

The University of North Carolina
at Greensboro

JACKSON LIBRARY



ca

no. 1423

UNIVERSITY ARCHIVES

EL HINSHIRI, ALI KHALIFA. The History of Physical Education and Sport in the Libyan Arab Republic. (1976) Directed by: Dr. Tony Ladd. Pp. 84.

The purpose of this study was an historical analysis of the development of physical education and sport in the Libyan Arab Republic from the earliest recorded references to the present day. The historical method of research was used to collect and describe data.

In the early history of Libya there was ample evidence that physical activities, of a rudimentary nature, were an essential aspect of life. The first organized sport, however, did not appear until after 1920 with the formation of the Italian sport federation. Sport competitions and clubs gradually increased in number and type particularly after the proclamation of independence in 1952 when the Central Sports League was established.

The sport movement gained momentum in the 1960s with the formation of the Libyan Olympic Committee which provided leadership, organization and financial aid. Between 1960 and 1975 there was a dispersion of sports activities to all parts of the country as mass participation became a reality. The most popular mass sports were soccer, volleyball, basketball and track and field.

The importance of physical education as an essential part of the education of youth was realized after independence was achieved in 1952. Professional preparation of physical education teachers became a reality by 1960 when the

department of physical education within the Ministry of Education was established and an institute of physical education was opened in Tripoli. Physical education had then become an acceptable part of the curriculum.

The traditional negative attitude of the people toward sport and physical education has decreased in recent years in Libya. This change has prompted extensive support of sport from both the people and the government to develop expanding programs in sport and physical education.

THE HISTORY OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT
" "
IN THE LIBYAN ARAB REPUBLIC

by

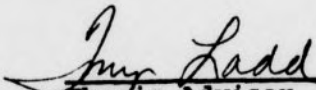
Ali Khalifa El-Hinshiri
"

A Thesis Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science in Physical Education

Greensboro

1976

Approved by


Thesis Adviser

APPROVAL PAGE

This thesis has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Thesis Adviser

Tom Ladd

Committee Members

Lee M. Dennis

Carl B. Blevins

13 April 1974
Date of Acceptance by Committee

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The researcher is indebted to Dr. Gail Hennis for her kind help during graduate study. Her advice, guidance and encouragement were valuable. Also, the devoted attention and thoughtful and invaluable cooperation of Dr. Tony Ladd is evident through this study and made possible the completion of this thesis.

A word of appreciation is also extended to Dr. Pearl Berlin and Dr. Gail Hennis for reviewing the thesis and serving as committee members.

Also to everyone who, in one way or another, helped the completion of this study, the author is grateful.

The researcher dedicates this work to his family, hoping that he can be as good to them as they have been to him.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
APPROVAL PAGE	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES.	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	vii
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	2
Scope and Delimitation	3
Significance of the Study.	3
Definitions.	4
Limitations.	4
Collection of Materials.	5
II. REVIEW OF HISTORICAL, GEOGRAPHICAL, RELIGIOUS, POLITICAL AND SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS	7
Historical Background of Libya	7
Geography and Climate.	11
Religion	12
Sociology and Culture.	14
III. EDUCATION IN LIBYA	21
The Education Policy in Libya.	25
The Education System in Libya.	25
Religious Education.	30
Private Education	30
Teacher Education in Libya	32
IV. PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT BEFORE INDE- PENDENCE	
General Outlook	34
Libya in Ancient Times	34
The Phoenicians	35
The Greeks	36
The Romans	37
Libya, Islam and Arabism	38
Other Occupiers.	39
The Italian Occupation	40
British Administration	42

CHAPTER	Page
V. PHYSICAL EDUCATION AFTER INDEPENDENCE	44
Organization and Administration of Physical Education	45
Physical Education in the General Educational System	46
Professional Preparation.	52
VI. SPORT IN LIBYA AFTER INDEPENDENCE	57
Organization and Administration	57
Activities of Sports Federations.	62
VII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	78
Summary	78
Conclusion	80
BIBLIOGRAPHY	82

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Elementary Education during the Italian Occupation (1912-1943)	22
2. Elementary and Secondary Education during the British Occupation (1944-1951)	23
3. Number of Students and Teachers in Preparatory Schools (1968-1973)	26
4. Number of Students in Vocational Education (1968-1972).	28
5. Composition of the Libyan Olympic Committee in 1976	61
6. Number of Coaches, Referees and Athletes in 1975	63

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. The Ten Governmental Regions	15
2. The Educational System of the Libyan Arab Republic	31
3. A Schematic Representation of the Organization of the Department of School Activities in 1975	47

¹ J. Guisande, *Some Aspects of the Play Element in Culture* (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd., 1949), p. 173.

