can it be found to be necessary?

iii) What is the nature of pre-school education? What especially are the distinctive features of it, and its curriculum and methodology? How have the teachers been trained?

iv) What is the nature and distribution of pre-school provision in England and what are the educational theories and ideologies which have influenced it?

v) What features of English nursery school education can be practically and usefully built into the pre-school programmes and their aims and contents in Libya?

1.4 THE METHODS AND PROCEDURES

In this study, comparative education techniques will be used:

- a) To describe and analyse the present situation of pre-school education in Libya;
- b) To survey the development of pre-school education in England and Wales through visits to nursery schools in the Hull area, and through a review of relevant national literature;
- c) Apart from literature research concerning the whole field, it was also necessary to gain first-hand knowledge of the situation in Libya. To do this, the author will develop a questionnaire for teachers.

Definition of Pre-School Education in Libya and England and Wales

a) In Libya: The term "pre-school education" will be used for all pre-schools established by the Ministry of Education for children 4 to 6 years, and attended by pupils for six days a week. Children aged 4 attend the first classes during the first year, then automatically go to the second classes in the second year. The main aim of pre-school education is to educate the child. In Libya, pre-school education is given a variety of names, such as "Children's Garden" or "Pre-School" or "Kindergarten" or "Nursery School". For the purpose of this study, the researcher will use the terms "pre-school education", "nursery school" and "kindergarten". These terms are relatively modern and more clearly understood when comparing with nursery school provision in England and Wales.

b) In England and Wales: nursery schools are schools specially designed and built for children under five. They have their own head teacher or teacher in charge, specially trained nursery teachers and nursery assistants. Children can be admitted from three to five years old. As Jill and Pendarell Kent pointed out:

"In official document, this means "nursery schools", schools either state or independent, providing nursery education, and registered with the education authorities." 9

Children concerned would attend an establishment outside their own homes regularly in order to participate in educational activities. The type of establishment varies in staffing, financing and administration. In spite of this institutional variety, such establishments have one common characteristic: their prime aim is to educate the child. If this is not their prime aim, they cannot be for the purpose of this study be defined as providers of nursery education. For this reason, services whose prime aim is care and protection of young children rather than education are excluded (eg day nurseries). Nursery classes: this is to most intents the same as "nursery school", except it exists within an infant school or primary school.

.....

The pre-school tradition in England derives from a wider context of educational theory and practices, namely that of Western Europe, and it is therefore of some significance to the writer to examine that wider context at the present day. This is attempted in the following chapter.

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CHAPTER TWO

PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION IN CONTEMPORARY WESTERN EUROPE

2.1 THE GENERAL PATTERN

Within the last two decades there has been a growing recognition, in many parts of the world, of the importance of early childhood education. Concern with the needs of young children is by no means a recent phenomenon but powerful social and political pressures have contributed to a reawakening of interest in the expansion of educational facilities for children before entry to formal schooling.

The pre-schools of today have their origins in child-minding institutions established in many European countries during the first half of the nineteenth century. The establishment of these 'creches' was closely linked to the development of industry, with an increasing number of mothers taking up employment outside the home. The main purpose of such institutions was to look after children who would otherwise have been neglected.¹ Subsidiary aims were to provide some form of basic education in moral habits. In connection with this, Eggleston stated that ...

"Pre-school education has been a major feature of a number of European educational systems for many years ... It has been the subject of major European seminars conducted by the Council of Europe ... The reasons for this widespread recognition are three-fold. The first is the changing nature of family life in modern European society ... The second reason for increasing recognition of importance of pre-school education springs from our growing understanding of the ways in which patterns usage and values are laid down in those years ... The third reason for the recognition of the importance of pre-school education springs from it, identification as a means of containing or alleviating educational handicap and social deprivation." 2

The Commission of the European Communities gives the following reasons for the widespread provision of pre-school education as follows:

- a) the need to prepare the child for primary school;
- b) mothers at work;
- c) houses too small;
- d) small families;
- e) the need to make up for shortcomings within the family. 3

The enrolment at this level in Western Europe is illustrated in Table 1.

Pre-school education has been a major feature of a number of European countries for many years. In France, the Ecoles Maternelles have been in existence over 100 years and provide for some 90 per cent of the five-year old school population. In Britain and in some other European countries such as Belgium, the Netherlands and Italy, pre-school education has been developed by involving trained teachers, there being a relatively low level of parental involvement. In other systems where provision is less developed, the form has been characteristically that of play-groups staffed by largely untrained, even if experienced personnel but undertaken with a high level of parental involvement. 4 In spite of differences among and within countries, there has gradually developed a widely held view of what constitutes good pre-school education. 5

Froebel, Decroly and Montessori were, of course, strong formative influences in the evolution of psychological and pedagogical principles which were transformed into a kind of doctrine. 6 But we should not overlook the contribution of other theorists and educationalists, such as Oberlin, the Agazzi sisters, the McMillan sisters, Piaget and Dewey. Froebel contributes his idea of growth as being the unfolding of 'interest

TABLE 1: ENROLMENT IN PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION IN WESTERN EUROPE IN THE 1970s

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977
Austria	120.4	126.6					169.3	
Belgium	454.9	445.8	440.3	439.5	438.9	435.9	425.5	404.2
Denmark	20.0	31.3	37.6	41.4	42.9	44.9	48.8	
Finland	28.2	30.7	34.7	43.2	45.1	59.5	60.3	65.3
France	2213.3	2297.7	2370.6	2455.2	2540.5	2591.1	2598.7	2576.0
Germany (a)	33.4	50.4	65.6	75.5	86.0	88.4	83.3	78.7
Italy	1586.8	1619.8	1686.4	1734.7	1767.6	1822.5	1789.0	1821.7
Netherlands	491.7	491.5	495.1	506.0	513.6	518.9	498.8	466.0
Norway	12.7	14.8	19.1	22.7	25.5	30.5	36.5	49.8
Sweden (b)	111.4	130.6	141.0	152.8	159.0	172.2	185.7	193.7
Switzerland								
United Kingdom	302.3	327.6	356.9	366.9	369.7	370.3	350.5	

a) Not including kindergarten which had more than 1.4 million places in 1977.

b) Excluding children younger than three years.

SOURCE:

1. Educational Statistics in OECD Countries, Paris 1981, p 32 (adopted).

2. Commission of the European Communities, Brussels 1980, p 75.

areas' as needs arise while Montessori advocated sets of constructive and stimulating educational games. Developmental Psychology as it grew in stature also supported formal provision of education for the pre-school child.⁷

The early insights of pioneers were followed up by systematic enquiry into the nature of childhood. In terms of the growth of pre-school education, the major contribution of developmental theory has been in identifying the early years as a crucial period for children's learning.⁸ For this reason, most of the intervention strategies which have been developed in Europe and the USA have focussed attention on children who have not yet reached the age of compulsory schooling. An influential research review concluded that inequalities in intelligence among the adult population were largely predictable by the age of eight or, to express the conclusion in more precise terms, 80 per cent of the variance in intelligence at seventeen years is predictable by the age of eight, 50 per cent by the age of four.⁹ Rayne, emphasises the point further:

"Intelligence grows at a very fast rate during the pre-school years and already on entry to the infant school there are substantial differences in the performance of children from different social classes." 10

It is, therefore, vitally important to provide the right educational start, and it is widely believed now that pre-school education institutions, properly equipped and professionally staffed, do provide an environment which will foster the child's intellectual, social, physical and emotional development. Such an opportunity for an enriched early childhood will lay firm foundations for the compulsory period of schooling, and especially so in respect of the disadvantaged child.¹¹

A level of provision reflects the importance of pre-school education in Western Europe.¹² As a 1979 conference resolution stated: "nursery education is not a luxury but a vital part of ensuring the nation's future".¹³ Pre-school education is clearly in great demand in Europe, though a significant point of difference as between one country and another is the age from which it operates. Obviously, this depends on the age at which compulsory schooling commences and the extent of existing pre-school provision since, the more widespread it already is, the greater the awareness and the demand.¹⁴ Table 2 illustrates that the pre-school stage is constructed differently according to country. There are other important differences. For example, teacher-pupil ratios vary markedly from about 1-20 in the Scandinavian countries to about 1-40 in Germany and France.¹⁵ The amount of teacher-training is also variable, as is the division of responsibility between trained teachers and trained nursery nurses.

Pre-school education may be public or private, and again the pattern of funding varies in extent and form both between and within countries. The most notable recent developments have taken the form of 'play groups', voluntarily-run facilities which parallel nursery education in many respects.¹⁶ In connection with these differences, Blackstone wrote:

"The gap between the supply of pre-school education and the demand for it varies from country to country ... The structure of nursery education varies, and in comparing the forms it takes in the different countries, the following factors have been taken into account; the relationships between the pre-primary system and the primary system; the extent of private as against public provision; the role of control and local government in the planning and administration of pre-school education; the methods of financing it, including whether charges to users are made; the way the institutions are staffed and the status of teachers involved; pupil-teacher ratios; the relationship between educational provision and care provision, and the role that the proportion of mothers working plays; the degree to

which parents are involved in the educational process; the age of children attending and the number of hours for which they attend ... and the current rates of expansion." 17

So, it is impossible to generalise for all Western Europe in detail.

Nonetheless, there are some generalisations that can be made. The first is about age, namely that educational provision is made for only small numbers of children under three years of age, if at all. Secondly, as in all countries, rural areas are less well provided than urban areas. Thirdly, in most countries primary education is quite separate from pre-school education and contacts between the two systems are limited.¹⁸

Fourthly, the provision of pre-school is expanding and is the subject of considerable public debate.¹⁹ Fifthly, learning strategies employed are informal. In general, teachers in this field have devoted most of their attention to the following areas:

- a) the compensatory and preventative role of early childhood education;
- b) teacher-training and development;
- c) curriculum development and evaluation;
- d) co-ordination between pre-school systems and later school systems;
- e) home-based education.

2.2 THE COMPENSATORY AND PREVENTIVE ROLE OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

The reasons for believing the compensatory approach to result in a misinterpretation of social and educational phenomena, reside in cultural differences between teachers operating with established methods and curricula and families within whose lifestyles such concepts are alien. So under-achievement cannot be regarded as a result of a deficiency on the part of only one side in the socialisation partnership of home and school or pre-school.²⁰ The Western European countries have devoted much attention to

TABLE 2: PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN ATTENDING PRE-SCHOOL ESTABLISHMENTS
IN WESTERN EUROPE

COUNTRY	AGE	PER CENT %	
Federal Republic of Germany	3, 4 and 5 years	70%	
Belgium	5 years	100%	
	4 years	97%	
	3 years	90%	
Denmark	6 years	87.3%	
	5 and 6 years	60%	
	3, 4 5 and 6 years	35%	
France	5 years	100%	
	4 years	97%	
	3 years	80%	
	2 years	26%	
Italy	3, 4 and 5 years	70.38%	
Luxembourg	5 years	100%	
	4 years	90%	
Netherlands	5 years	97%	
	4 years	93%	
England and Wales		<u>Full-time/Part-time</u>	
	5 years	100%	
	4 years	39.8%	10.3%
	3 years	2.8%	7.6%
	2 years	0.3%	0.2%

SOURCE: Commission of the European Communities, 1980, p 76.

the compensatory role of early childhood education and to evaluating the effects of providing extra stimulation to children living in various conditions of disadvantage. Belgium, for example, has been greatly concerned with equality of educational opportunity and with the prevention of failure in the early years at school.²¹

Linked with the British literature and research on disadvantage, there has been a series of publications which connect disadvantage with deprivation.²² There is growing public recognition that early childhood education programmes can help disadvantaged children to be more successful throughout their school careers. Evidence generated by longitudinal research in the USA supports decisions by policymakers to use public funds to expand such programmes.²³

Perhaps the most important contribution made by research has been in helping to define goals for pre-school education, which:

- a) recognise considerable potential for promoting learning in socially-disadvantaged children; but
- b) do not make the mistake of attributing pre-school education with special powers to compensate for the effects of social adversity; and
- c) acknowledge that, since the potential of pre-school education is secondary to that of the home, scarce resources can best be used to complement and reinforce the role of parents.²⁴

Although there is a widespread desire in European countries to provide for the educational needs of handicapped children, experimentation with compensatory pre-school education for the disadvantaged has been modest in comparison with that in the USA.²⁵

2.3 STAFF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

In most European countries, the training of pre-school teachers is separate from that of primary school teachers. Most Western European countries staff their nursery schools with trained teachers, though the status and salary of these teachers may be lower than teachers in primary schools. Even where this is not the case, there seems to be a tendency for teachers at the pre-school stage to feel that their status is lower than that of teachers of older children.²⁶ It is essential that the first stage of education should have well-qualified teachers whose status is as high as that of teachers of older children. The work requires qualities such as patience, imagination, judgement and intelligence. But there is a strong case for providing supporting staff to work with the teachers in the classroom, though not to plan activities, assess children, or take responsibility for communication with parents.²⁷

Experts who are school-orientated are making demands for a higher degree of professionalism but those who are oriented more towards family and community fear this specialisation. They see specialists assuming charge of education to the exclusion of other members of the community, especially parents. As the European Communities report pointed out:

"that highly skilled, fully available professionals should be employed in pre-school education. The dangers of unrealistic education unsuited to real conditions should be avoided by fuller wider teacher training than that given so far in all countries. We feel that it ought to follow four main lines:

1. Health and physiology of the young child;
2. Psychology of the young child;
3. Sociology of education;
4. Nursery school teaching." 28

TABLE 3: NUMBER OF CERTIFICATED TEACHERS (EXCLUDING ASSISTANTS)

COUNTRY AND YEAR	NUMBER
Belgium (1973-74)	17,650 No men
Denmark (1976-77)	1,519 Including ¹⁹⁹ 4,994 men
France (1975-76)	57,660 Including 147 men
Italy (1975-76)	63,523 No men
Luxembourg (1974-75)	371 (The first man teacher obtained his certificate in 1977)
Netherlands (1975-76)	19,405 No men
Federal Republic of Germany (1975)	49,198
England and Wales (1977)	6,000
Source: Commission of European Communities, Brussels 1980, p.79.	

TABLE 4: PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION DEVOTED TO PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION in 1973

Belgium	7.1%
Italy	8.5%
Netherlands	6.3%
United Kingdom	0.4% (excluding 5 year olds, ie nursery schools only)
Source: ibid. p. 82.	

Teacher-training should be based on a high level of general knowledge and skills of a suitable standard, such as physical education, dancing, singing, music, graphic and plastic arts, and handicrafts. If secondary education fails to teach aesthetic subjects adequately, then training colleges must fill the gap. In some countries there are teachers in nursery schools who have no musical training, and some who cannot even sing. In connection with the problem of teacher qualities the Commission of the European Communities noted that:

"In the nursery school it is, nevertheless, the teacher who plays the most important and most central part, and whatever the limits and inadequacies of his present training, it is who is best prepared to deal with children. The Rutland Street project, in one of the poorest parts of Dublin, began with equal numbers of teachers and social assistants. After one year, the social assistants had to be replaced by more teachers." 29

It is very important that teachers be given a sufficiently wide training so that they feel competent in every area, with specialists being used only as advisers.

"In so far as efforts are being made to make nursery school and primary school teacher-training equivalent and to achieve better integration of the nursery school into the educational system, the question arises as to whether teachers from the two levels should be given separate or partially combined training. At present the following situations apply:

- (1) separate training institutes, same level of training but separate training: Belgium, Italy.
- (2) separate training institutes, different training level, separate training: Denmark, Federal Republic of Germany, Netherlands, (moving towards third category;
- (3) joint institutes, same level, partially combined training, specialisation, Luxembourg, United Kingdom, Belgium in the state sector.
- (4) joint institutes, same level, combined training: France and Ireland (for the sector integrated into education). 30

When work in the nursery school is less well-paid than work in a primary school, students tend to choose the latter. If this situation persists, nursery schools might end up with a growing number of less-motivated teachers. However, although widely separate training is in no way desirable, fully merged training will always be prejudicial to the nursery school which has less compelling and immediate academic requirements, and where the teaching is more subtle and difficult. For this reason, the staff of nursery schools more need to be supported and encouraged by research. Yet in some countries the only stimulation and new input received comes from students who are being trained and on teaching practice. In-Service training is either:

- a) organised outside school hours, during the holidays, and sometimes to be paid for (eg in Belgium in the subsidized sector);
- b) organised during school hours but the teachers are not replaced; when there is only one adult per class, this presents difficulties (Belgium);
- c) provided by teachers being replaced in their classes (eg France).

The disadvantage of the last solution is that it breaks continuity of teaching but it does mean that longer courses can be organised (up to three months in France).

In all European countries there are very few men in nursery schools though they are now being admitted in increasing numbers to training for pre-school education. However, those who do come to the nursery school often stay only a short time before transfer to the primary level.

2.4 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION

The main issues relating to the development and evaluation of the curriculum in the nursery school are closely related to the compensatory education debate.³¹ Efforts have been made to define objectives in terms

of observable behaviour (Belgium, Sweden) with emphasis on cognitive development. However, the evaluation of cognitive language and reading programmes has not entirely dominated the scene: attention has been given to the experimental investigation of creative behaviour (Belgium), studies of play (Netherlands), programmes aiming to improve visual-perceptual and motor skills (Federal Republic of Germany), special training programmes within the socio-emotional field and the development of physical fitness (Scandinavia), and road safety (The Netherlands).³² All European countries use 'active methods', in the sense of seeing that children play a real part in their own education. True education cannot be imposed, otherwise it becomes reduced to mere training. Unless something is freely accepted by the child it is unlikely to work except in terms of fear. The rigid methods which have been used in most Arabic countries in pre-school education establishments would appear to clash with the purpose of pre-school education which is not to do with systematic syllabuses.³³

At the pre-school stage, the life going on around a child constitutes a sufficient environment for the discovery of relevant skills and knowledge through individual efforts. Knowledge in itself has no value, it is valuable only in so far as it becomes a stimulant to intellectual activity.³⁴ Unfortunately the stifling of creative ability by rote learning and other rigid ways of inculcating knowledge, is common in pre-school education in Arabic countries. In fact programmes can be structured without being over-formal and they can allow individual children to proceed at their own rate.³⁵ Almost all Western European countries' teachers are free to choose their methods and more effort is being made to construct an organised approach based on the experience of both past and present.

2.5 CO-ORDINATION BETWEEN PRE-SCHOOLING AND COMPULSORY SCHOOLING

The need to establish links between pre-school and primary school and to ease the transition from nursery to primary education for the child has been recognised by many countries, as the Council of Europe report (1976) on the 'Link between pre-school and primary education ' testifies.³⁶ Kahnstamm (The Netherlands) mentions that the rigid division of tasks between kindergarten and the first year of the primary school is a source of complaint in that country. Stukat (Scandinavia) refers to striking dissimilarities in practice which can exist between pre-school and later schooling, and the serious discontinuity of experience which this implies for the child.³⁷ In France there is no contact between the two systems.³⁸ In Scandinavia too, the problem of transition between pre-school and school is a matter of concern. In both Danish (Plough, Olsen and Reisby, 1974) and Swedish (L Jungblad, 1971; Bring, 1974; Gran, 1974) projects, various arrangements have been explored to stimulate co-operation between pre-school and school.³⁹

The problems raised by the transition from pre-school to primary education obviously vary depending on the age of starting compulsory education. Whilst this is most commonly six years, in some countries education becomes compulsory at five years (eg England) and in others at seven years (eg Sweden). Procedures for effecting some sort of transition have been classified into four major categories:

- a) the first and most widespread solution seems to be to hold a meeting between teachers at both levels;
- b) some countries prepare careful arrangements for the transition by taking pre-school children to see their future school;
- c) in other cases the primary school teacher spends a few days in

the pre-school institution;

d) or transition may be facilitated either by integrating the first year of primary school into the pre-school institution or by integrating two years of pre-school education into the primary school.

In 1977 the Council of Europe made a survey of the 21 member states which resulted in recommendations being produced with the desirability of improving 'vertical continuity'; that is to say to offset the discontinuities which occur when the child transfers between pre-school and primary education.⁴⁰ Progress from pre-school to primary education should be seen as a continuous process in the child's total learning. There are four identifiable areas in which children may experience the type of lack of continuity which could lead to anxiety and distress and thus hinder total learning as Curtis states:

"The first and most obvious is the change in the physical environment and how it affects the child's movements; the second relates to the differences in classroom organisation in the two environments. The last two are concerned with discontinuities which could produce longterm deleterious effects upon the child, that of curriculum content and the differing ideologies of the pre-school and infant (primary) educators. ⁴¹

2.6 HOME-BASED EDUCATION

Increased recognition of the need to involve parents in the educational process, particularly in the early years, has led to many studies of the home as an educational environment.⁴² A variety of research and experiment focussed on parental roles, has been carried out in a number of Western European countries, notably the UK and Scandinavia. A promising line of approach has been the attempt to influence parental attitudes and behaviour through training, discussion and demonstration by means of 'home visitors' or through 'toy libraries'. ⁴³

There are three recurring arguments for establishing co-operative relationships between pre-school education and parents:

- a) firstly, while recognising the potential value of pre-school education, it should be designed to reinforce and not undermine the role of parents;
- b) secondly, the value of pre-school curricula is enhanced if parents and the community are involved in the teaching/planning process, thereby ensuring continuity between the home and the school;
- c) if pre-school education is to take account of the diversity of children's cultural experience, it must be informed and guided through active co-operation with the community it serves.⁴⁴

There was general agreement in Europe as to the principle of cooperation between parents and pre-school, and the Council of Europe published a series of case studies to explore the implications of the principle.⁴⁵ Indeed, during the last two decades parents have certainly come much more visibly into the picture.⁴⁶ There is, for example, research evidence as to the effectiveness of parents as teachers of the handicapped children⁴⁷ as well as the highlighting of the parental contribution to early education by government reports.⁴⁸ The trend towards increased parental involvement is most clearly illustrated in recent publications aimed at supporting professionals in health, social services and education.⁴⁹ This has been particularly well illustrated by Van der Eyken:

"If parents are more than teachers, he said,
What a parent is, a teacher can never be.
They have a commitment to the child and they
are the experts on their children and they
should never reallocate that to other
professionals. They hold the key to the
future development of their children." 50

.....

Having briefly surveyed some of the main issues in respect of European

pre-school education, we shall now turn to a review of this sector in Arab states.

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CHAPTER THREE

PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION IN ARAB COUNTRIES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The outward expansion of Europe and European civilisation into most parts of the world took the Middle East in its stride. This contact brought about a social change in the Arab world which has been increasing in momentum. In connection with this, according to Akrawi and El-Kaussy:

"As they emerged from foreign domination, the Arab states found themselves with many school systems differing greatly in their structure, organisation, practices and curricula. Syria, Lebanon, Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco had the typically French structure for their school systems. Iraq had the 6-3-2 plan. Mandated Palestine and Jordan had a 7-4 plan, Sudan a 4-4-4, and Aden a 3-4-4-2. Egypt had a 3 year "kindergarten" which alone led to a 4 year primary school, a 4 year secondary school and university Curricula were largely inspired by those of the occupying countries, if not built on their models, particularly in the countries associated with France and 'Italy'. In others, considerable adaptations were made; Egypt and Iraq were particularly independent in this respect ... Similar difference prevailed with regard to teacher-training, vocational and higher education, administration and inspection, examination and degrees. The foundation of the League of Arab States in 1944 led to the Arab Cultural Agreement in 1945, and the establishment of the Directorate of Culture at the Secretariat of the League. The Agreement was built on the promise that the solidarity of the Arab states could best be realised by strengthening co-operation in the cultural and educational fields and by raising the educational standards of the people. One of its main aims was to create a measure of unity between the diverse school system." 1.

In many parts of the Arab world, foreign mission schools preceded any organised modern government schools established by the Turks and naturally served as models for both public and private schools established

later. The public-school system of the Ottoman Empire, established in the latter half of the nineteenth century and improved in the early twentieth century, was largely influenced by Western models.² French and British educational authorities played a controlling influence in the shaping of education in the post-war period in the Arab world, but the long period of the Ottoman occupation had little influence and modification on the Islamic educational system. During the Ottoman period, the Kuttab continued to be the only means of providing education for both young and older children.³

Islamic education stressed the value of close co-operation between the school and the home in the up-bringing of the child. Muslim thinkers spoke about educational endowments, subsidising the various stages of education, educational tours, and female education. Muslim philosophers were very much concerned with pre-school children and the inculcation of Muslim thinking into the child's mind.⁴ In addition to this religious type of education, there came during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries a new type of education in the Arab States with the arrival of European communities who settled in these countries. Among the first newcomers were the Jewish, the English, the French and the Franciscans. They established schools and kindergartens in all the Arab states which were ruled by them mainly for their children.

Current Pre-school Education in the Arab World

It has already been noted that the importance of pre-school education in the Arab States is growing, although it is not yet at the same standard as that in the developed countries. Ideas about young children and their education have changed considerably over recent decades. Indeed, it was not until the end of the First World War that the problems of pre-school

education began to be seriously taken into consideration by national and international authorities.⁵ Previous to that pre-school education was a neglected field, more concern being concentrated on other levels of education; this despite the fact as many psychologists stress that the first six years of the child's life are considered the most rapid growth period, and of greatest susceptibility to environmental influences.⁶ The neglect of this type of education can be ascribed not only to the illiteracy of the parents, economic problems, but also to the fact that the majority of Arab states were not given proper educational opportunities during the colonial area.

According to Shettawi,⁷ by 1975 there were near 30 million children in the Arab world below the age of six; that is to say, nearly one quarter of the population. Table No 5 shows of children as per age against the total number of population in each Arab country. In such countries, as it is in other developing countries, the inadequacy of educational environment has resulted in disadvantaged children. An important factor has been the high levels of illiteracy among older parents and others generally responsible to look after children. Table No 6 illustrates the high level of illiteracy in many Arab countries.

Until the early 1970s, kindergartens were widely viewed in the Arab world as an advantage to a child rather than an integral part of the educational process. People are now aware of the importance of the pre-primary years in this respect. Very early schooling has been found to be particularly critical for disadvantaged children, since relatively few of these youngsters acquire at home the experiences and language skills that are necessary if they are to benefit fully from primary schooling.

TABLE No5 SHOWS THE TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN FROM 0-14
IN EACH ARAB COUNTRY AGAINST THE TOTAL NUMBER
OF POPULATION IN 1975

COUNTRY	POPULATION	CHILDREN AGE		
		0-4	5-9	0-14
Jordan	2,700,000	506,000	412,000	1,257,000
Tunisia	5,594,000	902,000	806,000	2,483,000
Algeria	15,747,000	3,020,000	2,478,000	7,553,000
Saudi Arabia	8,970,000	1,657,000	1,287,000	4,010,000
Sudan	15,550,000	2,842,000	2,337,000	7,063,000
Syria	7,410,000	1,344,000	1,105,000	3,370,000
Sumalia	3,180,000	568,000	428,000	1,432,000
Iraq	11,120,000	2,094,000	1,691,000	5,184,000
Kuwait	1,005,000	211,000	149,000	474,000
Lebanon	3,164,000	533,000	433,000	1,369,000
Libya	2,442,000	434,000	351,000	1,083,000
Egypt	37,230,000	5,625,000	4,955,000	15,141,000
Morocco	16,680,000	3,051,000	2,517,000	7,844,000
Mauritania	1,322,000	222,000	178,000	584,000
South Yemin	1,677,000	309,000	240,000	757,000
North Yemin	6,545,000	1,206,000	937,000	2,923,000

World Bank, Child World Atlas, 1979

TABLE No 6 SHOWS THE PERCENTAGE OF ILLITERACY IN SOME
SELECTED ARAB COUNTRIES

COUNTRY	% of Illiteracy
Jordan	30
Imarat	79
Bahrain	50.6
Tunisia	45
Algeria	63
Saudi-Arabia	85
Sudan	80
Syria	47
Samalia	40
Iraq	74
Oman	80
Qater	79
Kuwait	40
Lebanon	32
Libya	50
Egypt	56
Morocco	72
Mauritania	83
South Yemen	73
North Yemen	87

Source: A Shattawi, 1983, p. 68.

Among Western societies, early educational intervention has been widely regarded as a powerful strategy for reducing the effect of poverty, deprivation and under-achievement and promoting the ideal of equality of opportunity. The potential of pre-school education has been singled out, for particular attention, nowhere more so than in the USA where headstart became a major weapon of the 'War on Poverty'.⁸ However, in the Arab countries as a whole, there is no adequate cultural environment for the education and care of the child, so is the immediate generalisation of pre-school education in the Arabic countries possible? The answer would seem to be in the negative. This is not only because resources are lacking but also, and more significantly because there are insufficient qualified educators in this field. In order to be properly carried through, pre-primary education requires solid psychological and pedagogical knowledge to be applied by teachers who have themselves been through a proper process of intellectual and practical training.⁹ Furthermore, the shortage of buildings for the housing of pre-school children care centres is still very acute and so only a very small number of children - about 5% of the total number of children in age 3 - 6 in most of the Arab countries - can be accommodated in pre-schools.¹⁰ Most pre-school institutions in the Arab world are in fact provided in the private sector, except in some countries where the government is the only body permitted to run this kind of provision. Table No 7 illustrates the varied pattern as between selected Arab states. One of the studies carried out into this sector indicated that: a) there were 7 countries out of 14 in which pre-school provision numbers do not exceed 50; b) there were 350,000 children whose age is 3 - 6 years that are attending these establishments.¹¹ Other studies carried out in some of the developing countries (including but not confined to the Arab world) have shown that most of these countries have given more attention to primary education than to pre-school education;

the latter being considered as some sort of luxury and therefore rejected for financial reasons.¹²

In the case of the Arab states, it can be said that this neglect and lack of recognition of the crucial stage of early childhood education is derived mainly from a lack of understanding of the role of pre-school education and its significance for later life. It is only recently that some of the Arabic states have begun to recognise it, such as Kuwait, Syria, Jordan, Iraq and Bahrain.

a) Kuwait In Kuwait, for example, there is a great concern by the Government to improve pre-school education, for as the Director of Education said as long ago as 1977:

"We wanted to show our children a way of life that was different from that encountered in their homes and immediate environment ... Beginning with the school building itself, its facilities and equipment and on the staff whom we selected with great care to provide a good example to the children ... Our objective was always to provide good care and learning of good habits: all other learning was subordinate to this major purpose of the kindergarten we had in mind when we founded it in Kuwait." ¹³

In fact the first two kindergartens were opened in 1954-55, and children of both sexes between the ages 4-7 were accepted for a full day. By 1983-84 there were 77 kindergartens, with an enrolment of 22,000 children. Aware of the risks involved in having co-educational kindergartens, the Kuwait Department of Education tried to make the new schools as attractive as possible both to the children and to the parents. They were built to meet the highest standards in nursery school planning.¹⁴ Most of the kindergartens are spacious with large playgrounds, gardens and even farm-houses. The classrooms are large with shelves and cupboards for children to store their belongings. According to Nashif¹⁵ the first two kindergartens

were built by two British enterprises at the cost of half a million sterling each. Despite this level of expenditure on the material side, not all teachers are trained to work with pre-school children. The Department of Education saw to it that each kindergarten had a number of teachers who had received training in work with pre-school children and preferably had some experience in this field so that they would, in turn, train the rest. Some of the senior Kuwaiti staff in the Department of Kindergarten Education, as well as headmistresses of kindergartens were sent abroad to the USA, England, Italy, France, Germany, Romania and the Soviet Union to see how these countries educate their children at the pre-school level.¹⁶ As a result of these Western influences the pre-school education in Kuwait today has a mixture of the ideas of Froebel, Montessori, France's Ecole Maternelle, the British Nursery School, the Belgium Ecole Gardiennes, the Swiss Maison des Petits, plus some of the features of Arab kindergartens, in Egypt, Syria, Lebanon and Iraq, which were, in any case influenced by European thought; that is except for greater emphasis on religious instruction in the Arab counterpart.¹⁷

b) Bahrain There were in 1983-84 27 kindergartens in Bahrain with an enrolment of 5,053. Not all teachers were qualified for pre-school work; 87.0% of them had only a secondary school certificate, 34.7% had no in-service training at all, and 55.6% had only short in-service training for about 15 to 30 days.¹⁸ Their status is very low as compared with that of teachers in compulsory education. The teacher/child ratio is very high, some say up to 1:47. Some of the buildings are old and not designed for pre-school children, and are poorly equipped.

TABLE No 7 THE PERCENTAGE OF GOVERNMENT AND PRIVATE
PROVISION IN THE ARAB STATES IN 1979

COUNTRY	YEAR	GOVERNMENT SECTOR %	PRIVATE SECTOR %
Jordan	1979	0.5	99.5
Imarat	1979	56	44
Bahrain	1979	0	100
Tunisia	1979	71	29
Saudi Arabia	1979	6.32	93.68
Sudan	1979	38.2	61.7
Syria	1979	30.2	69.8
Iraq	1979	100	0
Oman	1979	0	100
Qatar	1979	0	100
Kuwait	1979	55.60	44.40
Libya	1979	100	0
Egypt	1979	0	100
Democratic Yemen	1979	100	0

Source: Al Shattawi, 1983, pp. 35-36.

c) Syria Here there were 511 kindergartens in 1983-84. They are under the supervision of: The Women's Union, Social Affairs and Work Centres, Teachers Union, Ministry of Education and Workers Union, and the private sector. Most of the buildings are very old and unhealthy for pre-school children, indeed 50% of them are not designed for kindergarten education. Most of the teachers (ie c 98%) are not qualified for pre-school work, 20.5% of them with only primary certificates and 53.5% have a ceiling of secondary schooling. There are in-service training programmes for a few weeks for some of these teachers.¹⁹

d) Saudi Arabia There were 91 kindergartens in 1983-84 with an enrolment of 7020 children. Their main concern was to prepare the children for primary education, they gave great attention to teaching the rudiments of reading, writing and arithmetic, and were therefore very formal.

So in most Arab states the main concern is to prepare the child for primary school, but ideally the kindergarten should be a place where the child can find opportunities for personal development of senses, abilities, skills and interests.

Organisation and Administration of Pre-school Education in the Arab States

In most of the Arab states, pre-school education is organised and administered by the Ministry of Education, but in some others, (eg Tunisia), where it is under the administration of the Ministry of Youth and Sport, and Iraq where it is under the supervision of both the Ministry of the Interior, and the Ministry of Education other ministries are involved.²⁰

The Authority supervising the pre-school education normally is responsible for:

- a) providing the buildings and the equipment;
- b) to be responsible for the training of the teachers and conducting in-service training for them;
- c) inspecting the provisions in regard to the administration, health and educational process;
- d) supplying the required materials.

It can be seen from what has been noted above, that there are two sectors in the Arab countries through which the pre-school education is financially sponsored: the government sector and the private sector (see Table No 7). The balance of financial support varies, for there are:

- a) countries where pre-school education is under the supervision of the government 100%, eg Libya, Iraq and Yemen;
- b) countries where the percentage of the government sector in supervising these institutes is more than the private sector as is the case of Tunisia;
- c) others where both sectors are mostly equalised in the supervision of pre-school education, such as Kuwait and Emerat;
- d) countries where the provisions are supervised by only the private sector, such as Bahrain, Aman, Qater and Egypt;²¹
- e) countries where the percentage of the private sector in supervising these institutions is more than the government sector as is the case with Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Syria and Sudan.

Pre-school Teachers in the Arab Countries

a) Number of Teachers

According to Shattawi's survey, there were approximately 10,500 teachers in the pre-school sectors of 13 countries of the Arab states. If this figure is compared with the number of children enrolled at this level then, there were approximately 27 children per each teacher. In reality, however, the ratio reaches, in some countries, to 40 or even 50+ children per teacher (see Table 8).

In interpreting these figures, it is important to note that based on the ratio of staff to children, the educational process in pre-school provision in the Arab world must be very difficult and is indeed inadequate in many places. This must be so because the younger the child, the higher must be the ratio of staff to children to achieve the objectives.²²

Teacher Qualifications

Mostly the teachers of pre-school education in the Arab states are not qualified as kindergarten teachers. Some of them have merely completed secondary education, the proportion of such in the case of Saudi Arabia, being around 50.5% and in Qatar, 100%. The number of those holding a University degree is very small, indeed some countries are even still employing those with a ceiling of primary education.²³

It is essential to stress that whatever the qualification of the teachers in pre-school education, great attention should be given to their preparation and training for this particular age range, both initial and in-service training. Shettawi stated that "In Tunisia, Iraq, Oman and Kuwait teachers of pre-school education have to attend a special training

TABLE No 8 THE RATIO OF STAFF TO CHILDREN IN PRE-SCHOOL PROVISIONS IN THE ARAB STATES

Country	Year	No. of teachers	No of children per teacher
Jordan	1979	600	26
Imarat	1979	201	43
Bahrain	1979	126	12
Tunisia	1979	764	27
Syria	1979	1,073	31
Samalia	1977	104	15
Iraq	1979	3,079	22
Saudi Arabia	1979	788	28
Oman	1979	49	16
Qatar	1979	40	40
Kuwait	1979	1,785	15
Libya	1979	357	29
Egypt	1977	1,399	52

Source: Arabic League, 1983, p. 42.

TABLE NO. 9 NUMBER OF CHILDREN OF PRE-SCHOOL PROVISIONS
IN THE ARAB WORLD

Country	School Year	No of Schools	No of Children attending
Jordan	1979	200	16,000
Imarat	1979	30	9,792
Bahrain	1979	1	1,514
Tunisia	1979	269	20,702
Sudan	1979	905	43,426
Syria	1979	354	33,445
Samalia	1977	17	1,645
Iraq	1979	258	70,418
Saudi Arabia	1979	151	22,744
Oman	1979	15	812
Qater	1979	15	1,600
Kuwait	1979	108	27,354
Libya	1979	37	7,136
Egypt	1977	363	73,546
Yemen	1978	18	4,743

Source: Arab League, 1983, p. 33.

course for a period exceeding one year".²⁴ He specified the following:

a) Tunisia: Teachers of pre-school education have to attend training courses especially for the age group from 3-6 for a period of two years in the National School for Youth Cadre.

b) Iraq: They have to attend training courses specially prepared for this field at the Pre-School Department of Teachers College, and at the University of Al-Mustan-Saryia.

c) Oman: They have to attend for a two-year period at Teachers Training College for girls at Ain-Shams University, Cairo, or two years at St Margaret Training College in Bombay of India.

d) Kuwait: Teachers of pre-school education have to attend training course in this particular field for a period of two years at Teachers Education College.

The Distribution of Pre-school Provision as between Rural and Urban Areas in the Arab States

Table 10 shows that among 9 Arab countries 80% of pre-school provision in 8 of them is located in the big cities. This has to do with the opportunities for and condition of work for mothers in the urban areas, but also has implications for pre-school children in rural areas in that they do not often have pre-school opportunities.

Curriculum and Methods of Teaching

There is a broad generality within 9 out of 13 of Arab countries in respect of the curriculum objectives at this stage. That is to say, most of these are set up for formal instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic, but rather they stress that great importance should be

given to comprehensive personality development. At the pre-school level more than at any other, education must be adapted to the individual. This is one of the basic principles of the methodology of pre-school education.²⁸ True education cannot be imposed otherwise it ceases to be education and becomes enforced training. The aim of education should be never to impose anything save what can be freely accepted by the child so that he can contribute actively to his own development.²⁹ The child needs, at a very early age, to become accustomed to finding out how to avoid obstacles, overcome difficulties and work out solutions to practical problems. It is certainly not the purpose of early childhood education to anticipate the work and aims of the primary schools by the teaching of such basic skills as reading, writing and the manipulation of numbers.²⁷

Whilst pre-school has long received only modest consideration in the educational world the new knowledge gained in the sphere of child development and changes which have taken place in social conditions have begun to change this situation. Nonetheless most educational systems in the Arabic countries fail to provide pre-school education for more than a small proportion of children in the relevant age group. Relatively few children in the Arabic educational systems have their innovative potential developed to its fullest. At present we neglect to give our children the opportunity to attend pre-school until several years after they are ready to start benefitting from it. Later, as the child grows older within the school system, we tend to crush the child's potential by the use of repressive methods and irrelevant curricula.²⁸

Broad generalisations can also be made about the length of the day: in some countries for five hours (Libya), in others up to 7 hours (eg Kuwait). In all the Arabic countries primary education is separate from

TABLE NO 10 DISTRIBUTION OF PRE-SCHOOL PROVISIONS
IN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS OF THE ARAB STATES

COUNTRY	CITY	VILLAGE	COUNTRYSIDE
Jordan	50%	35%	15%
Bahrain	85%	15%	-
Saudi Arabia	100%	-	-
Immarat	100%	-	-
Qater	100%	-	-
Libya	80%	20%	-
Kuwait	87.1%	12.90%	-
Oman	100%	-	-
Iraq	100%	-	-

Source: Arab League, 1983, p. 38.

pre-school education; no links between them at all. In all such countries compulsory education starts at the age of six, before which there are normally public nurseries with little or no charge. Despite the progressive sentiments expressed above, most Arabic countries use the formal methods and 'the three Rs'. But the general patterns mentioned above cover a variety of problems that occur with different emphasis, depending on whether the pre-school education is:

- a) inadequately or unevenly developed;
- b) inadequately supported by the public authorities;
- c) badly integrated into the educational system;
- d) deficient at the social level;
- e) deficient at the medical level with inadequate prevention of physical and mental handicap;
- f) deficient from the point of view of education proper (ie educational stimulation).

Whatever the balance of these inadequacies might be in any particular country, it is true throughout the Arab world that considerable improvement is needed in respect of curricula, teacher education and training, equipment, materials and buildings, in order to create suitable emotional and mental development. Pre-school education is necessary, and should be planned in such a way as to enable a child to actively discover his or her awareness and abilities.

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PART B

THE LIBYAN DIMENSION

CHAPTER FOUR

THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN LIBYA

4.1 Introduction

The emphasis placed on education reflects the urgent need as well as the desire for an educated population. Before independence there were few educated Libyans in the country, and illiteracy was widespread. Under the Turkish and Italian administrations, education received little official support, and a relatively small proportion of the population attended school.¹ The education which was available to Libyans at that time was affiliated with mosques and other religious organisations. It was largely religious in content.

"The history of education in Libya followed the political and cultural history of the country ..., the Arab Conquest of Libya in 643 initiated the spread of Islam, of the Arabic language and of religious education. The Arabs built a series of mosques which served as a religious centre for schools, and as training grounds for the military defence of the Islamic religion." 2

When independence was granted in 1951 there were less than 20 Libyans with university degrees, and there was a severe shortage of people qualified to fill administrative and executive positions.

Since ancient times, Libya was coveted by foreign powers who were drawn by: "the importance of its geographic location on the Mediterranean, its connections with central Africa, the clemency of its climate and the fertility of its soil." 3 Among the known races and nations which ruled Libya were the Phoenicians, the Greeks, the Romans, the Vandals, the Byzantines, the Spaniards, the Arabs, the Turks, the Italians, and finally the British and French. All these conquests have left their marks in every town in Libya. However, the most profound and lasting influence was that of the

Arab Conquest. Ismail Khalidi stated that:

"it can be confidently assessed that the years of Arabs, Turkish and Italian rule and the final short period of French-British rule all left their marks on the religious, social and political life of the people. But of all these conquests and occupations, none had a more profound and lasting effect than the Arab Conquest, for throughout all these centuries the country has remained Arab in culture and Islamic in religion." 4

After these centuries of foreign conquest, Libya obtained its independence on December 24, 1951. This event has had a most profound and remarkable impact in all aspects of Libyan life, especially education, which had never received major attention from any of the occupying forces that had controlled Libya before independence. 5

4.2 Libyan Education during the Arab Rule (1642-1517)

Soon after the Arab Conquest of North Africa, mosque schools were established in a number of cities throughout Libya, among them Misrata, Zliten, Derna, with the first being founded in Tripoli. Although the focus was naturally on the study of the Koran and the dissemination of its message, these schools also taught science, medicine and mathematics.

"The association of the mosque with education remained one of its characteristics throughout history. In the early days it was the focus of all communal activities. From its pulpit religious education and state policy were proclaimed, within its walls justice was dispensed, on its floors sat pre-teachers and teachers surrounded by adults, and children seeking learning or instruction." 6

Every muslim is encouraged by Islam to seek knowledge. In response to the demands of Islam, and in order to read and understand the Holy Koran, the traditions of Mohammed, the prophet of Islam and Islamic teaching in general, formal education became a basic element of Islamic culture which

flourished in this period. Formal learning institutions were established in every community. 7 During this period the mosque schools which were known as kuttabs, 8 and remained even during the Italian colonisation.

According to Matthews:

"The kuttab represents early attempts to provide beginning education for Arab boys who were destined to receive training as religious leaders. It is administered by a Sheykh who collected fees from pupils, receive grants from religious endowments and subsidies from public funds. The kuttab was usually a one room school for boys of all levels of progress and grouped together. Emphasis is placed on memorising the Koran, and each individual progresses at his own rate". 9

4.3 Libyan Education during the Turkish Rule (1520-1911)

A brief history of the Turkish conquest of Libya has been given by Khalidi as follows:

"By the middle of the sixteenth century, the Turks had added Egypt, Cyrennica, Tripolitania, Tunisia, and Algeria to their empire. Tripolitania remained under Turkish rule from 1520 until 1714. In 1714 Ahmed Qaramanli, an ambitious Turkish Cavalry officer, took advantage of the declining authority of the Sultan to proclaim himself ruler of the city of Tripoli and its environs. The Qaramanli family continued to govern the territory as a regency on behalf of the Sultan until 1833, when during the reign of Sultan Mahmed II, the Turks took advantage of a Civil War to re-establish direct authority over Tripoli, which lasted until 1911 ... Under the pretext of protecting the commercial and cultural interests of its Italian subjects residing in Libya, Italy declared war upon Turkey in September 1911 and the Italian conquest of Tripoli began". 10

The Turks continued the same tradition of allowing education and religion to be closely associated, but in general on the whole, they neglected 'state' education, and it became the responsibility of the private sector. Throughout their three and a half centuries of the occupation of Libya, Turkey was suffering from a cultural and scientific

decline, so the experience of Libya under the Turkish occupation was merely a reflection of what was happening in Turkey. A Libyan official observed:

"The Ottoman Turks were people of war and administration more than people of high culture and civilisation. They cared little for reform and education and became more and more traditionally bound by inherited concepts. 11

Turkish rule did not help or sponsor existing programmes and activities in education which were founded in the early Islamic period. In short, education during the Turkish occupation was extremely basic. Not surprisingly, it was observed that:

"These schools were far from solving the Libyans problems or supporting their demand for a national life. They were dominated by Turkish tendencies and served the promotion of the cause of the Turkish army and the Turkish Administration of the country." 12

During the Karamanli period, foreign schools became established in Libya following an increase in the number of Italian elements and the French established schools. Related to these developments, the Ministry of Education in Libya observed:

"Besides this religious type of education, there came during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries a new type of education in Libya with the arrival of European communities who settled in the country to make their gains from the active commercial interchange between the Sudan and the Mediterranean Basin via Libya. This new type of education became well marked during the period 1711-1835. Among the first newcomers were the Jewish in 1804; they established the first formal school for their children. The Franciscan fathers established another school in 1810 for the Christian children. More Italians moved into Libya and the Italian government began to intervene in the internal affairs of the country as a prelude to its seizure, especially after Great Britain and France covered the Arab East and Morocco from the Ottoman Empire. At that time a large number of Italian schools of all types were established; primary, secondary

and vocational schools for boys as well as for girls." 13

During the last decade of the nineteenth century a number of modern schools were instituted along the lines of those existing in Turkey. Among these were a primary school for boys of three classes, (teaching Arabic, Turkish, the Moslem Religion, Turkish Literacy, Arithmetic and Geography); a secondary school for boys "Rushdie" of four classes, (teaching both French and Persian, besides the subjects taught in the primary school); a school for girls, consisting of six primary and three secondary classes (the syllabus being the same as that in use in the boys' schools and normal schools (Dar el Maulimin) for training village teachers. There was also in Tripoli a number of Madreset and Qu'ranic schools for boys who intended to take up a religious education; the course at these schools was for three years, after which students proceeded to El Azaher University in Cairo obtaining there the title of Ulema.

During the late nineteenth century the Sanusi religious movement stimulated both religious and secular education. They established Zawiya (houses of worship and learning).¹⁴ A mosque was an essential part of each Zawiya, but there were also schoolrooms, guest rooms, apartments for the Shaikh and his family, rooms for teachers and pupils, and houses for the brothers, clients and servants and their families.¹⁵ The Sanusi Movement had a most significant influence on Libyan religious education and culture, including political life. 16 This can be illustrated by the number of Zawiyas, which were distributed throughout the country; by the end of the nineteenth century there were at least seventy in Libya.

4.4 Libyan Education under Italian Rule (1911-1943)

Italy declared war against Turkey in October 1911, for commercial reasons; and to provide a neighbouring colony for her surplus population; to establish a colonial empire in Africa, similar to those established by the French, the British and the Spanish.¹⁷ The Italians arrived with the aim of imposing their own culture and political ideology and, wherever possible, they exercised total control over education.¹⁸ The number and type of school in Libya at the time of the Italian occupation in 1911 and the following decade is illustrated in Table 11. Two modes of colonisation were employed:

- a) the encouraging of Italian immigration;
- b) the Italianisation of Libyan education and culture. However, the regions which Italy was unable to control kept to their traditional education in the mosque schools, or kuttabs.¹⁹ Elsewhere, colonial penetration through education was particularly strong in regions where Italian immigrants settled. Consequently:

"the young generation was pulled by two types of education: the one which expressed Arab culture and was conducted in the mosque schools, Zawiyas and the mosques, and the second which effectively expressed colonial motives and greeds. To freeze the first type and support the second, colonialism turned to issue oppressive laws and ordinances. Later, there was the Education Ordinance of 1914, according to which Italian Arab Schools were established, in which all subjects, except the Arabic language, were taught, in Italian. Also the ordinance of 1915, which made all the mosque schools subject to Italian inspection and censorship. In 1917 an Ordinance was issued separating the Administration of Education in Libya from the Italian Ministry of Education for the purpose of directing it on colonial lines." 20.

TABLE NO. 11 DEVELOPMENT OF TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS IN OFFICIAL SCHOOLS DURING
THE FIRST DECADE OF ITALIAN OCCUPATION (1921 - 22)

Year	Elementary Arabic Schools	Italian Elementary Schools	Secondary Arabic/Italian Jewish	Technical Arabic Italian/Jewish	Total
1911-12	99	373	54	119	645
1912-13	313	1908	99	107	2427
1913-14	1031	1721	134	115	3001
1914-15	725	1947	226	124	3022
1915-16	287	2137	201	159	2784
1916-17	422	2231	215	183	3051
1917-18	506	2076	226	186	2994
1918-19	779	2066	289	179	3313
1919-20	558	2268	285	197	3308
1920-21	571	2319	342	215	3447
1921-22	611	1858	342	243	3051

Source: The Ministry of Education, the Development of Education in Libya from the Ottoman Empire to the Present Time, Tripoli, 1974, pp. 14-16 (in Arabic).

Furthermore:

"The Italian occupation in 1911 witnessed direct attempts to suppress the Sanusi educational directions, indeed the whole organisation under the educational ordinance of 1914, all teaching in schools was conducted in Italian, except the teaching of the Arabic language itself. In 1915 all mosque schools and Zawiyas became subject to Italian inspection and censorship." 21

This approach was terminated when the Fascist party came to power in Italy. The new leadership was determined to use military force in order to occupy all Libya and to make it a part of Italy. Parliament was dissolved and military action was resumed until the whole country was subjugated. Consequently, the Senussi Zawais was ordered to close. According to Farley: stated that:

"After World War I, Fascist Italy entered upon sustained and directly brutal efforts to obliterate all Sanusi educational influence. The first Libyan parliament was established and the first education ordinance thrown out. The Zawais and Sanusi property was taken over, Jaghbaub University was shut down and its valuable library set on fire. The whole school system was completely subordinated to an Italian syllabus, Italian teachers and the Italian language... Libyan children were practically excluded from admission to secondary schools and forbidden to pursue studies abroad. It was all ugly, deliberate and brutish Fascism, except that there was some vitalising survival of Sanusi influence in a few ancient Islamic institutes and of Islamic influence in the ancient El Azhar University in Egypt to which Libyans resorted." 22

The long period of military conquest made the Italians more interested in territorial occupation of the country than in providing for the welfare of the indigenous people. This was especially true in the first

decade of their occupation and before July 24, 1923, the date on which the occupation of Libya by Italy was finally and legally recognised, thus ending almost 400 years of Turkish sovereignty in North Africa. The completeness of this conquest can be illustrated by the fact that: "in 1921 only four Arab primary schools were in existence in Tripolitania, with a total of 611 pupils".²³ This statement may be compared with the date given by the representative of the Italian government in his memorandum:

"During the school year 1921-1922, the following Moslem schools were in operation in Libya in the territories under Italian administration:

Tripolitania - (a) Elementary schools: (1) Tripoli: two schools; (2) Suk el Giuma, one school; (3) Taguira, one school; (4) Homs, one school; (5) Zuara, one school.

(b) Secondary schools: (1) Benghazi: Idadia;

(c) subsidised Koranic schools: (1) Benghazi, three "kuttabs", including the Berka Kuttab; (2) Soluk, one kuttab; (3) Cehmines, one kuttab; (4) El Mergu, one kuttab; (5) Tomelta, one kuttab; (6) Cirene, one kuttab; (7) Apollonia, one kuttab; (8) Derna, one kuttab; (9) Tobruk, one kuttab; (10) Adid Camp (El Merga Zone), one Mobile Koranic school.

(d) Trade Schools: (1) Benghazi; arts and crafts school with two courses - one a preparatory course and another for artisans; (2) Benghazi: School of Domestic Science and General Education for Girls; (3) Derna: School of Domestic Science and General Education for Girls.

The attendance at the above mentioned schools during the school year 1921-22 was 4,040 children (Tripolitania 2,193 Cyvennica 1847). To this number must be added about a hundred Moslem pupils attending the Italian-type schools (Tripolitania, fifty nine, Cyrenaica thirty three) into: (2) secondary and elementary (80) schools".²⁴

The report continues with some analysis of two other types of schools: the Jewish and the Italian schools during the first ten years of the Italian occupation in Libya. The Libyans were clearly deprived of education, beyond elementary level unless they obtained Italian citizenship. But Libyans were very prejudiced against the Italians, especially at the beginning of the occupation, and were consequently opposed to sending their children to Italian schools, fearing that they might lose their Islamic faith and traditions.²⁵ Nyrop et al described educational developments in the following terms:

"A limited public school system was developed under Italian rule (1911-43) but the policy of the colonial administration was to restrict the number of Libyans educated beyond the primary stage, public primary schools and some trade schools were available for the Libyan but Libyans were virtually excluded from attending the private Italian secondary schools. Italian was the teaching language in all schools, and Italian cultural and social subjects were taught, Arabic was offered as a language subject only ... many parents refused to enroll their children in the Italian schools for fear of exposing them to values that might weaken their Islamic faith and undermine the Moslem way of life. Traditional religious education was available in the Quaranic school and was often the preferred choice of traditionalist families. The number of these increased toward the late 1930s but the Sanusi Zawai were closed down by the Italians".²⁶

However, after 1923, the Italian occupation entered a new era and the rules began to give more attention to educational facilities for the Libyan people. During the second stage of Italian rule, many progressive educational laws were enacted with a view to stimulating Italianisation. Since native youths who desired more than an elementary education had to attend metropolitan-type middle schools, this movement aided cultural colonisation.²⁷

Between 1924 and 1938, the Arab school population increased over four times, from 3,000 to 13,000, for the simple reason that mass suppression of independence of thought was made easier through these larger numbers.²⁸ In all schools, two types of education emerged, an Italian and an Arab type. Thus Arab children in these schools were often forced to study all the subjects of the curriculum in Italian, including Italian songs and the Fascist anthem.²⁹

4.5 Libyan Education under the British and French Military Administration (1943-1951)

For the duration of the fighting in North Africa in World War II, almost all the schools in Libya were closed. They began re-opening after the defeat of the German and Italian Armies in that region in 1943. Libya then came under British-French provisional administration and efforts were made to expand education facilities in spite of the shortage of financial and human resources at that time, especially the dearth of teachers. The modern development of education in the country dates from this period. Since then progress has been rapid, aided also by oil wealth, and future prospects, for Libyans in search of knowledge should be extremely bright, or so Blunsum considered in 1968.³⁰ This would depend, of course, on the political nature of a post-colonial Libya.

As we have seen above, education during the Turkish and Italian occupations lost touch with the life of the mass of Libyan people and their aspirations. An official Libyan report described the subsequent development of Libyan education as follows:

"After the defeat of Italy in the second world war, education became a battle-ground on which Great Britain and France fought each other to establish its own supremacy in the provinces they occupied. Great Britain coveted eagerly to control Cyrenaica and Tripolitania separating them and France fought to control the province of Fezzan. This struggle is clearly shown in the field of education. The British Administration attempted at first to enforce the Egyptian system used in Palestine in Tripolitania. On the other hand, France enforced the Tunisian system of education in Fezzan. This separatist policy was reflected in the school curricula, syllabi and the subjects taught in schools." 31

In Cyrenaica and Tripolitania, the British made it clear from the beginning that their administration was a temporary wartime measure, that they were carrying out their obligations under International Law, and that they were maintaining law and order in the true fashion of British Colonial rule.³² Immediately after the British occupied Cyrenaica and Tripolitania, from 1943 to 1951, the curriculum was not stable. Every year there were changes in methods and subject matter. In Tripolitania, elementary education covered five school years, then, in 1948, this was extended to six years. Students attended secondary school for five years in order to obtain a secondary school certificate which would permit them to attend university. At that time most of them went to Egyptian universities. In 1947, the first secondary schools were established in Tripolitania, one in Tripoli and the other in El-Zawai. In Cyrenaica, by contrast, the elementary school offered two years of pre-primary education and four years of primary education, while the secondary school period was of five years duration. The first secondary schools in Cyrenaica were established in Benghazi and Derna in 1947-48.³³ By contrast again, in Fazzan, nothing was done about education by the French administration, and all that exists now has been achieved by the efforts of the post-independence governments of Libya.

TABLE No 12 DEVELOPMENT OF TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS IN
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN LIBYA FROM 1943-
44 to 1952

Academic Year	No. of Schools	No. of pupils			No. of Teachers
		Male	Female	Total	
1943-44	69	6140	340	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	24804	763
1949-50	181	24241	3522	27763	889
1950-51	193	28466	3623	32089	1024
1951-52	201	31892	4995	36887	1156

Source: Ministry of Education
 An Historical Study on the Development of Education
 in the Libyan Arab Republic from the Ottoman period
 to the present time, Tripoli 1974, p. 20. (in Arabic)

Until 1950 there were no females at the secondary educational levels and no female teachers in primary schools. The first secondary school for girls was in fact established in 1950 - 51 with the enrolment of 15 girls. The enrolment increased in 1951-52 to 23.³⁴ Even the number of female students at primary level improved - a very significant development in the light of the traditional position of women's education up to that point in Libya and the encouragement of this non-participant tradition by those who ruled Libya previously.³⁵ In Tripolitania, the number of girls at primary level increased from 314 to 2,923 between 1943-44 and 1950-51 and in Cyrenaica from 30 to 70 during that period. An observation in 1948 stated:

"The demand for more schools is on the increase coming chiefly from localities where boys education has made some progress, and it is in the satisfaction of these demands that one must look for that eventual rise in the status of women which is essential to the future welfare of the country, both from the moral and the medial point of view".³⁶

4.6 Libyan Education since Independence

4.6.1 The Period From 1951 to 1969

Education in Libya passed through several stages after independence, each being distinguished by certain political and cultural factors. The attainment of Libyan Independence in December 1951 must obviously be considered a landmark in Libyan educational development, after which the Libyan people began to organise for themselves a national Arab system of education. The newly born state had to meet the challenge of inherited patterns in the field of education as well as in other areas of life. While meeting this challenge, education passed through periods each of which has left its stamp. Official Libyan documentation described these developments as follows:

a) The first was the period of legislature, organisation and extension, enabling the Libyan children to enjoy their rights given to them by the Libyan Constitution. The main problems of this period were the following:

i) the promulgation of laws derived from the different aspects of national life and the demands put forward by Libyan people;

ii) the organisation of education within an integrated national framework;

iii) to give satisfaction to the educational needs increasingly felt by the Libyan people;

iv) to make available the number of teachers needed to staff the newly-opened schools;

v) to provide school buildings adequate enough for the increasing number of enrolments;

iv) to finance educational programmes.

b) The second period was the period of educational planning for economic and social development. After education had made great progress, it found itself confronting new problems imposed by many factors ... The main problems of education in this period were the following:

i) how to provide manpower adequately trained to carry out development schemes in the different fields based on constructive planning;

ii) how to direct the rapid social change;

iii) how to bring equilibrium to the different fields of educational facilities and the improvement of the quality of education while carrying on with educational extension 37

Table 13 illustrates the growth of school and student numbers during the first decade of Independence.

c) An Education Ordinance of 1952 was issued in which the constitutional rights of the Libyan people were expressed in terms of regulations and educational by-laws. These documents set the aims and the policy of education. The most significant of these were the following:

i) Democracy in Education: Within Articles 28, 29 and 30 of the Libyan Constitution is the following:

"Education is the right of every Libyan. The state shall ensure the diffusion of education by means of the establishment of public schools and of private schools which it may permit to be established under its supervisions. Also: teaching shall be unrestricted so long as it does not constitute a breach of public order or is not contrary to morality. Also: elementary education shall be compulsory for Libyan children of both sexes. Primary and elementary education in the public schools shall be free In executing the provision of the Articles 28, 29, 30 of the Constitution of United Libyan Kingdom, every province shall establish within a reasonable period public schools commensurate with its resources and finance these schools to satisfy the need of Libyans in the provinces for the compulsory primary, elementary and secondary education. No Libyan pupil shall be deprived of education at any level save within the bounds of Law. 38

TABLE No. 13 NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND STUDENTS FROM 1950-51 to 1960-61

Year	Kindergarten and Elementary		Preparatory and Secondary		Professional		TOTAL	
	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students	Schools	Students
1950-51	194	32,115	4	300	10	326	208	32,741
1951-52	202	36,949	4	402	10	568	216	37,919
1952-53	228	42,500	5	558	13	776	246	43,834
1953-54	266	48,278	7	712	13	1,093	286	50,085
1954-55	319	57,001	11	957	13	1,339	344	59,297
1955-56	382	65,831	18	3,755	13	1,659	413	71,245
1956-57	425	78,724	28	4,293	13	2,076	466	85,093
1957-58	446	91,632	43	5,682	16	2,175	505	99,489
1958-59	487	99,388	64	6,639	19	2,389	567	108,416
1959-60	559	113,694	75	9,186	20	2,737	654	125,615
1960-61	632	130,077	95	12,320	24	4,328	751	146,725

Source: Ministry of National Economy, Census and Statistical Department,
Statistical Abstract of Libya 1958 - 1962 Tripoli 1963, pp. 145 - 146.

ii) The Arab Directive of Education: The Libyan Constitution: assesst that Libya is an Arab Independent Sovereign State with Islam as its religion and Arabic as its language. This meant that Libya should adopt and follow the educational pattern of the 'family' of Arab Islamic countries. The educational system of independent Libya was set to approximate to the Egyptian education system in particular as well as to the systems of the rest of the member states of the Arab league:

"The school programmes in Libya have become similar to those in other Arab states and the school leaving certificate given at the end of each level were made equivalent to those given in other Arab Countries" 39

The elements of the constitution may be considered the foundation of the system of modern education in Libya. 40

The Libyan Government was also confronted with the problem of financing education and making available all physical and technical possibilities in a most effective way. For this purpose, it collaborated with all bodies and organisations which were ready to help, Libyan citizens volunteered by giving buildings to serve as schools and tracts of land for the erection of school buildings.

The Technical Assistance Board of the United Nations and the Specialised Agencies of the United Nations, notably UNESCO, collaborated with the Libyan Government on a very large scale. Regulations prescribed that elementary education should be compulsory for all children between the age of six and twelve years. The legal position was quite clear but the regulations had not been enforced. The reasons were described by a UNESCO Mission in 1964 as follows:

- "a) there has been a shortage of both teachers and classrooms;
- b) of the difficulty of making provision for nomadic groups;
- c) children are sometimes kept at home for economic reasons;
- d) of the Government's opinion that in order to maintain as high a standard as possible, only a proportion of the pupils at each level should be promoted each year. In addition, there is a graduation examination at the end of the sixth grade.

The result of these factors is that, although most of the people appear to commence their primary education in Grade I, the drop-out is so considerable that less than 25% of these pupils will graduate from Grade 6. The mission cannot agree that the promotion system adopted by the Libyan Government is educationally, socially or economically necessary or desirable, particularly at the elementary level. The system is designed to suit the needs of the academic pupils or those with average or less ability can neither work at the same pace nor measure up in the written examinations and tests, they tend to drop out ... The evidence of research indicates clearly that lower ability children ultimately reach higher levels of attainment if they are kept in classes with their fellow pupils of approximately the same age and hence it is the modern educational practice to promote pupils from class to class, especially up to the ninth grade, without examinations and without insisting upon a fixed standard of attainment". 41

From the figures available in 1950-51, the number of students in all levels of schools was 32,741, of whom only 3,664 or about 11% were females. In 1960-61, the number rose to 146,725 of whom 29,543 or about 20% were females. During the same period, the number of secondary school students rose from 300 to 12,320 (including the preparatory stage). The number of schools rose in the same decade from 208 to 751. Out of this number, 689 were Government and 62 private. The number of teachers of all levels rose from 1,024 in 1950-51 to 5,565 in 1960-61.

According to the new system of education after Independence, schooling fell into the following categories: theoretical education; vocational and technical education; religious education.

i) The theoretical education system was comprised of five stages:

kindergarten - two years;

primary - six years;

preparatory - three years;

secondary - three years and

higher education - University - four years.

ii) The vocational and technical education system was divided into two parts:

the intermediate section into which the students were admitted

after receiving the primary school certificate; and

the senior section which could be entered after the student

received the preparatory certificate. This system of education

required three years of college, which included the teachers'

training institutions for men and women, commercial schools,

technical schools, agricultural schools, and handicrafts'

institutions.

iii) The Religious Education system paralleled the stages of the general education ladder in respect of years of study, admission requirements, promotion, and examinations. The only difference is that its syllabuses stress religious interactions; •

e) Theoretical Education

i) Elementary Education

The framers of the Libyan Constitution would not let their vision be dimmed by the fact that not one Libyan in ten had ever attended any school. Universal, free, compulsory education on the primary level for all the people of Libya was set forth as a national goal in the Constitution and Articles 28, 29 and 30 so called for the expansion of educational facilities. Libyan authorities pointed out that they had progressed two-thirds of the way towards the constitutional aim of instruction for every child. They believed that the quantitative emphasis should give way to greater concern for quality. The education of the young became, therefore, a primary concern of the 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. In theory, primary education is compulsory in areas where adequate facilities were available, but in practice, this is more of a hope than reality because social and economic conditions, together with inadequate planning, particularly in the rural areas, have made the ruling ineffective.⁴² The course of study is uniform to all primary school throughout Libya. Thus, a child moving from one district to another, from urban or rural or vice-versa, is not handicapped by variation in the basic curriculum.

The aims of primary education in Libya are inseparable from the general aims of education in the whole country. An important Ordinance was issued on 28 September 1965 defining the main trends and aims of educational services. These trends and aims were as follows:

- " a) more attention to be paid to the quality of education at all levels by extending the responsibilities of the Ministry to effect education in all its perspectives;
- b) Linking the quantity with the quality of education by an overall planning and by deciding what means would be best to spread education throughout the country;
- c) Deciding the importance of appraisal of educational operations on the basis of statistics study and research;
- d) Directing the educational operations by means of developing the school curricula, the choice of textbooks and modern educational aids, with the view of bringing up a well built generation, morally, mentally as well as physically;
- e) Supporting all levels of education to ensure equal opportunities to all on the largest possible scale and raising the standard of education at all levels;
- f) Ensuring all possible opportunities to all citizens according to their aptitude in the fields of education whilst considering the requirements of each environment;
- g) Developing and confirming the relation between educational society by linking the school and the social environment by school communities, parents associations and other bodies;
- h) Taking special care in training teachers for all levels of education, defining their levels and working for their reaching these levels and above. 43.

Enrolment in the primary schools in Libya more than doubled in the years 1959-60. It is clear from the previous data, formal education had progressed rapidly before that year. The number of primary schools increased from 201 in 1951-52, the first school year after independence, to 495 in 1959-60. Correspondingly, the number of primary schools enrolments grew from 36,887 to 139,569; and the number of teachers in these schools from 1,156 to 4,157. However, this rapid expansion seemed to the International Bank Mission to be undertaken gradually which stated as follows:

"It will inevitably take time to reach the goal of universal primary education, particularly where social customs still tend to keep girls away from school. The expansion of primary schools has therefore to be undertaken gradually, and attention concentrated in the meantime on measures for improving the quality of the facilities provided. More emphasis must be given in the curriculum to practical training for everyday life. The number of adequately trained teachers must be increased. More and better school equipment, textbooks and teaching aids should be provided. There is undoubtedly a need also in certain cases for better and more hygienic school buildings, but the mission regards this as a lower order of priority ... The mission's view is that primary school should educate the whole child, helping to shape his physical, moral and intellectual character and emphasising good habits of thought and work and conduct ... The principle of learning by doing should be practiced, with projects, field trips, manual work, plays and club activity supplementing learning from books ... Thus, the primary school teacher should be carefully selected and well prepared for his work". 44

The curriculum of the primary school consisted of Arabic reading and writing, arithmetic, drawing, religion and sports during the first three years. During the fourth, fifth and sixth years, the foregoing were continued, with the addition of history, geography and civics.⁴⁵ English was formerly taught in the upper elementary grades but in 1985 was discontinued.

Primary schools in rural areas follow exactly the same curriculum as schools in urban areas, this situation should be changed. The primary school can do much to stimulate an interest in agriculture and to encourage a proper appreciation of the advantages of rural life, and this is particularly important in Libya because of the absence of the tradition of settled agriculture and the consequent shortage of

elementary skills which in other countries could be taken for granted.⁴⁶

Although considerable progress was made in building new schools, there was still much to be desired in many of the facilities. For example, an investigatory team after studying what were supposed to be the best ten schools in Tripoli, summarised its findings as follows:

- "a) over-crowded classrooms;
- b) limited library facilities;
- c) inadequate and poor furnishings in classrooms;
- d) limited recreation areas, lack of play equipment;
- e) almost complete lack of maintenance;
- f) environmental health hazards (lavatories, feeding rooms, electrical fixtures;
- g) non-existence of fire prevention or suppression equipment;
- h) poor lighting in classrooms;
- i) non-existence of locker facilities, either for students or for staff;
- j) lack of even limited administrative offices.⁴⁷

Equipment is essential for effective teaching, but it was sadly lacking in many post independence Libyan schools. Classes in the cities had become overcrowded and unmanageable. School textbooks presented a special problem for Libya because there were then no Libyan authors capable of writing the books. Therefore Libya had to depend entirely on other Arab authors. Unfortunately, these books tended to ignore the pupils' local interest, and failed to reflect sufficiently the country's particular cultural background. A UNESCO report of 1952 made the following comment:

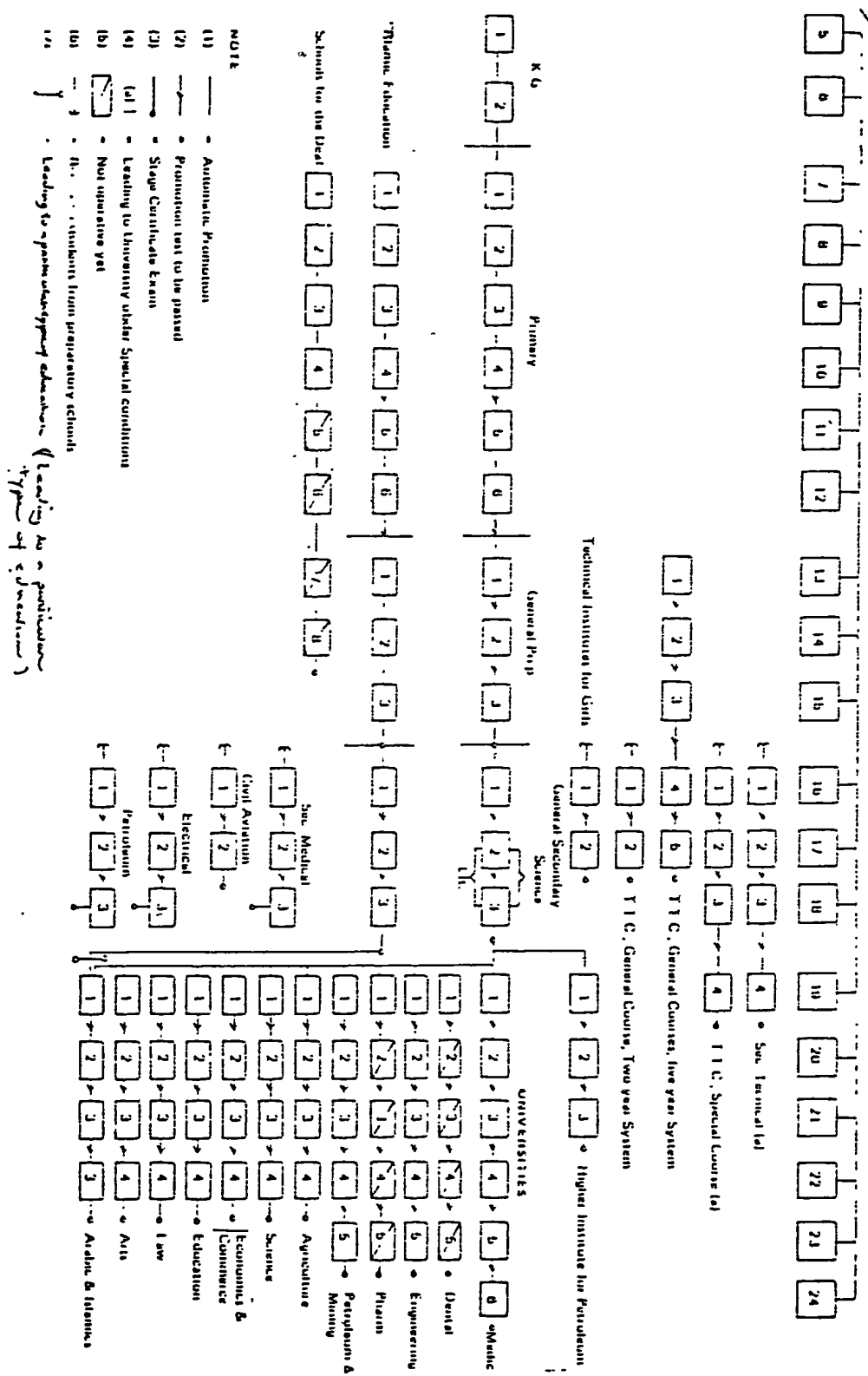
"The foreign textbooks now used, whatever their intrinsic merit, are not adapted to the country. It is essential, therefore, to prepare and publish, with the least possible delay, Libyan textbooks which use the best tested teaching methods and at the same time take into account actual conditions in the country".⁴⁸

Although this quotation describes the situation nearly four decades ago, it is unfortunately still a valid criticism in the 1980s. 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. 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. Teachers are required to adhere to the textbook very closely.

ii) Preparatory Education (Junior High School Level)

Under the twelve year school system, the six years at primary school are followed by three years at preparatory school. Enrolment in preparatory school requires that the student be a graduate from elementary school and not to be more than sixteen years of age. The preparatory school period was originally for two years, but in 1957-58, it was extended to three. Table No.14 lists the Libyan Educational System. The 1964 UNESCO Mission criticised this kind of education as follows:

"At the present time, these schools have a uniform academic curriculum which all pupils are expected to follow. If increasing numbers of students are to be accepted, it is obvious that a greater diversity of courses must be provided. Young people vary greatly in their abilities and in their capacities to learn, but all of them are capable of development as valuable members of society. A narrow academic education, far from helping all youth to mature properly, often causes social maladjustment, towards the desire to learn and create attitudes of failure and resignation detrimental to youth and to society as a whole". 49



The curriculum of the preparatory cycle was then largely a continuation of the primary school,⁵⁰ even to the extent of adherence to a single textbook. This is true in most of the Arab education systems, it sticks to the policy of using uniform textbooks which may even be the only source, for both teacher and pupils.⁵¹ Despite the fact that a strong 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. Individual differences are an important aspect in a child's development, and these should be served by the provision of a variety of materials, including textbooks. Attention should be given to enriching the programme of the preparatory schools. The Government's policy on independence was to provide chances for preparatory schooling for all Libyans who finished their primary education.⁵² But because of the financial difficulties suffered during the early years of independence, it was impossible to attain this goal. Table No. 15 shows the number of schools, pupils (male and female) and number of teachers in the preparatory schools from 1955-56 to 1968-69.

iii) Secondary Education (Senior Secondary School)

Enrolment in the secondary school in Libya requires that the student be a graduate from preparatory school. Over the period in question, secondary school enrolment was similar to the preparatory school figures; that is to say, very few students enter and very few graduate (Table No. 16).

The three-year secondary school had a common curriculum for all students in the first year: Arabic, English, French, Religion, Chemistry, Physics, History, Geography, Mathematics, Libyan Society, Drawing and

TABLE NO. 15 SHOWS THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, PUPILS AND TEACHERS IN THE PREPARATORY SCHOOLS FROM 1955-56 TO 1968-69

Year	No of Schools	No of Pupils		Total	No of Teachers
		Male	Female		
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

Source: Ministry of Education,
The Development of Education in Libya from the Ottoman Empire
to the present time, Tripoli, 1974, p. 33.

TABLE NO. 16 NUMBER OF STUDENTS (MALES AND FEMALES),
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS FROM 1952 - 53 TO
1968 - 69

YEAR	NO. OF SCHOOLS	NO. OF PUPILS			NO. OF TEACHERS
		MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	
1952-53	5	982	16	998	83
1953-54	7	1547	20	1567	111
1954-55	7	2376	29	2405	189
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	5207	738	5995	461
1968-69	25	6237	944	7181	608

Source: Ministry of Education,
 The Development of Education in Libya from the Ottoman Empire
 to the present time, Tripoli, 1974, p. 36.

Sports. In the second year, the students elected to follow either a literary or a scientific curriculum during the remainder of their secondary studies. In the literary section, the subjects for both the second and third years were religion, Arabic, English, French, History, Geography, Philosophy, Sociology, Physical Education, and extra classes in the field of specialisation. The scientific programme offered religion, Arabic, English, French, Mathematics, Chemistry, Physics, Biology, Physical Education, and extra classes in the field of specialisation, promotion from the final grade was to be written by universal examinations. All secondary graduates were then qualified for admission to the university. A student who failed in three subjects had to repeat the whole year's work in all subjects. Failure in one or two subjects, gained permission to study during the vacation and sit for supplementary examinations in September.

Like the earlier sectors, secondary curricula in Libya were unrelated to the everyday problems and needs of the students and therefore did not promote the development of attitudes which were needed for achievement of national and social goals. The curriculum emphasised bookish knowledge, rote memory, and cultivation of discrete information, and was dominated by a rigid examination system.⁵³ There was total centralisation and state control.⁵⁴ Table 16 shows the quantitative development of secondary schooling in Libya from 1952 to 1969.

i) Higher Education

Libyan general education attains its summit in the University of Libya. King Idris I contributed his Minar Palace in Benghazi to house the early university which was established in 1955, began operations in 1956 with the single college of arts, letters and education, and graduated

its first class of thirty-one students in 1959.⁵⁵ In 1956 and 1957, Tripoli and Benghazi became the locations of new places of learning, the College of Science and the College of Commerce and Economics. A Law College was established in Benghazi in 1962 to be followed by a College of Agriculture in Tripoli in 1966. Two other Tripoli colleges, for Engineering and Education, were opened in 1967.

The idea of establishing a Libyan university took form in 1954 when the government felt the need for a college to prepare teachers in response to the severe shortage that existed at that time. This took the form of the Faculty of Arts and Education, the first college in the system.⁵⁶ Due to lack of both human and financial resources, and especially experience in higher education, a study to explore the most appropriate foreign pattern for the prospective college was commissioned. Two possible patterns were examined: one was the Egyptian system, the other the American model. The American pattern, "The Nevada University Plan", was suggested by a team of professors from Nevada University who were sent to Libya to study the Libyan context. They proposed the establishment of a comprehensive multi-purpose two-year Junior College, but Libyan authorities were dissatisfied with the proposals,⁵⁷ being determined to establish a university rather than a higher institution.⁵⁸

As a result, the Libyan authorities turned to Egypt for educational assistance and advice. The outcome was a university administered by a president, appointed by a presidential decree upon the recommendation of the Minister of Education, and responsible for the administration of the University, and a University Council. Admission to the University of Libya is on the basis of the secondary school certificate or its

equivalent. Secondary school graduates from the literary stream generally entered the Faculties of Arts, Education and Law, where those from the scientific stream were channelled into the Faculties of Economics and Commerce, Science, Engineering, and Agriculture.

There have been some doubts as to the capacity of public funding and socio-economic need in respect of a wide ranging university Institution. For example the abovementioned International Bank Mission suggested that:

"... the Ministry of Education reconsiders its present policy of granting free tuition, maintenance, books and special allowances to every university student. This is a wasteful use of public funds and one that cannot be justified by consideration either of economy or of equity. In our judgement, exemption from tuition fees should be the most that the university should offer all its students indiscriminately. A university scholarship board should be established to grant aid for maintenance to needy students on the basis of demonstrated special capacity and genuine need".⁵⁹

Knowing that the provision of material incentives was the only way to attract the few high school graduates at that time, educational authorities ignored the Mission's recommendations completely.⁶⁰ Furthermore, in an effort to increase the number of Libyan teachers and instructors, scholarships were offered by the Libyan University to study abroad. Most of the scholarships were in the USA and United Kingdom.

f) Technical and Vocational Schools

The technical and vocational schools developed at post-primary level include industrial, agricultural and commercial schools. Technical education was divided into two levels:

TABLE No. 17 SHOWS THE NUMBER OF THE STUDENTS IN THE LIBYAN UNIVERSITY FROM 1955-56 TO 1968-69

YEAR	LIBYAN			NON-LIBYAN			TOTAL		
	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
1955-56	31	-	31	-	-	-	31	-	31
1956-57	79	-	79	-	-	-	79	-	79
1957-58	181	1	182	8	4	12	189	5	194
1958-59	318	6	324	13	5	18	331	11	342
1959-60	495	12	507	31	8	39	526	20	546
1960-61	660	18	678	45	6	51	705	24	729
1961-62	857	30	887	46	9	55	903	39	942
1962-63	1012	54	1066	35	11	46	1047	65	1112
1963-64	1127	56	1183	69	28	97	1196	84	*1280
1964-65	1357	84	1441	79	41	120	1436	125	*1561
1965-66	1647	140	1787	75	29	104	1722	169	*1891
1966-67	1982	174	2156	59	39	98	2041	213	*2254
1967-68	2157	219	2376	88	58	146	2245		
1968-69	2551	251	2802	120	79	199	2671	330	*3663

*Students at the Islamic University not included.

Source: adapted from Ministry of Education,
The Development of Education in Libya from the Ottoman period
to the present time, Tripoli, 1974, p. 59.

i) intermediate four-year courses for artisans and skilled workers, open to students holding the primary school certificate;

ii) advanced three-year courses for highly-skilled artisans and assistant technicians open to students holding the preparatory certificate. Special vocational courses for students at the upper secondary level included health officer training courses and health inspector training courses.⁶¹ Vocational training was officially encouraged because of the critical need for technical personnel.

After the discovery of oil petroleum in 1959 the urgent need to develop technical and scientific education became increasingly apparent. The Libyan educational authorities could no longer minimise the importance of the technical side of instruction, given the need to meet the future requirements of the country for skilled personnel.⁶² The difficulty of spreading technical and vocational education in Libya was not in building suitable schools, or attracting good applicants, but rather the recruitment of well-trained and qualified teachers who could free themselves from the tendency to be purely theoretical.⁶³

Table No. 18 shows the Development of Preparatory and Secondary Technical Education during the period in question.

g) Religious Education

Religious Education retained an important position in Libya's post-Independence education system since the precepts of Islam are basic to the moral and social posture of the country. It had four levels: pre-primary, primary, secondary and higher. Post-Independence there was a movement towards reforming, reorganising and modernising religious education to become a more basic aspect of Libyan education supported by public funds.⁶⁴ During the Turkish and Italian periods of occupation,

TABLE NO.18 SHOWS THE DEVELOPMENT OF PREPARATORY AND
SECONDARY TECHNICAL EDUCATION FROM 1958-
59 TO 1968-69

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	1159	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	686	571	1259	196

Source: Ministry of Education,
Educational Planning in the Libyan Arab Republic (Tripoli, 1970)
p. 46.

the majority of Libyans received their education in religious schools⁶⁵ which were independently supported.

In 1965-66, there were 6,082 students at 120 Koranic schools (6 years of training), 1,127 students at 13 elementary, preparatory and secondary schools (each level requiring 3 years of training), 115 foreign students studying preaching and religious law, and 287 students at the Islamic University at Beida.⁶⁶ This university had three faculties: Moslem law, Arabic studies; Religious Principles.

4.6.2 The Development of Education Since 1969

The Libyan Revolution of 1969 suspended all the laws passed by the previous governments. Several events of great importance that made their mark on the educational system at both school and university level took place in the 1970s. A decision was made to undertake an almost total remoulding of the content of curricula.⁶⁷

Post-revolutionary education was not simply a matter of designing new programmes, but of changing the whole nature of the educational system. The prevailing reasoning behind this was simple. Before the revolution, education was not designed for a mass 'Jamahirian' society. That education had to be modified in its spirit, content and outcome, so as to be appropriate for a society which had become 'Jamahirian'.⁶⁸ Theoretically, all this seems reasonable but dangers would occur if the same subjects as before were taught using a different terminology. The teachers would be the same, as would their pedagogical methods.

Another event which profoundly affected the lives of young Libyans during that period was the preparation of a project to turn the school buildings into army barracks.⁶⁹ Military education became compulsory in all education from the third year of preparatory to the end of the university, including all the teacher training colleges.