² H. Van Dalen and E. Bennett, *A World History of Physical Education* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971), pp. 6-7.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Sport and games are fundamental aspects of social life in most human societies. Indeed, J. Huizinga has suggested that "the spirit of playful competition is, as a social impulse, older than culture itself and pervades all life like a veritable ferment."¹ In most societies, games, festivals, dances and sporting competitions have provided enjoyment, have served as outlets for energy, have strengthened group solidarity and have transmitted national traditions. These activities also have provided a perspective of how people live, work, think and play, for there are interrelationships among all the various components of culture such as politics, economics, geography, religion and sports. The exact cultural role of sport in a society is perhaps little understood, but the fact remains that in its broad context sport has been part of all cultures from neolithic times to the present.² A. Lunn says that

¹J. Huizinga, Homo Ludens: A Study of the Play Element in Culture (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd., 1949), p. 173.

²D. Van Dalen and B. Bennett, A World History of Physical Education (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971), pp. 6-7.

sport in some form or another is the main object of most lives, that most men work in order to play, and that games which bulk so largely in the life of the individual cannot be neglected in studying the life of a nation.³

Although a wide range of physical activities and games have been a part of the lives and pastimes of the Libyan people for many hundreds of years, the general public has never accepted physical education and sport as important as subjects such as mathematics and reading. A general belief has been perpetuated that students taking part in games and sports would never make good scholars. Nevertheless, one can readily see the emerging importance of sport and physical activity in modern Libya.

Realizing that little information is available in Libya on how sports and physical education have developed and that the need for identifying a perspective for physical education and sport in Libya exists, the writer has investigated the development of these areas within the context of Libyan culture.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study is to investigate the historical development of physical education and sport through the different cultural, political, economic, religious and social stages in Libya.

³A. Lunn, A History of Skiing (London: Oxford University Press, 1972), p. 31.

SCOPE AND DELIMITATION

In this study the researcher will include information from the time of the Libyan invasion of Egypt through the forming of the Libyan Arab Republic. He will address political, geographic, religious, sociological and educational aspects. The emphasis will be on physical education and sport and how they have been influenced by the cultural, religious, and traditional aspects.

The study will include an historical analysis of physical education and sport in the nation of Libya for both males and females, with no age limitations, educational and community programs, and facilities.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

While many books, articles and theses have been written about Libya, no one has ever written specifically about the history of physical education and sport in that country. A need for information is evident.

The researcher has worked for five years with the Ministry of Education as a supervisor, the Olympic Committee and different sport clubs in Libya. With a background which included representing Libya in many conferences and meetings, the most important of which was the "Conference on Physical Education and Sport in Africa" in Rabat, Morocco, in 1971, he felt an obligation to interpret the history of physical education and sport in the Libyan Arab Republic for the information of his own country and for the rest of the

world. It is hoped that this detailed work will be a source of useful information to everybody interested in the field and to provide school administrators and students the opportunity to learn about physical education and sport in the Libyan Arab Republic.

DEFINITIONS

The following terms served as definitions for the thesis and may not necessarily apply outside the context of this study.

Physical Education: Physical education is composed of those activities or systems that are part of the formal school program.

Sport: Sport is any competitive physical activity engaged in for pleasure, amusement and exercise.

Game: Game is any physical activity, governed by temporary or permanent rules, which takes place in situations of fixed boundaries of time and/or space, and exhibits characteristics of competition by which winners or losers may be determined.

Play: Play is engaging in a contest under a set of flexible rules.

LIMITATIONS

1. The investigator lives in the United States and literature about Libya was not readily available nor adequate in American libraries.

2. The information reviewed was limited to that attainable by the investigator.

3. The researcher had difficulty in obtaining unbiased information, from both the materials published abroad and those published in Libya.

4. Comparative investigations lose some social and cultural identification particularly when one must attempt to convey the exact meaning of words and ideas as they are translated from one language to another.

5. Such procedures as personal interviews are open to biased interpretation when there is only a minimal amount of material for cross referencing.

6. The author's heritage is Libyan, hence there is a possibility of a personal bias.

COLLECTION OF MATERIALS

A definitive search involving both primary and secondary source material was undertaken to ascertain and systematically synthesize all available information pertinent to the study.

The investigation of primary source material was accomplished as follows:

1. One personal visit to Libya was made to inspect, in a cursory fashion, the state of physical education in Libyan society.
2. Personal interviews were conducted with outstanding athletes and coaches in Libya as well as with physical education teachers, administrators, and members of the Libyan Olympic Committee.