Some Problems of Educational Development in Libya

Education is considered one of the most valued assets by most Libyans today. In addition to the general problem of planning the future development of education in Libya, it would seem there are several other issues which require special attention. Some of these are:

a) As indicated elsewhere in this chapter, qualitative changes in education have not been able to keep pace with the rapid quantitative expansion in Libya. This gap between quantitative expansion and qualitative changes is clearly reflected in the state of curriculum development. While there have been attempts to reform some aspects of the curriculum through meetings of special committees, change of textbooks, supplementary material for courses of study drawn up in previous years, there is still an urgent need to focus attention on the key elements of curriculum development.⁷⁰

b) Another problem facing the Libyan government is the curriculum of Libyan schools at all levels. On the whole there is no regard for individual differences, all children follow the same curriculum and are evaluated by the same standards. Instructional methods and procedures are still traditional, emphasizing memorization rather

than reflective thinking, giving little attention to individual differences, if any, and demanding little library work and independent study. ⁷¹

c) Systematic evaluation along scientific lines is very much lacking from the curriculum process. This applies equally to the evaluation of students and/or teaching performance, as well as the evaluation of content and programmes of study. In the present circumstances, it would be difficult to assess the progress of qualitative changes which might be attempted in several areas of reform. ⁷² Scientific research on the basis elements of the curriculum is not being done, systematic research, using scientific principles, is essential in curriculum work, as in other areas of education.

d) As far as content and methodology are concerned, the curriculum is far too restricted to meet national development goals. There is at present no organized system of technical and vocational education. The accent is on academic learning, and even subjects with a practical component are taught with a largely theoretical bias. ⁷³

e) School organization and administration is highly centralized. The higher administrative positions are still a political consideration and filled by people lacking adequate education and needed administrative competency. ⁷⁴

f) The most immediate administrative problem was the demand for skilled and experienced administrators to operate the local system of education.

g) In administration as well as in curriculum development, the supervisors and the headmasters have a key role to play. However, at the present time they seem to be overwhelmed with so many duties that they would hardly have the time to occupy themselves with essential problems of development. Furthermore, they should have special training for their jobs. ⁷⁵

h) Most Libyan teachers, especially those in the kindergartens, are not qualified for teaching and are in great need of special training and continual in-service training, and it is therefore of some significance to the writer to examine that wider context at the present day. This is attempted in the sixth chapter.

a) The Contemporary Structure, Organisation and Forms of the Libyan Educational System

i) Kindergarten: According to the 1980 Regulations, children 4-6 years of age may attend kindergarten which is hoped to prepare the children for primary education. ⁷⁶

ii) Basic Education (Primary and Preparatory stages) forms the basis of the education ladder. At the beginning of independence, the primary schools were unique in that males and females attended separate schools. Since 1971 - 1972 the schools were made co-educational. In 1971 -72 there were 1,075 co-educational schools. (Tables No.20, 21 and 22 contain the number of primary-preparatory and secondary schools, teachers male and female, pupils). Since 1951, general examinations were given

at the end of six years of study but, in 1971, general examinations were abolished. Since 1971, the student of primary school who failed a level could repeat the year twice, then the student would be passed on to the next year.⁷⁷ The distribution of weekly periods in the elementary and preparatory cycle in 1984 is shown in Tables No.19 and 23. As basic education is a compulsory course since 1971, the Ministry of Education has provided a place for each child who reaches the age of six throughout the country.

iii) Secondary Education: In the light of the current and future huge task called for by the different sectors of the Development Plan,⁷⁸ students completing Basic Education are directed to Technical Schools, General Secondary Schools and Teacher Training Schools as required by that plan, taking into consideration the student's potential and interests.⁷⁹

The General Secondary Stage comprising the science and literary section is still the predominant school. However, as from the academic year 1983 - 1984 stress was laid on appropriate balance between theoretical and practical studies in order to prepare the students for the world of work and continuation of higher studies.⁸⁰ With the new educational structure, the secondary school system will be changed to three specialised branches:

TABLE No. 19 STUDY PLAN IN PRIMARY EDUCATION ACCORDING TO
MINISTERIAL DECREE No. 275 FOR 1984

SUBJECTS	YEARS				5	6
	1	2	3	4		
Islamics	3	3	3	3	3	3
Arabic	10	10	10	10	9	9
Arithmetic and Practical Geometry	6	6	6	6	6	6
Science and Health	1	2	2	3	4	4
Education (Civics Education)	-	1	2	2	4	4
Physical Education	3	3	3	2	2	2
Practical Education (Fine Arts)	2	2	2	2	2	2
Agriculture Domestic Science	-	-	2	2	2	2
Music and Songs	1	1	1	1	1	1
Ideological Education	-	-	-	-	3	3
TOTAL	26	28	31	31	36	36

Source: Secretariat of Instruction, Report on Educational Developments, 1981 - 1983 presented to the International Conference on Education, 39th Session, Tripoli, September 1984, p. 17.

TABLE NO. 20 NUMBER OF TEACHERS ENGAGED AT VARIOUS LEVELS
OF EDUCATION DURING 1978-79 TO 1979-80

Level of Education	Male Teachers		Female Teachers		Total	
	1978-79	1979-80	1978-79	1979-80	1978-79	1979-80
Primary	16949	17932	11280	12557	28229	30489
Preparatory	10247	10607	2743	3096	12990	13703
Secondary	2090	2394	260	429	2350	2823
Technical	822	568	86	69	908	637
Teacher-Training	1833	1591	680	562	2513	2153
Religious Institutes	-	80	-	-	-	80
Centres	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	31941	33172	15049	17071	46990	50243

Source: Ministry of Planning, Education Statistics, 1979-80.
(Table No. 75)

TABLE NO. 21 NUMBER OF SCHOOLS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION
1975-76 TO 1979-80

Level of Education	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80
Primary	2002	2143	2150	2212	2539
Preparatory	499	735	778	922	1025
Secondary	71	83	83	94	131
Technical	12	13	18	31	27
Teacher-training	91	80	88	94	102
Religious Institutes	-	-	-	-	5
Total	2703	3085	3117	3353	3870

Source: Ministry of Planning, Educational Statistics, 1979-80.
(Table No. 74)

TABLE NO. 22
NUMBER OF PUPILS, MALES AND FEMALES IN SCHOOLS,
BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION: 1975-76 - 1979-80

	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Primary	294627	252130	297891	263208	303950	270280	315853	284894	347294	309247
Preparatory	82675	39088	98434	53261	106787	65439	115026	70518	130145	88992
Secondary	13848	3981	15754	4807	17295	5347	20754	6368	28240	10102
Technical	3285	-	4551	499	5455	812	9266	1072	7432	986
Teacher-Training	8490	12258	8603	13116	9115	15038	9923	19212	10509	20718
Religious Institutes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1003	-
Total	405582	309561	428012	337113	442600	356916	470822	388064	529003	433301

Source: Ministry of Planning, Education Statistics, 1979-80, (Tables No. 76 and 77)

- a) Technical Secondary Education;
- b) Vocational Secondary Education;
- c) Teacher Training Schools.

The new system after the basic stage prepares students for a job to enable them to participate in production and to continue their education if they so wish. They will study for four years instead of three in the secondary schools.

iv) Islamic Education: This type of education, as mentioned above, still parallels the general education ladder; the only difference is that the syllabuses stress religious instruction. However, since the academic year 1982-83, admission to Koranic primary school has been curtailed.⁸¹

v) University Education: Libyan higher education serves the country by providing various fields of specialised study within the framework of a comprehensive development plan. In 1973-74 the Faculties in Tripoli became independent. Now there are four universities in Libya:

- University of Al Fatah - Tripoli
 - University of Gar Younis - Benghazi
 - University of Sebha - Sebha
 - University of Najm Sataa (Bright Star), Brega.
- This provides specialised studies in science and technology.

Within the framework of the new educational structure, the university faculty system has been changed to the system of specialised departments or centres. Undergraduate degrees fall into two categories, according to the length of the courses which range from 2 to 3 or 5 years, depending on the nature of specialisation. Table 25 shows the number of students of the universities from 1980 - 1983.

TABLE NO. 23 STUDY PLAN IN PREPARATORY STAGE
ACCORDING TO MINISTERIAL DECREE No. 285, 1984

Subjects	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Islamics	3	3	3
Arabic	7	7	7
English	6	6	6
Maths	5	5	5
Science and Hygiene	4	4	4
History, Geography and Civics	4	4	5
Fine Arts	2	2	2
Handicrafts and Agriculture for Boys and Domestic Science (for girls)	2	2	1
Physical Education	2	2	1
Music and Songs	1	1	1
Basic Training (Military Education)	-	-	4
Total	36	36	39

Source: Secretariat of Instruction, Report on Educational Developments, 1981 - 1983, presented to the International Conference on Education, 39th Session, Tripoli, 1 September, 1984, p. 18.

TABLE No. 24

STUDY PLAN IN SECONDARY GENERAL STAGE
ACCORDING TO THE MINISTERIAL DECREE No. 275
OF THE YEAR 1984

Subjects	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
Islamics	2	2	2	2	2
Arabic	8	10	10	6	6
1st Foreign Language	6	8	8	6	6
2nd Foreign Language	3	7	7	3	3
History	2	2	3	-	-
Geography	2	2	3	-	-
Sociology Introduction	2	2	2	-	-
Philosophy Introduction	-	2	2	-	-
Maths (including Mechanics)	5	-	-	8	8
Physics	3	-	-	4	4
Natural History	2	-	-	3	4
Chemistry	2	-	-	3	4
Development Plan	-	2	-	2	-
Military Education	5	5	5	5	5
Total	42	42	42	42	42

Source: ~~Secretariat of Instruction~~, Report on Educational Developments, 1981 - 1983, presented to the International Conference on Education, 39th Session, Tripoli, 1 September, 1984, p. 19.

TABLE No. 25 DEVELOPMENT OF UNIVERSITY STUDENT NUMBERS FOR THE YEARS 1980-81 TO 1982-83

The Universities	1980 - 81		total	1981 - 82		total	1982 -883		total
	boys	girls		boys	girls		boys	girls	
University of Al-Fatah	7105	2140	9245	7498	3217	10715	9956	3677	13633
University of Gar Younis	7987	1032	10019	8491	2831	11322	8721	3260	11981
University of Sebha	156	33	189	130	32	162	182	36	218
University of Na'jm Sattah	-	-	-	213	-	213	345	-	345

Source: Secretariat of Instruction, Report on Educational Developments, 1981 - 1983, presented to the International Conference on Education, 39th Session, Tripoli, September, 1984, p. 14.

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CHAPTER FIVE

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION IN LIBYA

5.1 Pre-school Education before Libyan Independence

5.1.1 The Islamic Basis of Kuttab Education

Pre-school education started in the Kuttabs, which were existing in Libya in the early times of the arrival of Islam, which are a type of private schools combining kindergarten and primary education.¹ The rudiments of reading and writing, and the memorisation of the Koran were the main subjects taught. Having no papers, the children wrote words in the clay with a stick. Some kuttabs were open all the year, others for only a part of the year.

The curriculum of the Kuttabs was both narrow and shallow. The child was viewed as a passive recipient. Nonetheless, as early as the tenth century, the number of kuttabs in the Muslim World increased on a large scale, until almost every mosque of each village had its own kuttab.² However, in the modern world, this type of education is not considered a satisfactory type of school for beginners and is being replaced by kindergartens and the compulsory sector.³ The teacher in the kuttab was known as the Fighi (religiously-trained teacher) and had to teach all subjects to different age-groups of children in the same classroom helped by an assistant or monitor,⁴ who was usually one of the more able students who would repeat the fighi's lesson for the benefit of the slow learners.⁵ Candlefray Domombynes gives the following description of a typical kuttab:

"At the school he (the pupil) used to learn, to read and then write down the Holy Book by a mechanical effort of the memory. On a small wooden board (Louha) ... he tries to reproduce a passage from the Qur'an which has been given

to him as a model, and which he afterwards learnt by heart, without any attempts being made by anyone to give him an understanding of its meaning, which would, in any case, be beyond his childish understanding, at least he acquired the rhythm and intonation of it. When the text that has filled a single board is fixed in his memory it is wiped out and a new one takes its place". 6

This type of education was only for boys. At that time girls were not permitted to experience formal schooling. The idea was that they should stay home and learn 'womens' duties'. 7

The Koran and the prophet Mohammed both emphasised the importance of the role of the parents in bringing up their children. The prophet himself, for example, had two grandsons. He played with them and they liked to ride on his back and treated him as being their camel. He encouraged them to play because he believed that play is essential for the child's physical and mental health. In this sense, Mohammed was thinking along the same lines as Rousseau many centuries later, who in 1762 stated:

"love childhood indulge its sports, its pleasures, its delightful instincts. Who has not sometimes regretted that age when laughter was forever on the lips and when the heart was forever at peace? ... Why fill with bitterness the early days of childhood, days will no more return for them than for you?" 8

The prophet considered sand as a good material for children to express their feelings, emotions, imaginations and to develop their cognitive abilities. Besides merely playing with sand it helped the child to develop and co-ordinate muscles through such activities, as digging, building and drawing in the sand. One result was that many sand pits were to be found in every square of the city of 'Riad' - now the capital

of Saudi Arabia - for the children to play.⁹ After Mohammed, other Early Islamic philosophers put forward basic principles for child education:

(a) Ibn Sina (980 - 1036 A.D.), in his book "The Law", dealt with early childhood education and suggested that children should not receive any formal education before their sixth birthday. Also he stated that, when the child is 6 years old, he should receive a formal introduction by a tutor or a teacher. Formal teaching should be introduced gradually, otherwise the child will hate it.¹⁰ Ibn Sina emphasised the importance of play as a means of physical and mental development of the child. In so doing, he was like the prophet himself, foreseeing the later writings of Pestalozzi and Froebel, who urged that children should be provided with the opportunity and liberty to develop their spirit through play. For example, Froebel in the nineteenth century wrote:

"Play is the purest, most spirit activity of man at this stage, and at the same time typical of human life as a whole. It gives, therefore, joy, freedom, contentment, inner and outer rest, peace with the world." 11

and again:

"Play is the highest level of child development, it is spontaneous expression of thought and feeling, an expression which inner life requires". 12

(b) Ibn Markawih: (938 - 1030 A.D.) was another early educator and philosopher who, in his book "Disciplinary Education", stated:

"The child should be allowed to play and have physical exercise. This is very essential for the development of the body and the mind, otherwise he will be weak and narrow-minded". 13

again, foreshadowing the ideas that were to come to popularity in the

present century. That is to say, that play is essential for the normal development of the child. As Lawenfeld stated in 1935:

"Play is to a child, therefore, work, thought, art and relaxation, and cannot be pressed into any single format. It expresses a child's relation to himself and his environment, and without adequate opportunity for play, normal and satisfactory emotional development is not possible". 14

(c) Al Emam Al Jassali: (1059 - 1111 A.D.) - In his book "Revival of Moral Education" this writer stressed the importance of the role of parents and teachers in early childhood education. Teachers and parents should he said, be reminded that educating the child does not imply only intellectual development and the acquiring of knowledge, but it should include social and emotional development by building in them good habits, character and moral attitudes.¹⁵

Once more we can jump ahead to the present century to see emphasis in the preschool education being on the physical, social and emotional development of the child with the intellectual development received little attention.¹⁶

El Ghazali began in fact with the child before the age of conventional education:

"The child, he wrote is a trust (placed by God) in the hands of his parents, and his innocent heart is a precious element capable of taking impressions. If the parents and later on the teachers brought him up in righteousness, he would live happily in this world ... If they neglected the child's upbringing and education, he would lead a life of unhappiness in both worlds and they would bear the burden of the sin of neglect ... Al Ghazali's view of the "Maktab" and of what

would be taught in it corresponds to that of his predecessors and current practice in his time. But he supposes them in the high moral standard, he expects from the teacher. He who undertakes the instruction of the young, insists Al Gazali "undertake a great responsibility". He must therefore be as tender to his pupils as if they were his own children. He must correct moral lapses through hinting rather than direct prohibition, gentle advice rather than reproof. Above all, he himself must set an example so that his actions accord with his precepts".

His ideas dominated Islamic educational thought for centuries after his death. We may infer from Al Ghazali's words that in his days enterprising teachers in the Maktab resorted to dramatisation and games in order to hold attention of young children.¹⁸ Linking ahead to the twentieth century we may again find a 'mirror', in this case in the Hadow Report which was published in 1933, which reflects the influence of the educational theories on the development of pre-school education:

"The educational influences in nursery schools derive largely from Froebel, Madame Montessori ... Froebel, whose ideas were largely derived from Rousseau and Pestalozzi, was the first to endeavour to provide a coherent scheme of infant education based on the nature of the child's with a view to improving and supplementing the training given by the mother: Where Montessorian influence prevails, the emphasis is laid on individual effort, sense, training ... The activities of each day are designed to develop the senses and to form right habits".¹⁹

On the morality and techniques of teaching, Al Ghazali had to say that the teacher should treat the children with compassion and to admonish them by gentle hinting, not violent rebuke.²⁰ The children should be allowed to play: without opportunity to play, his basic developmental need will be unsatisfied;²¹ the less-gifted scholar must be taught according to his capacity, and never to be told that there are things beyond him.²²

(d) Ibn Khaldun: (1332 - 1406 A.D.) - Ibn Khaldun produced a new philosophy in his time starting from the first principle:

"Man is a social animal, and his prosecution of learning is conditioned by the nature of the material, intellectual and spiritual civilisation in which he lives". 23

He advised teachers to encourage children not to memorise but to understand by doing, with the gradual importing of knowledge according to the mental capacity of the child.²⁴ According to Tibawi;

"Finally, Ibn Khaldun argues against a popular belief in his time that there is no natural difference between the mental capacity of the Arabs of the east (Arabia, Egypt, Iraq and Syria) and the Arab of the West (North Africa). The difference is in the level of civilisation which is reflected in the different development of mental ability and social maturity. An advanced environment increases intelligence and enlightened thinking". 25

After the death of Ibn Khaldun in 1406 the philosophy of Muslim education remained, on the whole, static. Unfortunately, the Islamic theories of early childhood education mentioned above were based on philosophical ideas only. They were not put into practice in public kindergartens such as nursery schools. Only the traditional kuttab represents an attempt to provide education from age 4 up to the age of 12. Nonetheless, these theories reflect the extent to which Islam was concerned about early childhood education.

5.1.2 Pre-school Education during Ottoman Rule

"During the Ottoman period, the kuttab continued to be the only means of providing education for both young and older children, but a slight change of attitudes in education began to take place in the eighteenth century A.D. and gathered momentum after the industrial revolution. The Ottoman State began to give some attention to education in Libya and opened a few modern schools in order to take the place of the kuttabs".

The first separate kindergarten was established in 1889 with 50 children in attendance. Table No.26 shows the number of children in the kindergarten from 1890 to 1910. Foreign schools (including kindergartens) played an important part in the beginning of this century, in Libya and all over the Arab World as Matthews and Akrawi state:

"Foreign schools were quite independent, and under the Ottoman rule were protected by the regime of the capitulations. They were, to a large extent, a law unto themselves. During the autocratic rule of the Ottoman Sultans, such a situation may have been helpful to more than one liberally-minded teacher or student, but with the rise of national governments, the situation of the schools come to be more and more resented". 27

In this respect, it is very important to note that in the nineteenth century a new type of pre-school education came to exist in Libya through the arrival of European communities who settled in the country to make their gains from the active commercial interchange between the Sudan and Mediterranean via Libya.²⁸ This new type of education became well established before the Italian occupation. Among the first newcomers were the Jews, who established the first modern school in Libya in 1804. In 1810 the Franciscan fathers established a school for Christian children.

5.2.3 From Italian Colonisation to Independence

More Italians moved to Libya and the Italian Government began to intervene in the internal affairs of the country as a prelude to its seizure, especially after Britain and France recovered the Arabic East and Morocco from the Ottoman Empire. At the time, a large number of Italian schools of all types were established; kindergartens, primary secondary and vocational schools. In connection with this matter, Greig stated:

TABLE No.26 NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN KINDERGARTEN FROM
1890 TO 1910

Year	Number of children enrolled
1890	126
1891	124
1892	228
1893	117
1894	121
1895	161
1896	181
1897	177
1898	207
1899	207
1900	208
1901	269
1902	208
1903	258
1904	235
1905	268
1906	258
1907	213
1908	239
1909	252
1910	275

Source: El-Sheigh, 1972, pp. 122-123.

"As the number of Italian immigrants increased so the need was felt for schools other than those organised by the Franciscan fathers and nuns ... By 1904 the pupils attending the Italian Government schools were drawn from many races and creeds with the expectations of Moslems. In order to attract the latter, a special course was opened which included the teaching of Arabic, Italian and French". 29

During the Italian colonisation, (1911 - 1943) a limited public system was developed. According to the 1950 United Nations Commission Report on Italian education in Libya; there were in 1939-40 21 private infant or kindergarten schools in receipt of grants as follows:

a) Tripolitania: Kindergartens

i) Tripoli: kindergarten of the Sisters of St Joseph at Suk el Turk;

ii) Tripoli: kindergarten of the Sisters of St Joseph of the "Cita Giardino";

iii) Tripoli: kindergarten of the Franciscan Sisters of the Via Roma;

iv) Tripoli: kindergarten of the Franciscan Sisters of Dahra;

v) Tripoli: kindergarten of the Franciscan Sisters of Fescilun;

vi) Tripoli: kindergarten of the White Sisters of C. Sicilia;

vii) Zuara: kindergarten of the Franciscan Sisters;

viii) Misurata: kindergarten.

b) Tripolitania: Infant Schools

i) Tripoli: kindergartens attached to the primary teachers training institute;

ii) Tripoli: "Principessa Mafalda" infant school;

iii) Tripoli: Infants School attached to the "Principe di Piemonte" school;

- iv) Tripoli: "Principessa Giavanni" infants' school;
 - v) Tripoli: Infants School attached to the "Trenta" mixed school;
 - vi) Garian: Infants School;
 - vii) Tigrinna: Infants School;
 - viii) Sgaief: Infants School. "United Nations Annual Report," 1950, p. 101.³⁵
- c) Cyrenaica: Kindergartens
- i) Benghazi: Kindergarten attached to the Barka mixed school, conducted by the Ivrea Sisters;
 - ii) Benghazi: "Regina Elena" kindergarten;
 - iii) Tobruk: kindergarten;
 - iv) Derna: kindergarten of the Franciscan Sisters;
 - v) Barce: kindergarten conducted by the Francisanna sisters of the Child Jesus.³⁰

De Marco explained the motives for opening these kindergartens as follows:

"... one motive for standardising education with education in Italy was to attract Italians to the colonies by assuring their children educational opportunities equal to those received in Italy. The Government School for Italians was highly nationalistic; the one predominant purpose of government native education was to Italianise the natives and civilise them according to Italian and Fascist concepts ... And the kindergartens abundantly endowed with Forebelian and Montessori materials".³¹

So there were 9 kindergartens in 1939-1940 in Tripolitania and 5 kindergartens in Cyrenaica; most of them were organised by the Franciscan sisters and the White sisters.³²

TABLE No. 27 NUMBER OF LIBYAN AND NON-LIBYAN
CHILDREN IN KINDERGARTENS IN
1921-22 IN TRIPOLITANIA AND
CYRENAICA

	Boys	Girls	Total	Libyan	Italian	Other Nationalities
Tripolitania	153	233	386	113	195	78
Cyrenaica	69	46	115	3	98	14

Source: 1. Adapted from The Annual Report of the United Nations
Commission 1950, pp. 92-93.

2. El-Shiegh, R. Development of Education in Libya, 1972,
pp. 213-215.

TABLE No. 28 NUMBER OF KINDERGARTENS IN LIBYA IN 1939-40

	Number of Kindergartens
Tripolitania	9
Cyrenaica	5
Total	14

Source: United Nations Annual Report 1950, pp. 101-102.

TABLE No. 29 NUMBER OF GIRLS AND BOYS, LIBYAN AND
NON-LIBYAN CHILDREN IN KINDERGARTEN
IN 1939-40 IN TRIPOLITANIA AND
CYRENAICA

Type of School	Total	Pupils		Nationality		Foreign
		Boys	Girls	Italian	Libyan	
<u>In Tripolitania</u>						
Public Kindergartens	575	362	213	560	4	11
Arab Kindergartens	94	-	94	-	94	-
Jewish Kindergartens	256	68	188	8	2 45	3
<u>In Cyrenaica</u>						
Public Kindergartens	234	121	113	233	1	-
Arabic Kindergartens	-	-	-	-	-	-
Jewish Kindergartens	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: Adapted United Nations Annual Report, 1950, pp. 102-103.

5.2.4 Pre-school Education after Independence

The first two public kindergartens were established as follows:

El Gazalla in Tripoli and El-Skablli in Benghazi. When these two new schools were opened, children of both sexes between the ages of 3 - 6 were accepted for a full day.³³

a) In this concern, the Report of the Mission to Libya in 1952 stated:

"There are only a very few kindergartens. Many Libyans regret this, and I sympathise with them. But in view of the extent of educational requirements and the scarcity of present resources, I think it will be a long time before kindergartens can be developed except by way of experiment, and with a view to evolving methods suited to Libya for the time when the provision of kindergartens can become a general institution".³⁴

There have been several ministerial decrees concerning pre-school education, the first ministerial decree was in 1955. Its main concern was that the Ministry of Education should establish kindergartens all over the country for children of 3 to 6 years. Consequently, the Ministry of Education planned to increase the number of kindergartens and also because of the demand of the working mothers of young children. Additionally, the Government encouraged the private sector to open kindergartens and a private national kindergarten opened in Libya in 1960.³⁵ As the Ministry was most concerned with universalising basic primary education it tended to leave pre-school education to the private sector at this time.³⁶

The following sequence of tables helps to illustrate the growth of kindergartens in post-independence Libya.

TABLE No. 30 NUMBER OF GIRLS AND BOYS IN THE KINDER-
GARTEN AND THE PERCENTAGE OF GIRLS TO
BOYS FROM 1952-53 TO 1961-62

Year	Boys	Girls	Total	Percentage
1952-53	161	220	381	57.7
1953-54	191	247	438	56.4
1954-55	276	422	698	60.5
1955-56	278	389	667	58.3
1956-57	330	465	795	58.5
1957-58	401	506	907	55.8
1958-59	694	908	1602	56.7
1959-60	814	913	1727	52.7
1960-61	1811	3140	3951	54.2
1961-62	1919	2723	4642	58.7

Source: 1. Shegela, 1963, p. 40.

2. El Gamati, 1984, p. 48

TABLE No. 31

NUMBER OF PUPILS AND TEACHERS IN
PRIVATE AND PUBLIC KINDERGARTENS
FROM 1957-58 TO 1968-69

Academic Year	Type of Institution	No. of Institutions	Student Enrolment			No. of Teaching Staff
			Male	Female	Total	
1957-58	Public	7	401	506	907	27
	Private	-	-	-	-	-
1958-59	Public	14	694	908	1602	41
	Private	-	-	-	-	-
1959-60	Public	16	814	913	1727	47
	Private	-	-	-	-	-
1960-61	Public	18	836	984	1820	49
	Private	19	975	1156	2131	80
1961-62	Public	17	817	900	1717	44
	Private	?	?	?	?	?
1962-63	Public	14	684	730	1414	39
	Private	?	?	?	?	?
1963-64	Public	3	349	291	640	19
	Private	21	750	654	1404	25
1964-65	Public	3	354	376	730	21
	Private	18	920	777	1697	50
1965-66	Public	3	399	340	340	15
	Private	20	920	840	1760	52
1966-67	Public	2	270	240	510	15
	Private	21	877	748	1625	63
1967-68	Public	3	387	308	695	18
	Private	24	866	575	1623	66
1968-69	Public	-	-	-	-	-
	Private	18	787	640	1418	42

Source: 1. Ministry of Education, 1974, p. 26 (Adapted).

2. UNESCO World Survey of Education, Paris, 1966, p. 744 (Adapted).

TABLE No. 32 NUMBER OF CHILDREN AND TEACHERS IN
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE KINDERGARTENS
FROM 1969-70 TO 1978-79

Academic Year	Type of Institution	No. of Institutions	No. of Teachers	No. of Children
1969-70	Public Private	- 19	- 39	- 1261
1970-71	Public Private	4 11	21 34	773 592
1971-72	Public Private	9 22	38 64	1453 1185
1972-73	Public Private	23 26	94 (*)	2593 1508
1973-74	Public Private	26 33	182 75	3574 1711
1974-75	Public Private	27 34	175 97	3805 2270
1975-76	Public Private	28 34	240 124	4 761 2871
1976-77	Public Private	31 37	243 117	5484 3235
1977-78	Public Private	34 36	251 116	5370 3242
1978-79	Public -	37 -	320 -	6658 -

- Sources: 1. Ministry of Education, 1974, p. 26.
2. Ministry of Education, 1977, p. 19.
3. Ministry of Education, 1979, pp. 16-18.
4. Mohmed, A., 1983, p. 9.
5. Statistical Abstract of Libya, August 1979, pp. 113-115.

(*) With Primary School Teachers.

Private kindergartens were withdrawn in 1978 (see Table No 32³) and their supervision initially came under the Ministry of Social Affairs. In 1980 the Ministry of Education took over this responsibility,³⁷ and a Department for Kindergarten Education was established to:

- i) supervise the kindergarten provision;
- ii) set up and implement the curriculum of this type of education;
- iii) control its administration, and health matters;
- iv) prepare in-service training programmes for teachers;
- v) provide this provision with the needed equipment.³⁸

A Decree of the General Peoples Committee (Council of Ministers) issued in 1980 concerning the policy of kindergarten education stated in general, the objectives, conditions of admission, teacher qualifications and requirements; child-teacher ratio; number of the administrative staff to each provision, and other aspects of educational activities. The following conditions were included in the said policy:

- i) free of charge enrolment for the children in the kindergarten schools;
- ii) the supervision of the kindergarten is the responsibility of the Regional Education Department;
- iii) Admission is for children who are not handicapped, and who are four years old and less than six
- iv) The aims of pre-school education should be:
 - . pre-school education should help the child to acquire skills and knowledge which will provide a useful basis in primary school;
 - . pre-school education should help the child to express him-

self through language, art and music;

- . pre-school education should help the child to understand the life of people in the society and his home;

- . pre-school education should help the child to understand and gain knowledge about his environment;

- . pre-school education should help the child to develop his abilities to work with others with full confidence.

- . pre-school education should help the child to improve his physical skills;

- . pre-school education should help the child to know his religion;

v) every kindergarten shall have a health unit with a nurse and doctors should visit the kindergarten accordingly;

vi) The Ministry of Education should open a department in all the colleges of education for the training of kindergarten teachers, and in all the departments of education in the Faculties of Education;

vii) All the other decrees should be withdrawn. ³⁹

In 1982, the Ministry of Education submitted a recommendation concerning the new structure for the educational system in Libya, in which pre-school education for the first time was included in the educational ladder. ⁴⁰

b) Aspects of Curriculum in Libyan Pre-Schools

There have been two different programmes in pre-school education in Libya; first the programme established at the end of the nineteenth century, and secondly those developed in government kindergartens.

The curricula of the earlier group were the same as had been developed in Western Europe at the end of the nineteenth century, and the beginning of this century. The daily programme of the school comprises a succession of happy activities and the distinction between work and play disappears. The children play when they think they are working, and work when they think they are playing. The formative influences in these nursery schools derive largely from Froebel, Madam Montessori, the McMillans and Dewey.

With respect to the second group, after independence, the Government encouraged women of young children to go to work and to keep their children in kindergartens. For this reason the new kindergartens in Libya were situated in the main cities.⁴¹

The kindergarten teachers were given a curriculum guide, including teaching some of the rudiments of spelling, arithmetic and natural sciences to all the children, without taking into account individual differences between them. Not surprisingly, therefore, the issue of whether pre-school education should be regarded as a preparation for elementary school or as a place in which a child's developmental needs can be met is still a controversial one in Libya. The aim of kindergarten education should not be instruction in the limited sense, but rather to provide children with a suitable environment for socialisation and healthy development compatible with individual perceptions. The emphasis should be on play, musical and manual activities, without the stress on studies. Nonetheless, in Libya most of the kindergarten teachers have been trained to work with elementary school pupils and so tend to teach subject matter.

In 1974, the Ministry of Education issues A Teachers' Guide to the curriculum of kindergartens, which included the following subjects and activities:

- i) Language Development: This was divided into four sections:
 - . Reading Skills: certain words and phrases were recommended to be taught according to primary methods of teaching;
 - . writing, certain words were recommended to be written;
 - . conversation: emphasis on the daily news by teachers and children;
 - . story telling and drama.
- ii) Religious Education: to memorise some of the Koran, to know about Islam, and the prophet.
- iii) Mathematics: including counting, simple adding, and subtracting with recognising different mathematical shapes.
- iv) Science: including such topics as plants, animals and also with emphasis on establishing hygienic habits.
- v) Drawing and Painting: finger painting, painting with crayons, cutting paper.
- vi) Playing and Games: sport, exercise - outdoors.
 - . free play indoors and outdoors.⁴²

Despite these guidelines, most emphasis has in fact been put on reading, writing and arithmetic (the three Rs) which has led to an over-concentration on those skills in preference to the provision of the other necessary educational activities for pre-school children. So the Libyan kindergarten was developed in ways divergent from the broad aim of the development of all aspects of the young child's personality. The narrowing of focus towards traditional methods may be for the following reasons:

i) the long hours and the detail of suggested curriculum led to emphasis on rote learning and drilling in spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic and memorising the Quoran. The child spent six hours daily in the kindergarten, of which about four hours were devoted to lessons, two hours in organised group activities, meals and very little time in free play.

ii) the kindergarten teachers were trained to work with elementary school pupils on the three Rs, not in how to organise education through structured play.

iii) supervisors of primary schools were visiting the kindergartens and attending lessons.

The result was to overburden the children with endless numbers of words to read and write, numbers to remember and facts about nature to memorise.

When kindergarten education came under the supervision of the Ministry of the Social Affairs, the Ministry changed the curriculum of pre-school education and more emphasis was placed on play activities and socialisation with a special focus on moral education. Two experimental kindergartens were established in 1978, one in Tripoli and the other in Benghazi. The Ministry prepared them with all the materials and equipment from Sweden. Before opening them, the teachers had in-service training by experts from Sweden. When the two new schools began work, children of both sexes between the ages of 3 - 6 were accepted for a full day. In connection with the Ministry of Social Affairs Annual Report in 1979, it was reported that:

"Last year two new experimental kindergartens were opened for boys and girls, in the age between 3 - 6 years. The children spent a full day in the school playing and acquiring good habits. They ate in the school and slept at noon". 43

The curriculum was supposed to reflect theories of child development and what the children should be taught in terms of Libyan society. It was emphasised that teachers should be guided by the child's needs. More specifically, the aims were expressed as:

i) the concept of comprehensive development of the child's abilities was introduced for the first time as one of the aims of the kindergarten education. But the intellectual and the child's mental abilities were to be considered the less important and should be done through pleasurable activities and structured play;

ii) children were allowed to move freely and the teacher should shift from one activity to another, leaving as little time as possible to actual instruction and mental exercise. Too much involvement in mental activity on the kindergarten is detrimental to the child's mentality and health, as it makes him hate the kindergarten and see its bands and chains built around him;

iii) the teacher should utilise all means and every opportunity to develop and train the children's senses;

iv) greater emphasis should be placed on music and songs;

v) the children were trained to control their muscles;

Research was undertaken on children attending one of these schools in 1978 and 1979. It was found that children enjoyed the experience immensely because they may be left to engage freely in whatever play or activity they choose, without constraint of a set of programmes or a fixed curriculum. This conforms to what Dearden 'almost said':

"I do not know the right way to run a nursery school, I only know two wrong ways - child directed and teacher directed". 44

In 1980 kindergarten education returned to the auspices of the Ministry of Education. Since then, the two kindergartens under discussion changed their methods of teaching, with more emphasis on the three Rs. In 1982, the Ministry of Education issued new curricula for the kindergarten. The general guidelines were very similar to those given to the teachers in 1972. The curriculum consisted of a detailed syllabus for religious studies, including the Suras, to be taught to children in the first and second year, with stories to be told from the life of the prophet, Mohammed.

Similarly, the syllabus for the Arabic language was specified, including the number of words to be taught in reading and writing. The syllabuses for arithmetic, science and health and music were also laid down. It was feared that such a reverse in curricula would transform the Libyan kindergarten into a mere school for instruction.

c) Physical Condition of Kindergarten Provision in Libya

A historical review shows that Libyan pre-school education from its beginning has used primary school buildings and rented houses for kindergartens. Even the Ministry of Education when it was formed, neglected to build purpose designed kindergartens. As a result, most of the pre-school buildings were not suitable for very young children to play in, expand their energies and engage in the many different activities of a physical, rhythmic, musical or manual nature that are natural at this stage.

Most of them lacked sufficient built space, playgrounds and gardens.

In particular, most of them lacked the necessary materials and furniture suitable for young children: According to a 1984 report:

"The existence of kindergartens does not meet the measurement requirements which have been approved by the Studies Evaluation Committee for Local Planning regarding kindergarten schools, which are:-

- (a) This type of education has to serve those children of 4 - 6 years old;
- (b) This type of education has to be for both sexes, boys and girls;
- (c) There should be one kindergarten per 4,000 of population or 2 kindergartens provision per each primary school;
- (d) The space per each child should be 25 to 30 sq. m.
- (e) The number of children per classroom should not be far more than 20 children;
- (f) It should not be far from the residential area - more than 500 metres". 45

All the official statistics from the Ministry of Education stated that by 1984 Libya still lagged behind other Arabic countries. In 1983 - 84, there were only sixty-four kindergartens with 338 classes, with an enrolment of 13101 and a teaching total of 809. This gave a teacher-child ratio of 1:39.⁴⁶ Most of the 64 kindergartens were still in the major cities from the 64 kindergartens: Tripoli (14), Benghazi (14), Musrata (6), Derna (5), which means that 60.9% of the kindergartens were in four cities, leaving only 39.1% for the rest of the country. It is not surprising, therefore that in 1984 several significant cities had no kindergartens; major centres such as Tobruk, El Fatah, Saf el Gein, Kafa, Tarhona, Ufran, Kdumas, El Shati and Marzak.⁴⁶ In summary, the kindergartens are very limited, indeed inadequate in both quality and quantity. The buildings are simply not suitably designed for this kind of education.⁴⁷

TABLE No. 33 THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN THE DIFFERENT
CITIES BY AGE IN 1981 - 82 IN THE FIRST
YEAR

	Less than 4 years	4 years	5 years	More than 5 years	Total
Derna	78	380	188	20	666
El Gabul ElkKdor	161	90	82	-	333
Benghazi	273	1242	30	-	1545
Mostata	-	105	46	25	176
Azletein	-	94	-	-	94
El Gafra	-	312	50	-	362
Tripoli	-	1228	2	-	1230
El Zawai	-	81	24	6	111
A Z Wara	-	63	-	-	63
Koryain	-	106	-	-	106
El Kamas	-	261	-	-	261
Egdabia	-	179	-	-	179
Total	512	4141	422	51	5126

Source: Ministry of Education Statistics, 1981 - 82, p. 8.

TABLE No. 34 THE NUMBER OF KINDERGARTENS IN THE
DIFFERENT REGIONS* OF LIBYA IN
1983 - 84

	No. of kindergartens	No. of children	No. of teachers
Tobruk	-	-	-
Derna	5	1123	98
El Gobel Elakdor	2	272	13
El Fateh	-	-	-
Benghazi	14	2558	216
Sort	-	-	-
Saff El Gain	-	-	-
Mostata	6	680	24
Azleiten	3	276	9
El Gafra	6	248	18
El Kamos	2	623	34
Tarhna	-	-	-
Tripoli	14	4859	284
El Zawai	2	368	20
Zawara	3	236	20
Karyain	1	301	12
Hone	-	-	-
Kadamaz	-	-	-
Sabaha	1	206	6
El Shati	-	-	-
Obari	1	35	1
Marzok	-	-	-
El Kofra	-	-	-
El Azazzai	2	160	10
Egdabai	2	429	24

* There are 25 regions in Libya. The kindergartens are in 15 regions, meaning that 10 regions are without kindergartens.

Source: Ministry of Education, 1985.

For all these reasons, the Ministry of Education in the five-year plan 1981 - 85 designated 72 million dinars for establishing 200 new kindergartens. These schools are supposed to be established to very high standards, fully equipped, with very big gardens and playgrounds, and spacious rooms for indoor activities. By 1986, 73 such kindergartens had been constructed and commenced work in the 1986-87 school year.

d) Contemporary Libyan Kindergartens: a brief resume

Each kindergarten has its own daily programme which is designed by the class teacher and should cover reading, writing, arithmetic, science, religion, a short time for play, and the children have a short time for having a light meal. They bring it from their houses, or prepare it in the school. All the kindergartens open from 8 30 in the morning and they should open for not less than five hours.

During the history of kindergarten education in Libya, the perceived role of the kindergarten has changed significantly. The purpose of establishing a school for children of pre-school age was explicitly given by the foreign communities which settled in Libya from the nineteenth century, as providing the children with the care, the moral education, the training in good health and hygienic habits, and the social manners that a good family would be expected to provide for its children. Later, when the Government opened its own kindergartens more emphasis was placed on formal instruction and preparation for primary education. The large increase in numbers of children from 1978 to 1985, (due to the Ministry of Education decision in 1978 regarding free education for pre-school education), resulted in the decision to abolish private schools and due to the Qadhafi Green Book, no more 'nannies' were to be allowed to look after children.

TABLE No. 35 NUMBER OF KINDERGARTENS AND TEACHERS
AND CHILDREN FROM 1979 - 80 TO
1984 - 85

	No. of kindergartens	No. of children			Teachers		Total
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
1979-80	40	4109	3541	7650	-	396	396
1980-81	47	5475	5174	10649	-	569	569
1981-82	49	5514	4892	10405	-	599	599
1982-83	52	6242	5632	11874	-	659	659
1983-84	64	6642	6459	13101	-	809	809
1984-85	87	9412	7930	17342	-	876	876

Source: Ministry of Education Statistics:

1. From 1979-81, p. 1.
2. From 1981-82, p. 2.
3. From 1982-83, p. 4.
4. From 1983-84, p. 5.
5. From 1984-85, p. 1.
6. Kindergarten Department, 1985, p. 1.

Despite all these factors, there has been a great increase in the number of children in kindergartens in Libya. It was not sufficient to meet demands only in big cities like Tripoli and Benghazi, where many women go to work. It is also not acceptable that some classes have a ratio of teacher to children of as high as 1:55, such pressures adversely affected the quality of educational experience in these kindergartens. In short, many children have been prevented from receiving good practice in their pre-school. Only very recently has a change of policy occurred that should be capable of meeting the needs of the pre-school age group in Libya.

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CHAPTER SIX

THE NATURE AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE TEACHER TRAINING SECTOR IN LIBYA AND ITS RELATIONSHIPS WITH PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

6.1 Introduction

It is contended that the development and the quality of a nation depends on the quality of its citizens and how they are effectively educated to bear the responsibilities of citizenship. If this is true, as the writer strongly believes, then the first and the most important task of any nation is to provide the best possible educational opportunities for its children, youth and adults. This degree of commitment to education depends on many factors, including an effective and progressive philosophy, progressive and functional instructional curricula and materials, and at least adequate school buildings and other physical facilities.

Undoubtedly the most important of all these factors is the effective and well-prepared teacher, without whom all other provision, whatever its significance will surely fail to produce an effective education. It follows that development and improvement of teacher education in any educational system is the most important step towards improving that system overall. Believing in this principle, the writer selected the preparation of kindergarten teachers in her country, Libya, as the main theme of her study in the hope that her efforts, together with the efforts of all who are similarly concerned, would be of direct help in the improvement of the whole educational system of her country.

Before discussing the evaluation of teacher education in Libya after independence, it might be desirable to give a brief description of teacher preparation before independence.

6.2 Teacher Education During Arabic Rule

Before the Ottoman conquest there was no formal teacher preparation.

According to El Shabani:

"In most instances, the teacher of the kuttab was the leader of the mosque who taught the children of the community, in addition to performing his religious duties in the mosque ... In spite of the fact that there were no exact qualifications for the "kuttab" teacher, there were some minimum qualifications - among them were: to know how to read and write, to have memorised the Holy Koran and to have studied the basic laws and principles of Islam, as well as to have good character. There was no external authority prescribing and defining the qualification of the teacher". 1

Throughout this long period which lasted for approximately nine centuries there was as we have seen, no public education as we know it today.

Religion was the focal point and basic motive for education. Consequently teaching was a most rewarded and praised activity by the Islamic religion. Highest rewards were promised in the hereafter for those who taught others their knowledge and wisdom. Finally, the development of education in this period might have been influenced by many factors, such as war and peace, political stability, and the sympathy and encouragement of the numerous ruling regimes that controlled the Islamic world in general, and Libya in particular, as well as the transition movement which began in this period, and through which thousands of books in various areas of human knowledge were translated from Greek, Latin, and many other languages.

6.3 Teacher Education During Turkish Rule

A brief description of teacher education at the transition has been given by El Shabani as follows:

"When modern public education was established in the last decade of Turkish rule, this initiation created the need for teachers capable of teaching in the new established schools. To meet this need, Turkish authorities relied mostly, at the beginning, on their own Turkish officers and civilians who were used as teachers in the modern schools teaching the modern subjects in Turkish. However, they also utilised some Libyans who had graduated from the traditional religious institutes to teach Arabic language and Religion. In the last decade of the nineteenth century, the first teacher-training school in Libyan history was inaugurated. Sixty teacher-trainees were enrolled in this reformed teacher-training school in 1910 - 1911." 2

This was in Tripoli, and a second teacher-training school was established in Benghazi, but the effect of the two institutions was probably minimal. Nonetheless, it is worth noting the comments of a representative of the Italian Government in his report as follows:

"In 1890, Turkey sent to Tripoli an official with the rank of superintendent of schools, to open new schools, he thought fit. He founded a teachers' training school, candidates for admission to which were required to be able to write and read, to know the Koran by heart and possess some elements of language and religious knowledge:

The courses were for two years and were given in Turkish; the school had only one teacher and the results it achieved were insignificant.

In 1897, the Tripoli School of Arts and Crafts was established and still exists as the Moslem Foundation. When the young Turks took power, they wished to show that they were reformers. They abolished the teachers' training school and set up a new institution according to the European model, staffing it with capable civil and military instructors". 3

In this connection, Mohammed Naji wrote:

"Under the enlightened rule of Muhammed Hafiz pasha, the Ottoman Wali Governor of Tripoli, modern education in Libya may be said to have begun. Two primary schools for boys were opened and one for girls. A training school for teachers was set up and most important, vocational school for the manufacturing of shoes, silk, and for carpentry and printing were opened in Tripoli". 4

However, these schools were inadequate in terms of meeting the problem and needs of the Libyan people:

"They were dominated by Turkish tendencies and served the promotion of the cause of the Turkish Army and the Turkish Administration of the country". 5

6.4 Teacher Education During the Italian Occupation

According to De Marco,

"One of the main educational problems confronted by the Italian Government in its colonies was the problem of securing adequate and competent personnel for its native schools". 6

In Libya, from the very beginning of occupation in 1911 - 12, there occurred much experimentation in an attempt to solve the problem of teaching personnel.

"While for the most part teaching was entrusted to teachers of the State and to natives, the requirements for teaching in Government schools for natives and the means of recruiting teachers differed from time to time". 7

Teachers for the religious primary and upper institutions were trained in the same way as during the period of Turkish occupation. El-Shabani has described the development of teacher education during the Italian occupation as follows:

"For the Italian-Arab schools, there were two types of teachers - Italian teachers and Arab teachers. The Italian teachers whose responsibility it was to teach Italian and geography of Italy, and modern subjects in general were usually trained in the Italian normal schools in Italy or in Libya. The Arab teachers, whose responsibility it was to teach the Arabic curriculum in the second half of the school day, were recruited mostly from the graduates of religious institutions. They possessed some skills in speaking and writing Italian and had some elementary

knowledge and skills in Arithmetic and Libyan geography, in addition to their language and religious education. Some of these teachers had been trained in Turkish normal schools in Libya. Still another source of Arab teachers this period was the graduates of the Italian-Arab schools who studied Arabic and religion in some of the available religious institutes after their graduation. This incidental preparation of Arab teachers continued to be a common practice throughout the period of the Italian rule". 8

However, very important progress towards modern teaching methods and teacher training took place in the last decade of Italian rule. This progress came as a result of many factors. Among them were the following:

- a) Expansion in schools and student enrolment;
- b) The desire of the Italian authorities to improve modern educational facilities for the Arabs and this improvement could be achieved only through improvement of Arab teacher preparation;
- c) The need felt for qualified Arab teachers to meet the expansion of the Italian-Arab schools. Another description of teacher education during that time has been provided by De Marco:

"For many years after 1914 no effective policy was followed with reference to recruiting or training natives for service in Government schools for natives. The educational legislation of 1914 and 1915 which contained detailed instructions for education in Libya made only minor reference to native teachers, but did sanction the establishment of a school of Moslem culture, one purpose of which was to be the training of native teachers ... In Tripolitania from 1922 - 28, it was decided to give temporary appointments for teaching to natives adjudged cultured and capable. In Cyrenaica the educational ordinance of 1927 sanctioned middle schools whose objectives were (a) the training of kuttab teachers; (b) the preparation of merchants, accountants, and native functionaries ... The Royal Decree of May 13, 1935 instituted and provided the detailed plan for establishing the higher Islamic school in Tripoli (al madrasah al-islamiyyah al-ulya) for the study of Islamic

"Juridical and religious doctrines and of disciplines necessary to the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools for Libyan citizens.

Of course, this school was a multi-purpose institution but since one of its basic purposes was to train Moslem teachers for Moslem elementary schools, it can be considered as a teacher-training school." 9

As provided by decree, education was to be composed of a three-year preparatory course. In order to obtain a teaching licence, it was not necessary to go beyond the four-year middle course. The programme of studies was generally for the first five years and commenced specialised training for teachers only in the last two years of the middle course. The preparatory course offered instruction in the following: religion; Arabic language; logic and morals; Italian language; history and geography; mathematics; science and hygiene. The last two years of the four-year middle course, was to be divided into two sessions, one for preparation of teachers for the elementary schools for Moslems, and the other for the native functionaries. The last two years of the session were specifically devoted to the preparation of teachers, with pedagogical and didactic principles, Moslem law and juridicial procedure to the fore.

The aforementioned Annual Report of the United Nations Commission in Libya described the education of teachers during the Italian occupation as follows:

"The last two years of the secondary course (article 5 of Decree o. 165) were subdivided into two sections, the first for the training of teachers at Moslem elementary schools and the second for the training of Libyans for the public service. The subjects taught were as follows:

Religion (reading of the Koran-Taqmid; tawhid dogmatics; the Life of the Prophet; external religious obligations, (badat; Arabic (grammar, composition, rhetoric, ma ani, bayain, badi, versification - el awid wal-quawaff, writing, Italian, History and Geography, Arithmetic, geometry and book-keeping, elementary science and hygiene.

The curriculum of the teachers' training section in addition included the elements of pedagogics. ... The "principessa Maria Pia" school for Moslem nurses was founded in January 1936 ... The school came under the Commune of Tripoli as regards administration. It came under the Managing Board of the Hospital as regards technical matters - vocational and medical training - and under the superintendent of schools, as regards teaching and general education. The medical training ... was given in the hospital itself by specially-appointed doctors. General education was given in the school by an Italian woman teacher and by a Moslem woman.

The school provided two courses: a preparatory course (up to the age of 14 years) and a vocational course attended by pupils who had reached the age of 14 years". 10

During the Italian occupation in the year 1934 - 35, there were in Tripoli about 90 native teachers and 106 provisional teachers of Italian nationality serving in the Government schools for Moslems. In Cyrenaica there were 45 natives and 35 Italian teachers in the Government native schools. In fact the Italian administration made remarkable progress toward better teacher preparation:

"This progress was achieved through the medium of in-service education courses, supervision and inspection, and finally the establishment of Islamic Higher School in Tripoli, which among its main purposes, was to prepare elementary school teachers for the Italo-Arab schools". 11

The changes made in the new organisation were based on the promise of a stable school population, with a view to the establishment of schools of various kinds, and provision for the engagement of Moslem-Arab teachers who were, in all cases, to be selected from among persons holding an elementary teaching diploma and were required to pass an aptitude test by a special commission. 12

6.5 Teacher-training During the British and French Administration

Steel-Greig described the development of teacher education in this period as follows:

"The problem of education in Libya, as elsewhere in the Middle East, is basically a problem of Arab teachers. During 1944, the training of Arab teachers commenced. At the first course held, 76 candidates were enrolled and 77 in the second, but in 1945 only 45 candidates presented themselves ... During the summer of 1945 a party of 16 teachers was sent to Egypt for a short course in school management and educational psychology. The results on the whole were good ... During the summer of 1946, courses were held and in September an examination was conducted open to both teachers and outsiders". 13

In addition to the short courses arranged for some in-service teachers, the Ministry of Education of Tripolitania established a training secondary school at Tripoli in 1948, then, in 1950, it established a teacher-training centre in Sidi Mesri also in Tripoli. The status and the practices of this centre were described by Professor Le Tourneau as follows:

"At this centre, there are 168 trainees ...

The teaching staff consists of a palestinian director and 15 teachers, 10 of them Palestinian and 5 Libyans ... The students, divided into three years. First year: 84 students divided into three sections; second year 58 students divided into two sections; third year 29 students, who spent one year in the training section of the secondary school before the establishment of the

teachers' training centre. All these trainees have had only a primary education, concluding with the school-leaving examination, by a board composed of teachers from the centre and members of the Ministry of Education. From this year onwards, they must undertake in writing to serve at least three years in public education.

In the first year, their training is mainly a general one; in the second and third years, theoretical and practical pedagogical training takes a more important place. For the time being, practical work in physics, in chemistry and biology is very restricted owing to the lack of laboratory equipment; physical training occupies a small place and agricultural teaching can only be theoretical since the centre possesses neither a suitable piece of land nor the necessary implement". 14

As there was no school annexed to the centre, the trainees had to go out to various schools in Tripoli to gain practical experience, which means that a great deal of time was wasted. Furthermore, the library was poor, being particularly short of books in Arabic.

In order to improve the standard of teaching in the girls' schools, which were much lower than that at the boys' schools because of the more serious shortage of women teachers, the Ministry of Education established a similar teacher-training centre for girls in Tripoli in October 1950. Initially for two years of study only, a third year was introduced from October 1952. There were 26 trainees, of whom 16 were boarders. According to Le Tourneau:

"The centre is not only an institution for girls which might serve as a model for the whole of Libya; it is also the only educational establishment where a really effective school medical service exists". 15

The subjects studied and the number of weekly classes in each subject in three years of the Men and Women Teacher Training Centre at Tripoli are shown

in Tables 37 and 38.

The purpose of these two teacher-training schools in Tripoli was to produce teachers for elementary schools. However, they in fact produced no teachers during this period! Le Tourneau described the development in teacher education in Cyrenaica as follows:

"The Ministry of Education of Cyrenaica from initiating some type of pre-service and in-service training to improve the quality of the Libyan elementary teachers in two ways:

(i) by establishing a training section at the Benghazi secondary school; in the morning the pupils attend the general education classes held in the school during the first year, and the afternoon they receive training in teaching. This course was attended by 35 pupils during the year 1950 - 51.

(ii) by organising at Mersa Susa (Apollonia) since 1950, a holiday training course for teachers already occupying posts; the main subjects taken are history and geography, physical training, handicrafts, Arabic and English.

The Ministry further proposes to set up in the near future a regular teachers' training centre at Benghazi, where 50 young people will be able to follow a year's course of intensive training ...

During the year 1950 - 51, the Ministry of Education organised a girls' secondary class at Benghazi, which is attended in the afternoons by the majority of the Libyan women teachers holding posts in the town". 16

Concerning Libyan secondary school teachers, as in Tripolitania, no training whatever was provided by the Cyrenaican government in Libya itself. However, some scholarships were provided for study abroad.

/ The French administration completely failed to train any teachers, all they did was to send a few young Fezzanese to Algeria to receive

TABLE No 36 NUMBER OF STUDENTS (MALES AND FEMALES)
IN THE TEACHER-TRAINING COLLEGES FROM
1947 - 48 TO 1951 - 52

YEAR	No. of students in the General Training College			No. of students in the Special Training College			No. of teachers
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
1947-48	20	-	20	-	-	-	4
1948-49	40	-	40	-	-	-	5
1949-50	27	-	27	-	-	-	3
1950-51	89	26	115	-	-	-	12
1951-52	167	26	193	-	-	-	26

Source: Ministry of Education, 1974, p. 22.

TABLE No. 37

WEEKLY TIMETABLE OF THE TEACHER TRAINING
CENTRE 1952

Subjects	No. of lessons per week (each 45 minutes)		
	First Year	Second Year	Third Year
Arabic	6	6	6
Religion	2	2	2
English	5	5	5
Mathematics	5	5	5
Physics and Chemistry	2	2	2
Practical Work	1	1	1
Biology	2	2	2
Practical Work in Biology	1	1	1
History	3	3	3
Geography	2	2	2
Civics	2	-	-
Agriculture	2	1	1
Practical Work in Agriculture	1	1	1
Physical Education	2	1	1
Drawing	1	1	1
Educational Theory (Child Psychology)	2	6	6
Educational Practics	-	4	4
Total	39	43	43

Adapted: Le Tourneau, R., "Libyan Education and its Development",
Report of the Mission to Libya, 1952, p. 58

TABLE No. 38 . TIMETABLE OF THE WOMEN'S TEACHER
TRAINING CENTRE IN 1951

Subjects	No. of lessons per week (each 45 minutes)	
	First Year	Second Year
Arabic	8	8
English	8	7
Religion	2	2
Mathematics	6	5
History	2	2
Geography	2	1
Elementary Sciences	2	2
Hygiene	1	1
Infant Welfare	-	1
Domestic Science	-	4
Needlework	2	-
Drawing	2	1
Psychology	-	1
Physical Education and Singing	1	1
Total	36	36

Adapted from: Le Tourneau, op. cit., p. 59

additional general instruction before learning to teach.

Teacher-training in this sense continued to be under-developed and only insignificant efforts were made in this respect. This weakness should not be interpreted to imply that the authorities were to blame or that they did not do their best to promote and improve the educational opportunities for the Libyan children and youth:

"The British Government, which administrated most of Libya on behalf of the United Nations after World War II, expanded educational services for Libyans, preparatory, secondary, and technical schools were opened, but because of a lack of funds and teachers, these facilities were available only in some coastal areas". 17

6.6 Teacher Education Since Libyan Independence I: 1951 - 1969

Despite priority being given to the solution of educational problems by the Government which allocated a major portion of its income to this end, and had further earmarked substantial sums in its five-year development plan for promotion of education at all levels, it was possible for a UNESCO report to say in 1966 that:

"Considerable progress had been made, but much remains to be done, particularly in the field of teacher-training". 18

In fact, pre-service teacher-training had been crippled by the low standard of the entrants. For many years, primary school certificates had been accepted and this meant a four-year course to develop an individual into a trained teacher with a diploma. In connection with this matter, Vietmeyer stated:

"The training of students prior to entry to Teachers' Institutes is vital in any education system. The standard of entry to a Teachers' Institute should be set high and should be increased gradually to include only those students who have been through to the end of secondary school and who hold the passing certificate for that area of the education system. At the moment, of course, this is still quite impossible because not enough young people are getting through to secondary education". 19

The health of the whole educational system depends upon the soundness of teacher education which may serve either as a potent reinforcer of the status prevailing in schools or as an aggressive force for innovation and change for the better. Early education is the foundation upon which all subsequent education depends, hence the absence of certain learning experiences not only determine the capacity of children for further education but also may permanently inhibit the learning of certain skills at a later date.

Bloom confirms the generally held view that the early years are the most important in the growth and development of the humanbeing. He also affirms that 50 per cent of all growth in human intelligence takes place between birth and the age of four; another 30 per cent occurs between ages 4 and 8 and the remaining 20 per cent between 8 and 17. ²⁰ If this conventional wisdom is accepted then the position and role of teachers must also be of prime significance. The contemporary system of teacher education in Libya is a result of a number of different programmes introduced over the years, and reflects the country's pragmatic attempts to counter a deficient provision on independence. As enrolment increased, teachers had to be found to staff the schools. Like other countries, especially 'emerging' states:

"Libya in its turn has been doing its very best to supply suitable trained personnel to various areas of its education system". 21

Farley described the development of primary teacher-training in Libya as follows:

"An exploding demand for education meant in turn devising ways and means of increasing the supply of desperately needed trained teachers. In 1950, the Ministry of Education set up a teachers' training centre at Sidi Mesri, near Tripoli. The Government set up a teachers' training section in Benghazi secondary school and refresher courses for teachers already at work. Libya secured international assistance. It called upon University of Libya graduates to fill the teacher gap. The Government built men's and women's teacher training colleges and a higher teachers' training college to train teachers for secondary schools. Between 1950 - 51 and 1962 - 63, the number of students in teachers' training institutes increased from 89 to 1,919, in addition there were 376 special teachers in training. The total number of teachers at all levels, excluding that of the University, had jumped from 1,028 in 1950 - 51 to 6,317 in 1962 - 63. Yet the desperate demand for teachers remained a troublesome problem". 22

In the first four years of operation of the new system, students were admitted by examination after completion of the fifth grade in the primary school and were presented with diplomas as teachers after completing a four year course at the college.²³ The standard of admission was raised in 1955 - 56, with the institution of the requirement that the student must first have received the certificate for finishing the six primary grades. Table shows the growth of this sector over 20 years or so from Independence. The graduates of men's and women's teacher-training colleges were considered qualified to teach in the kindergartens and primary schools. Nonetheless, the afore-

mentioned International Bank Mission criticised teacher education because of the low admission standards, they stated:

"The number of teachers graduating from the existing colleges appear 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 teachers' 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. Normally a prospective teacher should be expected to have had at least nine years in ordinary schooling before he enters a training college, and this should be the objective for the existing colleges in Libya, to be achieved in stages. Instruction at the colleges would then, in effect, be on the secondary rather than on the preparatory level.

... programmes of rural teacher-training should be separated from those of urban teachers and be transferred to the agricultural schools, at el Aweila in Cyrenaica ... and candidates should be selected mainly those who are themselves from rural areas. Although the course of study in rural teachers' training would follow the general three-year curriculum for other primary school teachers, special emphasis should be given to agricultural and other rural subjects ... Finally, in order to maintain standards of teacher, a selected number of rural school inspectors should be appointed and given one-year of intensive training in an agricultural school". 24 .

According to the 1954 Regulation, five conditions were required for admission in the General Men and Women's Teacher Training Institutes, as follows:

- a) successful completion of an elementary school;
- b) the student's age should be, at enrolment, not less than fourteen years and not more than eighteen years;
- c) passing of a medical examination;
- d) passing a personality examination (through personal interview);
- e) agreeing, in writing, together with his father or his sponsor to continue study at the institute until completion, and to serve at least six years in public education after getting his diploma.

According to the Ministry of Education in 1966, it was realised that quality is desired besides quantity, and its trying to improve both:

"But the quality of education was effected by many factors ... training of teachers, attitudes of students, school facilities, technical inspection, suitable books, school administration ... and it was more, therefore, much more difficult to influence". 25

It was clearly realised that properly trained teachers, specially if there is an opportunity for them to increase their qualifications and to attain in-service training, constitute a vital segment of the community. However it is true that most of the Libyan elementary teachers have been trained at a very low standard,²⁶ whereas a secondary school certificate, as a minimum entry qualification for each trainee teacher was; according to Vietmeyeras early as 1968 the long term aim of the Libyan Ministry of Education.²⁷ With a secondary certificate each trainee should have already a considerable background of the basic subjects, together with a knowledge of some of the cultural bases of education. More time can then be employed in dealing with professional skills as opposed to subject acquisition. In a situation such as this

TABLE No.39

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS
AND TEACHING STAFF IN GENERAL AND SPECIAL
TEACHERS' TRAINING INSTITUTES FROM 1952-
53 TO 1973-74

Academic Year	No. of pupils in General Teacher-Training Institutes			No. of Pupils in Special Teacher Training Institutes			No. of Teachers
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
1952-53	291	89	380	-	-	-	36
1953-54	394	190	584	-	-	-	47
1954-55	641	199	840	30	-	30	66
1955-56	872	198	1070	55	-	55	84
1956-57	881	252	1133	198	-	198	94
1957-58	1013	287	1300	200	-	200	128
1958-59	1089	275	1364	312	-	312	129
1959-60	1268	297	1565	316	-	316	162
1960-61	1416	375	1791	362	-	362	172
1961-62	1376	430	1806	365	-	365	157
1962-63	1376	543	1919	376	-	376	229
1963-64	1149	763	1822	576	9	585	207
1964-65	724	692	1416	941	31	972	195
1965-66	957	1142	2099	1161	70	1231	270
1966-67	1508	1647	3155	1392	134	1526	380
1967-68	1551	2113	3664	1435	155	1590	486
1968-69	1134	1997	3131	1822	206	2028	466
1969-70	1013	1472	2485	2036	204	2240	556
1970-71	1058	1172	2830	2334	213	2547	463
1971-72	1532	1641	3173	2555	256	2811	518
1972-73	4378	3726	8104	2525	361	2886	989
1973-74	5656	7031	12687	2376	543	2919	1193

Source:

Ministry of Education, An Historical Study
on the Development of Education in the Libyan Arab Republic from
the Ottoman Period to the Present Time, Tripoli, 1974, p. 39.

where hundreds of teachers were required, no nation could be expected to develop an ideal solution, and Libya was certainly no exception.²⁸ Nevertheless, there continued to be general dissatisfaction with the standards of teacher trainees, in Libya, with the work of the trained teachers and with the quality of educational attainment in general.²⁹ The curricula at the Teachers' Institute needs to be under constant moderation so as to relate it to the latest knowledge and methods in the world of education. In fact, the curriculum introduced in various teachers' training colleges in Libya, was neither adapted to the needs of the would-be teachers, nor to the needs of the country as a whole. It tended to be too academic and to neglect the problems of practical method and classroom organisation.³⁰ The subjects taught were themselves of little relevance to the future needs of the prospective teachers who, as is the case in most Libyan schools, tend to memorise facts rather than understand the real issues. On this problem, Vietsmeyer makes the following points:

"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 ... many subjects and areas essential to the development of individuals, are just not possible under such a system".³¹

In short, most curriculum contents adopted by teachers' training colleges in Libya were out of date, irrelevant to current and future problems and above all, ignored the fact that we live in a time of rapid growth.³² Methods of teaching are essentially the same in kindergartens, primary and preparatory stages of Libyan schools.

"In the main, methods are based on the initiative and activity of the teacher in the classroom. Little emphasis is laid on student activity". 33

According to Zarrugh, some 20 years after Libyan independence, a considerable number of teachers still knew no way of teaching but lecturing and memorising:

"There are many teachers - among those who teach in the teachers' training colleges - whose teaching is nothing but chalk and talk, or even nothing but talk". 34

Vietmeyer takes the progressive line much further:

"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 lectures 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". 35

He went further to take on a Platonic time scale for the formal education necessary to the development of individual Libyans so that:

"in 20 or 30 years' time, when it is their turn to be responsible for the nation's future, they will have sufficient flexibility of mind to rank among the foremost in the advancement of the world's science, mathematics and language attainments, thus will Libya become a leading, instead of a developing country". 36

Was Vietmeyer exaggerating the potential value of investment of teacher education. At the period during which he was writing, this was certainly not so for there were those people who believed that any reform in education should begin and end with the teacher whose quality leaves

profound influence upon the quality of education at schools. Some writers even went further to claim that there is a sort of functional relationship between the academic and professional qualifications of teaching and the level of development or quality of education in schools. The most enthusiastic proponent of this position was Beeby:

"There are two strictly professional factors that determine the ability of an educational system to move from one stage to a higher one, they are:

- (a) the level of general education of the teachers in the system, and
- (b) the amount and kind of training they have received". 37

Silberman widened this view to make it more precise and include pre-school education:

"The preparation of teachers begins not at college but in kindergartens or first grade. Teachers-to-be have spent some 10,000 hours in direct contact with elementary and secondary school teachers by the time they begin their first year of college. Unless special arrangements are taken, teachers-to-be are almost bound to teach in the same way as their teachers taught them". 38

and other educationists throughout the world were broadly in agreement that teachers and their education are the principle substances behind any effort, made anywhere for the ultimate improvement of educational systems.³⁹ One of the most respected experts of the day, Combs, claimed that it was possible to bring some improvement to the quality of education in a country by spending more money building new schools, introducing new courses or instructional aid etc., but the real change would, he said, come about only as teachers change.⁴⁰ Probably the foremost British teacher educator of this period of progressive and

expanding period was Ross, whose view was that:

"Any expansion or improvement of the national system of education is most closely bound up with the recruitment and training of teachers".⁴¹

Within such an international environment it was not surprising that in Libya the view was held that if teaching is to progress on a sound basis in the schools, the teacher should be free to work out his own technique according to all the circumstances involved at any particular time. To reach this level of professionalism, the system needs highly-qualified personnel to be free to use these techniques with skill, sound judgement and confidence. To make them into true educators. At the core of the training of all future Libyan teachers was pedagogy, based on advanced studies in psychology and the social sciences.

In 1965, there were about 1,000 foreigners teaching in Libya, more than 50 per cent of them Egyptians, so that trained native teachers were a kind of 'minority'. Consequently, at the lower educational levels where the government emphasised the use of indigenous talent, numerous unqualified teachers were employed. For example, of the 2,658 elementary teachers in the Western Region during the 1962-63 academic year, 41 per cent did not have their teaching diplomas and 53 per cent only held the general teaching diploma (signifying only three years of teacher-training after the primary school level).⁴² Along with the expansion of provision, the standard of teaching declined as the number of inexperienced teachers increased. In any case, the untrained teachers, were poorly paid and consequently worked without enthusiasm or hope.⁴³ In 1966, efforts were made to encourage this large band of unqualified teachers to acquire their diplomas through further study part-time, the

suggested period being eight to ten years. The standard of primary school teachers was low, but the immediate task was clearly that of replacing the untrained teachers by teachers who had at least some qualifications for the profession, in connection with this matter, El Shabani wrote:

"One of the grave problems that Libyan education faces today is the inadequate training of the national teachers, particularly in the primary and preparatory stages. If we are to improve our education, we should first improve the quality of teachers". 44

Certainly, significant progress was made. By the end of this first phase of independence, the following programmes had evolved in Libya:

- a) four-year training programme: primary school teachers were trained at colleges providing a four-year course. The condition for admission was the primary school leaving certificate. During 1968-69, there were 5159 teachers in training;
- b) Two-year training plan: Students were drawn from among the graduates of the preparatory school. This programme followed basically the same curriculum as the four-year programme, taking into account the level of the entrants and the direction of the course;
- c) Four-year Special Training Programme: The first special training institute was established at Tripoli in 1954-55 to train teachers for the preparatory level, and since then this type of teacher-training institute has been in steady expansion. The aim of this programme was to permit students to study specific areas of the curriculum in great depth. During the first year, the students follow a common general

curriculum which consists of Islam, Arabic, English, Libyan Society, History, Geography, Mathematics and Mechanics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Physical Education, Fine Arts, Music and Library Studies.

In the remaining three years, students were subdivided according to their choice and their grades in the first year into three types of specialisation: (i) Arabic Language and Religion; (ii) Literary - Social Studies, Literature and Foreign Language; (iii) Scientific Science and Mathematics. These three branches of specialisation continued to be the only available specialities at the Institute until 1960-61 when two new branches were added: Physical Education and Arts Education. The establishment of these two branches was motivated by their being serious shortage areas in the schools, plus a belief in the link between physical and mental well-being, as illustrated by the following statement of Professor Mohamed Abu-Hadid:

"Teacher-training should not be devoted merely to the preparation of teachers who can teach the various traditional subjects, such as reading, writing and arithmetic (the three Rs) but there are other important goals of education, such as the development of student's body, general intelligence, aesthetic task and art appreciation, and of his various mental abilities. To achieve these latter goals, it is essential to train teachers for physical and art education". 45

The Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools post-independence was carried out at the Faculties of Education in Tripoli and the Faculty of Arts and Education in Benghazi. Students were recruited mainly from among graduates of the secondary schools, but graduates of teacher-training colleges who attained a prescribed average grade and who had taught for a specified minimum period were sometimes also admitted. Many of the existing teachers lack interest and enthusiasm for the progressive and prefer to engage in other professions which offer

TABLE No. 40

THE PRESCRIBED COURSE FOR STUDY FOR THE
GENERAL MEN AND WOMEN'S TEACHERS'
INSTITUTES IN 1954

Subjects	No. of classes per week			
	1yr	2yr	3yr	4yr
Islamics	4	4	3	2
Arabic Language	10	10	8	8
Arabic Handwriting	2	2	1	1
Foreign Language and Transition	5	5	3	3
History	2	2	2	2
Civics	1	1	-	-
Geography	2	2	2	1
Arithmetic and Algebra	3	2	-	-
Geometry	2	2	1	-
Algebra	-	-	2	2
Geometry and Trigonometry	-	-	-	2
General Science and Health	3	4	-	-
Science	-	-	2	2
Chemistry	-	-	2	2
Biology	-	-	-	2
Social Hygiene (School)	-	-	-	1
Education and Psychology	-	-	2	3
Methods of Teaching	-	-	2	3
Practical Teaching and Criticism *	-	-	5	5
Drawing and Manual Training for Boys	4	4	4	4
Drawing and Art Training for Girls	4	4	4	4
Home Economics and Needlework for Girls	-	-	-	-
Physical Training	2	2	2	1
Total	40	40	41	41

* A whole day is devoted to practical teaching every week;

better salaries and prospects:

"The recruitment and training of teachers for preparatory and secondary schools and parallel technical and vocational 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 ... Teachers must therefore continue to be recruited from abroad to fill the gap". 46

Such wastage lead Nyrop et al to complain that: "the acute teacher shortage had been a major hindrance to educational development". 47
Indeed, experts during the mid-1960s estimated that teacher-training institutions could educate less than half of the primary and preparatory teachers needed by Libya for the 1964 - 1969 five-year period. Naturally, such a situation might lead to a greater concern with In-Service Training, which in Libya at that time involved two main groups: namely the unqualified and the qualified teachers. Clearly the low quality of both groups of teachers impaired the efficiency of the whole system:

"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 feeling of urgency about education is felt by most Libyan people. The Libyan Government has done its best to deal practically with a very difficult situation". 48

The "untrained" teaching plan had shown significant success, although it did not really solve Libya's increasing teacher problems.⁴⁹ The weakness lay in the lack of a structure for the training and retraining of all teachers by means of in-service courses taking place all the year and in all areas of the curriculum.

Eventually, in 1968, the Ministry of Education developed a scheme which had it continued, could have resolved the problem of training unqualified teachers. The course began in January and ended in June 1968, 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, enrolment was large and encouraging:

"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" 49

It was also stressed that in-service training was vital for qualified teachers who require the stimulus of new ideas in order to be prepared to keep up-to-date with the changes continually taking place in pedagogical ideas and in society at large.⁵⁰ However, most efforts exerted by the Ministry of Education had been restricted to the training of unqualified teachers.

6.7 Teacher-Training Since Libyan Independence II: 1969 to 1986

Efforts to expand teacher training continued under the new regime:

"The existing system of teacher education is a result of a number of different programmes introduced over the years, and reflects the country's pragmatic attempts to counter a deficient education provision". 51

As enrollment increased, so teachers had to be found to staff the schools. During 1968 - 1969, there were 5159 teachers in training; by 1977 - 78, this number had increased to 24,153. To achieve this quantitative increase, the following programmes had been evolved before 1984.

ii) Five-year Training Programme

"This programme has traditionally drawn its students from among the graduates of the elementary schools. Recruitment from this low level was necessary to meet the exigencies of the stage of educational development". 52

With the extension of compulsory education to the preparatory level, it became feasible to change this programme, especially since the curriculum of the first three years of the five-year programme corresponds closely to that of the preparatory level. The curriculum of these five-year institutions consists of Islamics, National Development, English, Social Studies, Mathematics, Science, Hygiene, Fine Arts, Physical Education, Practice Teaching, Music, Education and Psychology.

ii) Two-year Training Programme

Students are drawn from the graduates of the preparatory school. This programme follows basically the same curriculum as the five-year programme with modification to take into account the level of entrants and the duration of the course.⁵³

iii) Four-year Programme

In addition to the two and five-year programmes, a four-year programme is offered by specialised training institutes. These courses also recruit students from among the graduates of preparatory schools. During the first year, students follow a common general curriculum,

consisting of Islamics, Arabic, English, Libyan Society, History, Geography, Mathematics and Mechanics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Physical Education, Fine Arts, Music and Library Studies. During the second, third and fourth years, students follow one of the specialist courses of the Department of Arabic and Islamic studies, the Department of Social Studies and English, the Department of Science and Mathematics, the Department of Fine Arts, or the Department of Physical Education. Within these specialisations, the emphasis varies. "For example, science students devote half of their time each week (20 out of 41 periods) to Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and Biology".⁵⁴

In 1979-80 there were 104 teacher training colleges with a total enrollment of 27827 students and 2113 teachers.

The academic year 1983 - 84 was planned to be the focal year for the transformation of the different inefficient systems of preparing teachers into a new five-year system which students join after completing Basic Education: "The new five-year system has been adopted to improve the quality of teaching in basic education schools and to implement the recommendations of ALESCO".⁵⁵ Teacher-training at the new five-year system prepared teachers for kindergartens and basic education at schools as follows:

i) kindergarten-teachers are trained in girls' training schools.

The course includes topics of: general education;
principles of safety hygiene, and psychology;
principles of education and care of children.

The course lasts 5 years after obtaining the preparatory school certificate.

ii) programmes of training teachers for the basic education stage.

This pedagogically based programme offers the student basic knowledge of the physical, mental, psychological, social and emotional development of pupils as well as a working knowledge of methodology, evaluation and guidance which prepares the student to teach this level. However, in some municipalities that are short of teachers, the four-year system still prevails.

Pre-service teacher-training has, upto recently, been severely constrained by the low standard of the candidates. For some years, the primary school certificate had been accepted, but this has been raised to require a preparatory school certificate. There is a need for adequate modern buildings and equipment in the teacher-training colleges. All colleges are having to take on increased quantity of students, but it is already apparent that without demonstration schools and better facilities, students still cannot gain a sufficient training for modern needs.

The curriculum still tends to be antiquated and largely based on rote learning. There is insufficient opportunity provided for critical thought, analysis and application of principles. This type of criticism could, of course be made of the whole education system of Libya. The formal examination is the whole focus, and so the non-examinable subjects suffer under such a system. Not surprisingly there is great wastage owing to student failure and drop out. There is little evidence that anything can be done to 'unlock' the system. Teacher-training is certainly developing in quantity, but a real weakness is the lack of expert practising teachers able to run workshops and demonstration classes. Such teachers would provide examples that might be able to raise the

TABLE No. 41 STUDY PLAN FOR TEACHERS' TRAINING COLLEGES
FIVE YEARS SYSTEM FOR THE COMPULSORY STAGE
AMENDED IN VIRTUE OF DECREE NO. 275 OF 1984,
1ST AND 2ND YEAR

Subjects	1st Year	2nd Year
Islamics	2	2
Arabic	8	8
English	6	6
Mathematics	4	4
Science	4	4
Social Studies	5	5
Practical Education and Domestic Economics	3	3
Physical Education	2	2
Music	1	1
Bibliography	1	1
Military Education	5	5
Total	41	41

Source: Report on Educational Development 1981 - 83
 (presented to the International Conference
 on Education, Tripoli 1984), p. 20.

TABLE No. 42 PRESCRIBED FOR THE TEACHERS' TRAINING COLLEGES - SPECIAL FIVE YEARS SYSTEM
FOR THE COMPULSORY STAGE ATTENDED IN VIRTUE OF DECREE NO. 275 OF 1984.

Subjects	Dept. of Arabic			Dept. of Islamic			Dept. of English			Dept. of Mathematics			Dept. of Science		
	3rd	4th	5th	3rd	4th	5th	3rd	4th	5th	3rd	4th	5th	3rd	4th	5th
Arabic	13	13	13	6	4	4	6	4	4	6	4	4	6	4	4
English	5	3	3	5	3	3	12	12	12	5	3	3	5	3	3
Mathematics	4	2	2	4	2	2	4	2	2	11	11	11	4	2	2
Science	5	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	9	11	11
Social Studies	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Fine Arts	2	-	-	2	-	-	2	-	-	2	-	-	2	-	-
Physical Education	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-
Development Plan	2	-	-	2	-	-	2	-	-	2	-	-	2	-	-
Military Education	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Islamic	2	2	2	9	11	11	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Educational Psychology	2	3	4	2	3	4	2	3	4	2	3	4	2	3	4
Teaching Methods	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2	-	2	2
School Hygiene	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-
Practical Education	-	6	6	-	6	6	-	6	6	-	6	6	-	6	6
Teaching Practice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	4	41	41	41	41	41	41	42	42	41	40	41	41	40	41

Adapted from Report on Educational Development 1981 - 84, presented to the International Conference on Education, Tripoli, 1984, p. 14.

quality of teachers and teacher training. According to Vietmeyer:

"The programmes of work in Teacher Colleges need careful and regular supervision by an expert committee so that the curriculum is made as wide and modern as possible and with no overstress on the 3 Rs ... I am sure, too, that a great deal of work is necessary in Teacher-Training Institutes, on methodology, and the full use of modern teaching aids. The qualifications of lectures in Institutes should be carefully checked so that only really experienced and excellent teachers are employed". 56

One major concern is that Libya is still preparing teachers to meet the requirements of the present and not the future. The style and content of the training process will make young teachers of the 1980s incapable of responding adequately to the demands of an evolving situation. We need, therefore, to introduce changes in the structures, programmes and methods of teacher-training at all levels, bearing in mind that teachers graduating today are the ones who will bear full responsibility for the education in the year 2000 and long after. This is just as important at the pre-school stage as any other:

"Our knowledge of the child's psychology, his biological development and his environment has advanced so much and educational techniques have developed so quickly that all pre-school teachers need training. The future of pre-school education will be endangered if teachers do not change whilst their environment and the children who live in that environment are perpetually changing". 57

At all levels, the quality of education depends very largely on the quality of the teacher. UNESCO experts have described this as follows:

"If we want pre-school institutions to be more than just places to leave children, the teachers of children at this level must receive training geared to present needs and which will at the same time enable them to cope with the different situations which may arise in the future. It would, no doubt, be desirable therefore to

consider setting up an International Pre-school Education Centre to train staff for pre-school education in the different countries. Teachers today must not be trained at one period only, before they enter service. In view of the rapid evaluation of concepts, methods and techniques in pre-school education, on the one hand, and social, technological economic and political changes on the other, teachers for pre-school educational institutions must keep abreast of advances in the basic sciences such as biology, neurology, psychology and sociology, and provision must be made for continuous training when the general plan for their training is being worked out". 58

In 1982-83 there were 224 teachers with the primary certificate, 66 with the preparatory certificate, 23 with the secondary certificate, 277 teachers with the general diploma, 63 teachers with the special diploma, 19 teachers with university degrees, 25 with other qualifications and 4 teachers without any qualifications. Table No.38 shows the level of education of teachers throughout Libya. According to Spodek:

"Several studies suggest that child development and learning are influenced more by the teacher than by curriculum content or educational methodology". 59

Most of the kindergarten teachers were trained to work with elementary school pupils and curriculum studies occupies a major part of teacher-training in all the Libyan institutes. In other words, the teachers were trained to teach subject matter (the three Rs). There is an emphasis on rote learning and drilling in spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic and reciting the Quoran. Since the child spends five hours daily in the kindergarten, of which three and a half hours are devoted to lessons, at least the method and content of training corresponds to the school environment. However, the aim of the kindergarten should not be instruction in the strict sense, but rather of providing the child with a suitable environment for socialisation and healthy development. The

teacher should do for the young children what 'educated mothers' would do for their own children; that is to say, provide physical care, improve moral character, develop good habits, and generally give training in matters related to life. The kindergarten in Libya is merely as a "little elementary school" with the school day divided into prescribed lessons in a formal seating arrangement. To 'unlock' this traditional practice, the writer considers that experts should be engaged from abroad, not only to review the curriculum but also to train the teachers. Of particular significance for such outside involvement could be in-service training, for there are no in-service training programmes available in Libya for kindergarten teachers.

It has to be noted that there was no preparation for pre-school teachers in Libya until 1980 when the General People's Committee (Council of Ministers) issues a decree in regard of kindergarten educational policy. Article No. 19 of this decree concerning the training of teachers for kindergartens states:

"A unit has to be opened in girls' teachers training colleges and at the Faculty of Education to train teachers for kindergarten schools to meet the required needs". 60

As a result of this decree and for the first time in Libyan history, the Ministry of Education began in 1984 to train teachers for kindergarten work in one college in Benghazi (El Howari). The first graduates of this college will emerge in June 1989. The duration of this training is therefore of five years. For the first three years the work is the same as primary teacher trainees, but the last two years are devoted to pre-school education, as shown in Table No. 39 Article No. 20 of the decree stated that:

TABLE No. 43 NUMBER OF KINDERGARTENS TEACHING STAFF BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN THE MUNICIPAL EDUCATION AUTHORITIES DURING 1982-83

Municipal Education Authority	No Level	Primary	Preparatory	Secondary	Technical	General Teaching Diploma	Special Teaching Diploma	University Degree	Social Work Diploma	Other	Total
Derma	1	26	18	8	1	30	5	1	-	-	90
El-Jabel El-Akdar	-	1	-	-	1	8	6	1	-	-	17
Benghazi	3	147	40	13	2	12	2	2	-	1	222
Ajdabiyah	-	4	3	-	-	10	4	4	-	-	25
Misurata	-	5	-	-	1	5	1	1	1	-	14
Zlittin	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	4
El-Jafra	-	-	-	-	-	29	-	-	-	-	29
El-Khums	-	1	-	-	4	15	2	1	-	-	23
Tripoli	-	37	5	2	4	126	39	7	5	-	225
Azeizia	-	-	-	-	1	4	-	-	-	-	5
Zawai	-	2	-	-	-	12	3	-	-	-	17
(Zwara)	-	-	-	-	4	13	-	-	-	-	18
El-Nikat El-KH	-	1	-	-	-	9	1	2	-	-	12
Gharian	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	4	224	66	23	18	277	63	19	6	1	701

* Translated from Arabic

** Source: Secretary of Education, Statistical Review 1982 - 83.

TABLE No. 44: STUDY PLAN FOR TEACHERS' TRAINING COLLEGES
SPECIAL FIVE-YEAR SYSTEM FOR PRE-SCHOOL
TEACHERS

Subjects	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year	5th Year
Islamics	2	2	2	2	2
Arabic	8	8	8	4	4
Science	4	4	4	2	2
Mathematics	4	4	4	2	2
Social Studies	5	5	5	2	2
National Development Plan	-	-	-	1	1
English	6	6	6	-	-
Educational Activities	-	-	-	1	1
Fine Arts	-	-	-	3	3
Military Education	5	5	5	-	-
Domestic Economics and Nourishment	3	3	3	2	2
Physical Education	2	2	2	3	3
Music	1	1	1	3	3
Education & Psychology	-	-	-	4	4
Bibliography	1	1	1	-	-
Practical Education	-	-	-	4	4
School Hygiene	-	-	-	1	1
Child Literature	-	-	-	2	2
Child Mothering and Care	-	-	-	2	2
Total	41	41	41	38	38

Source: Ministry of Education, 1984, p. 102.

"In-service training courses have to be started for kindergarten teachers to promote their level, a grant to study in the University will be awarded for those who completed this programme successfully". 61

In 1984 a Committee was established to prepare and organise in-service training courses for kindergarten teachers. It set up a unified in-service training scheme to be implemented in all the regions of the country for three weeks for all the headteachers and teachers.

The aims of this course were:

- i) to provide the trainees with knowledge of the psychological, social, emotional, intellectual and physical development of the kindergarten child;
- ii) to give them first-hand knowledge in first-aid and in basic health principles;
- iii) to give them some ideas about making simple toys and creativity work.

Even this commendable initiative ran into difficulties. The duration of the course was very short, and many inspectors and directors were unable to organise the course successfully for a number of reasons - the basic one was their lack of real teacher-training for pre-school education and knowledge of modern education elsewhere.

The need for training, even at this level was recognised by Bertrand Russell more than 50 years ago:

"There is only one road to progress in education as in other human affairs; science, wielded by love. Without science, love is powerless, without love, science is destructive.

"All that has been done to improve the education of little children has been done by those who love them ... and those who know all that science could not teach on the subject." 62

It is clear that the teacher must be qualified for teaching in kindergartens. In Libya, as elsewhere, we need to verify empirically our insight about teaching and the preparation of teachers. This requires the development of further theory that will enable us to better understand the interaction of adults and children in the kindergarten. As the teacher training sector in Libya is developed, it is vital that training for work with the youngest age groups is strongly represented.

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PART C

THE ENGLISH DIMENSION

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AND WALES

7.1 Introduction

This survey of pre-school provision in England and Wales from the beginning of the nineteenth century to the present time is included as it reveals evidence to assist the understanding of current provision in England and its potential for improving the situation of pre-school education in Libya.

"The nature of nursery education today, its extent and its structure, and to some extent its content, have been shaped by social influences over the last hundred years" 1

It is worth even going back to its origins in the nineteenth century. During its development, theories of pre-school education and ideas about the education of young children have been taken into consideration from such authorities as Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Oberlin, Owen, Margaret and Rachel McMillans, Montessori and Isaacs. So the content and method in pre-school education have been subject to conflicting traditions.

The idea of fostering the child's natural development was derived from Rousseau, interpreted by Froebel, and struggled for acceptance against pressures for formal instruction in early childhood in preparation for private schooling. Another constraining factor on pre-school development was the fact that until quite recently, it was generally assumed that children under

five or six years old should be at home with their mothers. In practice, however, since the start of the Industrial Revolution, even very young children were left with the child-minders or sent to school with older brothers and sisters. So, if only by default, there has been a pattern of pre-school provision in England.

7.2 The Development of Pre-school Education in England and Wales in the Nineteenth Century

Before the Industrial Revolution in England and Wales, as in any rural society, children were gradually introduced to work as they grew up.

"Their parents and older brothers or sisters taught them useful skills at an early age, and upper class families the mother traditionally taught her children to read by the time they reached four or five". 2

The roots of change lie in the industrialisation of Britain which, because of livelihood being taken away from cottage craftsmen, forcing them and their children (including three-year-olds) into factories, literacy was at a lower level even than in Tudor times.³ Indeed, only about a third of children between the ages of three and ten years received any schooling at all. The first response to this situation was the 'Sunday School Movement', of which the driving force was Robert Raikes, who began his own school in 1780.