3. Pertinent documents of clubs, sport organizations and the government were examined.
4. Libyan sport and physical education newspapers and the Journal of Youth and Sport were thoroughly examined.

The secondary source materials that were utilized included:

1. Relevant books and articles were perused for general background information and for information relevant to the study.
2. Theses, dissertations, and papers material dealing with Libya and with sport and physical education in Libya as well as that related to the Arabic world were examined.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF HISTORICAL, GEOGRAPHICAL, RELIGIOUS, POLITICAL AND SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS

The many factors of long history, variability according to geographic location, religious influence, economic condition and the cultural setting make a study of the Libyan Arab Republic both complex and interesting.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF LIBYA

According to Herodotus, the renowned Greek historian, the word "Libya" came from the name of a tribal queen, Lubia. In classical Greek times Libya covered all of North Africa stretching from Egypt to Carthage.⁴ The original people of Libya, who were the Lubians and Ethiopians, had an extensive intercourse with the people of the classical world. Because of its strategic location on the Mediterranean, the fertility of the land and its appealing climate the country attracted attention from foreign powers.

Libya had many conflicts with Egypt. These conflicts led to a successful invasion of Egypt in 950 B.C., when⁵ Sheshong I, a Libyan, became the King of the Nile delta.

⁴ Mohammed Murabet, Facts About Libya (Valletta, Malta: Progress Press Co., Ltd., 1964), p. 9.

⁵ Richard F. Nyrop, Area Handbook for Libya (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., Second Edition, 1973), p. 12.

Libyan rulers became the legitimate Pharaohs, ruling until 730 B.C. Sheshong I, the conqueror of Egypt, was a strong ruler who reunited the country once again. He successfully invaded the Temple and Palace at Jerusalem during the reign of King Rehoboam of Judah in 930 B.C. How long the Libyan ruler lasted in Jerusalem is unknown. But this wave of migration was the first and last known movement of the Libyans into a foreign area.

The Phoenicians were the first to establish foreign settlements along the Libyan coast. They came from Lebanon and conquered the western part of Libya in 1000 B.C., establishing three commercial cities on the west coast: Leptis Magna, Oea (Tripoli), and Sebratha. The Phoenicians were the creators of commerce and their educational system was limited almost entirely to mercantilism. This period in Libyan history is sometimes called the first "Golden Age" of Libya.⁶

In the middle of the seventh century B.C., the Greeks invaded the eastern part of Libya, the area closest to Greece. Greek influence, however, was relatively weak until the seventh century B.C., when on the coast the Greeks built five cities: Cyrene, a great cultural and scientific center and once the capital of the Pentapolis; the second was Apollonia, now Susa; the third was Ptolemais; Tokra, one of the earliest Greek settlements in Cyrenacia, was the fourth city. The

⁶Stanford Research Institute, Area Handbook for Libya (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1969), p. 21.

fifth city was Hesperides, now Benghazi, the last outpost of Greek settlement in Libya.⁷

The Romans conquered Libya in the last century B.C., and the country remained under their control until the division of the Roman Empire. Libya actually prospered under Roman Rule and became an integral part of the Empire. Their period of dominance constituted the second "Golden Age" of Libyan history.⁸ In fact, Septimus Sepharus, born in Leptis Magna of Libyan parents, became the Roman Emperor in 193 A.D. As in many other regions, the Romans left many traces of their civilization, including theaters, pools, baths and gymnasia. Subsequent to the Roman occupation Libya was invaded by the Vandals in 429 A.D.

In 643 A.D., the Libyans welcomed and accepted the call of Islam and Arabism, a call which the people interpreted as one of justice, equality and brotherhood. Islam changed the focus of the Libyan culture and had a determined impact upon subsequent developments in the country.

In 1510 A.D., the Spaniards invaded Libya. Yet they had little influence on the area since they occupied only the city of Tripoli. They lost this in 1530 A.D., to the

⁷Stanford Research Institute, Area Handbook for Libya, p. 21.

⁸John Wright, Libya (New York, Washington: Frederick A. Praeger, Publisher, 1969), p. 89.

Knights of St. John, a Christian religious military organization which had its headquarters in Jerusalem.⁹

Libya then came under the political jurisdiction of the Ottoman Empire until 1911 at which time the Italians conquered the country. The Libyans never accepted these invaders and in fact, they fought with the allies in World War II against the Italians. But freedom was not yet at hand since the country was divided between the British and the French after the war.