A new method of teaching was introduced by Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster, where the younger children were taught by older

ones, with the adult teacher at the top of a teaching pyramid. This was called the Monitorial System, and it was very cheap to run, though as a teaching method it was limited to a primitive mechanical process.

"Children sat in series rows on wooden benches, learning by ear what their monitors taught them. This was the factory system of mass production applied to instruction". 4

The method was intended for children over seven, but some monitorial schools later included children as young as four.

Universal elementary education was not introduced in England until the 1870s, and during the remainder of the nineteenth century, a large number of children between the ages of 3 and 5 were admitted to the infant schools, despite the fact that attendance was not compulsory until the age of 5.

"It was not until 1908 that the concept of the nursery school was introduced and not given official recognition (Board of Education, 1905-1908). This involved the notion of separate and special kind of education for children before they start compulsory schooling". 5

However, it is necessary to trace back the events and attitudes which led to this change. There were various pioneer efforts to educate young children during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, both in Britain and Europe. As Tina Bruce has pointed out:

"Some names stand out in educational history because someone has contributed to knowledge, or opened up new ways of thinking about children learning and development, some names we remember because they demonstrated their ability to work directly as well as to observe, love and study them. Pestalozzi, Froebel, the MacMillan sisters and Montessori would all come into this category....They all concerned themselves with poverty and handicap, but all insist that children need to be viewed as children first, and respected for who they are, rather given treatment for who they are not". 6

7.3 Selected Pioneers of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries

a) Rousseau (1712 - 1778)

New educational theory from Europe was slow in reaching England. The publication of Rousseau's Emile ⁷ initiated a revolutionary change in education. The revolution brought about was in the attitude towards the child and the process of learning.

"The philosophy of Rousseau dominates. The child is seen as a whole person, whose thoughts, soul imagination, feeling, social interaction all needs care". 8

Rousseau can be regarded as the first of the child-centred educationists and stressed the necessity of viewing the acquisition of knowledge from the child's point of view. This involved allowing the child to develop "naturally". Formal instruction was to be discouraged, freedom and learning by experience and from nature was considered vital. The approach of Rousseau has been summarised by Manore as follows:

"Education is a natural, not an artificial, process. It is a development from within not an accretion from without. It comes through the working of natural instincts and interests, and not through response to external force. It is an expansion of natural powers, not an acquisition of information. It is life itself, not a preparation for future states remote in interests and characteristics from the life of childhood.

The old conception of education aimed to remark the nature of the child by forcing upon him the traditional or customary way of thinking, of doing and even of emotional reaction". 9

b) Pestalozzi (1746-1827)

Pestalozzi merely made positive the general educational principles enunciated by Rousseau. He had been disillusioned when he tried to bring his own son up on Emilian principles, but he remained much influenced by Rousseau's theories, which he carried further. Pestalozzi took from Rousseau the conviction that education must harmonize with the child's nature.

"His approach was child-centred in that he aimed to take account of child's interests and capabilities, but he in no way abdicated from the teacher's responsibility to direct children's learning". 10

Although he never wrote a comprehensive description of his theories and methods, Pestalozzi tried to devise empirically a system of teaching that was determined by the child's capacity at each stage of development. He was not exclusively, or even mainly, concerned with teaching infants, but his greatest contribution in England was

in the field of infant education. Most of his experience was at the castle school in Yverdun, but he believed that his principles had universal application from all social classes.

"Pestalozzi recognised the humanity of the child, and he stressed that every aspect of a child's life contributed to the formation of his personality". 11

It was at Yverdun that the many foreign visitors saw his new teaching methods, including from the British Isles, and some were sufficiently impressed to found schools based on Pestalozzian principles on their return, for example Robert Owen. However, Pestalozzi was more just in recognising the limitation of his work, and in realising that the particular form which he gave to his ideas was merely tentative. According to one of his best disciples, Morf, the principles of Pestalozzi's method may be illustrated as follows:

"(1) Observation, or sense-perception, is the basis of introduction, (2) Language should always be linked with observation; (3) The time for learning is not the time for judgement and criticism; (4) In any branch, teaching should begin with the simplest elements and proceed gradually according to the development of the child, that is, in psychologically connected order; (5) sufficient time should be devoted to each point of teaching in order to secure the complete mastery of it by pupil. (6) Teaching should aim at development, and not at dogmatic exposition; (7) The teacher should respect the individuality of the pupil; (8) The chief end of elementary teaching is not to impart knowledge and talent to the learner, but to develop and increase

the powers of his intelligence; (9) power must be linked to knowledge and skill to learning; (10) The relation between the teacher and the pupil, especially as to discipline, should be based upon and ruled by love; (11) Instruction should be subordinate to the higher aim of education". 12

It is clear that Pestalozzi's contributions to education have never been adequately realised in England, although no continental educator was ever better known to his British contemporaries.

"In fact, the history of elementary education in Britain for the next hundred years was largely the history of the conflict of the mechanical methods of the monitorial system and the more educative methods of Pestalozzi". 13

c) Owen (1771-1858)

Owen began his work in Scotland 1816 at New Lanark, twenty-one years before Froebel opened his first kindergarten in Germany. When Owen had come to manage a group of Cotton Mills in 1800, he believed that the carolinal evils of society were the "necessary consequences of ignorance", and determined to provide a sound education for his workers. 14 Owen believed that thousands of children in Glasgow ran the risk of forming vicious habits and being condemned to poverty unless their ignorance and poverty were removed by a proper education. According to Spodek:

"He (Owen) understands that education is a continuous process and that it should be organised in progressive stages....though he did not organise children in strict chronological age groupings". 15

In New Lanark routines were flexible. Timetables were not strictly followed because he was not a great believer in straight instruction. Owen encouraged the teachers to let children have first-hand experience and to give their pupils the opportunity to understand situations rather than merely memorise facts.

Even though his unique style was not copied widely at the time, some of Owen's ideas were similar to those held today:

"He was far in advance of other educationalists with his beliefs, that children should learn by discovery and not be forced. Owen believed that a child's character and personality was determined by the environment." ¹⁶

Owen believed that the object of education was not to fill a child with facts but to prepare it for life, developing its character and personality; learning to acquire confidence very young. In this way:

"They were saved from the terrible neglect that was the fate of nearly all young children whose parents were both working in the factories." ¹⁷

He appeared to have a clear grasp of the role of free unstructured play in the education of young children. Robert Owen had in effect founded the infant sector in Britain and his ideas soon transmitted themselves from Scotland to England. His example led either directly or indirectly to the founding of a number of infant schools in England and Scotland. The age range was from two to seven years. The first in England, for 150 infant children, was in London, opened by Owen's

original assistant, James Buchanan. Samuel Wilderspin founded another school after meeting James Buchanan, and although he unjustly claimed for himself the credit of the educational theory of the movement, unlike Owen he was genuinely concerned to adapt elementary instruction to the capacities of young children. Consequently his system relied on books, lessons, apparatus and rote learning. He rejected the infant school 'movemental approach' introduced by Owen, and instead brought it within the instructional tradition of the elementary school. The lack of any unifying pedagogical theory was Wilderspin's great weakness.

In Glasgow, David Stow, who was already concerned with moral rescue and social training of young slum children in his study school, realised that an infant day school would provide a more effective means of achieving his object and applying his educational ideas. He founded the Drygate Infant School in April 1928 and began training infant teachers. Stow advocated class instruction but stressed understanding, rather than mere memorizing, and understood Owen's aims better than the various English exponents of infant teaching.

The Home and Colonial Infant School Society was established in 1836 and on June 1st of that year opened a training college in Hollborn. The leading figures of the movement were Charles and Elizabeth Mayo.

"By the middle of the 1830s, there were more than 500 of these schools and soon afterwards the British and National Society began attracting infant classes to their

schools. By the middle of the century infant schools were part of the established pattern of the system. Infant schools, until after 1900, were for two to six year olds." 18

d) Froebel (1782-1852)

Froebel, whose ideas were largely derived from Rousseau and Pestalozzi, was the first to endeavour to provide a coherent scheme of pre-school education based on the nature of the child, with a view to improving and supplementing the training given by the mother and the nurse. He elaborated a system of training through the senses based on organised play for children up to the age of six.

"His influence on pre-school education in England was not felt, even indirectly, until the early fifties....public attention was first directed to his system through a display of Froebelian apparatus and a lecture by Frau Ronge of Humbury at an educational exhibition held at London in 1854. The system received wider publicity from Charles Dickens." 19

Froebel's writings ²⁰ still provide the basis for many of the activities in pre-school agencies today and, indeed, in the early years of compulsory schooling. ²¹

The basic elements of Froebel's kindergarten curriculum were the gifts, the occupations, games and songs, nature study and work

in language and arithmetic. The first three elements were considered highly innovative, and characterised the Froebelian kindergarten, making it different from other educational programmes. Froebel's 'gifts' consisted of ten sets of manipulative materials to be used by children in a prescribed manner. His 'occupations' also dealt with solids, surfaces, lines, paints, and constructions, while 'activities' included those with clay, wood, cardboard and paper. ²²

Nature study in the kindergarten consisted of the observation of plants and animals, and discussions about these observations. Fairy tales and fairy stories were told to the children and pictures presented to the class discussed. Activities were selected for inclusion in the curriculum because they conveyed a deeper sense of the world of the child. Froebel's writings seemed to reverse the traditional roles of teacher and child, with the teacher acting less as an instructor and more as a follower of children's leads:

"The main feature of the method was that the child could work at an occupation for as long as he wished, when he wished, and did not have to be forced to perform an activity in unison with all other children". ²³

After his death, the number of kindergartens did not increase rapidly, although they did spread from Germany to other European countries, including England:

"The work of Froebel and the Nature School had lasting and more important impact in terms of the pedagogy which they proposed, than in terms of the direct implementation of pre-school education, the way pre-school education developed". 24

Froebel's philosophy still commands respect among educators in the late twentieth century.

7.4 The Development of Pre-school Education in England from 1870-1918

The Elementary Education Act of 1870 was intended to fill the gaps in the existing provision of schools. Where necessary, school boards were to be set up to run schools, charging fees except in cases of exceptional hardship. Five was made the compulsory starting age everywhere, by a Further Education Act of 1876. New schools were built in three tiers with infant, juniors and older children on separate floors. This physical stratification also encouraged the separation of infant schools as distinct entities. Their expansion after 1870 resulted in the decline of most of the dame schools.

The system of payment by results was still in operation and three and four-year olds still qualified for grants. Younger ones could attend if the parents wished:

"According to Hadow, slightly under a quarter of all three to five-year olds in 1870 went to school, which is nearly twice as many as the present time. Furthermore, the proportion increased steadily until the end of the century, when the proportion was 43%. This was a far higher proportion than in any other country". 25

In 1871-2, there were 18,755 children under three and 268,879 children aged three to five in the elementary schools. ²⁶ There was still no conception of a special education for these children. They sat in galleries and were drilled in numbers and letters.

At this point, it is necessary to return to the early education of the middle-class child, and trace the growth of kindergartens. In 1851, the first English kindergarten was founded by two German immigrants, Johannes and Bertha Range, who were influenced by Froebel. The first kindergarten in England was for German children only. It seems probable that it was established for reasons other than an interest in the new theory. In an alien country, the kindergarten was one way in which the children of German immigrants could maintain their own identity through their own ancestry.

"It provided them with the opportunity of meeting others of their kind, and of undergoing instruction in their own language. However, it was not confined to German children for long. Those convinced of the value of Froebel's educational principles began to publicise them". 27

However, from 1851 to the beginning of the twentieth century, only two free kindergartens were set up in working-class areas. The 1870s and 1880s saw the establishment of a number of kindergartens, but even within the middle class, they did not become widespread. The kindergartens were run by German women, mostly unmarried, and later by English spinsters of varying ages. Throughout the last quarter of the nineteenth century, efforts were made to provide a systematic training for young women who wished to work in kindergartens. The Froebel Society began such work soon after it was founded in 1874. The British Society began its own teacher-training college with a kindergarten attached, in order to introduce Froebel's methods into its system (Table '45). By 1900, the outlook for nursery school children was very fair. The under-fives could go to boarding schools, as well as the private kindergartens and infant schools. The proportion of three to five-year olds at schools represented the peak for England and Wales even up to the present, but classes often had a pupil:teacher ratio of about 60:1. There were many criticisms as to the desirability of teaching under-fives in large classes in elementary schools, and in 1905 women inspectors of the Board of Education published a report advocating extensive provision of nursery schools rather than schools of what they called: "instruction for young children".²⁸ Furthermore, the Board of Education decided early in 1904 to employ five of the recently appointed women inspectors to conduct an inquiry into the admission of infants to public elementary schools and the curriculum suitable for children under the age of five. The

TABLE No.45

INFANTS AGED THREE TO FIVE ATTENDING ELEMENTARY
SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND AND WALES (EXPRESSED AS A
PERCENTAGE OF AGE GROUPS AS COMPARED WITH THE
TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN BETWEEN THOSE AGES).

Year	Total No. of Children in Elementary Schools	Total No. of Children between the ages of 3-5	Percentage of scholars between the ages of 3-5
1870-1	275,608	1,179,228	24.2%
1880-1	393,056	1,339,826	29.3%
1890-1	458,267	1,377,818	33.2%
1900-1	615,607	1,428,597	43.1%
1910-1	350,591	1,540,542	22.7%
1920-1	175,467	1,147,685	15.3%
1930-1	159,335	1,213,000	13.1%

Source: Hadow Report, 1933, p.29.

(Successive codes and instructions to Inspectors from 1871 contain many references to children between the ages of three and five, and to baby classes.)

Board published the outcome in 1905:

"The Committee found that, between 1900 and 1906, from 43.09 per cent to 32.16 per cent of all the children in England and Wales between the ages of three and five were on the registers of public elementary schools". 29

They went on to say that:

"The Consultative Committee are of the opinion that the best training for children between three and five years of age is that which they get from their mothers in their own homes, provided always that there exists in such homes adequate opportunities for the necessary maternal care and training....The question arises, therefore, whether any public provision should be made for children from imperfect homes. The Committee think that it should, and they arrive at this conclusion by considering what would happen to these children if no such provision were made". 30

The Committee had, therefore, been led to the conclusion that in view of the present conditions of home life in England, especially in many parts of large towns, it was necessary that some public authority should provide opportunities for suitable training and education for work with increasing numbers of small children, whose parents should be encouraged by every available means to make use of such opportunities. On the curricular side, the inspectors agreed that:

"Children between the ages of three and five gained no profit intellectually from school instruction, and that the mechanical teaching which they often received dulled their imagination and weakened their power of independent observation". 31

While recognising that for children from the worst slum homes it was better for their health if they went to school, the Report advocated extensive provision of "nursery schools" rather than schools of instruction. In England, the nursery school gradually involved from the free kindergarten for poor children, which were established in London, Manchester, and other large towns during the last three decades of the 19th century. It was, therefore, suggested that the Board of Education should consider the whole question of the character and function of nursery schools:

"The case for public provision of nursery schools in industrial towns was strong, if only on humanitarian grounds. Neither money nor permission was given for alternative accommodation in nurseries". 32

These nurseries were designed to take children from very poor homes into an environment that would render possible the development of the child's whole personality.

The pre-school scene very quickly reflects the social climate of the time and this in some measure explains the different emphasis and methods that teachers of young children have adopted in different decades.

"It is significant that pre-school education in England and Wales arose largely as a result of philanthropic concern with the needs of young children living in poverty and neglect in fact-growing industrial cities". 33

Meanwhile, the fulfilment of the working class need for the early education of young children was at its height, but there was still dissatisfaction expressed:

"The numbers of children under three attending school had dropped from the 1875-76 figure of 19,303 to 3,228 for the year 1899-1900. The two-year olds disappeared altogether after the 1902 Education Act, when it was established that grants would be paid only for children over 3". 34

7.5 The McMillan Sisters: Rachel (1859-1917) and Margaret (1860-1931)

The real pioneers in the creation of the English nursery schools were the McMillan sisters. Margaret campaigned with the independent Labour Party in Bradford in 1890 against the half-time system, and for medical inspection in elementary schools with the establishment of clinics to provide treatment. She went to London, where she joined the Froebel Society. She had seen the effects of the industrial and rural poverty in Bradford. Margaret and her sister, Rachel, determined to persuade the Board of Education to tackle the inherent health problems through school clinics. They opened an experimental clinic at Bow in 1908. From this they developed their night camps which, in turn, inspired

them to run an open-air nursery school in 1913. Their practical starting point was 'health rescue' from the damaging effects of slum homes, but this immediately led to educational implications. What did these women mean by 'educating a child'? In the full sense of the expression, they meant nurturing and training the whole child, body as well as mind. 35

In March 1914, the London County Council offered the MacMillans a large site to extend their facilities for young children. The outbreak of the Great War in 1914 placed a terrible strain upon the institution, relieved to some extent by a government grant for each child of a woman ammunition worker. But the difficulties of procuring suitable staff and equipment were very great, and led to the tragic breakdown and death of Rachel McMillan in March 1917:

"Before that inexpressively sad event occurred, the Board of Education's consent had been won for the extension of the nursery school premises, partly at the expense of the state. The extended premises were formally opened by Mr. Fisher, then Minister of Education, five months after the death of Rachel McMillan, whose memorial it became". 36

After the death of Rachel in 1917, Margaret set up a centre in her memory to train women for nursery schools. By 1919, there were twenty students who spent part of their day in study, and part in practical work at nursery schools. The McMillan's School in Deptford was an exception. Once she received help from the

London County Council, she was able to build open-air shelters, each taking an average of thirty children, so that by the early 1920s, over two hundred children were attending. Margaret McMillan suggested that the nursery school was the fundamental remedy for disease in childhood. She maintained that the incidence of death from measles fell to 0.5 per cent, whereas outside the school it was 7 per cent, and that on entry to the school, 80 per cent of the children had rickets but that all cases were cured within a year. She argued that most money was spent in education was wasted because they had not made any real foundation for their educational system. Children whose health was already blighted would find difficulty in learning.

The nursery school movement in this country owes more to Miss Margaret McMillan, properly, than to any other one person.

"It is she who has shown up the need for the nursery school in strong light, reflected from ugly fact. But the nursery school movement is hanging fire, on every hand one hears that the local authorities in the present state of their finances cannot bear the expense of nursery schools". 37

7.6 The Education Act of 1918 (The 'Fisher' Act) and its Aftermath

The 'Fisher Act' made it possible for the first time for local authorities to set up nursery schools and to receive financial support from the central government for so doing. The Act emphasised compensation for the poor environment of many

children's homes. It did not propose universal nursery education as it did not see the need for nursery education for all children.³⁸ Under the Maternity and Child Welfare Act of 1919, responsibility for the health supervision of private nurseries was transferred from the Board of Education to the Ministry of Health. This fitted the thinking of the time, but it took supervision of most private nursery schools entirely away from any kind of education authority.

"The combination of very high standards for qualifying for grants and the transfer of sole responsibility for most private nurseries to the health authorities served to drive a still surviving wedge between the private sector effort and public education".³⁹

Despite the need to develop some nursery facilities, and the support of progressive philosophies in the 1920s, financial stringency was invoked to block further development of the pre-school sector on any significant scale.

"Nursery school supporters in England found themselves forced to struggle once again for public assistance. During this period they pulled together to form the Nursery School Association (1923) which produced thousands of copies of pamphlets (200,000 in 1929 alone) with which it attempted to convert flinty-hearted local councillors and the public at large to the cause".⁴⁰

7.7 From 1929: the Work of Susan Isaacs

The next important event in the history of nursery education in England was the 1929 Labour Government. The Labour Party had for some years been arguing that there should be some expansion and development of pre-school education in order to equalise opportunities, and they immediately circularised local education authorities in order to encourage them to develop pre-school education. However, this time the world economic depression intervened and there was little expansion. Nonetheless, the momentum of the pre-school movement was maintained when Susan Isaacs had begun her work at the experimental Malting House School in 1924. There she and her assistants recorded systematic and detailed observations of a group of children aged between two and a half and nine years, in the everyday situations of this small, private school where the children were free to follow their own interests and inclinations.

"Her academic training enabled her to relate the findings of recent psychology to her own systematic child observations and thus carried forward the theoretical basis of nursery education beyond the point reached by Margaret McMillan". 41

She did more, however, for the education of the child under six, to whom Dewey had devoted less attention. Indeed, she found that well before the age of six, children's minds were reaching out to understand many other matters in a wider world. 42 Susan Isaacs clearly hoped to change current ideas and practice in the education

of the young children. Her lectures and writings undoubtedly had a far-reaching influence on the concept of the nursery school and the upbringing of young children. She redeveloped and redirected the developmental tradition in the function of the nursery school by promoting intellectual growth. In this, she was influenced by Montessori, whose teaching materials and methodology were used at the Malting House. In Susan Isaacs' own words:

"In order to understand the service which the nursery school renders to the little child, we must consider what are his needs of growth during the earliest years after infancy. We have only to watch his play with a disconcerting eye, and to listen to his comments and questions, in order to realise how his mind with problems of one sort or another - problems of skill, problems of seeing and understanding, problems of feeling and behaving. The appreciation of the central fact may be looked upon as the master key to the child's mental development". 43

Clearly, the type of nursery education envisaged by Susan Isaacs would be advantageous for any pre-school child, regardless of home background.

7.8 Maria Montessori (1870-1952)

About the same time as the McMillans and Grace Owen were beginning nursery schools in England, Dr. Maria Montessori was working with retarded children in Italy. After working with mentally-retarded children in the slums of Rome:

"She was convinced that children learned best by being active, by doing rather than by sitting and being talked to. In this regard, her ideas were similar to those of John Dewey in the United States". 44

Maria Montessori broke with tradition by organising activities for the individual rather than for the group. Formal class teaching was dispensed with, along with desks, benches, stationery and chairs. These were replaced by moveable chairs, shelves and cupboards the children could reach, and, more significantly, an organisation of learning that promoted individual instruction:

"Learning was to develop from the auto-educative materials, and the child was given freedom to use materials of his own choosing, either individually or with a small group of similarly-interested peers". 45

The work of Maria Montessori has been very well documented and described by Standing,⁴⁶ and her impact in England grew forcefully after her visit in 1919. When she offered a training course in London in that year, there were one thousand applicants for three hundred places. She returned to England every other year, and received considerable publicity, so that her influence penetrated far beyond early childhood education and even affected secondary education for a time.

"Her influence brought the child-centred revolution in education to the eyes of the public at large; she was cited with the kindergarten, Dewey, and the nursery school movement, in the Hadow Report (1933) as one of the main influences on teaching in infant classes". 47

For example, the beginnings of 'educational toys' - apparatus that children can use to make discoveries in size, colour and shape - can be traced to Maria Montessori.

"She believed children should be provided with a stimulating environment, so the children through their senses of touch, sight, smell and hearing could develop their biological functions". 48

The children themselves chose which activity they preferred, but the apparatus was specifically designed by Montessori to stimulate the cognitive senses. Every piece of equipment had a real teaching purpose, such as number, volume or colour relationships. The children pursued these activities with guidance but at their own individual pace.

7.9 The Hadow Report of 1933

Towards the end of the 1920s, the Board of Education asked its Consultative Committee, under the Chairman, Professor Hadow, to review the whole spectrum of state educational provision. As a result, three reports were published - the last being on infant and nursery schools, in 1933:

"Prior to the publication of the Hadow Report by the Board of Education in 1933, Susan Isaacs, Grace Owen, Dr. Montessori, Arnold Gessell and countless educators and medical advisors were consulted on the history, practice and possible improvement of infant and nursery schools in Britain". 49

The Hadow Committee was only empowered to make recommendations, but it did advise school groups for the under-fives in rural areas whenever practicably possible, and gave its opinion "that the nursery school is a desirable adjunct to the national system of education". 50

7.10 The Second World War and the Post-War Period

So England had, by the 1940s, established principles for nursery school provision, based mainly to meet local needs as articulated by the McMillans. Some important additions and alterations had been indicated by the Hadow Report. This proved a useful basis for there was a great expansion of nursery provision in England during the Second World War, mainly due to the need for women in the labour force. The 1944 Education Act made it mandatory for local education authorities to provide nursery education for all children under five whose parents desired it:

"Since 1944, different kinds of provision have been made, by some local authorities, by groups of parents and by individuals who were tired of waiting for their local authorities to make a move". 51

However, this clause of the Act was not implemented on the grounds that the shortage of teachers for five to seven-year-olds in the primary schools was so great that none could be spared for the more compulsory sector.⁵² Indeed, since 1945 there has been relatively little expansion of nursery education in England overall, though some LEAs have given it attention and funding. During the earlier part of the post-war period, there was in any case a major shortage of school buildings and the compulsory sector was a priority.⁵³ During the period of the second world war itself (1939-45), great strains were imposed on the family. Mothers of young children faced difficult problems especially in respect of evacuation from the major cities. Financial hardship often forced women to seek paid employment to supplement service allowances which were inadequate if the husband was in the lower ranks. So nurseries came into existence in places where there was need for the care of children whose mothers were occupied in war-time industries. They were not nursery schools as such, although every effort was made to model them on these lines. The opening of war-time nurseries under the joint jurisdiction of the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Education was intended to release mothers for war production in factories, but this did generate a desire for knowledge of nursery training and its conditions:

"A number of these nurseries have been passed as potentially suitable for conversion into nursery schools and have been transferred to local education authorities".⁵⁴

The increase of the number of small separate nursery schools at this time was mainly due to the efforts of voluntary organisations. Their success was so readily apparent that many LEAs adopted the idea and built separate nursery schools of a similar type:

"These schools, in the main, follow the pattern of open-air schools, with everything provided to meet the needs of the small child. Furniture, wash basins, lavatories and cupboards of the right size, rooms leading out on to verandahs, spacious gardens". 55

The Government sent out a circular asking LEAs to review the current arrangement of war-time nurseries. A decision was to be made in accordance with the needs of local areas, as to which of these were to be converted into day nurseries and which into nursery schools or nursery classes and which to be closed. This circular was followed by two memoranda on the staffing and structure of facilities and training of staff. Such expansion was not allowed to proceed for three reasons:

- a) the shortage of teachers in infant and primary schools;
- b) the dramatic rise in the birth rate in 1946;
- c) national economic constraints which led to cuts being made in expenditure on the social services.

In 1948, the Ministry of Education sent out its first post-war

TABLE No. 46

WAR-TIME DEVELOPMENT OF NURSERY FACILITIES
FROM 1941-1945

DATE	NUMBER OF NURSERIES			ACCOMMODATION		
	Part-time	Full-time	Total	Part-time	Full-time	Total
July 1941	82	36	118	-	-	-
July 1942	144	500	644	-	-	-
Dec. 1942	154	975	1,129	5,117	42,468	47,585
July 1943	127	1,218	1,345	4,103	54,613	58,716
July 1944	112	1,446	1,558	3,710	67,546	71,256
Sept. 1944	109	1,450	1,559	3,625	68,181	71,806
Jan. 1945	104	1,431	1,535	3,501	67,749	71,250

Source: Blackstone, T., A Fair Start, 1971, p.63.

circular dealing with the problem of teacher supply (Circular 175, 1948).⁵⁶ It pointed out the difficulty of providing an adequate number of trained teachers for nursery schools because of the demand for them in the infant and primary schools. For these reasons, it recommended the employment of women who had received short emergency training courses in child care, to be approved teachers in nursery schools, stressing that these arrangements were temporary, and hoping that they would be changed as soon as an adequate supply of full-trained teachers was available. During the 1950s and 1960s, the Ministry retracted this policy, although shortages in the labour force in general and of teachers continued to be a problem. To this effect, Circular 8/60 was issued in 1960 placing an embargo on expansion in pre-school education.

"No resources can be spread for expansion
and no teachers can be spread who might
otherwise work with children of compulsory
school age".⁵⁷

This restriction was partially relaxed in 1964 to enable married women with pre-school age children to return to work.

By July 1965, 22 new classes had been established by 16 LEAs, and by 1966 there were 53 new classes run by 33 authorities. As Short pointed out:

"The results of our inquiry were quite startling. We had always been lead to believe that what really held back the expansion of nursery education was the shortage of trained nursery teachers, but we found this was far from the case. More than one-third of the chief education officers said there quota was easily reached and they had no general shortage in their area, many said they would not find much difficulty in getting teachers for nursery classes, especially if they were organised on a part-time basis. Many authorities had set up their own in-service training for nursery teachers and these were attracting young married women with small children of their own". 58

The Plowden Committee also showed the need and capacity for expansion:

"One of its key recommendations was a large expansion of nursery education for about two-thirds of all three and four-year-olds, mainly on a part-time basis, but with provision for 15% to attend full-time". 59

The published report of the Plowden Committee contains the following statement:

"The under-fives are the only age group for whom no extra educational provision of any kind has been made since 1944. Since the successive governments have raised the minimum school leaving age and decided to raise it again in 1971The distribution of nursery schools and classes bears no relation to present day needs or wishes....In 1965, about seven per cent of all children under five in England were receiving some

form of education in a school or nursery class. The proportion has hardly changed since the 1930s (see Tables 47 and 48) although the quality of provision has almost certainly improved....Most, but not all, maintained nursery places are given to children who suffer some kind of social handicap. Some children are admitted because they lack companionship, others because their homes are too crowded or poor in other ways. They mainly come from flats lacking space or because housing is poor....some mothers are working, although our enquiries show this is not the reason for most admissions. Often there is more than one reason". 60

They recommended that a start should be made as soon as possible to give priority to the most severely deprived pupils starting with two per cent of the pupils and building up to ten per cent over five years. ⁶¹ They also estimated that their recommendations would require the equivalent of 743,750 nursery places by 1975. In the event, these recommendations were not acted upon by Government until 1972. ⁶²

In 1972, a major White Paper "Education, a Framework for Expansion" was issued by the Secretary of State for Education and Science (Mrs. M. Thatcher).

"It is a document of tremendous significance to the nursery school movement in Britain because it marks the first systematic step since 1870, when education was made compulsory at the age of five, to offer an earlier start in education, though on a part-time, non-compulsory, basis to something in the region of 1,400,00 children below the age of five". 63

The most important factor in bringing about this change of policy had been pressure from public opinion.

"In the early sixties when it became apparent that state nursery education was not expanding, a group of mothers banded together in order to form the pre-school Play Groups Association; this Association had grown to a large grass-roots movement for the provision of education facilities for children under five". 64

Another factor was a growing concern about the tendency of children from working class homes to underachieve in the educational system:

"There has been growing awareness of the importance of the earliest years in the child's life determining his intellectual potential". 65

A third factor which may have been significant in the decision to expand nursery education in 1972 was the slack in the system that had been created as a result of a declining birth rate in the late 1960s and a projected further decline in the 1970s. At any rate, the White Paper of 1972 announced "a major initiative in the provision of facilities for the under-fives". The conclusions and estimates given in the Plowden Report were accepted - that most needs could be met by part-time education and that places should be provided for all three and four-year-olds whose parents wanted them. It was envisaged that expansion to this level would take up to 1982, by which time there should be places available for 50 per cent of all three-year-olds, and 90 per cent of four-year-

olds, though LEAs were to develop their particular plans in the light of local conditions. The Government believed it appropriate for most of the provision to be in nursery classes within primary schools, mainly in order to avoid a change of school at the age of five, but also on the grounds of cost. The White Paper went on to say that the majority of educationists regarded part-time attendance to be preferable for most pre-school children, and estimated that only 15 per cent of places were needed on a full-time basis.

"The action the Government now proposed will give effect to these recommendations, their aim is that with the next ten years, nursery education should become available without charge. Within the limits of demand estimated by Plowden to those children of three or four whose parents wish them to benefit from it, Circular 8/60 will be withdrawn". 66

Following the White Paper, the Department of Education and Science issued Circular 2/73 to local authorities putting these principles into practice. £15 million a year was to be made available for the expansion of nursery education and LEAs were asked to assess their needs and submit them with building project requirements. It was made clear that there would be no central government resources for nursery provision for two-year-olds. An extract from Circular 2/73 states that:

"The objective is to make nursery education available for children whose parents want it from the beginning of the term after their third birthday, until the term after their fifth birthday. Demand for places for 3 year olds is likely to be much smaller than for 4 year olds, but provision should be made for both. Resources will not be available for additional provision for 2 year olds in nursery schools or classes". 67

It is clear from the above quotation that pre-school education had become recognised as a major national concern, even in respect of the extension of nursery provision, not just to overcome problems of deprivation but also to provide a richer basis of experience, emotional and social, for tens of thousands of young children in England. 68

Tables 47 and 48 serve to illustrate the extent to which developments did actually materialise during the period 1969-1983.

7.11 Private Nursery Schools and Classes

During the 1960s there was a great increase in the number of part-time places for three and four-year-olds for children in private day schools, departments and nursery schools. Private nursery schools only partially filled the gap left by the incomplete provision of maintained pre-schools as the fees charged made them largely the preserve of the middle class. The private sector responded during the 1960s by greatly increasing part-time places, especially for three and four-year-olds in private schools

TABLE No. 47

PUPILS UNDER 5 YEARS OF AGE IN ENGLAND
(BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND CLASS)

(thousands)

January of each year	1969	1973	1974	1976	1977	1978	1979
All schools	280	391	418	473	464	448	461
Maintained nursery and primary	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Full-time	210	274	282	299	265	238	247
Part-time	36	82	102	141	167	177	182
Nursery classes	91	110	123	158	187	201	210
Other classes	155	245	260	282	245	214	218
All other schools	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Full-time	18	21	20	21	20	20	21
Part-time	15	14	14	13	12	12	12
As percentage of population aged 3 years in	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Maintained nursery and primary	3	7	8	11	14	17	19
All schools aged 4 years in	4	8	9	13	16	18	20
Maintained nursery and primary	27	43	45	51	51	51	55
All schools	30	45	48	54	54	54	58

Source: Department of Education & Science, 1979, p.viii, England, HMSO, London.

TABLE No. 48

PUPILS UNDER FIVE YEARS OF AGE IN JANUARY ¹;
MAINTAINED NURSERY AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS FROM
1974 TO 1983.

January of each year	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983
(thousands) pupils under five years										
TOTAL	383.9	403.9	440.0	431.7	415.1	428.6	428.9	428.1	436.7	458.1
Full-time	282.0	284.4	298.7	264.5	238.4	246.9	244.4	238.3	233.3	237.9
Part-time	101.9	119.6	141.2	167.2	176.7	181.7	184.5	189.8	203.3	220.2
Nursery Classes ²	123.4	138.0	157.5	186.8	201.4	210.2	215.5	221.6	235.4	247.8
Infant Classes ³	260.5	266.0	282.4	244.9	213.7	218.4	213.5	206.5	201.3	210.4
As percentage of population aged 0-4 years	26.6	28.3	32.1	33.5	34.4	37.3	39.1	40.1	40.4	40.2

1. ages at 31st December - excluding pupils aged 4 years at 31st August who became 5 years of age by January.
2. Nursery school and nursery classes in primary schools.
3. Other classes in primary schools.

Source: Department of Education & Science, April 84.

"Under fives in maintained nursery and primary schools Table 48
 The number of pupils under five years of age in maintained nursery and primary schools increased by 21,400 to 458,100 in 1983. Most of this increase was due to a rise in the number of part-time pupils in nursery and infant classes in primary schools. Over the past ten years, the number of pupils under five has increased by 74,200. During the earlier half of this period, under fives were mainly taught in infant classes and only one-third attended nursery schools and classes. This proportion has changed considerably over recent years, and in 1983 over half the under fives were receiving education in nursery schools and classes". (Department of Education & Science, 1984).

and nursery schools. According to the N.U.T.:

"In 1965 there were over 18,000 of that age attending full-time and about 1,000 part-time, by 1969 there were 17,000 full-time and nearly 15,000 part-time. Furthermore, middle-class parents are the main users of private nursery education because usually only these parents can afford the fees that are charged. Although private nursery education remains a very small part of the total provision, the union believes that in order to equalise opportunity for nursery education for all children, private nursery schools and classes should be brought within the field of maintained supervision, thus casting aside selection procedures based on the financial well-being of the parents". 69

According to Tizard in 1976, registered private and public provision catered for about 24 per cent of the nation's under-fives during some part of their day when they are not with their mothers.⁷⁰ The form of provision for this minority varies from child minder to local authority day nursery, from playgroup to nursery class, with less than half of it provided by the public sector. As the N.U.T. pointed out:

"At present the majority of our children are denied this opportunity, only 18.0 per cent of our three and four-year-olds have access to 'public' nursery education. This compares lamentably with nursery provision by our European neighbours, in West Germany 70 per cent of under-fives receive pre-school education, the figures for France, Belgium and the Netherlands are even higher at 80 per cent and 90 per cent. This level of provision reflects the importance attached to early educational experience. In these

industrialised Western European countries, they rightly regard the education of young children as an investment for the future. As conference resolution 1979 states: 'nursery education is not a luxury but a vital part of ensuring the nation's future". 71

7.12 An Analysis of Pre-school Aims in England and Wales:

Despite the great interest evident in pre-school education in England and Wales in the past, relatively few systematic studies have been carried out on the aims of nursery education. However, it may be confidently stated that, because of the freedom given to heads and teachers in nursery schools and nursery classes to work out their own aims and objectives, there is no uniform pattern of pre-school education. It may be said that pre-school education in England and Wales is characterised by its informality. As McCreech and Maher stated:

"It is clear that, at the present time, there is a bewildering variety of provision for children under the age of five. It is also likely that different institutions have different ideas about how to provide for the needs of the young children in their care. Practices seem to vary from the simple provision of play materials to a more highly-structured learning environment provided by the nursery schools and classesIt is possible, of course, that there will be no general agreement about what the aims and objectives should be, even in the rare cases where these have been formulated and made explicit. In the 1930s, for example, the aims of pre-school education would have emphasised the physical needs and development of the child....In more recent years, increased knowledge of the course of the child's development has led to widening the aims to embrace all aspects of growth and development". 72

Traditionally, the emphasis in nursery education in England had been on the physical and social needs of children. In recent years a different emphasis has emerged, that is the general philosophy of positive discrimination: making nursery education selectively available to families considered to be socially and culturally deprived. The aim was to compensate for early deprivation by providing an educationally enriched experience for such children, thereby enabling them to take fuller advantage of this subsequent statutory education.⁷³ However, according to Webb the general sentiments informing the thinking on pre-school provision in England have been consistent, at least during the present century:

"From the suggestions for the consideration of teachers of 1905, and the third Report of the Consultative Committee under Hadow, of 1933, though definitive works on nursery education by Isaacs (1930-33) and De Lissa (1948), to the less specific contribution of the Plowden Committee 1967, there is surprisingly close agreement with what nursery schools should provide in general".⁷⁴

Concern with physical health and hygiene habits was the genesis of nursery schools, as stated above, especially in relation to the pioneering work of the Macmillans, but the first comprehensive analysis of aims was made by the Schools Council project at the University of Birmingham, and reported on by Taylor et al in 1972 under the title "A study of Nursery Education".⁷⁵ It was an account of the views of a national sample of nursery school

teachers on the aims and objectives of pre-school education and the teacher's role. A wide spectrum of aims was considered, and the following were specifically identified and listed:

- "(a) The intellectual development of the child: i.e. encouraging his use of language, helping him to learn how to learn, stimulating his curiosity, and encouraging the development of his ability to use concepts.
- (b) The social-emotional development of the child, i.e. helping the child to form stable relationships, encouraging his sense of responsibility, his consideration for others, his self-confidence, independence, and self-control.
- (c) The aesthetic development of the child, i.e. giving the child opportunities to experiment with a variety of materials in art and music, encouraging the child to be creative and expressive and awakening in him a growing awareness and appreciation of beauty.
- (d) The physical development of the child, i.e. helping the child to use his body effectively by providing fresh air, space to play and sleep, good food, training in personal hygiene and by regular medical attention.
- (e) The creation of an effective transition from home to school, i.e. providing mutually supportive conditions for the child's development in both the home and the school". 76

Obviously, these aims are not easily achieved, and it is therefore necessary to be selective in choosing objectives which underline the aims. They need also to be selected on the basis of their practicability. The objectives judged most important in the study,

refer to the acquisition of fundamental social and transitional skills. Lowest rated in importance were such skills as classifying, measuring, counting, and matching sets. This has been interpreted as showing resistance among teachers to give instruction in formal, structured or intellectual ways at an early age. The study also showed also that language development was not seen as an important aim in pre-school education in England at that time, though subsequent work by John Tough would certainly challenge such a judgement. ⁷⁷

A survey of nursery practices was undertaken by Parry and Archer as part of the Schools' Council Pre-School Education Project (1969-71) in nursery schools, nursery classes and other forms of pre-school education.

"The project's definition of 'good practice' is the result of many visits and discussions with teachers and other colleagues, to whom an enormous debt of gratitude is owed for their warm and ready co-operation". ⁷⁸

The project had been concerned to report what a selected group of teachers, nursery nurses, matrons and play group supervisors judged to be the aims and objectives of pre-school education and to document examples of good practice. The criteria selected as indices of success were basically the same, including: evidence of a deep concern for each individual child, the creation of the strongest possible links with the home and the use of structured play to stimulate cognitive, emotional, physical and social

development. In contrast to the findings of the Taylor study, the development of language in their view was not very important. As a result of their study, Parry and Archer gave as the main objectives of pre-school education in England:

- a) nurturing, safeguarding and caring for each child;
- b) appreciating uniqueness of each individual;
- c) providing opportunities for the child to experience and enjoy first-hand learning experience;
- d) providing situations which encourage each child to pursue his natural curiosity, which give choice, encourage attentiveness and help him to express himself;
- e) providing opportunities for questioning and discussion;
- f) developing through harmonious personal relationships an atmosphere conducive to learning;
- g) stimulating such learning by intervening when considered appropriate. 79

With respect to translating this into 'curriculum', Curtis⁸⁰ maintains that the evidence from motivation studies suggests that giving children choice is a very positive part of encouraging them 'to learn how to learn' but:

"teachers may either stick with one activity all the time, or flit from task to task without any attempt to finish anything. The response to such children will depend upon the professional's knowledge of that particular child or children". 81

However, some educators raised in a more general way the need to understand the processes by which learning occurs in the early years, or the ways in which cognitive skills can be developed. Several writers have mentioned the importance of studying the role of play in early learning, and the functions of different kinds of play. 82

According to Willis, 83 when children are required to learn routines that derive from adult values and perceptions, their learning is typically slow, uneven, the result of repeated efforts on the part of adult teacher and child learner, and in marked contrast with the spontaneous and effortless character of language acquisition. As James puts it: "There are experiences which are appropriate to this age group and level of development which we must try to provide". 84 The teacher's responsibility is to widen and further the child's experience, and this still seems to be the motivation behind the provision of pre-school facilities for learning in England in the 1980s.

. . . ,

The quality of the pre-school teacher is obviously crucial to the achievement of the aims and objectives identified above, and so the next chapter will examine the staffing dimension.

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CHAPTER EIGHT

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND NURSERY NURSES IN ENGLAND AND WALES

8.1 Introduction

The education of the under-fives in England and Wales has been generally neglected in the past, and because the establishment of nursery provision was left to the direction of LEAs, the resulting pattern has been disparate from county to county.¹ The training of nursery teachers in particular has been shaped by the broad trends and constraints of the education system as a whole, as well as by the influence of psychoanalytic and personal development studies in the social sciences.²

8.2 The Development of Teacher Training for Pre-School Work

The McMillan sisters, Rachel and Margaret, struggled for decades to focus attention on the importance of the early years in child development. In 1913 they started an open-air nursery school in Deptford for two to five year olds, and Margaret's efforts to train teachers in the school led eventually in 1930 to the establishment of a teacher-training college. Maria Montessori stressed the importance of providing young children with a stimulating environment. She ran short training courses for teachers and, in 1912, the English version of her book 'The Montessori Method'³ made an immediate impact. In 1933, when only about 13 per cent of three to five-year-olds were attending nursery schools (both public and private), the Hadow Report

recommended that each nursery school should have at least one qualified teacher whose training had included nursery education. Hadow also stressed that the training of the nursery school or class must be carried into the home by active co-operation with the parents of the children.⁴ In connection with this, the Hadow Report of 1933 recommended:

"A sharp division between the training of teachers for service in nursery schools or classes and in infant schools seems to us inadvisable. A little more emphasis might be laid on the nursery side for those dealing with children under five, and on the scholastic side for those in charge of children between five and seven, but such emphasis on selection of studies should not exclude the great field of common knowledge and common understanding which all those who have the training should study the stages of development in children up to the age of seven with due regard to every aspect of growth. She should learn to note progress, to observe any signs of defect, and to keep records. She should gain some insight into the emotional problems of little children and learn to handle their crises.... It does not follow, however, that the more specialised training will necessarily tie the teacher to service in a particular type of school. A knowledge of children, their growth and their mental processes, should be the basis of all training. The training college can only prepare the teacher for the practice of a craft which has still to be learnt in the school of experience, year by year the teacher will place reliance on her actual experience".⁵

Since the 1944 Education Act, many developments have occurred with regard to training programmes for intending teachers and nursery nurses. First, the emergency training scheme was put into operation, training large numbers who had much to offer the profession in terms of experience which, in many cases, replaced school-leaving qualifications. Members of staff moved from the traditional colleges into the newer ones and other staff had to be hastily recruited to fill the vacancies. The older training colleges with their leisurely training programmes received a stimulus from the mature students with wartime experience who were not content with the old authoritarian methods and questioned some cherished assumptions.⁶ At that time, not only had the students coming from schools into colleges to be accommodated, but also those who had been teaching for some years as 'uncertificated' teachers.