Nevertheless, political awareness had developed among the Libyans. Efforts to achieve full independence reached fruition when Libya was declared independent by the United Nations on December 24, 1951. Idris Senussi was proclaimed King of Libya under a Libyan constitution which established a federal system of government. A basic amendment to the country's constitution was enacted, on April 26, 1963, however, changing the form of government from federal to unitary.

September 1, 1969, marked another turning point in Libyan history. For on this date young officers in the Libyan Army took over the power of the country and proclaimed the Libyan Arab Republic.

⁹Wright, p. 244.

GEOGRAPHY AND CLIMATE

Libya, a vast triangular-shaped country, occupies a strategic location in the Mediterranean basin, an important area in ancient and modern times. Located on the southern coast of the central Mediterranean and thrusting, like a huge wedge, deep into the great Sahara desert, it lies between latitudes nineteen and twenty-three north, longitudes ten and twenty-five east. The total area of this vast country, 680,000 square miles, makes it larger than the states of Texas, California, New Mexico, and Arizona combined. But the greater part of this huge country is the desert, where distances have little meaning and where for hundreds of kilometers neither vegetation nor animal life exist. The desert, however, has recently emerged as a crucial aspect¹⁰ of the country with the discovery of vast oil reserves.

Libyan Arab Republic is bordered by many nations. On the east it meets the Republic of Egypt through its western desert. This border is an almost straight line of 705 miles established by an Italian-Egyptian agreement in 1925. On the west Tunisia and Algeria serve as neighbors. To the south are the Republics of Niger and Chad. On the southeast Sudan shares with Libya a 300 mile frontier.

The geographical position of the Libyan Arab Republic gives this vast territory a particular climatic character, the most important aspect of which is its extreme variability,

¹⁰Nyrop, p. 53.

which in turn stems from the alternative predominance of the two great natural influences, the sea from the north and the desert from the south. In the winter, it is windy, but temperatures in the lowlands rarely reach a point where a top-coat is required during the day. The summers are long and hot, but generally tolerable along the coastal belt. The Libyan Arab Republic can be divided into the following geographical areas: coast, mountains, semidesert, and desert. From the borders with Tunisia to those with Egypt the distance is 1,170 miles following the coast road.

The total population, according to the census of 1972,¹¹ was 2,096,000. These figures yield a population density of less than two persons for every square kilometer of the country. This compares with twenty-three people per square kilometer in Egypt, or twenty-four per square kilometer in Tunisia. The Libyan Arab Republic, therefore, ranks as one of the least densely populated countries in North Africa. Moreover, most of that population resides in the major cities of Tripoli, Benghazi, Sabha and Misurata.

RELIGION

The official religion of the Libyan people is Islam, which literally means "submission to the will of God." The major tenets of the religion are (1) that there is only one God and the Prophet Mohammed is the Prophet and the last of

¹¹Nyrop, p. vii.

the Prophets; (2) the observance of the hours of prayer; (3) the giving of alms; (4) fasting in the month of Ramadan; and (5) the pilgrimage to Mecca. Every aspect of the daily life of a Moslem is governed by these five rules.

The "will of God" rules the affairs of the world to the smallest detail. In essence all events from the creation of the world onward represent His will. All believers are equal and ideally the only superiority of one over another is the degree of his devotion and attachment to the observation of the Islamic tenets. These tenets of Islam were revealed directly from Allah through the Archangel Gabriel to the Prophet Mohammed in the seventh century in Arabia. The Prophet, in turn, communicated them to mankind.

The Koran (also spelled Quran) is the scripture of Islam and represents the word of Allah transmitted through the Prophet. Mosques, places of worship for Moslems, are spread throughout the country. Freedom of religion is permitted in the Libyan Arab Republic.

Arabic is the main language in the Libyan Arab Republic. The use of Arabic spread with the Moslem faith as a result of the Arab conquest. There are two forms of the Arabic language in the Libyan Arab Republic (as in all Arabic countries). One is the classical, which is the language of the Koran, the written language common to all Arabs. The other is the vernacular, or Arabic, spoken by the man in the streets.