By the 1950s, the emergency colleges were considered to have completed the job for which they were created and they were either closed or absorbed into the main stream of training, filling the need of the area in which they were situated. The duration of the training was then one or two years:

"In 1961, the course changed from two years to three. The next innovation was the introduction of nursery/infant, infant/junior, junior/secondary courses, leaving only a small number of "pure" secondary students restricting to studying shortage subjects for their main studies. The idea of these new division was to broaden the training so that students were not restricted to skills pertaining to one

age group only. Teachers needed to be more flexible, it was realised that children's progress did not conform to the arbitrary divisions of nursery/ infant, junior etc....They needed to know what came before and what followed after their chosen age group....Then came the addition of the fourth year, the B.Ed. course. Mature students were admitted to short term courses if their qualifications or experience were judged by the colleges to merit this. Post-graduate students were also in some colleges for a one-year course....In spite of the demand there are still not enough teachers training. The latest developments in this field are the "conversion" courses, which are offered for one term of one year, to enable teachers trained for teaching older children to learn how to cope with pre-school education". 7

In 1966, the Weaver Report made further recommendations for changes in the government of the colleges and in the continued establishments of academic boards with them.⁸ Then the Plowden Report made recommendations similar to those of Hadow, stressing in particular the importance of parental interest and co-operation. Nursery groups should consist of 20 children, with a ratio of at least one qualified teacher to 60 children, supported by trained assistants in the ratio of one to ten children.⁹

"The far-reaching nature of recent developments in early education means that we have to look again at the preparation which we offer to the teachers. Education is more and more based upon using the natural purposes and interest of children to lead them on to valuable knowledge and achievement and, more important still, to foster their loving and creative attitude and to establish the

confidence which will enable them to tackle difficulties and exercise mental energy and self control....It is valuable, however, to teach students specifically the truth that the child is always aware of our attitudes towards him and a total relationship with him will not be spoilt by some mistakes, if they are not too many and do not last too long. At the age of which most students are in college, there is often a great sensitivity to mistakes and a tendency to worry overmuch, and while it is helpful to encourage students to think constructively how to improve their teaching, they should not be subjected to negative criticism, nor be overwhelmed by too much emphasis on the requirements of their profession. They will meet them better if they enjoy their work and act, on the whole, spontaneously". 10

The lack of opportunity and doubtful prospects for employment in nursery work, particularly in the early 1960s, has undoubtedly been one of the factors discouraging students from embarking on nursery teaching as a career. Even by the 1970s it was not anticipated that the supply of teachers for the younger age groups (nursery and infant) would be sufficient for the needs of the schools throughout that decade.¹¹ Furthermore, the progress of the nursery school movement and the strength of the demand for some form of nursery education for all young children, ensures that the demand for qualified teachers will continue to grow.

Many, perhaps the majority, of those influencing the present generation of nursery school teachers, received their training

and drew their inspiration from pioneers of the movement, who spent their lives in arousing the consciousness of nations to a realisation of the needs of young children, in developing the techniques of the nursery school, in preparing others to carry on the task at home and abroad.¹²

Eventually, in 1970, the Department of Education and Science reconsidered the balance of training in colleges of education.¹³ It was proposed that the proportion of students following courses in nursery, nursery/infant, infant or infant/junior work should be increased from the 1968-69 level of 32 per cent to above 40 per cent, and that in future the balance of training should be organised in three bands:

- a) the first school (3 to 9 years): approximately 40 per cent of the students;
- b) intermediate (7 to 13 years): approximately 38 per cent of the students;
- c) secondary (11 years and over): approximately 22 per cent of the students.

In 1972, the Department of Education and Science made further recommendations in the already mentioned "A Framework for Expansion":

"The rapid expansion of nursery education will require more staff. This will need to be expanded and provision for courses leading to the certificate of the National Nursery Examination Board; and it will be necessary to seek new and imaginative ways of attracting into training as nursery assistants, both school leavers and others who can take a full-time course and older candidates who may not have the time or resources for this. Both will be needed and each will have a distinctive contribution to make.

Above all, the programme will require many more qualified teachers, particularly if, as the Government hopes, the proportion of teachers in the staff of nursery classes, at present about a third, is to grow to at least a half. The objective is to maintain the present overall ratio of pupils to adult staff of 13-1. For this purpose, the present number of about 10,000 qualified teachers of pupils below the age of five may need to be increased to upwards of 25,000 in ten years' time. It follows that more students in colleges of education must be attracted to suitable courses....In addition, some serving teachers whose initial training and experience have been concerned mainly with older age groups and who wish to turn to nursery education, may require further training to equip them for the purpose". 14

By 1975, the best estimate of the number of adults involved in pre-school programmes in England and Wales was approximately 18,000. There are two groups of adults working in pre-school education - the teachers and the nursery nurses. It is the training of such staff which will be the researcher's main concern here. At present, this training is in two separate channels, the teachers in Colleges of Education/Higher Education/Polytechnics or Universities, and the nursery nurses in Further Education Colleges, and Training Centres.

8.3 The Training of Teachers for Pre-School Work

The qualification for entry to training for the teaching profession as a whole is based on the number and quality of 'O' and 'A' level passes a candidate can offer. There are only occasional exceptions to the rule of at least five 'O' levels and these are normally in the cases of mature students. Such candidates may offer something in lieu of 'O' level work, for example a diploma, or some experience in an area which did not itself require so many 'O' levels. In this respect, according to McLellan:

"College can recommend to its University Institute or School of Education that it considers the student is a suitable candidate for teacher-training and the University considers the evidence and pronounces judgement. But proper qualifications of this nature are only part of the selection procedure. Most colleges of education have a pattern of interviews and some tests which depend on the basic requirement of individual colleges. For example, there are some who interview with a view to balancing the number of students with vacancies in main subject courses. Others are more interested in a student's commitment to the profession of teaching and are content to leave main subject numbers more to chance....The teacher's course is three years, with the possibility of a fourth year offering a B.Ed. degree. The teacher's certificate awarded at the end of the three years, or, in the case of mature or post-graduate students, after two or one year's work, required the student to be successful in an examination. This aims to test both theory and practice. Actual examination structure varies from one university to another, but most have some kinds of monitoring system for grading". 15

There are, in fact, still only a small number of colleges in England and Wales with established nursery or nursery/infant courses. Many of those who do offer courses for intending teachers in nursery schools combine them with infant-school training. When there were over 150 Colleges of Education alone in England and Wales, (as recently as 1970), 43 had programmes for the training of pre-primary teachers, and they produced about 1,800 nursery school teachers every year. In respect of that quite substantial sector of teacher training, Nelson commented:

"They are trained to understand child development, the structure of language, and basic mathematical and scientific concepts. They are also taught how to assess the abilities and progress of individual children.
The number of teachers in maintained nursery schools rose from 925 in 1964 to 1371 in 1974. As a part of their duties, nursery teachers are expected to supervise the training of nursery nurses and college of education students. Each school has a qualified headteacher whose assistants are either trained teachers or qualified nursery nurses or nursery assistants. Each class should have a qualified teacher, should be assessed by at least one full-time nursery assistant and two (NNEB) students. Increasingly, teachers welcome parents in nursery schools, but the general professional attitude remains cautious, and the degree of parental involvement varies considerably from school to school". 16

Although there are variations of emphasis in the various institutions, the certificate course is composed in the main of the following elements: the theory of education, practical work within

the schools, curriculum, studies and at least one further main or major field of study selected from a variety of options. According to Parry and Archer, there should be fundamental objectives in a nursery training group. The following aims were seen as contributing towards a sound basis for a student's professional future: that is to say, the training course should:

- a) deepen and extend the student's knowledge and understanding of herself and her environment;
- b) study principles which underlie effective classroom practice and give practice in some of the techniques and skills necessary for teaching;
- c) contribute towards an understanding of children growing up in a variety of sub-cultures;
- d) provide some understanding of current developments in education;
- e) provide a sufficient grasp of the terminology and techniques of research as well as enable the students to keep abreast of some of the experimental work that is described in journals;
- f) provide opportunities for forming relationships with contemporaries and together with progressive appreciation of a teacher's role;
- g) recognise and cater for individual differences and give opportunities for responsible choices to be made.

According to one set of research findings,¹⁸ teachers were asked to indicate their views on the importance of eleven possible components of a course for nursery teachers. The outcome was that the most valuable areas of study were considered to be: practice nursery teaching, child psychology, theory and philosophy of education, health and hygiene; while the least helpful seemed to be: history of education, the study of academic subjects, educational organisation and administration. It was interesting, though not surprising, to note that a study of expressive subjects such as music, art, dance and drama is considered to be relevant and worthwhile by many nursery teachers.

Practical work in schools usually takes the form of a block of several weeks duration in each year of training, plus additional days for specific purposes, such as observation and child study. In many programmes, aspiring nursery teachers may spend up to two out of three practices with other age groups.¹⁹ This combination nursery with infant training has been cited as an advantageous method in that it gives the students a wider understanding of the developing child, as well as a very necessary flexibility within available opportunities for employment.

Many educationalists in Britain, both trainers and teachers, stress the importance of in-service training and education as a vital supplement to initial training in the light of on-going experience in the nursery schools or classes. In connection with this, Clift et al in 1980 wrote:

"The James Report recommended that teachers should be released for the equivalent of one term in seven years' service, and aimed at the release of three per cent of the teaching force annually by 1981. At present this seems a remote ideal. However, in-service courses are provided for practising nursery teachers, and in some cases for nursery nurses in the education service, by the Department of Education and Science or by local education authorities and colleges of education. They vary in form from day-release to vocation schools or after-school lectures, and range in duration from one evening to a year. The programme of in-service training attempts a balance between the personal interests of the practitioner and the needs of particular schools. Provision is various, and courses specific interest to nursery staff range across interest in particular nursery activities (e.g. music, art and crafts etc.); child development; conversion courses for teachers with training in non-nursery age groups....In some areas, school-based courses are organised in addition to those of a theoretical nature". 20

Views on the standards achieved by such students varies considerably.

For example, according to Birell:

"The interviewing of a hundred college leavers and teachers for posts in nursery and infant schools have convinced me that teacher-training is often inadequate, inappropriate or bothLooking back thirty years, one can recall the Froebel teacher-training. Froebel teachers were in demand all over the world and their understanding of nature and needs of young children was greatly respected. Students studying for the Froebel external certificate were based in a school

with Froebel teachers and observed their practice while studying the principles from some of the same teachers and others chosen for their particular expertise. The Froebel Trainer's Diploma was the only course which directly prepared teachers for their role. It is regrettable that this rigorous and highly relevant course is no longer available....In recent years the tendency has been for the organisation of courses to separate theory from practice. Most commonly the main course is a selected specialist subject which may not relate to the teaching required in nursery and infant schools. The course rarely included any study of appropriate teaching methods, materials or curriculum development appropriate to the age of the children". 21

The reason given for this policy is the belief that students need to follow a course of study at their own level to develop and extend their knowledge in one discipline. Many in the field of pre-school education are concerned about the diminishing number of teachers with good experience in nursery and infant schools and with advanced professional qualifications who are able to undertake the training of nursery and infant teachers. This feeling is especially evident in that Britain has led the world with its innovative practice in nursery and infant schools, but now seems to be affording the whole pre-school sector a lower priority. This is clearly a mistaken policy, since it can safely be argued that the nursery school teacher has a particularly complex job. He/she has to weld together a group of very small children from different backgrounds using substantial skills to identify their past learning in order to work out relevant future programmes at individual level, sometimes in

collaboration with their parents.²² Such a teacher should have thorough knowledge of child development and sufficient subject expertise to identify each child's optimum learning route in all areas of the curriculum. Above all, the teacher must be able to convey what is being done to other professionals and laymen in order to gain the respect, support and resources needed for the work. Consequently, programmes that were conducted largely by child development specialists are now being shifted to educational psychologists and early childhood education specialists in schools, or departments of psychology and education. Nonetheless, field experience remains the most crucial component of pre-service training, though the amount of practice provided in British training courses at this level varies considerably. Arrangements for field experiences also differ from one institution to another. In an interesting series of studies of selected characteristics of students and their field placements for practice teaching, Becher and Ade²³ reported data suggesting that students relatively low in self-confidence perform better in practice teaching when matched with a co-operative teacher who is relatively weak. Apparently, such students self-confidence is further eroded when matched with a co-operating teacher who appears to be full of assurance and who makes teaching look easy. Early field experience is assumed to have the advantage of giving trainees better opportunities to try on the future teaching role and therefore to be better able to make an informed career choice.²⁴

In a practical approach, a creative use of observation, in simulation and small groups as well as full-class practice situations, could lead to the assumption of full responsibility for the total learning experiences of a class. According to Jonston, students in practice report problems of getting their supervisors to treat them fairly, respect professional judgement, and include them in the decision-making for their classrooms. They also reported problems in getting their supervisor to give them feedback about their performance. ²⁶

Despite the very young age of pre-school children, standards of preparation of trainee teachers for these children must be at least as high as of those who wish to teach older children. In this respect, Webb pointed out that:

"The early years of childhood are so formative indeed, that teachers of young children should logically be the elite of an elite profession. They should certainly be as good as the best, as committed, as well as informed as and capable of critical, evaluative thinking as any teacher we train, in whatever kind of institution. Without such an underpinning of excellence, the whole educational system is at risk.We have the choice of providing initially fewer courses of good quality in the colleges, or providing more rapidly, more courses of an inadequate nature.In a very real sense the whole future of education and society could depend on the tiny band of nursery infant specialists, who train the teachers and who have now been called to the centre of the stage". ²⁷

The long term capability to expand pre-school provision will depend largely on the quality of those who train as teachers and in the quality of their training: much more so than on finance and resourcing, important though these aspects are. In any case, pre-school teachers are required to be, not only teachers but also advisers and tutors to nursery nurses and assistants.²⁸ This wider role is implicit in the 1981 Education Act, as Russel has pointed out.²⁹

8.4 The Training of Nursery Nurses

The second group of adults in the community to whom British parents may entrust their pre-school age children are the nursery nurses. They work as assistants in nursery schools and classes, helpers and sometimes supervisors in play groups. They also staff day and residential nurseries but they are usually working there under matrons who are State-Registered Nurses.³⁰ The nursery nurses have their own training courses. For example, the Norland Nursery Training College, opened in 1892, was one of the early independent residential colleges founded to train girls to take complete charge of babies and young children. The tradition of the British 'Nanny' is a respected one deriving from the colonial era when they worked all over the world and ruled their nurseries with very strict disciplinary codes.³¹

In 1906, the National Association of Nursery Nurses established a scheme for training nursery nurses in the voluntary day nurseries which were opened in different parts of the country.

Eventually, in 1946, a two-year course for the examination and certificate of the National Nursery Examination Board came into existence, the Board having been established the previous year. Nursery nursing was a popular career for British girls particularly interested in young children, but while the demand for training has been maintained, some of the courses have not. However, the Board still operates as a self-financing educational trust, drawing income from examination. It is responsible for the syllabus of courses leading to the N.N.E.B. examination; students spending 60% of their time in college and 40% in practical placements. Up to 5,000 nursery nurses may be prepared each year, in 146 courses, for a wide range of jobs - in nursery classes, schools, and day nurseries.³² The aim of the tutors who are responsible for the student's vocational training is to give them a sound basic philosophy, good standards and a knowledge of the needs of the child at each stage of development. In some areas the students attend colleges for two days each week, spending the other days carrying out their practical training in nurseries and schools. In others, they attend college and nursery or school alternate weeks. The practical training is carried out in nurseries and schools which have been approved by the Department of Education and Science and by the Ministry of Health and the Children's Department of Home Office. The course is designed to enable N.N.E.B. to work with children in such a way as to give them freedom to grow, physically, mentally and emotionally. Nonetheless, according to Mason, their training would be much enhanced if there were agreed sets of objectives for under-fives.³³ As to content, this has

been described by Nelson:

"Students usually spend two fifths of their time working with children. The rest of their time is taken up by integrated courses of general and specialised studies in colleges of further education, where students learn of the development of children between birth and the age of seven, what their needs are, and how to meet them. Great importance is attached to the day to day observation of children in day nurseries, residential nurseries, nursery schools, nursery classes, and infant schools. Students work with children of ages spanning at least four years. The NNEB certificate is a qualification for jobs in the various types of nurseries and nursery schools and also in hospitals, special schools and with voluntary organisations, both at home and abroad". 34

Many colleges providing the N.N.E.B. training course also offer in-service programmes. A survey carried out recently by the N.N.E.B. is quoted by Clift:

"....the types of courses offered included general refresher courses, encouraging the language development of young children, the care of children with special needs and children in ethnic minority groups. At present, the Board is seeking the advice of the LEA and Social Services Departments on the desirability of the N.N.E.B. giving a lead in the promotion of in-service courses, and on the nature and extent of in-service needs in different parts of the country. In context with the increasing inter-departmental co-operation, several local education authorities have

set up Liaison Committees or working panels, and through these offer in-service support to all concerned with pre-school provision of teachers, nursery nurses, health workers, social workers, etc. This support includes regular meetings, lectures, short-term and evening courses".

With the expansion of early childhood education in the 1970s, there was growing criticism that the N.N.E.B. had not kept pace with the changes and had become outdated and autocratic. In response, the N.N.E.B. appointed an independent evaluation team. The clientele to which the N.N.E.B. is in effect working is now increasingly in the private sector, there having been very little expansion of education in most parts of the country for some years now. Another trend is towards the inclusion of male trainees. 36

Staffing ratios in nursery schools have always remained high, but the appointment of a teacher and nursery assistant who have professional training at this level can give the right opportunities to plan the curriculum and give scope to implement plans in a flexible and imaginative way in nursery education.

The two courses, 'child development and care', and 'observation of children' are a common component nationwide and are worthy of brief description.

a) Child Development and Care

All the colleges have a similar course where the development of the child is studied. The aim is to give nursery students a wide theoretical knowledge and understanding of children's growth, and to combine this with practical skills. The following areas of knowledge are normally required:

i) development of the child, from 0-7 years;

ii) continuity of care, and the need for responsive confident relationships among the members of the nursery;

iii) needs of young children and their families, including issues of social, physical, emotional and intellectual deprivation, disturbed behaviour and mental handicap. Most of the time students' experience will be with normal healthy children, but variations in development have to be discussed and encountered;

iv) an understanding of the education, social and health services, and community development;

v) significance of the family as a social institution.

The child, his home and in the community. Aspects of family life which provide for the sound development of the child in the 20th century society. Introduction to school life and what this means to the child and his family.

b) Observation of Children

An observation of children forms an integral part of the training considered by the N.N.E.B. It is expected that students will find opportunities to supplement their planned practical

experience of young children by informal contacts with those they know. Students are sent to both nursery and infant schools and spend days simply watching children in detail. ³⁷

Videos and one-way screens are widely used modern devices to enable students to get closer to the real action and analyse the happenings and their after-effects. In these circumstances, students and tutors together can examine a situation and learning can be reinforced. Another skill of observation is in recognising individual differences in children so that some kind of developmental picture can be built up. ³⁸

Another area in which the observation of children is of crucial importance for students is the study of children's language. Much research has been done on the influence of the children's social background on the development of their language and how this affects their learning in schools later. ³⁹

c) General studies components meet the belief that any scheme of vocational training shall have a wider aim than the mere mastery of the processes involved. The main objective of general studies is the personal development of the student. The content of the course is divided into three broad areas as follows:

- i) communication and the creative arts;
- ii) man and his environment;
- iii) home and society.

All this is very general, and, according to Fontana,

"A great deal of discussion is needed - and will continue to be needed - on the planning of nursery training courses if they are to develop into this distinctive area of professional study". 40

However, as pointed out by Caswell, ⁴¹ the greatest problem facing curriculum planners is to establish a relationship between general aims and the specific process of selecting course content. Yanemura is sure that: "A clear career ladder is available for those wishing to advance". ⁴² For example, nursery nurses can become qualified teachers with further study.

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Having examined the development and general characteristics of the pre-school sector in both the 'Arab World' and especially Libya on the one hand and England on the other, the context has been provided for the first hand empirical work undertaken by the writer in order to get 'inside' the systems in question. The field work and its outcomes inform the following chapter.

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PART D

EMPIRICAL STUDIES AND FIELD WORK

CHAPTER NINE

COMPARATIVE CASE STUDIES FROM THE HULL AREA OF ENGLAND AND DERNA

CITY IN LIBYA : RESEARCH DESIGN

9.1 Introduction

Current thought on early childhood education in both Libya and England is, a reflection of the historical development of education in each country. So far, this study has been based on documentary research, but in order to examine current realities in both countries, it was necessary to undertake empirical research. It was decided to collect information from teachers who are involved in pre-school education in locations in both countries, namely from the area of Kingston-upon-Hull in England and the Derna area in Libya. In addition to the comparison itself, and the basic data derived, it is also hoped that some elements of U.K. practice might be applied to Libya in order to assist pre-school developments there. So this chapter presents the context of the two cities selected, describes the methodology of the study, gives details of the teachers' questionnaire, its validation and sampling procedures.

The City of Kingston-upon-Hull and its environs was selected by the writer because she is studying at the University of Hull and was therefore able to visit a number of nursery schools and nursery classes there. She selected the Derna area of Libya in view of the comparability of these cities, particularly in the following aspects:

- a) the provincial location of each within the context of its own country;
- b) the density of the population as compared with the general pattern of population of each country;
- c) the place of each of them in the history of its country;
- d) the proportion of the pre-school teachers in both these cities as against the total number of teachers;
- e) there is great demand for pre-school provision evident in both Hull and Derna, which in both cases is imperfectly met.

9.2 Kingston-upon-Hull

Hull, as it is normally called, is a great industrial and commercial city, a major sea port, a regional focus and an important centre of learning and research. The township of Hull came into existence some time in the late twelfth century A.D. At first it was called Wyke-upon-Hull, and it was only after King Edward I took over the port in 1293 that it became Kingston (i.e. King's town) upon Hull. The word 'Wyke' originated from the Scandinavian word "vik", meaning a creek, referring to point where the river Hull entered the river Humber. ¹

Hull is situated on the north bank of the Humber estuary, almost exactly midway between London and Edinburgh. It is

recognised as a major gateway between Britain and the European mainland, particularly the Benelux countries. The waters of the Humber form the southern boundary of the city and on all other sides, the build-up area gives way to highly productive agricultural land. It is about 25 miles from the open sea. To the west of the city, the M62 motorway provides a rapid route between the two great northern sea ports of Hull and Liverpool and links Hull directly into the national motorway network.

Although a flourishing port had developed by the late thirteenth century, it was during the nineteenth century that Hull began to emerge as a great city in the modern sense. The advent of the railway network from 1840 onwards, of steamships and the building of more docks extended the city along the Humber frontage. There was a rapid growth of local industries which attracted workers, as illustrated by the rapid increase of population from about 30,000 in 1800 to 230,000 in 1900 and to 269,100 in 1985. The second world war brought severe blows to the city, which was bombed several times. In that war, over 7,000 Hull people were killed and 92 per cent of houses in Hull suffered bomb damage.

In 1981, the Humber Bridge, a dream for over a hundred years, was opened by the Queen. At the time of writing, it is still the world's largest single-span suspension bridge, and is located just to the west of the city.²

In the 1980s, Kingston-upon-Hull is the twelfth city of Britain in respect of the size of the conurbation and one of Britain's major industrial and commercial centres. Although maritime trade, especially the fishing industry, has declined, it still ranks among the country's leading sea ports. There are fine buildings, many with historic associations, several museums, a notable art gallery, pleasant parks and gardens.³

Hull is a major centre of learning and instruction with educational facilities at all levels from nursery school to university, and including a wide variety of trade or vocational training opportunities. Since the 1974 reorganisation of local government, the Local Education Authority schools have been administered by Humberside County Council. In addition, there are several fee-paying schools in the city and surrounding area.

First-class facilities for post-school education and training in a wide range of disciplines are provided by the Hull Colleges of Further and Higher Education. These were formed in 1976 following the integration of the city's former Colleges of Education (two), Technology, Commerce, Art and Design and Maritime Studies. The present College of Further Education is organised into seven Departments: Business Studies, Construction and Building Services, Engineering, Food and Fashion, General Education of Liberal Studies, Mathematics and Science, and Secretarial Studies. It has a total student body (full and part-time) of about 7,500. At the College

of Higher Education there are now about 2,800 full-time and 5,000 part-time students, many of them on degree or degree equivalent courses.

Hull's total student population is considerable, for in addition to the figures for the LEA colleges, there are about 5,000 at the University of Hull which was founded in 1928 as a University College of the University of London, achieving its full university status with the grant of a Royal Charter in 1954. Recent reorganisation as part of the U.K. Government's restructuring of the university sector, has produced about 15 'Schools of Study' within which there are numerous departments, some of a highly-specialised nature. The University of Hull has now developed strong areas of expertise in electronic engineering design and manufacture, European languages (including Dutch and Scandinavian languages), political science, health administration, industrial chemistry, and teacher education.

This expansion of nursery education has produced a demand for trained nursery teachers in the area. This development gave the LEA an opportunity to redeploy teachers from primary schools whose establishments were being reduced because of falling rolls. However, few of these redeployed teachers had any nursery training or background, and to date no local retraining scheme has been formulated, despite the fact that in 1982, the Education Committee underlined the importance of suitable training for those re-employed teachers and the other teachers to update their own knowledge of

modern educational thought and practice. It was at that time that the LEA and the Hull College of Higher Education began to consider the possibility of a one-term full-time course in the education of young children. The nursery situation has changed considerably over the past ten or fifteen years and many teachers would welcome the change to update their knowledge and experience. It is possible that the restructuring of primary teacher training in Hull, involving the co-operation of the College of Higher Education and the University will include such a component as from 1989.

9.3 Derna

Derna is located in a small deltaic plain on the northern coast of Libya, directly to the east of the Gebel Akhdar mountain range. It is the third largest city in the Benghazi region and one of the important centres along the coastal highway which connects it to Baida and Tobruk at distances of 90 kilometres to the west and 175 kilometres to the east, respectively. ⁴

Both the city and the high lands are crossed by a number of wadis, most important of which is Wadi Derna which passes through the centre of the city. All the wadis, as well as the plain, are quite fertile with a good vegetation cover in certain locations, especially in the middle and western parts of the city. Obviously, the wadis contribute to an interesting and varied environment and also create favourable micro-climatic

conditions, within an overall mild Mediterranean climate.

As an urban environment, Derna is discontinuous in that because of the wadis that traverse it from south to north and also because of an escarpment which divides the city into an upper and lower side, the neighbourhoods as well as the very centre of the town, are inevitably discrete entities.

Derna stands on the site of the Greek town of Darnis, from which the Arab name is presumably derived. It seems that it continued to be occupied throughout the Arab period, but was given new life through the settlement there of Muslem refugees from Spain at the end of the fifteenth century.⁵

As a result of its location, Derna has had a long and eventful history which can be traced back to ancient Greek times. During the Turkish era, the city increased in importance, overshadowing both Merj and Benghazi, due to its harbour and the establishment of a military garrison in the area that served as a base for attacks on Cyrenaica and Tripolitania. It must, however, be remembered that in Turkish times Benghazi and Derna were little more than villages, and many of their inhabitants were foreigners, either Jews or immigrants from Tripolitania and of other countries of the Magrib.

War was declared on Turkey on 29th September 1911 and opened with the bombardment of Derna town on the following day and of

Tripoli Town a few days later. During October of that year, the Italians occupied Tripoli, Tubruq, Derna, Benghazi, and Khams. Under the Italian occupation, Derna became an important administrative and commercial centre.

In January 1939, the four provinces of Tripoli, Benghazi, Derna and Misurata became an integral part, and the nineteenth region, of metropolitan Italy. Thus, when Italy joined the Second World War in June 1940, Libyan exiles in Egypt found the United Kingdom a more reliable ultimate guarantor of their national aspirations than either Ottoman Turkey or Imperial Germany.⁶ When the British counter-attacked in the Winter of 1940-1, thereby bringing German reinforcements to the aid of their Italian allies. Benghazi and Derna were occupied and then evacuated twice by the British before the third and final conquest following the battle of El Alamein in late 1942. In this campaign, Derna suffered heavily in respect of damage.

Derna is mentioned in the criticism of Libyan independence (1951) made by Allen:

"Political independence is not a guarantee of a full independence and many bonds of dependence remain, among them economic, financial, technical and military ties. In the case of Libya alone even after the French troops in the Fezzan had effectively withdrawn in 1957, there were still British military bases at Derna, Barqah, Benghazi, Misuratah, Al Khams, Tripoli and Sabratah, and American bases at Derna, Benghazi, Misuratah and Wheelas Field (a military base close to Tripoli)".⁷

In the 1980s, the port of Derna (now fourth in importance in Libya) lies off the downtown area and is well served by the coastal highway. However, despite the very large amount of progress that Derna has made since independence, there are still a number of problems that need resolving. One such problem is the disparity between the various neighbourhoods that comprise the city. The best off are the neighbourhoods which have been recently built on the basis of complete plans, predesigned with modern utilities. In such areas, the potential is there for completion and fulfilment of all their needs. At the other extreme, there are areas which need substantial attention, for the provision of services, improved housing and general redevelopment.

The latest reliable census figure for the population of Derna (1973) was 122,984. The population has grown since then and is expected to grow in the future in line with economic development. This growth will reflect the present economic basis of the area and the scope for development. As compared with Hull, the manufacturing sector of the economy is at present rather small. Having been historically an important agricultural centre, Derna has not had much incentive to develop its industrial sector until very recently when some industrial areas are beginning to be established in the city.

Education in Derna, like any other city in Libya, has passed through several historical stages, each being distinguished by

certain political and cultural factors. Before independence in 1951, there were few educated people in Derna. With greater demand for education, special places were designed to receive pupils of different ages in a mosque. Pre-1951, children were accepted after the age of four and stayed for six or eight years, after which they could continue their higher education in Elazhur University in Egypt. When independence was granted in 1951, there were less than 20 Libyans with University degrees, 5 of whom were from Derna.

Derna has a local educational administration in which authority is exercised on behalf of the national Ministry of Education in the capital city, Tripoli. It consists of kindergartens, elementary, preparatory, secondary schools, teacher-training colleges, and technical schools. All schools and colleges are controlled by the State, the Ministry of Learning and Education, and are free. The Ministry of Learning and Education determines all curricula in the schools and colleges. The teachers have to teach from the books designed by the Ministry and they are not allowed to use other (unapproved) sources to supplement their official resources.

Maps showing the location of Hull and Derna comprise Appendix A .

9.4 The Design and Operation of the Surveys

a) The purpose of the questionnaires administered in both Hull and Derna may be summarised as follows:

i) to obtain as accurate and full picture as possible of pre-school provision;

ii) to discover the opinions of the teachers concerning their training, and the aims and content of their daily programmes;

iii) to gain information about the major current trends in pre-school education, for use in making recommendations for the future development of pre-school education in Libya.

b) Much of the information in the questionnaire was constructed from recent studies of pre-school education in England and Wales and selected Arab countries. The first resources for the questionnaire were 'School Council Working Paper 41'⁸ and a report of the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales.⁹ The former was modified for Arabic countries by Mardan from Iraq, and El-Nashif from Kuwait.¹⁰

An attempt was made to keep the difference between England and Libyan questionnaires to a minimum, so as to make the comparison between findings possible. But certain additions or omissions and a very few alterations were made in the Libyan questionnaire to make it more applicable to the conditions under which Libyan teachers worked. Some of the changes concerned data on the teachers, such as training, qualifications, teaching experience, and other background information.

c) The Questionnaire consisted of three sections, including the instruction to the teachers and a personal letter from the researcher explaining the purpose of the questionnaire and asking for co-operation (See Appendix B).

The purpose of the questionnaire may be summarised as follows:

Section A i) Personal details of the teachers:

The purpose of this section was to obtain basic information about their age group, marital status, number of children taught and the physical conditions of the premises;

ii) Motives for entering pre-school teaching: teachers were asked to indicate which of fourteen choices influenced their decision to enter teaching.

iii) Length of teaching in their present nursery or kindergarten, and the length of their experience with pre-school children, and with other age groups.

iv) Content of teacher education: the samples were asked to judge the relative importance of eleven possible patterns of teacher-training courses, and to indicate what were, in their opinions, the most useful courses by stating their preferences on a five-point scale: 5 - very important, 4 - important, 3 - of only minor importance, 2 - unimportant, 1 - irrelevant, of the

eleven teacher-training topics, which were chosen from Taylor et al¹¹ study, and included: theory and philosophy of pre-school education, practical skills, (e.g. toy-making, construction of games); the study of one or more academic subject; educational organisation and administration; practice in pre-school; child psychology; curriculum studies (e.g. teaching and reading and writing), history of education; health and hygiene etc.

v) Teachers were also asked to give their views on the length of the training process.

vi) Teachers were asked to give their opinions about the practical components and how long they should be .

vii) Teachers were asked if they attended any in-service training.

Section B: Pre-School Curriculum

This section was concerned with the curriculum of pre-school education in both countries. New trends and activities in pre-school programmes were also included for the purpose of discovering the attitudes of teachers to them. This information was needed to give a clear picture of the present situation of pre-school education. In this, the following were covered:

i) Teachers were asked to give their opinions to rate the present programmes, and to have their opinions concerning using formal methods or not;

ii) To what extent do they agree to use learning by guided activities or by free activities or both;

iii) To what extent the activities in the curriculum are relevant to meeting the young child's requirements.

Teachers were asked to rate the order of priority of the following ten activities: Art, Language, Mathematics, Religion, Health and Safety, Music, Visits outside school, Physical Education and Play and Free activities, each one being placed on a five-point scale.

Section C: Aims of Pre-school Education

This section presented the teachers with five main aims to place in rank order of importance. The aims were broadly set but closely focussed on each of the following major areas:

i) The intellectual development of the child, i.e. encouraging the use of language, helping to learn, stimulating curiosity, and encouraging the development of ability to use concepts.

ii) The social-emotional development of the child, i.e. helping the child to form stable relationships, encouraging sense of responsibility, self-confidence, independence, and self-control.

iii) The aesthetic development of the child, i.e. giving the child opportunities to experiment with a variety of materials in art and music.

iv) The physical development of the child, i.e. helping the child to use the body effectively by providing fresh air, space to play and sleep.

The fifth aim is different as between England and Libya.
In England:

v) The creation of an effective transition from home to school, i.e. providing mutually supportive conditions for the child's development in both the home and the school. This question is not included in the Libyan questionnaire, instead there are another two aims. The first is concerned with the religious/moral education of the child, and the second concerned with preparation for primary education.

d) Validation of the Questionnaire:

The final questionnaire was shown to specialists in education in the early years, in order to evaluate the items, and to ensure

that its face validity for getting useful information about pre-school education was acceptable. As a result of the discussion, some elements were modified, ignoring some questions and others, in order to get clear responses from teachers.

Another step was to discuss the questionnaire with specialists in the Computer Centre to ensure that the researcher will get the results she needed from the questionnaire, after these discussions some open-ended questions changed to multiple-choice type to ensure they could be getting measurable results, others were withdrawn.

The final questionnaire was then reviewed, refined and translated into Arabic and checked by a specialist in Arabic language. A consensus was reached for each item. Three hundred printed copies were prepared for distribution to teachers in England and Libya.

e) The Samples

A. The Libyan Sample:

In the year 1985-86, there were 87 public kindergartens in Libya, with 876 teachers in these kindergartens. It was decided to make the 'sample' all kindergarten teachers in Derna, where there were, in fact, 102 such teachers. The questionnaires were sent after the researcher had asked permission to distribute the questionnaire. Ninety-two of the teachers returned the questionnaire. Eighty-seven of them proved to be useable.

TABLE No. 49

SHOWS THE DISTRIBUTION OF RECIPIENTS OF
THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE FIVE KINDERGARTENS
IN DERNA

Kindergartens	Sample of Teachers	The final return of the questionnaire	%
Amina Bent Wahib	18	16	89%
El-Zahour	20	18	90%
Derna El-Namathajia	25	21	84%
Atbal El-Malimain	20	18	90%
El-Jeil El-Said	19	19	100%
TOTAL	102	92	90

B. The English Sample:

According to the list of 1985, there were three nursery schools in Hull Division of Humberside LEA, and 37 nursery classes; in addition there were three nursery schools in the East Riding Division and 14 nursery classes. The researcher decided to take a random sample from the list by taking 'odd' numbers (1-3-5-7 etc). The questionnaires were distributed after the researcher had the permission of Humberside County Council. Some of the questionnaires were sent by post and others were handed personally by the researcher.

116 questionnaires were distributed between October 1986 and January 1987. All the nursery schools and nursery classes who received the questionnaire are listed below:

<u>HULL DIVISION:</u>	<u>Distributed</u>	<u>Received</u>	<u>%</u>
Clifton Nursery School	7	5	71.4
McMillan Nursery School	9	7	77.8
Adelaide Primary School	4	2	50
Biggin Hill Primary School	2	1	50
Buckingham Primary School	3	2	66.7
Cleeve Primary School	2	1	50
Court Park Primary School	3	3	100
Dane Park Primary School	3	2	66.7
Ferens Primary School	3	2	66.7
Francis Askew Primary School	3	2	66.7
Hall Road Primary School	3	-	0
Hopewell Primary School	4	4	100
Longhill Primary School	5	2	40
Myton Primary School	3	2	66.7
Paisley Primary School	3	-	0
Southcoates Primary School	3	2	66.7
St.Bedes R.C. Primary School	3	-	0
St.Oswald's Primary School	3	-	0
Stoneferry Primary School	3	-	0
Tilbury Primary School	5	2	40
Wold Primary School	3	1	33.1

<u>EAST RIDING</u>	<u>Distributed</u>	<u>Received</u>	<u>%</u>
Beverley Nursery School	7	4	57.1
Hornsea Nursery School	7	6	85.7
Bacon Garth Primary School, Cottingham	4	3	75
Burton Agnes Primary School	2	-	0
Gilberdyke Primary School	3	2	66.7
Hilderthorpe Infant School	3	2	66.7
Howden C.E. Infant School	3	-	0
Skirlaugh C.E. Primary School	3	-	0
Withernsea Infant School	<u>7</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>57.1</u>
	116	61	52.6

The researcher received only 61 questionnaires from 116, which means that only 52.6 per cent of the Distributed questionnaires were returned. Fifty seven of them proved to be useable.

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The results of the empirical exercise are presented and discussed in the following chapter.

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CHAPTER TEN

RESULTS OF TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRES IN THE HULL AREA OF ENGLAND AND THE DERNA AREA OF LIBYA

10.1 Introduction

Current thought on pre-school education in both Libya and England, is, no doubt, a reflection of the historical development of early childhood education in each country, which is why the writer has consulted the literature on such development in earlier chapters. But to what extent do Libyan teachers and English teachers today agree on aims, curriculum, and priorities in pre-school education? Will the similarities and differences suggested by the documentary study be reflected in today's thinking of the two groups of teachers? The findings of the field study carried out in both countries by the researcher provides an answer to some of these questions.

The analysis of the replies to the questionnaires gives the nature of responses in the Hull area of England and Derna of Libya. It is useful to review and analyse the responses in the same sequence as the questions asked in the questionnaire. The questionnaire grouped the questions under the following headings:-

- a) Section One: personal details and experience of the teachers in pre-school education; their qualifications and training.

b) Section Two: organising the pre-school curriculum; opinions on the curriculum.

c) Section Three: essential aims of pre-school education.

10.2 Presentation and Analysis of Selected Section One Responses

a) Class Size:

Table 50 shows the number of children in the classroom in both cities as far as is indicated by the two groups of samples. It also illustrates that, on the whole, kindergarten class size is 'large', a majority of the teachers in the kindergartens (85.1 per cent) had more than 30, as they indicated and as the Annual Reports mentioned. Only 3.4 per cent had from 20-25 children and 11.5 per cent had from 25-29 children in the class.

TABLE No. 50

NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN THE CLASSROOM

No. of Children	Nursery Teachers in England			Kindergarten Teachers in Libya		
	No.	%	Cumulative	No.	%	Cumulative
20-24	11	19.3	19.3	3	3.4	3.4
25-29	13	22.8	42.1	10	11.5	14.9
30 or more	33	57.9	100.0	74	85.1	100.0
TOTAL	57	100.00		87	100.0	

Note: 'Nursery teachers' means Hull nursery school teachers.
'Kindergarten teachers' means Derna kindergarten teachers.

THIS CONVENTION IS USED THROUGHOUT CHAPTER 10.

These large classes in Libya are very difficult, especially for the teacher who is not qualified for teaching pre-school children to manage the daily activities. As a result, traditional teaching methods tend to be used which are unlikely to encourage the intellectual development of the child.

b) Teacher Age:

Compared with Hull nursery teachers, Libyan kindergarten teachers are relatively young. Responses show that almost 19.5 per cent of kindergarten teachers were under 20 years of age compared with 1.8 per cent of nursery teachers in this age group. On the other hand, while 40.2 per cent of kindergarten teachers between 20-29 only 15.8 per cent in this age group. But for the age group 30-39 both groups, nearly the same, while nursery teachers 28.1 per cent, the kindergarten teachers were 28.7 per cent. But while 36.8 per cent of the nursery teachers were between 40-49 years of age, only 8.1 per cent of the kindergarten teachers were in this age group. On the other hand, while 17.5 per cent of nursery teachers were over 50 years of age, only 3.5 of kindergarten teachers in this age group (see table 52).

Table 51 also shows the age distribution of Libyan kindergarten teachers as between the various districts (Municipal Education Authorities).

TABLE No.51

NUMBER OF KINDERGARTENS TEACHING STAFF
BY DATE OF BIRTH : 1982/83.

Municipal Education Authority	1961 and After	1956 1960	1951 1955	1946 1950	1941 1945	1936 1940	1933 and Before	TOTAL
Derna	8	24	31	20	5	1	-	89
El-Jabel El-Akhdar	2	2	5	2	-	-	-	11
Benghazi	50	64	55	31	10	3	3	216
Ajdabiyah	5	10	1	1	-	-	-	17
Misurata	5	4	1	-	-	-	-	10
Zlitim	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	3
El-Jafra	9	18	2	-	-	-	-	29
El-Khums	6	10	2	1	-	-	-	19
Azeizia	2	3	-	-	-	-	-	5
Zawai	-	9	5	2	-	-	-	16
(Zwara) El-Nikat El-Khamsa	5	5	4	3	1	-	-	18
Guarian	2	5	2	-	-	-	-	9
Tripoli	21	73	74	30	13	8	1	220
TOTAL	115	228	184	90	29	12	4	662

TABLE No. 52

DISTRIBUTION OF HULL AND DERNA
PRE-SCHOOL TEACHERS BY AGE

AGE	NURSERY TEACHERS IN HULL			KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS IN DERNA		
	NO.	%	CUMULATIVE	NO.	%	CUMULATIVE
Less than 20 years	1	1.8	1.8	17	19.5	19.5
20-29	9	15.8	17.6	35	40.2	59.7
30-39	16	28.1	45.7	25	28.7	88.4
40-49	21	36.8	82.5	7	8.1	96.5
50 or over	10	17.5	100.0	3	3.5	100.0
TOTAL	57	100.0		87	100.0	

TABLE No. 53

MARITAL STATUS

STATUS	HULL NURSERY TEACHERS		DERNA KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS	
	NO.	%	NO.	%
MARRIED	46	80.7	80	91.9
SINGLE	10	17.5	7	8.1
NIL RESPONSE	1	1.8	-	-
TOTAL	57	100.0	87	100.0

c) Marital status of Teachers

The majority of the teachers in the sampled data in the both countries were married (80.7 per cent of the nursery teachers and 91.9 per cent of kindergarten teachers) and only a minority of them were single. 1.8 per cent did not give any response, (See Table 53).

d) Teachers' Own Children

There was correlation here also as between the two groups, the majority of the teachers having their own children. While 85.1 per cent of the kindergarten teachers had children and 14.9 per cent did not, 73.7 per cent of nursery teachers had children and 24.6 per cent did not. 1.8 per cent did not give any response (Table 54). Most of the teachers in the sampled data were married and had their own children, which means that they were likely to be understanding of childrens' behaviour and attitudes. The researcher believes that this may also indicate a situation in which teachers who were also mothers might be more anxious about the welfare and success of their pupils than others.

TABLE No. 54

TEACHERS' OWN CHILDREN

OWN CHILDREN	HULL		DERNA	
	NURSERY TEACHERS NO.	%	KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS NO.	%
YES	42	73.7	74	85.1
NO	14	24.6	13	14.9
NIL RESPONSE	1	1.8	-	-
TOTAL	57	100	87	100

e) Changes in Age-Group Taught

The teachers in the two groups were asked if they changed from teaching older children to pre-school children. The majority of Derna kindergarten teachers (54.0 per cent) had been teaching in primary schools, while 11.5 per cent had been teaching in preparatory schools. Only 2.3 per cent were teaching in secondary schools and 32.2 per cent of them had taught no other age group than pre-school.

By contrast, 45.6 per cent of the Hull nursery teachers had changed from teaching from infant to nursery, 24.6 per cent from junior to nursery and 8.8 per cent changed from teaching in secondary schools. 21.0 per cent had not taught any other age group. (Table No.55).

TABLE No.55

CHANGES FROM TEACHING OLDER CHILDREN
TO PRE-SCHOOL CHILDREN

HULL NURSERY TEACHERS			DERNA KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS		
	NO.	%		NO.	%
No other age group	12	21.0	No other age group	28	32.2
Infant	26	45.6	Primary	47	54.0
Junior	14	24.6	Preparatory	10	11.5
Secondary	5	8.8	Secondary	2	2.3
TOTAL	57	100.0	TOTAL	87	100.0

The majority of the sampled teachers had changed from teaching older children to pre-school children, but they had different reasons for making these changes. Examples of reasons were vocational, or preference for working with very young children, the desire to extend experience, or the chance of promotion or even family pressure. In Libya, many of the teachers had changed from teaching older children to pre-school children because they had children in the kindergartens themselves. Not surprisingly therefore, most Derna kindergarten teachers were married with families and anxious about the nature of the experience and the degree of freedom that young children were given.

f) Buildings and Facilities

Teachers in the two groups were asked about their school buildings and facilities as an environment for pre-school children. The teachers were asked to describe their own schools on a scale ranging from ideal to very poor. Almost 36.8 per cent of the Hull nursery teachers indicated that their school buildings and facilities were very good. By contrast, 51.7 per cent, more than half, of the Derna kindergarten teachers indicated that their school buildings and facilities were limited. While 12.3 per cent of the Hull nursery teachers indicated that their school buildings and facilities were ideal, 29.8 per cent said that they were good, and 21.1 per cent said they were adequate, none of them said limited or very poor. On the other hand, 19.5 per cent of the

Derna kindergarten teachers said that they were adequate, 9.2 per cent indicated that they were very good, but 18.3 per cent said they were very poor, and only 1.2 per cent indicated they were ideal. These responses suggests that the majority of the nursery teachers thought that their school buildings and facilities were very good for the work that had to be done in them, but the majority of the kindergarten teachers indicated that their school buildings and facilities were limited. This is true indeed in that even the official surveys carried out in Libya indicated that the pre-school buildings are very poor and they are not designed for the purpose of working with very young children. Most of them are primary schools or rented houses, with very limited furniture and few other facilities (Table No. 56).

TABLE No.56

BUILDINGS AND FACILITIES FOR
PRE-SCHOOL WORK

SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND FACILITIES	HULL NURSERY TEACHERS		DERNA KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS	
	NO.	%	NO.	%
Ideal	7	12.3	1	1.2
Very good	21	36.8	8	9.2
Good	17	29.8	-	-
Adequate	12	21.1	17	19.5
Limited	-	-	45	51.7
Very poor	-	-	16	18.3
TOTAL	57	100.0	87	100

g) Qualifications

The Hull sample indicated that the majority of nursery teachers had received training relevant to their work. For 80.7 per cent of the nursery teachers in the sample, nursery education had been included as a major part of their training. All the nursery teachers had received training, 42.1 per cent of the teachers having passed the teachers' certificate, 33.3 per cent had N.N.E.B., 17.5 per cent held a university degree and 5.3 per cent had an advanced diploma. By contrast, many of kindergarten teachers (46.0 per cent) had been trained as primary teachers, and 26.4 per cent as preparatory teachers, 2.3 per cent were trained as secondary teachers and nearly a quarter (25.3 per cent) had no qualifications for teaching at all. (See Table 57).

Responses show that, on the whole, kindergarten teachers were not qualified for teaching pre-school children. As mentioned above in this thesis, there was no preparation for pre-school education in Libya until 1984, and the first graduates will not be in post until the 1988-1989 school year.

h) Teaching Experience

It was evident, therefore, that the English nursery teachers would have longer experience in teaching. So where 21.1 per cent of the Hull teachers had taught in schools for twenty years or more, only 8.1 per cent of the Derna kindergarten teachers had such long experience. Almost half (44.8 per cent) of the kindergarten teachers had less than 10 years of experience in teaching as compared with 19.3 per cent of the nursery schools, but the two groups had almost the same proportions experiencing 10-14 years of teaching (Table 58).

TABLE No.57

DISTRIBUTION OF NURSERY AND KINDERGARTEN
TEACHERS BY QUALIFICATIONS

HULL NURSERY TEACHERS			DERNA KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS		
QUALIFICATIONS	NO.	%	QUALIFICATIONS	NO.	%
N.N.E.B.	19	33.3	General Diploma	40	46.0
Teaching Certificate	24	42.1	Special Diploma	23	26.4
University Degree	10	17.5	University Degree	2	2.3
Advanced Dipl.	3	5.3	Advanced Dipl.	-	-
Other Qualifications	-	-	Without any qualifications for teaching	22	25.3
Nil Response	1	1.8			
TOTAL	57	100.0		87	100.0

Key: General Diploma: Teacher training following primary school and these teachers teach in primary or kindergarten schools.

Special Diploma: Teacher training following preparatory school and these teachers are qualified to teach preparatory schools.

University Degree: University following secondary school and they usually teach in secondary schools.

TABLE No.58

LENGTH OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING

YEARS OF EXPERIENCE	HULL NURSERY TEACHERS			DERNA KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS		
	NO.	%	CUMULATIVE	NO.	%	CUMULATIVE
1-4 years	11	19.3	19.3	16	18.4	18.4
5-9 years	11	19.3	38.6	39	44.8	63.2
10-14 years	12	21.1	59.7	20	23.0	86.2
15-19 years	11	19.3	79.0	5	5.7	91.9
20 and over	12	21.1	100.0	7	8.1	100.0
TOTAL	57	100.0		87	100.0	

It appeared to the researcher that the experience in primary schools, together with the training qualifications, affected the kindergarten teachers' perception of their roles and then the methods of teaching used in the kindergartens. Thus, most of these teachers saw themselves as distributors of knowledge, teaching on a 'classroom' basis and accepting that children should have no say in the choice of daily activities. Most of the teachers still used the blackboard, keeping the children sitting on their chairs for around 40 minutes at a time, and explained lesson after lesson according to the timetable and daily programmes. Differences between the two groups of teachers were smaller when teaching experience with pre-school children is only considered in numerical

terms as illustrated in Table 59, but in fact, the Hull nursery teachers had longer experience of working with young children than did the kindergarten teachers of Derna, as might be expected from the longer history of nursery education in England. For instance, 15.8 per cent of the nursery teachers had an experience of 15-19 years which was matched by only 2.3 per cent of kindergarten teachers. The Libyan teachers were more concentrated in the experience range of 1-4 years, (43.7 per cent), while the Hull nursery teachers concentrated in the experience range of 5-9 years (29.8 per cent) and 24.6 per cent of the nursery teachers had experience of the range 1-4. While 19.3 per cent of the nursery teachers had an experience of 10-14 years only, 8.1 per cent of kindergarten teachers had this experience. (Table 59).

TABLE No.59

LENGTH OF EXPERIENCE IN KINDERGARTENS
AND NURSERY SCHOOLS

YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION	HULL NURSERY TEACHERS			DERNA KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS		
	NO.	%	CUM.	NO.	%	CUM.
UNDER ONE YEAR	2	3.5	3.5	13	14.9	14.9
1-4 years	14	24.6	28.1	38	43.7	58.6
5-9 years	17	29.8	57.9	25	28.7	87.4
10-14 years	11	19.3	77.2	7	8.1	95.4
15-19 years	9	15.8	93.0	2	2.3	97.7
20 and over	4	7.0	100.0	2	2.3	100.0
TOTAL	57	100.0		87	100.0	

1) Motives for Teaching

The teachers in the survey were asked to tick as many of the motives as were relevant to them. They were also asked to circle the two motives that were most important to them. Findings of both nursery and kindergarten teachers indicated that they had essentially similar motives for entering teaching. The first motive for Hull nursery teachers was keenness to work with children 13.2 per cent, while the kindergarten teachers had 12.1 per cent for the same motive. While the first motive for kindergarten teachers was 'good prospects' (16.5 per cent), that appears to be related to the status of teachers, especially women teachers, in the social structure of Libya. This is shown also in the 'high status' motive of 11.4 per cent of the kindergarten teachers. By contrast, 'good prospects' had only 6.1 per cent and 'high status' occupation only 2.4 per cent in Hull. This is probably because women in England have more chances for work and a wider range of potential occupations outside teaching than do their Libyan counterparts.

The second motive for kindergarten teachers as well as for the nursery teachers was 'liking for teaching', (nursery teachers 12.4 per cent; kindergarten teachers 12.6 per cent). On the other hand, 'socially worthwhile work' received greater emphasis as a motive for nursery teachers (11.5 per cent) than for kindergarten teachers (7.8 per cent).

TABLE No.60

MOTIVES FOR TEACHING OF NURSERY
AND KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS

MOTIVES	HULL		DERNA	
	NURSERY TEACHERS		KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS	
	NO.	%	NO.	%
1. Good career prospects.	25	6.1	72	16.5
2. A chance for professional development.	28	6.8	12	2.8
3. Opportunity to pursue interests in a particular subject.	19	4.6	3	0.7
4. Security of employment	34	8.3	29	6.6
5. Freedom to organise much of own work.	43	10.5	32	7.3
6. Liking for teaching	51	12.4	55	12.6
7. High status occupation	10	2.4	50	11.4
8. Good working hours and holidays.	25	6.1	23	5.3
9. Family pressure	9	2.2	19	4.4
10. Very keen to work with children.	54	13.2	53	12.1
11. Socially worthwhile work	47	11.5	34	7.8
12. Little or no alternative	3	0.7	19	4.3
13. Salary level	18	4.4	4	0.9
14. Work you could do best of all.	44	10.7	32	7.3
	410		437	100.0

While 'work you could do best of all' was the fourth in importance for nursery teachers (10.7 per cent), it was only ranked by 7.3 per cent of kindergarten teachers. For both groups, good working hours and holidays were significant. Less important for nursery teachers was 'little or no alternative' (0.7 per cent), 'freedom to organise much of own work' (0.5 per cent) and 'family pressure' (2.2 per cent). By contrast, the less important motives for kindergarten teachers were 'chance for professional development' (2.8 per cent), 'salary level' (0.9 per cent) and 'opportunity to pursue interest in a particular subject' (0.7 per cent). (Table 60).

The teachers were also asked to circle the two motives which for them were the most important for entering teaching. Findings helped to bring into focus the differences as between nursery and kindergarten teachers in their motivation for teaching. Table No. 61 gives the percentage of the motives which have been selected as the two most important. Over half of the teachers in the two samples gave 'very keen to work with children' and 'liking for teaching' as the two most important motives. The most striking difference between Hull and Derna was 'good career prospects' - only 1.8 per cent of the Hull teachers said that this was one of the two most important motives for entering teaching, while 21.8 per cent of Derna teachers gave it as one of the most important motives. 'Work you could do best of all' was viewed

TABLE No.61

MOTIVES GIVEN BY ENGLISH AND LIBYAN TEACHERS
AS THE TWO MOST IMPORTANT FOR ENTERING
TEACHING (PERCENTAGES)

MOTIVE		ENGLISH TEACHERS	LIBYAN TEACHERS
1.	Good career prospects	1.8	21.8
2.	A chance for profession development.	5.2	1.2
3.	Opportunity to pursue interest in a particular subject.	1.8	--
4.	Security of employment	7.0	-
5.	Freedom to organise much of own work.	7.0	1.2
6.	Liking for teaching	24.6	28.7
7.	High status occupation	-	6.9
8.	Good working hours and holidays.	1.8	-
9.	Family pressure	-	2.3
10.	Very keen to work with children.	26.3	26.4
11.	Socially worthwhile work	14.0	6.9
12.	Little or no alternative	-	-
13.	Salary level	1.8	-
14.	Work you could do best of all.	8.7	4.6

by 8.7 per cent of Hull nursery teachers as one of the most important motives for teaching.

The four motives which were not important for either group were 'good working hours and holidays'; 'opportunity to pursue interest in a particular subject'; 'salary level'; 'little or no alternative' (Table 61).

j) In-service Training

The responses of kindergarten teachers indicated that 64.4 per cent had not attended in-service training at all and only 32.2 per cent had in-service training ^{not} relevant to their work _x with pre-school children; 3.4 per cent had no response. Most of the kindergarten teachers expressed their need for in-service training in two subject areas: child psychology and pre-school teaching methods. While 80.7 per cent of nursery teachers were qualified for teaching in nursery schools, only 57.9 per cent of them had had in-service training related to the nursery, 31.6 per cent of them did not have any in-service training and 10.5 per cent gave no response (see Table 62). The main difference, that is to say, that Derna kindergarten teachers were not qualified for teaching pre-school children, most of them having been trained to teach subject matter. Apparently such a need arose due to the emphasis the Ministry of Education places on the learning of language, mathematical concepts and elementary science which are taught collectively to a group of children within a classroom.

Such findings indicate that, for the Derna kindergarten teachers, short in-service training courses do not adequately take the place of special full teacher education relevant to their work with pre-school children. On the other hand, a significantly large proportion of the Hull teachers had had no in-service training and could well be in need of 'refreshment'.

TABLE No.62

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

	HULL NURSERY TEACHERS			DERNA KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS		
	NO.	%	CUM.	NO.	%	CUM.
YES	33	57.9	57.9	28	32.2	32.2
NO	18	31.6	89.5	56	64.4	96.6
NIL RESPONSE	6	10.5	100.0	3	3.4	100.0
TOTAL	57	100.0		87	100.0	

k) Practical Components of Pre-School Teacher Training

Teachers in the two samples were asked about their opinions ^{as} for how long do they consider the practical components of pre-school teacher training should be.

The responses of the Hull nursery teachers indicated that 10.5 per cent of them agreed that the block practice should be less than one month and 26.3 per cent of them indicated that it should be one month, but the majority indicated that it should be more than one month. The Derna kindergarten teachers gave very similar responses, 10.3 per cent of them indicated that the block practice should be less than one month and 11.5 per cent of them indicated that it should be for one month, while 69.0 per cent of them indicated that it should be more than one month, and 9.2 per cent of them indicated that they had no opinions in this matter.

It is interesting to note that there was some agreement between the two groups on the block practice. The fact that the majority of the Libyan teachers indicated that the block practice should be more than one month, indicates that they know it is very important for teachers to practice for a longer time to give them more experience with very young children, and reflects the contrast in training experience as between the two groups.

But there are some differences in their opinions in respect of concurrent practice. While only 15.8 per cent of the nursery teachers indicated that concurrent practice should be one day per week, 29.9 per cent of kindergarten teachers did indicate that opinion. On the other hand, there was some agreement as between the two groups on the figure of one week per month - 45.6 per cent of the nursery teachers and 52.9 per cent of the

kindergarten teachers. There were some differences in their responses to more than that. While 22.8 per cent of the nursery teachers agreed, only 6.9 per cent of the kindergarten teachers indicated their agreement. Relative uninterest in this point may be gauged from the fact that 15.8 per cent of the nursery teachers did not give any response and 10.3 per cent of the kindergarten teachers indicated that they also had no opinion in this aspect (Tables 63 and 64).

TABLE No.63

THE DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS' OPINIONS
IN BOTH COUNTRIES ON BLOCK PRACTICE

BLOCK PRACTICE	HULL NURSERY TEACHERS			DERNA KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS		
	NO.	%	CUM.	NO.	%	CUM.
Less than one month	6	10.5	10.5	9	10.3	10.3
One month	15	26.3	36.8	10	11.5	21.8
More than one month	34	59.7	96.5	60	69.0	90.8
Nil response	2	3.5	100.0	8	9.2	100.0
TOTAL	57	100.0		87	100.0	

TABLE No.64

THE DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS' OPINIONS
IN BOTH COUNTRIES ON CONCURRENT PRACTICE

CONCURRENT PRACTICE	HULL NURSERY TEACHERS			DERNA KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS		
	NO.	%	CUM.	NO.	%	CUM.
One day per week	9	15.8	15.8	26	29.9	29.9
One week per month	26	45.6	61.4	46	52.9	82.8
More than that	13	22.8	84.2	6	6.9	89.7
Nil Response	9	15.8	100.0	9	10.3	100.0
TOTAL	57	100.0		87	100.0	

But as we have already seen above, the problem for the Libyan teachers up to now has been that there is only one teacher-training institute for kindergarten teachers, that and their training has been more theoretical, with only one day per week for practice in the primary and kindergarten schools. By contrast, the nursery teachers have had longer practice periods and more access to both initial and in-service training.

1) Courses Included as a Major Part of the Training

The two groups were asked which of four age related courses were included as a major part of their training. In response, 80.7 per cent of the Hull nursery teachers indicated that they had nursery education as a major part of their training, while none of the kindergarten teachers had kindergarten education as a major

or even a minor part. On the other hand, for 45.6 per cent of the nursery teachers, infant education had been included as a major part, and 15.8 per cent of them indicated that Junior education was a major part; for 5.3 per cent even secondary education had been the focus of training. While Derna kindergarten teachers were mainly (46.0 per cent) trained for primary education, and 26.4 per cent of them were mainly trained for preparatory education, only 2.3 per cent were trained for secondary education (See Table 65).

TABLE No.65

AGE-GROUP FOCUS OF THE TRAINING
RECEIVED

COURSES FOR HULL NURSERY TEACHERS	NO.	%	COURSES FOR DERNA KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS	NO.	%
Nursery ed.	46	80.7	Kindergarten ed.	-	-
Infant ed.	26	45.6	Primary ed.	40	46.0
Junior ed.	9	15.8	Preparatory ed.	23	26.4
Secondary ed.	3	5.3	Secondary ed.	2	2.3
			Without any formal qualifications for teaching	22	25.3

Pre-school education in Libya will never develop without special training for kindergarten education, and they should have more practice in the kindergartens under the supervision of specialised tutors in pre-school education.

m) Special Training for Pre-school Education

The responses of Derna kindergarten teachers indicated that 78.2 per cent agreed that there should be special training for teachers while 11.5 per cent disagreed because they thought any teacher can be a kindergarten teacher without any special training in this field. 10.3 per cent did not give any response (Table 66).

TABLE No.66

SPECIAL TRAINING FOR PRE-SCHOOL TEACHERS

RESPONSES	NO.	%	CUMULATIVE
YES	68	78.2	78.2
NO	10	11.5	89.7
NIL RESPONSE	9	10.3	100.0
TOTAL	87	100.0	

n) Length of Training for Pre-school Teachers

Teachers in the two groups were asked to indicate their opinions as to how long the formal training period should be?

There was some agreement as between the two groups on this question. While 24.6 per cent of the Hull nursery teachers indicated that pre-school teachers should be trained for 4 years, 25.3 per cent of Derna kindergarten teachers agreed. The Hull preference (56.1 per cent of nursery teachers) was that the pre-school teacher should be trained for three years, which was paralleled by 54.0 per cent of kindergarten teachers. 10.5 per cent of the nursery teachers indicated that nursery teachers should train for 2 years, as against 17.2 per cent of kindergarten teachers. A few (1.8 per cent) of the Hull teachers indicated that nursery teachers could be properly trained in one year but none of the kindergarten teachers agreed with this (Table 67).

TABLE No.67

LENGTH OF TRAINING FOR PRE-SCHOOL TEACHERS:
OPINIONS

LENGTH OF TRAINING FOR PRE-SCHOOL TEACHERS	NURSERY TEACHERS			KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS		
	NO.	%	CUM.	NO.	%	CUM.
One year	1	1.8	1.8	-	-	
Two years	6	10.5	12.3	15	17.2	17.2
Three years	32	56.1	68.4	47	54.0	71.2
Four years	14	24.6	93.0	22	25.3	96.5
No Response	4	7.0	100.0	3	3.5	100.0
TOTAL	57	100.0		87	100.0	

o) Position of the Teachers

'Headteachers' was the description given in 8.8 per cent of the responses of the sampled teachers in the Hull nursery schools, as compared with only 3.5 per cent who described themselves as 'deputy heads'. 10.5 per cent said they were 'teachers in charge', 43.9 per cent described themselves as 'teachers' and 33.3 per cent as 'nursery nurses'. In the Derna sample, 5.7 per cent of kindergarten teachers described themselves as 'head teachers', 86.3 per cent as 'teachers', 5.7 per cent as 'teacher assistants' and 2.3 per cent as 'deputy heads'.

In Libyan kindergartens, there is a "class teacher" for each class, who teaches the Arabic language, Arithmetic, Religion, Science and Hygiene. In addition, there is a 'specialist' "assistant teacher" moving from class to class teaching Arts, Physical Education, Music and Songs.

TABLE No.68

DISTRIBUTION OF DERNA KINDERGARTEN
STAFF BY POSITION

POSITION	NO.	%	CUM.
Head Teacher	5	5.7	5.7
Deputy Head	2	2.3	8.0
Teacher	75	86.3	94.3
Teacher Assistant	5	5.7	100.0
TOTAL	87	100.0	

TABLE No.69

DISTRIBUTION OF HULL NURSERY STAFF BY POSITION

POSITION	NO.	%	CUM.
Head Teacher	5	8.8	8.8
Deputy Head	2	3.5	12.3
Teacher in Charge	6	10.5	22.8
Teacher	25	43.9	66.7
Nursery Nurses	19	33.3	100.0
TOTAL	57	100.0	

The questionnaire, intended mainly for teachers and assistants (nursery nurses) was also given to head teachers, deputy heads and teachers in charge. Data arising from these sub-samples indicates that there are some differences as between the teachers' sample and these sub-samples in age, qualification, training and teaching experience in pre-school. The findings are shown in the Tables 69, 70 and 71. The head teachers in the two groups, as might be expected, were relatively older than the teachers, with almost 60 per cent of head teachers in the nursery schools, over 50 years of age and 40 per cent were between 40-49 years of age, while 40 per cent of the head teachers in the kindergartens were between 30-39, 20 per cent between 40-49 and 40 per cent over

DISTRIBUTION OF DERA KINDERGARTEN STAFF BY AGE,
QUALIFICATION, TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND POSITION
BY PERCENTAGE

Position	AGE GROUP					QUALIFICATIONS				TEACHING EXPERIENCE					
	Less than 20 years	20-29	30-39	40-49	Over 50 yrs	Gen. Dip.	Spec. Dip.	Univ. Deg.	No Qual.	<1	1-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20
Teachers	No. 15 % 20.0	32 42.7	23 30.7	4 5.3	1 1.3	37 49.3	20 26.7	2 2.7	16 21.3	12 16.0	37 49.3	21 28.0	3 4.0	2 2.7	-
Head Teachers	No. - %	-	2 40.0	1 20.0	2 40.0	2 40.0	2 40.0	-	1 20.0	-	-	-	3 60.0	-	2 40.0
Deputy Heads	No. - %	-	-	2 100	-	1 50.0	-	-	1 50.0	-	-	1 50.0	1 50.0	-	-
Teacher Assistants	No. 2 % 40.0	3 60.0	-	-	-	-	1 20.0	-	4 80.0	1 20.0	1 20.0	3 60.0	-	-	-

DISTRIBUTION OF HULL NURSERY STAFF BY AGE,
QUALIFICATION, TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND POSITION
BY PERCENTAGE

Position	AGE GROUP					QUALIFICATION			TEACHING EXPERIENCE					
	Less than -20	20-29	30-39	40-49	Over 50 yrs	NNEB Teach. Cert	Univ Deg.	Adv. Dip.	< 1	1-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	Over 20 yrs
Teachers	No. %	- 8.0	11 44.0	10 40.0	2 8.0	- 20 80.0	4 16.0	-	-	6 24.0	8 32.0	5 20.0	6 24.0	-
Nursery Nurses	No. %	1 5.3	7 36.8	4 21.1	4 21.1	3 15.8	19 100.0	-	-	2 10.5	8 42.1	7 36.8	1 5.3	1 5.3
Teacher in Charge	No. %	-	-	1 16.7	3 50.0	2 33.3	-	3 50.0	3 50.0	-	-	2 33.3	2 33.3	- 16.7
Deputy Head	No. %	-	-	-	2 100.0	-	2 100.0	-	-	-	-	1 50.0	1 50.0	-
Head Teachers	No. %	-	-	-	2 40.0	3 60.0	-	1 20.0	1 20.0	3 60.0	-	-	2 40.0	1 20.0
		-	-	-	2 40.0	3 60.0	-	1 20.0	1 20.0	3 60.0	-	-	2 40.0	1 20.0

* One of the Teachers did give which qualification she had (4 per cent)
 Three of the Nursery Nurses had Teaching Certificate as well as NNEB.

50 years. Interestingly, 100.0 per cent of the deputy heads in the two groups were between 40-49 years of age. The teacher assistants were relatively younger than the teachers in the two groups, but they are younger than in the kindergartens, 100.0 per cent under 30 years of age, the majority of them in the nurseries being under forty (63.2 per cent). As for qualifications, a higher percentage of the nursery head teachers and deputy heads hold teaching certificates, university degrees and advanced diplomas, and they had a significant period of experience: not less than ten years. By contrast, in the Derna kindergartens, 20 per cent of the head teachers were without qualifications, as were 50 per cent of the deputy heads. However, the head teachers had not less than 10 years experience and the deputy heads not less than 5 years.

p) The Nursery/Kindergarten Training Course

The sampled teachers were asked to give ratings of what was thought suitable as potential components of an education course for nursery/kindergarten teachers. The ratings ranged from very important (5) to irrelevant (1). The teachers were more in agreement about some of these components than about others. The two groups, as Table 72. shows, were most agreed in respect of child psychology, health and hygiene, academic subjects and practical skills. While nursery teachers were agreed about the importance of history of education and sociology of education, the kindergarten teachers on the other hand, disagreed most about

TABLE No.72

DISTRIBUTION OF ELEVEN COMPONENTS OF A NURSERY/
KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION COURSE BY ENGLISH AND
LIBYAN TEACHERS

% RATING

COMPONENTS		0	1	2	3	4	5	MEAN RATING	S D
Study of one or more expressive subjects.	England	3.5	1.8	5.3	17.5	47.4	24.6	3.8	1.15
	Libya	8.0	12.6	9.2	16.1	19.5	34.5	3.3	1.69
Practical Skills	England	5.3	-	7.0	24.6	43.9	19.3	3.6	1.19
	Libya	4.6	5.7	6.9	9.2	34.5	39.1	3.8	1.41
Academic Subjects	England	5.3	7.0	19.3	28.1	35.1	5.3	3.0	1.24
	Libya	11.5	12.6	6.9	19.5	26.4	23.0	3.1	1.68
Curriculum Studies	England	7.0	-	10.5	10.5	26.3	45.6	3.9	1.46
	Libya	9.2	17.2	10.3	18.4	23.0	21.8	2.9	1.66
Sociology of Education	England	8.8	8.8	15.8	10.5	38.6	17.5	3.1	1.55
	Libya	6.9	26.4	17.2	17.2	19.5	12.6	2.5	1.54
History of Education	England	5.3	10.5	28.1	38.6	14.0	3.5	2.6	1.13
	Libya	9.2	28.7	16.1	17.2	14.9	13.8	2.4	1.59
Educational Organisation	England	5.3	7.0	10.5	14.0	38.6	24.6	3.5	1.43
	Libya	9.2	21.8	19.5	16.1	20.7	12.6	2.6	1.56
Health & Hygiene	England	7.0	1.8	-	8.8	19.3	63.2	4.2	1.41
	Libya	3.4	6.9	3.4	20.7	26.4	39.2	3.8	1.56
Practice in the Nursery	England	7.0	-	-	3.5	12.3	77.2	4.5	1.32
	Libya	5.7	4.6	6.9	21.8	18.4	42.5	3.7	1.48
Philosophy of Education	England	5.3	3.5	17.5	7.0	24.6	42.1	3.7	1.51
	Libya	8.0	25.3	16.1	18.4	17.2	14.9	2.6	1.58
Child Psychology	England	8.8	-	1.8	1.8	12.3	75.4	4.4	1.47
	Libya	2.3	3.4	3.4	4.6	25.3	60.9	4.3	1.18

KEY: Ratings: Very important 5; important 4; of only minor importance 3; unimportant 2; irrelevant 1.

TABLE No.73

RANK ORDER OF ELEVEN COMPONENTS OF THE EDUCATION COURSE
BY MEAN RATINGS AND VERY IMPORTANT RATINGS

NURSERY TEACHERS				KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS			
RANK ORDER	COMPONENTS	MEAN RANKING	VERY IMPORTANT	RANK ORDER	COMPONENTS	MEAN RANKING	VERY IMPORTANT
1	Practice in the Nursery	4.5	77.2	1	Child Psychology	4.3	60.9
2	Child Psychology	4.4	75.4	2	Health & Hygiene	3.8	39.1
3	Health & Hygiene	4.2	63.2	2	Practical Skills	3.8	39.1
4	Curriculum Studies	3.9	45.6	3	Practice in the nursery	3.7	42.1
5	Study of one or more Expressive subjects	3.8	24.6	4	Study of one or more Expressive subjects	3.3	34.5
6	Philosophy of Education	3.7	42.1	5	Academic subjects	3.1	23.0
7	Practical skills	3.6	19.3	6	Curr. Studies	2.9	21.8
8	Educ. Organisation	3.5	24.6	7	Phil. of Educ.	2.6	14.9
9	Sociol. of Education	3.1	17.5	8	Educ. Organisation	2.6	12.6
10	Academic subjects	3.0	5.3	9	Sociol. of Educ.	2.5	12.6
11	History of Education	2.6	3.5	10	History of Educ.	2.4	13.8

history of education, educational organisation, curriculum studies and philosophy of education.

The nursery teachers gave, on the whole, higher ratings to the different components of the course with a highest mean rating of 4.5 for practice in the Hull nursery and a lowest mean rating of 2.6 for history of education, while the second in mean ratings was child psychology (4.4), the third was health and hygiene, the fourth, curriculum studies and the fifth was the study of one or more expressive subjects. On the other hand, for the Derna teachers, child psychology was the highest in mean ratings (4.3), the least important mean ratings was history of education (2.4), the second in very important were both health and hygiene and practical skills, the third was practice in the kindergartens, the fourth was study of one or more expressive subjects, and the fifth was academic subjects. The mean ratings and percentage of very important ratings given by the two samples on the various components of the suggested course is given in Table 73.

In summary, it can be said that none of the components achieved a mean rating of less than 2.4 by the two samples but some of the components were judged to be of greater relevance to the two groups. Apparently, Hull nursery teachers saw greater value in studying the educational theory and philosophy of early childhood education as a framework for understanding the aims of

nursery education and the role they expected to play in this educative process. Libyan teachers, on the other hand, seemed to be more concerned with the preparation of the teachers for every-day activities in terms of child psychology, health and hygiene and practice in kindergarten teaching. This may be because in all teacher-training institutes in Libya the main concerns are the academic subjects, which occupy a major part of the timetable.

The researcher believes that this is an opportune moment for pre-school education to be given an equal opportunity with that accorded to the other levels of education, at university and other institutes of education. A proper tutorial provision for these courses is also necessary as well as a better evaluation support structure for pre-school services. It would appear that courses relevant to the needs and problems of pre-school teachers require more development, or where the rigid courses which already exist, their relevance to pre-school teachers needs to be more effectively illustrated.

10.3 Section Two Responses: Attitudes of Teachers towards the Pre-school Curriculum

In Libya, the Ministry of Education designed the curriculum of pre-school education as well as all other levels of education except the universities. The centralised curriculum governs not only the long term learning strategies adopted in each kindergarten, but it also controls the day to day conduct of lessons,

to be rigidly applied by teachers in the form of timetabled lessons. Plans for future programmes of pre-school education may be assisted by gaining teachers views.

a) Subjects and Activities

In question one of this section, the teachers were asked to rate in priority eight activities and subjects of the pre-school curriculum, each on a five-point scale concerning the degree of relevance to their work with children in the classrooms. The answers showed that the rating of "very important" was given as follows in the two groups.

i) while Play and Free Activities had the highest rating of very important by the Hull nursery teachers (84.2 per cent), relatively few of the kindergarten teachers gave it such a high rating (13.8 per cent). This may be because they have more experience in teaching pre-school children, are more qualified for this particular role and have programmes that are more flexible. This is enabled partly due to the absence of a centralised curriculum. On the other hand, kindergarten teachers in Derna are not qualified to teach pre-school children, they are specialist subject teachers, if trained, and a significant number of them are without any qualifications at all for teaching. So the researcher is of the view that the views on the curriculum were a reflection of the contrasting background of the two groups of pre-school teachers sampled.

ii) Religious Education: While Religious Education had the highest rating of very important (74.7 per cent) from the Derna kindergarten teachers, it had only 12.3 per cent as very important from the Hull nursery teachers. It must be remembered, of course, that we are dealing with two different major world religions here, Islam and Christianity, and this makes comparison difficult. It does, however, give some indication of the central place of religion in Libyan culture and its peripheral location in Britain.

iii) Health and Science: This was stated as being very important by Hull nursery teachers (61.4 per cent) with a mean ranking of 4.4, while only 17.2 per cent of the kindergarten teachers gave it as very important with a mean ranking of 2.5.

iv) Art: The expressive approach of the Hull teachers was reflected as Art was stated by 57.9 per cent of them as very important with a mean ranking of 4.4. By contrast, none of the Derna kindergarten teachers gave it a 'very important' rating. Their mean rank for Art was a mere 1.4.

v) Mathematics: This subject had a high proportion or rating of 'very important' by both groups. 57.9 per cent of the Hull nursery teachers stated it as very important, while 42.5 per cent of kindergarten teachers stated it as very important, giving a mean rank of 3.4 which is considered as the third in importance by kindergarten teachers.

vi) Language: Language was stated by 56.1 per cent of Hull nursery teachers as 'very important' with a mean rank of 4.3, while 43.7 per cent of the kindergarten teachers stated it as very important with a mean rank of 3.6 which gave it second place in importance there. So, like mathematics, there was a fair degree of agreement on the importance of language.

vii) Physical Education: This area, however, showed a sharp contrast. It was stated as very important by 49.1 per cent of the Hull nursery teachers with a mean rank of 4.3. On the other hand, only 10.3 per cent of the Derna kindergarten teachers stated it as very important and it gained a low mean rank of 2.2.

viii) Visits: While 56.1 per cent of the Hull nursery teachers stated it as very important with a mean rank of 4.3, none of the kindergarten teachers stated it as very important and the mean rank was 2.0.

From these responses, it is clear, as mentioned before, that the fact that few of the kindergarten teachers are qualified to teach pre-school children is a major factor. They are prepared to teach subject matters only. A large number of such teachers who have received some training have had this experience in special programmes only designed to meet immediate needs on a short-term basis. Compounding this problem is the fact that even qualified teachers do not receive good in-service training;

indeed almost no in-service training programmes are available in Libya. All those who are trained teachers have been prepared for elementary education. In any case, most Libyan teacher-training institutes are still very traditional in orientation. In consequence, the quality of the teacher output is very low. The approach remains authoritarian with an emphasis upon rote learning, memorising and preparing for examinations, rather than in professional preparation. Curricula stress the theoretical rather than the practical, and this neglect of practical preparation also extends to teaching practice which is of too short a duration and is inadequately supervised. There is a widespread neglect of both general and specialised teaching methods. The examination system does not encourage questions of "how" and "why"; the requirement being only for the recall of factual information. This tends to discourage the learner from applying knowledge to problem-solving or creative thinking.

The value of the curriculum of Libyan teacher-training programmes is seen, therefore, only in terms of helping the student to pass examinations and proceed to the next stage, that is to say in the provision of the necessary credentials. This attitude towards assessment has caused many Arabic countries to experience disappointment in the outcome of their educational programmes over the years. The teachers in the colleges are bound to follow the curriculum and practices which the Ministry of Education expect them to follow. A good college is measured

TABLE No.74

THE DISTRIBUTION OF RATINGS OF SUBJECTS AND
ACTIVITIES AND THEIR MAIN RANK

SUBJECTS	Teachers	1	2	RATINGS			Mean	STD DEV.
				3	4	5		
Play and Free Activities	K* N*	22.0 1.8	44.8 -	11.5 -	6.9 14.0	13.8 84.2	2.3 4.8	1.46 0.73
Religious Education	K N	1.1 3.5	12.6 10.5	3.4 35.1	8.0 38.6	74.7 12.3	4.3 3.4	1.47 1.07
Health and Science	K N	14.9 3.5	51.7 1.8	12.6 1.8	3.4 31.6	17.2 61.4	2.5 4.4	1.46 1.05
Art	K N	57.6 3.5	33.3 -	2.3 1.8	3.4 36.8	- 57.9	1.4 4.4	0.85 1.00
Mathematics	K N	6.9 3.5	19.7 3.5	8.0 1.8	19.5 36.8	42.5 57.9	3.4 4.4	1.84 1.00
Language	K N	11.5 3.5	13.8 1.8	3.4 7.0	24.1 31.6	43.7 56.1	3.6 4.3	1.70 1.09
Physical Education	K N	2.20 -	50.6 -	8.0 5.3	8.0 45.6	10.3 49.1	2.2 4.3	1.37 0.99
Visits	K N	21.8 3.5	58.6 -	10.3 12.3	9.2 28.1	- 56.1	2.0 4.3	1.46 1.09

KEY: Ratings: Very important (5), important (4), of only minor importance (3), unimportant (2), irrelevant (1). * 'K': Kindergarten teachers, * 'N' Nursery teachers.

on the number of passes in examinations. The students are not interested in anything in the curriculum that is not part of the requirement for the next examination. There is a distinct lack of curiosity. The students' minds become mere receptacles of knowledge, and therefore most of the students are unemployable except on the terms of the system they have experienced. Hence their approaches to pre-school pupils.

b) Methods of Teaching

The two samples of teachers were asked to give their opinions on the methods of teaching they would prefer to use in pre-school education. More than 50 per cent of the teachers in both samples preferred learning by free and guided activities; that is to say, 57.9 per cent of the Hull nursery teachers and 56.3 per cent of the Derna kindergarten teachers. However, while 39.1 per cent of the kindergarten teachers preferred to use only guided activities, only 5.3 per cent of the nursery teachers preferred that. By contrast, while 36.8 per cent of the nursery teachers preferred learning by free activities, only 4.6 per cent of the kindergarten teachers agreed to use this way. All of these responses were a reflection of their training, their history in this field and the curricula to which each group had been used. (See Table 75).

TABLE No.75

METHOD OF TEACHING

METHODS	NURSERY TEACHERS		KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS	
	NO.	%	NO.	%
Learning by guided activities	3	5.3	34	39.1
Learning by free activities	21	36.8	4	4.6
Both	33	57.9	49	56.3
TOTAL	57	100.0	87	100.0

c) The Needs of the Child

The final question in this section was about the curriculum and the child's needs. While 80.7 per cent of the Hull nursery teachers agreed that the curriculum in the nursery reflected the child's needs to a considerable extent, only 48.3 per cent of the kindergarten teachers agreed to that. This does evidence some disquiet on the part of the Derna teachers. With respect to the actual curriculum used, only 12.3 per cent of the Hull teachers were satisfied that it meets the child's needs.

These responses show a healthy questioning on the part of both groups of teachers (See Table 76). It would appear that most of the teachers sampled saw the needs of the child as a human being as central to the function of pre-school education,

which should enable the child to adapt to a changing world.

Programmes can be structured without being in opposition to the child's needs as a growing individual. Pre-school education should provide a worthy basis for the rest of the system. From their responses, most of the Derna kindergarten teachers knew that the curriculum did not meet the child's needs but as the curriculum was designed by the Ministry of Education and they felt they should follow the instructions without question.

TABLE No.76

THE CURRICULUM AND THE NEEDS OF THE CHILD

RESPONSES	KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS		NURSERY TEACHERS	
	NO.	%	NO.	%
Yes	17	19.5	7	12.3
No	26	29.9	4	7.0
To considerable extent	42	48.3	46	80.7
Nil response	2	2.3	-	-
TOTAL	87	100.0	57	100.0

10.4 Section Three Responses: the Aims of Pre-School Education

The two groups were asked in Section 3 to rank in order of importance five aims of nursery education (Hull) and six aims of kindergarten education (Derna). There are four aims which have been found to be very important in both countries: intellectual, physical, social and aesthetic. Additionally, there are two further aims which are found to be very important aims as they are mentioned in the official reports of their respective countries:

a) for Libya, there is the religious development of the child and also the preparation for progression to primary school;

On the other

b) for England, there is another aim, which is the development of home-school relationships.

Both groups, however, agreed on the importance of these aims, specially the intellectual and social aims.

The difference in number of aims makes direct rank order comparisons between the two groups difficult, but some general trends emerged from the data. While physical and social aims were considered "the most important" by Hull nursery teachers, (social 93.0 per cent with a mean rank of 4.9, and physical 86.0 per cent as very important with a mean rank of 4.9), the Derna kindergarten teachers considered the most important of the four

aims common to both countries to be the intellectual (75.9 per cent). With a percentage of 67.9, both social and religious aims came next for Libyan teachers. For the Hull teachers, the intellectual aim was the third in importance (84.2 per cent), with a mean rank of 4.8, the fourth being Aesthetic, (78.9 per cent) and the fifth being Home and School Relationships (77.2 per cent). Tables 77 and 78 illustrate these opinions.

TABLE No.77 THE DISTRIBUTION OF RATINGS OF AIMS IN MEAN RANK ORDER (KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS)

AIMS	MEAN RANK	RATINGS					MEAN	S.D.
		1	2	3	4	5		
Preparation for Primary	1	2.3	1.1	3.4	11.5	81.6	4.5	1.28
Intellectual	2	11.5	3.4	3.4	5.7	75.9	4.2	1.61
Religious	3	2.3	2.3	5.7	20.8	67.9	4.2	1.43
Social	4	12.6	6.9	4.6	8.0	67.9	4.0	1.70
Physical	5	13.8	10.3	6.9	19.5	49.4	3.7	1.68
Aesthetic	6	27.5	8.0	2.3	1.1	60.9	3.5	2.00

TABLE No.78

THE DISTRIBUTION OF RATINGS OF AIMS IN
MEAN RANK ORDER (NURSERY TEACHERS)

AIMS	RANK ORDER	RATINGS					MEAN	S.D.
		1	2	3	4	5		
Social	1	-	-	1.8	5.3	93.0	4.9	0.34
Physical	2	-	-	-	14.0	86.0	4.9	0.35
Intellectual	3	-	-	5.3	10.5	84.2	4.8	0.53
Aesthetic	4	1.8	-	-	19.3	78.9	4.7	0.64
Home School Relationships	5	1.8	-	5.3	15.8	77.2	4.6	0.88

It is interesting to note that the teachers were very much in agreement on the broad outline of aims, none of the aims having a mean rank less than 3.5 for Derna kindergarten teachers, and not less than a mean rank of 4.6 for Hull nursery teachers. Although the views of the two samples obtained in the field study highlight some common concerns in pre-school education, analysis of the data illustrates some fundamental differences in the role concepts of pre-school education. The Hull nursery teachers seem to be concerned with all-round development of the child as an individual, while the Derna kindergarten teachers expressed great concern for the preparation of the children for primary education, the intellectual development of the child and developing the child's

religious beliefs through memorisation. The researcher is of the view that, in Libya, pre-school education should give more regard to the child's individual needs, this should be done through better qualified and prepared pre-school teachers who could design their own curriculum through their understanding of child development. A comparative study of the views of pre-school teachers in two countries with different political, economic, social and ideological systems serves to illuminate some current concerns in the field of pre-school education. If pre-school is regarded as an educational provision for meeting the developmental demands of young children, no great differences can be expected as children, irrespective of cultural setting and environmental conditions, are thought to have common psycho-social needs related to a stage of development. Differences are observed, however, when the function of pre-school is perceived as meeting society's demands on the child.

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Further discussion of the findings of the survey undertaken by the writer, together with selected aspects of the documentary search, serves to inform the next, and concluding, chapter of the thesis.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

11.1 Conclusions

At the outset of the study, five questions were formulated about pre-school education in Libya and England. These questions were intended to focus attention on the present situation in both countries, to evaluate what is being achieved in the present day situation, and to pinpoint possible deficiencies in current teacher training at this level. Another aim was to establish criteria by which future progress might be measured and evaluated. These questions and their answers are summarized in the first half of this chapter.

- a) What are the aims of pre-school education in Libya, why were these chosen, and who selected them?

In England, according to the evidence, the aims of pre-school education appear to be:

- i) the intellectual development of the child;
- ii) the social emotion development of the child;
- iii) the aesthetic development of the child;
- iv) the physical development of the child;
- v) the creation of an effective transition from home to school.¹

There is agreement on the first four aims in both countries, but the last aim is not evident in Libya. However, there are two

additional aims which could be found in Libya:

i) to promote the child's religious, spiritual and human value, and to make the child love his country and pride himself on the great national heroes of his country;

ii) promotion for primary education.

Analysis of Libyan aims demonstrates the great importance of religious and political/ideological development in the earliest years. This is not considered appropriate in the nursery education in England. Otherwise, the aims, in general, are very similar. All the Libyan official reports mention explicit aims, but it is less clear as to how kindergarten education is helping the child to achieve them. It is theoretically possible to list hundreds of activities which contribute to the child's social or emotional development, but in practice it is very hard for Libyan teachers who are not qualified to work with pre-school children, with a pre-designed curriculum, without any materials, and with inadequate buildings. It is clearly impossible to achieve these aims in such conditions.

In Libya, the kindergartens were established by the different communities, which were coming from Italy, France, England and Malta. They opened these kindergartens primarily for their own children but accepted Libyan children as well. Consequently, their main aims were the same aims of pre-school education in most of the Western European countries at that time. These

influences derived from the educational thinking of Froebel and Montessori, and laid the ground for the emergence of activity-based education, in which the mental needs of the child become the focus of educational objectives. Such influences reached Libya by the first half of the twentieth century as evidenced by De Marco in 1943.²

After Independence, the Libyan government encouraged the mothers of young children to keep their offspring in the kindergartens and to take up employment. For this reason, the kindergartens in Libya are still mostly situated in the main cities where there are women in paid work. The Government even opened its own kindergartens, having been influenced by pre-school education in the Arab world, especially in Egypt. From that time on, pre-school education in Libya put greater emphasis on formal coverage of the 3Rs and religious instruction, but there was no preparation of personnel. Furthermore, the existing structure with its centralized inflexibility proved unable to handle the formulation of educational goals, so the majority of the administrative personnel in pre-school education in Libya have never been prepared for such tasks. Consequently, unsuitable theories and techniques tend to dominate the administrative process. The Ministry of Education not only selects the aims but also the provision of staffing, and the upkeep of educational premises of every sort. There is no infusion of ideas from outside; the system is educationally sterile. The aims of pre-school education in Libya need careful reformulation and this

seems unlikely in view of the rigidities outlined above. At present, the system severely constrains opportunities for the early identification of signs of special needs of problems in young children. ³

- b) Is pre-school education necessary for Libyan Society? If so, why, and by what authority can it be found to be necessary?

The brief survey of pre-school education development indicated that the establishment of Libyan public kindergarten was not intended at first to help poor or working-class families as happened in England, but they were established for the children of working mothers. The main aim of these kindergartens was to bring new educational experience in pre-school education from Egypt which could lead to an improvement of standards in the primary sector of formal education. In consequence, most of these public kindergartens were, and still are, located in the large cities, half of them in Tripoli and Benghazi alone. But there is a great demand for more kindergartens throughout Libya for other reasons too, not least the agreement among educationalists and psychologists in the universities that there is a need for more pre-school education for young children and that this education can be made effective. However, success can only be achieved by the reform of pre-school education provision, of methods, programmes, equipment, and above all the style and content of pre-school teacher training.

- c) What is the nature of pre-school education? What especially are the distinctive features of its curriculum and methodology? How have the teachers been trained?

Up to the present, pre-school and primary education in Libya has used the same methods which were found in the Victorian Britain. Many pre-school children are placed in hard wooden seats, their arms folded, while the teacher stared to the front and taught the whole class simultaneously. The curriculum still consists mainly of the 3Rs, covered almost entirely by rote learning. The following account of similar conditions in England in 1905 would have many parallels in Libya in the 1980s:

"Let us now follow the baby of three years through part of one day of school life; he is placed on a hard wooden seat with a desk in front of him and a window behind him, which is too high to be instrumental in providing such amusement as watching the passers-by. He often cannot reach the floor with his feet, and in many cases he has no back to lean against. He is told to fold his arms and sit quiet. He is surrounded by a large number of other babies all under similar alarming and incomprehensible conditions, and the effort to fold his arms is by no means conducive to comfort or well being.... A blackboard has been produced and hieroglyphics are drawn upon it by the teacher. At a given signal, every child in the class begins calling out mysterious sounds: letter A, letter 'A' is a sing-song voice....I have actually heard a baby class repeat a sound a hundred and twenty times continuously". 4

In fact, there is a direct link in that the problem of the educational system in Libya as in other Arab countries has its roots in the Egyptian educational system which was strongly influenced by the

severities of Victorian Britain and traditional Islamic education.

Analysis of the curriculum in Libya shows that the teaching emphasis is still placed on structured content which results in a series of lessons on such matters as religious education, science, social and moral education, language, arts, storytelling, mathematics, health and safety, music and free play, physical education, and art education. These subjects were organized in all kindergartens on the basis of a familiar and recognisably structured day by day programme centrally drawn up according to the official government timetable.

This pre-school system, where rote learning and cramming is encouraged, and where the requirement is for the recall of only factual information, results, in the inability to apply concepts and principles to the solving of problems. Pre-school education should enjoy greater flexibility than institutionalised forms of compulsory education, but it is evidently burdened with two characteristics:

- a) encyclopaedism
- b) nationalism

Furthermore, the people who lay the plans for these programmes have no real contact with practical teaching, or with the problems of transfer of educational models from developed to developing

countries. As a result, the Libyan pre-school curriculum is on paper comprised of a list of subjects derived directly from outside models: religion, language, mathematics, general science and hygiene, social studies and citizenship, physical education, art education and music. However, these are rather pretentious titles for what takes place in the classroom, which in fact is unlikely to encourage the intellectual development of the young child. The model has only been partially accepted. The activity-based approaches of looking, listening and doing have not been taken on. The 'Western' model has for long accepted that teaching children reading, ~~writing~~ and arithmetic in nursery schools and kindergartens is misdirected and that learning to learn should be emphasized rather than taking over the precious years of childhood to give children an earlier start in the 3Rs. According to Bloom:

"it is not the sheer amount of time spent in learning either in or out of school that accounts for the level of learning; but the quality of instruction and ability to individualize learning". 5

Unfortunately, one must conclude that in Libya, the fears of Bloom have been realised. In that country, pre-school children are pushed beyond their abilities; the over-formal instruction and the emphasis on reading, writing and arithmetic, have made children passive and uncreative.

- d) What is the nature and distribution of pre-school provision in England and what are the educational theories and ideologies which have influenced it?

The brief survey outlined in this thesis of the development of pre-school education in England revealed that trends can be identified in the nineteenth and the early twentieth century in the emergence of a pre-school education system. For example, schools based on particular theoretical philosophies were translated into action; pioneers such as Pestalozzi, Froebel, Montessori and the McMillan sisters saw their ideas put into practice. With respect to such pioneers, the National Union of Teachers has written:

"The educationists mentioned have been picked out because they have a special relevance for nursery education, but from the turn of the century onward, there were a great many other theorists whose influence covered the whole range of education. Like the McMillans and Montessori, they mostly sought a system of teaching centred on the needs of individual children rather than on the basic, economic needs of the society. The best known influence in England dominates educational theories. He believed that children learn best by doing". 6

Dewey's works were also extensively studied by teachers of young children and by students in training, and have played an important part in the evolution of modern ideas on infant education in Europe as well as in the USA. Susan Isaacs also left her mark on early childhood education practice in England. She had a strong belief

in the value of play and discovering in the pursuit of interests and satisfaction of needs. As early as the Hadow Report of 1933, official thinking in England had accepted the child-centred approaches of the pioneers:

"In the best nursery schools the method is eclectic, and combines features drawn from various sources. The pursuits include rhythmic movements, speech training and hand work, and the children usually take great pleasure in all forms of dancing, singing and reading. The manual activities are of simple character, e.g. digging in sand pits, building with large wooden blocks, drawing with crayons on paperchildren rapidly learn not to interfere with other children, not to waste time and not to destroy the equipment provided. By degrees, self-control takes the places of external control and the foundation of genuine interest in various kinds of work". 7

In England, pre-school education aims are mainly on physical, social and emotional development. At its best, the teacher's use of freedom is reflected in the astonishing degree of change that has been seen in the British infant school movement, for which the teachers are largely responsible. The teacher-training colleges in England are centres for the diffusion of ideas, and an important element in the cycle of innovation. This contrasts very strongly with their counterpart institutions in Libya. Not only do they infuse initial trainees with the spirit of the pioneers and good modern practice, they also disseminate developments through in-service courses offered to experienced teachers.

So, pre-school education has been widely accepted in various forms and this has led parents to demand additional pre-school provision such as day nurseries, play groups, nursery classes and even child minders.

- e) What features of English nursery school education can be practically and usefully built into the pre-school programmes and their aims and contents in Libya?

The writer's analysis of the aims programmes and teacher education in England shows that the following elements are relevant to the reform of the Libyan pre-school education system in the late twentieth century.

- i) special training for pre-school teachers;
- ii) non-formal methods;
- iii) aims and objectives of English pre-school education;
- iv) levels of equipment and standards of school buildings;
- v) other facilities;
- vi) the creation of an effective transition from home to nursery and from nursery to primary.

The writer believes that opportunities such as those currently operational in English pre-school provision enrich educational experience in the early years and lay down vital foundations for

later learning. Contrary to current Libyan practice, the child should be encouraged to develop the ability to think and the ideal of individual autonomy must be cherished. The crushing of creative ability, by rote learning and other rigid operations so typical of traditional school and pre-school systems in Libya is intellectually and emotionally damaging, and in crude political terms, reduces the 'virility' of future generations.

The quality of the teaching staff is obviously the vital component. Programmes can be skillfully structured without being over formal and they can allow individual children to develop at their own rates. In its respect for each child, and an accompanying belief that no child should be pushed beyond that which he is able to do, English pre-school education provides a worthy model for the rest of the system and for other countries, Libya included. However, it has to be accepted that it is not realistic to expect a reform of pre-school provision without an overall reform of the whole system. Quite apart from the current political profile of Libya, the fact that it is an Islamic state and society presents severe problems for the transfer of English pre-school practice, there would have to be considerable adaptation.

11.2 Recommendations

a) Introduction

This final section presents a series of recommendations for change in policies and procedures to overcome most of the short-

comings reviewed earlier and to introduce new dimensions for pre-school education in Libya.

It is a well-established fact that educational policy can not be profitably discussed except within social, economic and political contexts, and this must be borne in mind for Libya, as for any other country, when formulating educational recommendations. This is what Mallinson had in mind when discussing the concept of 'national character' in respect of education. However, it is always possible, with care and skill, to learn from other countries, and that is why the researcher has included discussion of the wider Arab context, the historical development of 'western' pre-school education, and especially a detailed examination of the English case as important elements of her thesis.

The writer has come to the conclusion that widespread reform is needed in the Libyan educational system, and that this should be achieved through more research and experimentation. Because the relationship between pre-school education and other levels of education is organic, then any change in it would have to be reflected on other sectors, especially the primary stage. With respect to pre-school education in particular, it is suggested that it be redesigned to achieve objectives derived from new aims. But objectives are different from aims in that they are statements of what the children should be able to do and achieve as a result of the help and assistance of the staff. The writer contends that, in Libya, the objectives of pre-school education should no longer be

confined to the 3Rs, but instead, the all round development of the personality of the child should be the dominant factor.

Children should not be treated as small adults. Instead, the natural order of their development will remain paramount. The syllabus would be adapted to fit the child rather than the child being forced to suit the syllabus. This does not mean compromising the quality of the programme. Indeed, it means the direct opposite, for lack of consideration for the sensitivities of the natural development of very young child would be counterproductive to significant educational development in later years.

In the following pages, the writer lists the guidelines she would wish to see accepted and implemented in Libyan pre-school education in the future. They have been formulated on the basis, not only of previous experience in Libya, but also consideration of external examples.

b) New Aims and Objectives for Libyan Pre-School Education

i) Aim A: to promote the Social, Emotional, and Moral Development of the child by:

- helping the child to adjust to school;
- helping the child to relate to people - adults as well as children;
- promoting emotional development through play - individual and group;

- assisting social training - helping the child to mix with others;
- establishing self-confidence, self-control and self-discipline;
- moral development - respect for rule through play.

ii) Aim B: to promote intellectual development through looking, listening, and doing, by:

- asking questions which provoke thoughtful response and problem solving (e.g. comparing, constructing, analysing, summarising, imaginary, feeling);
- using daily life experiences and materials to develop concepts (e.g. relate learning to immediate environment, mathematics concepts by use of familiar objects, science concepts through natural and physical materials, etc.);
- introducing a wide variety of learning resources (e.g. stories, people, objects and media);
- responding to children's questions, suggestions and comments in supportive ways which demonstrate that the child is being recognised in respect of knowledge;
- recognising by looking, listening and doing;
- recognition of cause and effect;
- encouraging the child's curiosity,

iii) Aim C: Physical/Health Education to be promoted by:

- developing awareness and control of the body and the formation of healthy habits;
- the development of fine and gross muscles.
- the development of physical coordination;
- promoting awareness of the body in space;
- encouraging the development of physical fitness and well being;
- establishing and maintaining the limits of safety;
- planning to use outdoor facilities whenever possible;
- providing medical examinations and treatment for children as needed;
- providing food and rest as needed.

iv) Aim D: Language Development - to be promoted by:

- supporting the development of speech - fluency, comprehension;
- supporting the development of listening skills;
- combining actions and words;
- building a vocabulary;
- taking active participation in simple discussion.
- using the environment to stimulate conversation and communication.

v) Aim E: Aesthetic/Psychomotor Development should be supported by:

- the development of senses through creative activities;
- promoting creative experience through songs, poetry and stories;
- supporting creative experience through art, movement and music and natural sounds;
- discriminating between natural and man-made objects.

vi) Aim F: The Religious development of the child to be assisted by:

- developing belief in religious and moral values;
- understanding the moral values in a story;
- understanding certain religious practices;
- accepting and respecting one's own religion as well as other religions.

c) The Need for Better Facilities in Libyan Pre-Schools/Kindergartens

Better equipment and play material should be made available in all the kindergartens to achieve all the aims and objectives listed above. For example:

i) equipment and play materials should be bought ready made for immediate use (e.g. climbing apparatus, push and pull toys, swings, slides, bricks and home corners equipment);

- ii) natural and waste materials suitable for activities should be collected and made available (e.g. motor tyres, logs, plastic barrels, cardboard, etc.);
- iii) there should be equipment and materials for water and sand play;
- iv) television should be a normal part of the equipment as well as a video of every kindergarten.

d) The Need to Improve the Quality of Pre-School Staff

i) General

Teacher Training Institutes and especially the Universities Faculties of Education should have major responsibility for the preparation of the teachers for pre-school education. The curriculum at both of them should be under constant revision so as to relate it to the latest knowledge and methods in the world of pre-school education. The only way to do this is by means of a small committee of men and women who are in constant touch with modern trends, and changes in pre-school education, in international perspective. Pre-school teaching should be an 'all-qualified' profession.

ii) Components of the Training Programme:

The main purpose of the training programme should be to present a sequence of experiences which coordinate and integrate with each other and cover both academic and community dimensions. Field and academic work should occur concurrently so as to enable trainees

to internalise a sense of discovery and inquiry about the teaching role.

• Field Experience: Field experience constitutes 'on-the-job' training. The trainee would be expected to be a responsible member of a staff team in the kindergarten. It is essential that the field situation should be:

- a good example of developmental programme in which the trainee experiences genuine responsibility;
- provide good models of adults functioning with children who are also qualified to act as supporting supervisors for the trainee;
- provide a mechanism for review of objectives and analysis of educational and psychological events, problems and issues that should be part of the field experience;
- provide a system for increasing the trainee's potential for constructing a positive teacher style;
- extended so that a real experience of teaching in kindergartens is being provided;
- viewed as an opportunity to supervise the tutors also, and to infuse new ideas into the field, applying theory to practice in the kindergarten setting.

• The Academic Experience: This should relate to and further define the practices of the trainee's field experience, as theory must clarify field work with children. The content of the academic experiences should include:

- child growth, development and health;
- history, principles and practices in early childhood education;
- community experience (experiences which acquaints trainees with local community resources;
- trainees should study one or more expressive subjects (e.g. art, music, dance);
- practical skills, (e.g. toy makers, construction of games);
- curriculum studies, (e.g. teaching of reading and language);
- educational organisation and administration (e.g. the law concerning kindergarten education and its management);
- theory and philosophy of education, (e.g. aims and purposes of kindergarten education main theories);

e) The Characteristics of the Training Programme

All training programmes should demonstrate the following characteristics:

i) supervised field experiences which should constitute at least 50 per cent of the trainee's total training time;

ii) the major field placement should occur in a demonstration or model kindergarten;

iii) the demonstration kindergarten teachers have to be persons with outstanding skills as classroom teachers; but it is even more important that they should have the characteristics which will enable them to be accepted by students and to be able to lead, encourage, and get the very best from the trainees placed in their care;

iv) the demonstration kindergartens should be attached to a college or university faculty, and the head teacher must be an outstanding professional who is able to lead and guide the staff effectively.

v) the demonstration kindergarten, as a model kindergarten, should be very carefully maintained with specialised equipment updated continually;

vi) field experience must provide the trainee with the opportunity to:

- interact with young children as a member of a staff team.
- participate in and assist classroom staff in designing and implementing all aspects of early childhood curricula;
- interact with parents;
- learn from a supportive supervisory relationship;

f) A Guide to Essential Components of Preparation

i) preparation of all personnel should include involvement with parents and children of diverse values and background in a variety of situations;

ii) the programme should help trainees understand themselves, their strengths and weaknesses, and their attitudes, in order to relate effectively to children and parents;

iii) the programme should encourage individuals to be receptive to new ideas and should stimulate and capitalise on their eagerness to learn;

iv) every trainee should have some opportunity to learn more about and to teach those things in which he/she has a vital interest. This should help to promote the facility to identify the particular individual talents of children, and help in their development;

v) programmes which prepare people to teach young children must emphasize the characteristics, growth patterns, and learning styles of young children and the diverse styles of behaviour;

vi) teaching personnel should in the future be working as teams. Their training, therefore, should give the experience in co-operative effort. Teaching teams should be prepared together as teams;

vii) programmes should provide the opportunity for students to become independent, self-directed persons who can substantiate and articulate their beliefs about the education of young children;

g) The Assessment of Pre-School Teacher Training

Examinations should not stand as a powerful hurdle to the proposed innovations, it is therefore recommended that:

i) rigid ways of examining which have been traditionally used in all the colleges and faculties of education should be changed to encourage students to think and understand themselves and not merely to emit what they have memorized;

ii) the final examinations should be 70% of the final grade, there should also be continuous assessment;

iii) self evaluation should be developed as an effective device to help teachers develop a self-corrective mechanism;

h) The Selection of Students for Entry to Training

This should be guided by the following principles:

i) candidates should possess such intellectual, personal, temperamental and physical qualities as meet the requirements of the prospective task;

ii) selection should therefore be carried out with much more care and precision than in the past. The academic ability of an applicant should no longer be the main criterion for admission, because for pre-school especially, certain personal characteristics and professional commitments are more important;

iii) admission to be conditional upon subsequent proof of fitness for the profession;

iv) the idea of placement tests should be introduced according to which each student takes courses in line with particular abilities and interests; this calls for the establishment of a guidance and counselling service;

i) The In-Service Dimension

The success of the proposed programme depends to a large extent upon the continual retraining of teachers. It is therefore recommended that:

i) untrained tutors for pre-school education should be encouraged to undertake in-service training programmes which would help compensate for their deficiencies in professional training;

ii) all teaching personnel should be involved in special in-service programmes to inculcate the new organisation and innovations proposed;

iii) tutors should be provided with support services to relieve them from clerical work;

iv) the Ministry of Education and the universities should jointly appoint head teachers and provide supervision for pre-school education;

v) a one-year advanced full-time course in pre-school education in the Faculties of Education should be made available for existing teachers - head teachers and supervisors as soon as possible;

vi) supervisors and head teachers should be given more opportunity to determine the emphasis in pre-school programmes in consultation with kindergarten staff;

vii) the success of kindergarten depends to a large extent on the head teachers who should be responsible for the administrative efficiency of their kindergartens by arranging with their staff the daily programmes and they should be aware of the varieties of play materials, teaching aids and equipment available which might be employed in daily programmes;

viii) head teachers should be encouraged to have good relationships with the primary schools staff in the area, and the members of the staff of primary schools should have opportunities to visit the kindergarten by arrangement, to observe and discuss problems of common interest and to prepare for easy transition from pre-school to primary school;

ix) in-service workshops and longer programmes, for all pre-school teachers should include the following:

- practical work in such subjects as art, music and new trends in creative activities for pre-school children;
- curriculum study;
- current trends and modern theories in pre-school education;
- courses on child development;
- courses in the making and use of play materials and teaching aids in pre-school education.

But the objectives of in-service education of pre-school teachers should vary according to the particular needs of each category of teacher. A balance should be maintained as between short, refresher, longer and supplementary courses; no-one type should predominate. After completing remedial education, INSET should then shift to keep teachers informed to know new advances in curriculum and instruction. The evaluation of INSET should be in terms of a teacher's professional growth, a pupil's gain and programme modification to the better.

j) Summary

The way ahead for the development of teachers of kindergarten education in Libya is beset with many problems but the task is essential to the development of the national system of education as a whole. The quality of staff and their professional development is the key. The efficiency of teachers is the function of not only a

good general education but also of professional training, therefore the comprehensive approach which examines operational relationships within a broad range of factors is highly recommended by the writer. Because without suitably qualified staff in pre-school education, it will never develop satisfactorily as a sector:

"After twenty five years of field study and observation in the developing countries and close examination of the university students they produce, I have become profoundly convinced that each time a centre for pre-primary education staffed by sufficiently qualified personnel, begins to operate in a developing country, a veritable necessary for talent is created....I simply suggested that nursery school should be developed and democratised in that country where they were still prerogative of a rich minority. Even then, I believed in the influence of the first years. This feeling has been strengthened over the years, and if I were the Minister of Education in a developing country, I should not rest until I had beside me a small team actively aware of the significance of pre-primary education". 9

The lack of training for kindergarten teachers in Libya has kept pre-school education in an underdeveloped condition. The clearest contrast between the samples of nursery staff in Hull and kindergarten staff in Derna was in the degree of training received by the latter and the opportunities for in-service professional development continually open to them. They are clearly the beneficiaries of a long tradition of pre-school theory and practice - as outlined by the documentary research above - which, despite the Arab culture of Libya, has firmly penetrated that country. Somehow, by intelligent and selected borrowing and adaptation, the

Libyan authorities, using the sort of framework provided by the writer over the last few pages of this thesis, have to find a way to fuse the external and internal traditions in the formulation of a new pre-school sector.

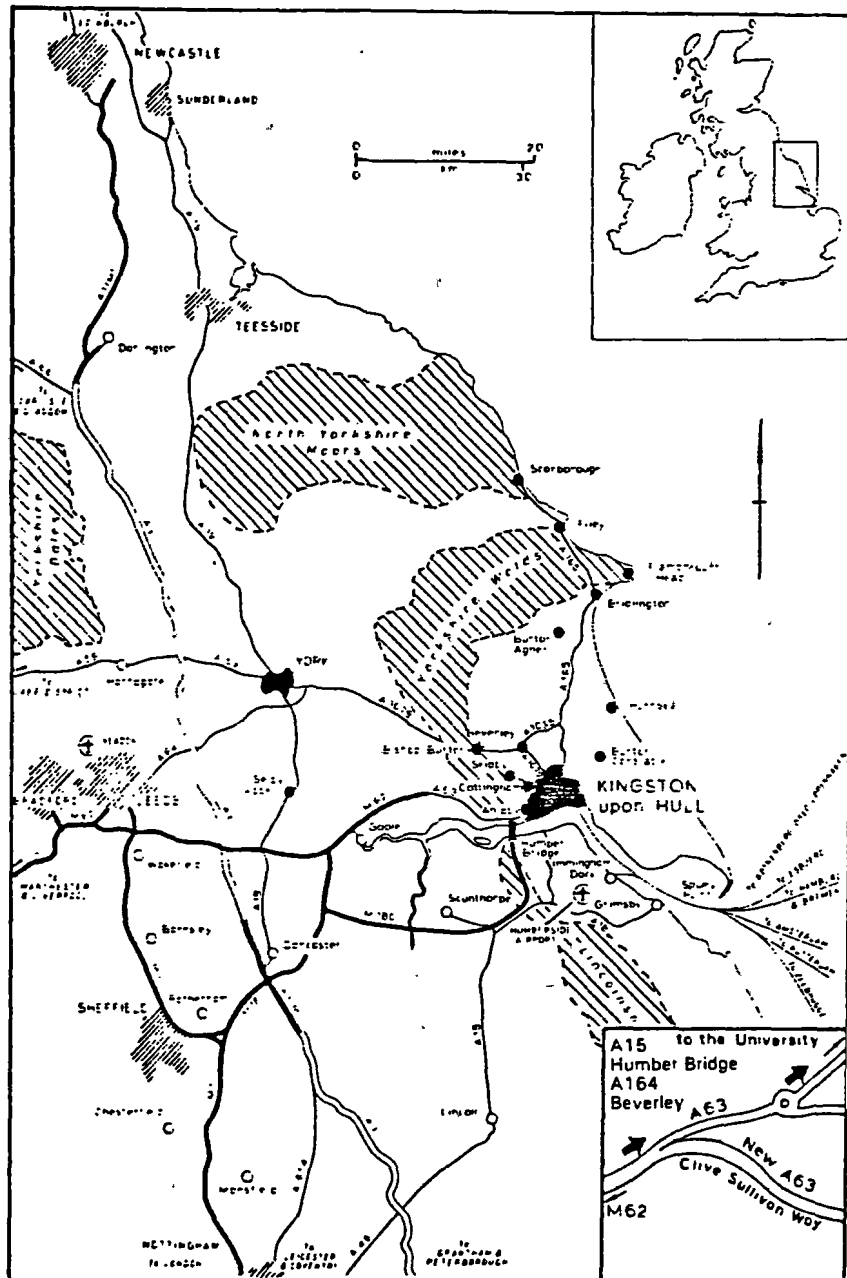
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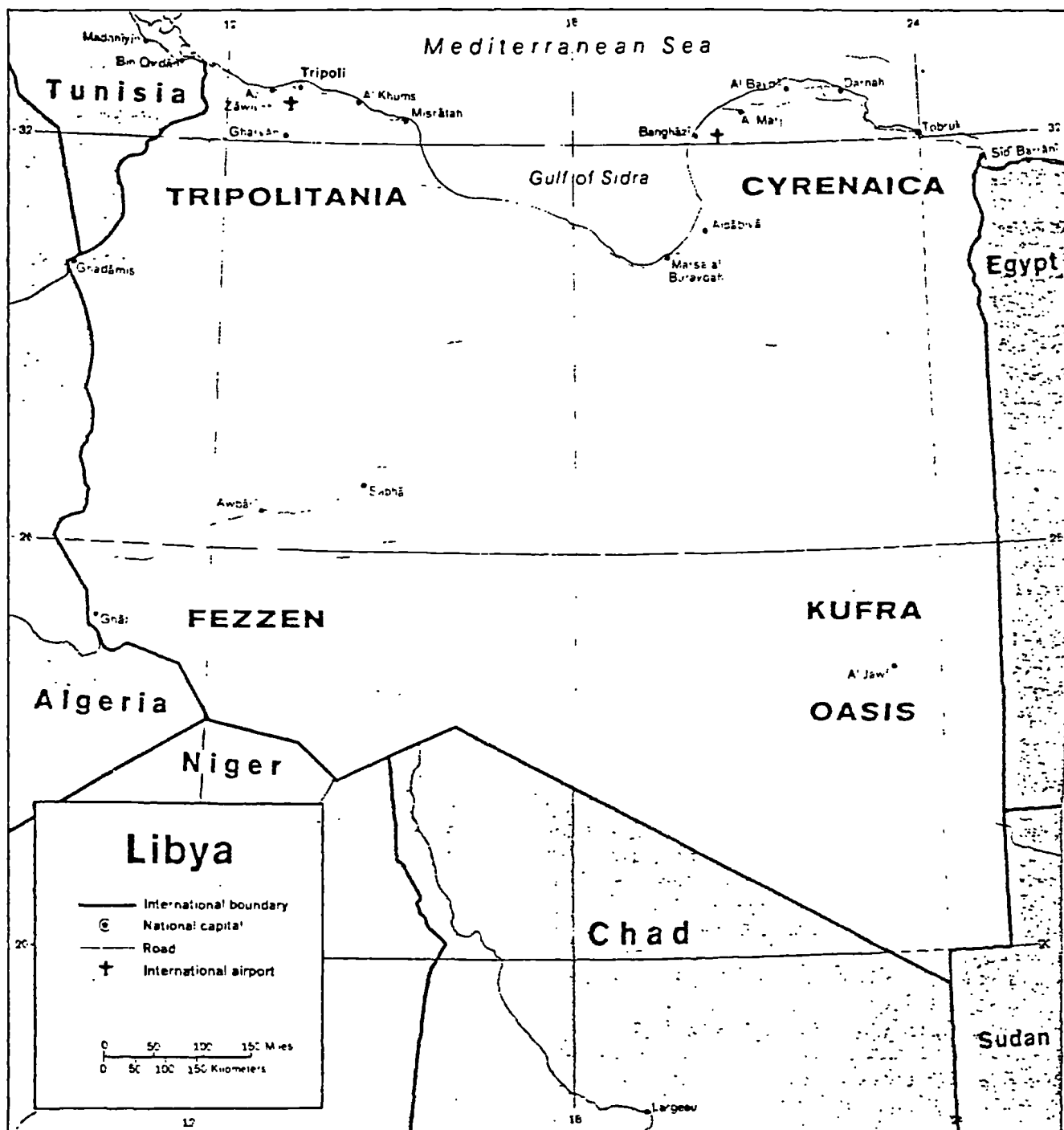
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2. De Marco, op.cit., p. 73.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

THE LOCATIONS OF HULL AND DERNA





APPENDIX BQUESTIONNAIRE FOR NURSERY STAFF IN HULL, ENGLAND

Dear Staff

This questionnaire has been designed with the aim of gaining information from teachers working in nursery schools and classes.

It consists of three sections. Please read the instructions for each section carefully before completing it and do your best to complete them frankly. Your answers will be of immense value to my studies and I would like to thank you in anticipation of your co-operation. I would be very grateful if you could find the time to answer these questions.

Yours sincerely

Mrs. F. Ghafir
Research Student
Institute of Education
University of Hull

SECTION A : GENERAL INFORMATION

1. How many children do you have in your class?

15 - 19

20 - 24

25 - 29

30 or over

2. What age group are you?

less than 20 years

20 - 29

30 - 39

40 - 49

50 and over

3. Are you single or married?

Single

Married

4. Do you have any children of your own?

Yes

No

5. Which of the following groups of children have you taught during your career so far?

No other age group

Infant

Junior

Secondary

6. Which of the following describes your school building and facilities as an environment for pre-school education?

Ideal

Very good

Good

Adequate

Limited

Very poor

7. Please indicate which of the following qualifications you possess? (Please tick one or more of the boxes, as appropriate).

N.N.E.B.

Teaching Certificate

University Degree

Advanced Diploma

Other Qualifications

8. How long have you taught?

1 - 4 years

5 - 9 years

15-19 years

20 and over

9. How long have you taught children under five years of age?

Under one year

1 - 4 years

5 - 9 years

10-14 years

15-19 years

20 and over

10. Which of the following motives do you consider the most important and the least important for teaching in the nursery school or class? (Please tick as many of the motives as were relevant to you and circle the two motives that were most important to you).

- a) Good career prospects.
- b) A chance for professional development.
- c) Opportunity to pursue interest in a particular subject.
- d) Security of employment.
- e) Freedom to organize much of one's own work.
- f) Liking for teaching.
- g) High status occupation.
- h) Good working hours and holidays.
- i) Family pressure.
- j) Very keen to work with children.
- k) Socially worthwhile work.
- l) Little or no alternative.
- m) Salary level.
- n) Work you could do best of all.

11. Do you have in-service training?

Yes

No

12. How long do you consider the practical components should be?

- a) Block Practice

Less than one month in the school year

one month in the school year

more than one month

b) Concurrent Practice

one day per week

one week per month

other than that

13. Which of the following courses were included as a major part of your teacher training?

Nursery

Infant

Junior

Secondary

14. How long should the training period be?

1 year

2 years

3 years

4 years

15. What is your present position and responsibility?

Head Teacher

Deputy Head

Teacher in charge

Teacher

Nursery Nurse

16. How important do you consider the following components of an education course for nursery teachers? Please use the following scale

very important	5
important	4
of only minor importance	3
unimportant	2
irrelevant	1

for each of the following items.

- a) Study of one or more expressive subjects, e.g. art, music, dance.
- b) Practical skills, e.g. toy making, construction of games.
- c) Study of one or more academic subjects
- d) Curriculum studies, e.g. teaching of language and reading.
- e) Sociology of education, e.g. family structures, social class.
- f) History of education
- g) Educational organisation and administration, e.g. the Law concerning nursery education; the management of nursery school.
- h) Health and hygiene, e.g. physical growth of the child.
- i) Practice in nursery teaching
- j) Theory and philosophy of education, e.g. aims and purposes of nursery education, main theories.
- k) Child psychology.

	No.
a)	
b)	
c)	
d)	
e)	
f)	
g)	
h)	
i)	
j)	
k)	

SECTION B : CURRICULUM

1. In your opinion, how important is the content of these topics of the present curriculum in meeting the children's requirements in the nursery school? Please use the following scale.

very important	5
important	4
of only minor importance	3
unimportant	2
irrelevant	1

- a) Play and Free Activities
 b) Religious Education
 c) Health and Science
 d) Art
 e) Mathematics
 f) Language
 g) Physical Education
 h) Visits

a)	
b)	
c)	
d)	
e)	
f)	
g)	
h)	

2. In your opinion, how should learning be achieved in the nursery?

Learning by guided activities

Learning by free activities

Both

3. In your opinion, does the present nursery school curriculum reflect the needs of the child?

Yes

☐

No

☐

To a considerable extent

☐

SECTION C : AIMS OF PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

1. There are many aims or goals that a teacher strives towards for young children. Would you please indicate which would you consider to be the most important and the least important

very important	5	important	4
of only minor importance	3	unimportant	2
irrelevant	1		

- a) The social development of the child
- b) The intellectual development of each child through listening, looking and doing.
- c) The physical development and health education of the child.
- d) The aesthetic and psychomotor development of the child.
- e) The development of home and school relationships.

a)	
b)	
c)	
d)	
e)	

APPENDIX CQUESTIONNAIRE FOR KINDERGARTEN STAFF IN DERNA OF LIBYA

Dear Staff

This questionnaire has been designed with the aim of gaining information from teachers working in kindergartens.

It consists of three sections. Please read the instructions for each section carefully before completing it and do your best to complete them frankly. Your answers will be of immense value to my studies and I would like to thank you in anticipation of your co-operation. I would be very grateful if you could find the time to answer these questions.

Yours sincerely

Mrs. F. Ghafir
Lecturer
Faculty of Education
El Fateh University

SECTION A : GENERAL INFORMATION

1. How many children do you have in your class?

15 - 19

20 - 24

25 - 29

30 or more

2. What age group are you?

less than 20 years

20 - 29

30 - 39

40 - 49

50 and over

3. Are you single or married?

Single

Married

4. Do you have any children of your own?

Yes

No

5. Which of the following groups of children have you taught during your career so far?

No other age group

primary

preparatory

secondary

6. Which of the following describes your school building and facilities as an environment for pre-school education?

Ideal

Very good

Good

Adequate

Limited

Very poor

7. Please indicate which of the following qualifications you possess? Please tick one or more of the boxes, as appropriate.

General Diploma

Special Diploma

University Degree

Advanced Diploma

Without any qualification for teaching.

8. How long have you taught?

1 - 4 years

5 - 9 years

15-19 years

20 and over

9. How long have you taught children under compulsory education?

Under one year

1 - 4 years

5 - 9 years

10-14 years

15-19 years

20 and over

10. Which of the following motives do you consider the most important and the least important for teaching in the kindergartens. (Please tick as many of the motives as were relevant to you and circle the two motives that were most important to you?

- a) Good career prospects
- b) A chance for professional development
- c) Opportunity to pursue interest in a particular subject.
- d) Security of employment.
- e) Freedom to organise much of one's own work
- f) Liking for teaching.
- g) Higher status occupation
- h) Good working hours and holidays
- i) Family pressure
- j) Very keen to work with children
- k) Socially worthwhile work
- l) Little or no alternative
- m) Salary level
- n) Work you could do best of all

a)	
b)	
c)	
d)	
e)	
f)	
g)	
h)	
i)	
j)	
k)	
l)	
m)	
n)	

11. Do you have in-service training?

Yes

No

12. How long do you consider the practical components should be?

a) Block Practice

less than one month in the school year

more than one month

b) Concurrent Practice

one day per week

one week per month

other than that

13. Which of the following courses were included as a major part of your teacher training?

Kindergarten education

Primary education

Preparatory education

Secondary

14. Do you agree with special training for kindergarten teachers?

Yes

No

15. How long should the training period be?

1 year

2 years

3 years

4 years

16. What is your present position and responsibility?

Head Teacher

Deputy Head

Teacher

Teacher Assistant

17. How important do you consider the following components of an education course for kindergarten teachers? (Please use the following scale).

very important	5	important	4
of only minor importance	3	unimportant	2
irrelevant	1		

- a) Study of one or more expressive subjects, e.g. art, music, dance.
- b) Practical skills, e.g. toy making, construction of games.
- c) Study of one or more academic subjects.
- d) Curriculum studies, e.g. teaching of language and reading.
- e) Sociology of education, e.g. family structures/ social class.
- f) History of education
- g) Educational organisation and administration, e.g. the Law concerning nursery education; the management of nursery school.
- h) Health and hygiene, e.g. physical growth of the child.
- i) Practice in nursery teaching.
- j) Theory and philosophy of education, e.g. aims and purposes of nursery education; main theories.
- k) Child psychology

	No.
a)	
b)	
c)	
d)	
e)	
f)	
g)	
h)	
i)	
j)	
k)	

SECTION B : CURRICULUM

1. In your opinion, how important is the content of these topics of the present curriculum in meeting the children's requirements in the nursery school? (Please use the following scale).

very important	5
important	4
of only minor importance	3
unimportant	2
irrelevant	1

- a) Play and free activities
 b) Religious Education
 c) Health and Science
 d) Art
 e) Mathematics
 f) Language
 g) Physical Education
 h) Visits

a).	
b).	
c).	
d).	
e).	
f).	
g).	
h).	

2. In your opinion, how should learning be achieved in the nursery?

Learning by guided activities

Learning by free activities

Both

3. In your opinion, does the present nursery school curriculum reflect the needs of the child?

Yes

☐

No

☐

To considerable extent

☐

SECTION 3 : AIMS OF PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

1. There are many aims or goals that a teacher strives towards for young children. Would you please indicate which you consider to be the most important and the least important

very important	5	important	4
of only minor importance	3	unimportant	2
irrelevant	1		

- a) The social development of the child
- b) The intellectual development, of each child through listening, looking and doing.
- c) The physical development and health education of the child.
- d) The aesthetic and psychomotor development of the child.
- e) The development of home and school relationships.

a)	
b)	
c)	
d)	
e)	

APPENDIX D

DATA ON LIBYAN KINDERGARTENS IN 1981/82

Municipal Education Authority	No. of Kinder- gartens	No. of Class- rooms	No. of Children (pupils)			Classroom Capacity	No. of Admini- strators			M	F	Total
			M	F	Total		M	F	Total			
Derna	5	23	566	494	1060	46	-	17	17	-	72	72
El-Jabel El-Akder	2	12	196	165	361	30	-	7	7	-	17	17
Benghazi	12	84	1619	1373	2992	36	-	52	52	-	219	219
Misurata	5	12	234	158	392	33	-	7	7	-	12	12
Zlitiu	2	15	103	86	189	38	-	1	1	-	5	5
El-Jafra	4	17	303	293	596	35	-	8	8	-	24	24
Tripoli	11	70	1772	1668	3440	49	-	37	37	-	180	180
El-Zawia	2	5	66	67	128	26	-	2	2	-	11	11
(Zewara) El-Nikat El- Khamsa	2	5	78	87	165	33	-	2	2	-	12	12
Gharian	1	5	118	93	211	42	-	2	2	-	11	11
El-Khums	1	12	291	279	570	47	-	-	-	-	16	16
Ajdattiyah	2	11	168	133	301	27	-	-	-	-	20	20
TOTAL	49	261	5514	4891	10405	40	-	135	135	-	599	599

* Translated from Arabic.

** Source: Secretary of Education, Statistical Review, 1961-1962.

APPENDIX E

DATA ON PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION IN ENGLAND:

1960 TO 1985

Pupils under five years of age in England — 1960 to 1985. Maintained nursery and primary schools

January	1960	1965	1970	1975	1976	1977
Pupil numbers¹ (thousands)						
<i>Type of school</i>						
1 Nursery: Full-time	17	18	15	14	13	14
2 Part-time	2	8	17	30	32	34
3 Primary: Full-time	156	175	202	271	285	251
4 Part-time	2	10	28	90	109	133
<i>Type of class²</i>						
5 Nursery	71	..	83	138	158	187
6 Infant	107	..	178	266	282	245
<i>Age of pupils³</i>						
7 2 years	3	2	2	2	2	3
8 3 years	20	22	29	63	75	89
9 4 years	156	186	230	339	363	340
10 Total pupils under 5 years	179	211	261	404	440	432
<i>Percentage of population³</i>						
11 aged 3 years	3	3	4	9	11	14
12 aged 4 years	26	26	29	47	51	51
13 Total under 5 years ⁴	14	14	17	28	32	34
14 Population aged 3 and 4 in thousands	1,278	1,507	1,535	1,443	1,375	1,270

Footnotes 1, 2 and 3 — Refer to relevant numbered paragraph in 'Explanatory notes'
 4 Total pupils under five compared with the population aged three and four years

	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	
14	14	14	14	14	13	13	12	12	1
34	34	34	34	34	36	37	37	38	2
224	233	230	225	220	225	225	251	257	3
142	147	150	155	168	183	194	194	206	4
201	210	215	222	235	248	259	259	267	5
214	218	213	207	201	210	236	236	246	6
3	4	25	27	29	26	25	25	25	7
97	105	144	148	159	173	182	182	187	8
314	320	260	253	248	259	288	288	301	9
415	429	429	428	437	458	495	495	513	10
17	19	26	28	30	30	30	30	32	11
51	55	68	69	70	71	73	74	74	12
34	37	39	40	40	40	42	43	43	13
1,220	1,159	1,100	1,070	1,092	1,145	1,178	1,187	1,187	14

Key
(continues)

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