SOCIOLOGY AND CULTURE

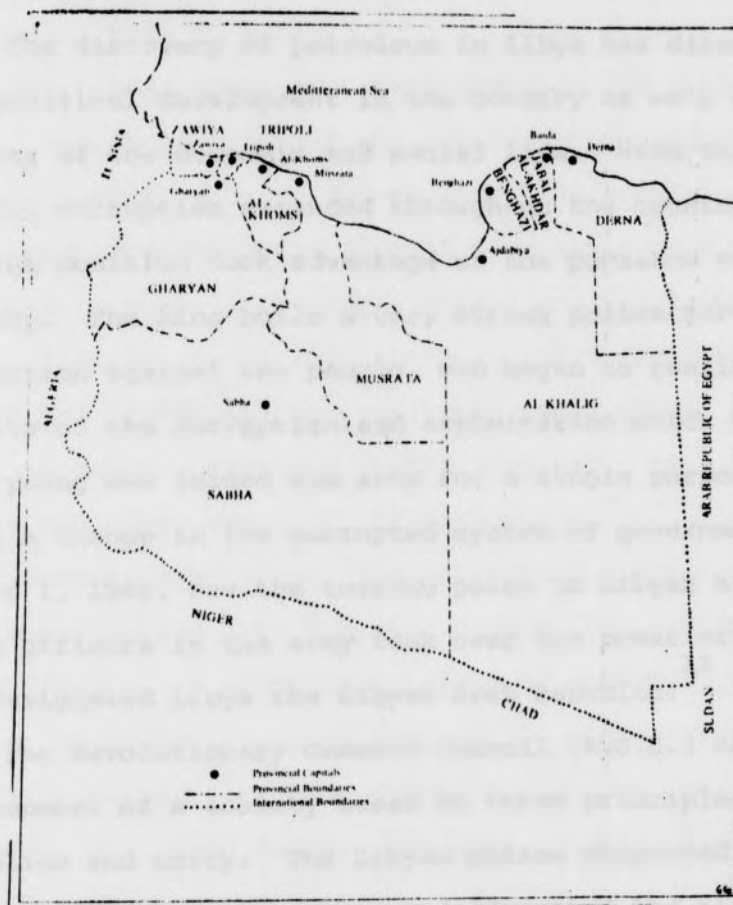
The ethnographic composition and cultural aspects of the Libyan people reflect the limited influence of the successive waves of conquerors throughout its history. The creation of the Greek colony on the eastern coast and the Phoenicians' cities on the western coast had little affect except in some economic aspects of Libyan life. The Romans also had little affect on the Libyans. But the Arab invasion, with the Islamic religion, did vitally affect the development of the country by changing completely the Libyan culture. The Turkish occupation left no enduring influence except for the building of some mosques. The Italian invasion did not leave any effect on the Libyan life.

The Libyan Constitution was established on October 7, 1951, as Idris Senussi was proclaimed King of Libya. A federal system of government lasted until April 26, 1963, when the form of government was changed from federal to unitary. The Constitution established Islam as the religion of the State and Arabic as the official language. As shown in Figure 1, ten regions were established after the country became a unitary system.

The constitution stipulated that Libyans were equal before the law, equal in civil and political rights and equal in opportunity. Moreover, all people were equal in responsibilities and obligations regardless of religion, sex, race, language, prosperity, lineage or social and political views. Personal freedom was guaranteed with the right to resort to

Figure 1

The Ten Governmental Regions: Tripoli, Zawia, Gharian, Al-Khoms, Musrata, Al-Khalig, Benghazi, Derna, Jabel al-Akhdar, and Sabha.



a court of justice where every defendant was innocent until proven guilty. The constitution also guaranteed the free expression of opinion by all means and methods as, too, was the freedom of the press. Education was every Libyan's right.

The discovery of petroleum in Libya has directly affected the political development in the country as well as many aspects of the economic and social life. With the new wealth, corruption extended throughout the country. People in high position took advantage of the populace and became wealthy. The King built a very strong police force for his protection against the people, who began to realize the results of the corruption and exploitation which were rampant. Many young men joined the army for a single purpose, to bring about a change in the corrupted system of government. September 1, 1969, saw the turning point in Libyan history. Young officers in the army took over the power of the country¹² and designated Libya the Libyan Arab Republic.

The Revolutionary Command Council (R.C.C.) announced the development of a society based on three principles: freedom, socialism and unity. The Libyan masses supported the R.C.C., condemned the defunct regime and advocated the reorganization of the total society.

¹²Ministry of Information and Culture, 1st September Revolution Achievement, 5th Edition (Tripoli, Libya, 1974), p. iv.

The Libyan revolution was recognized by the world as legitimate because it came about as the result of the will of the people and without influence or help of any sort from any other country. The world press described it as "the impossible revolution" and the Christian Science Monitor¹³ called it "Made in Libya."

The Libyan Arabs are descendants of the tribes of "Beni Hilal" and "Beni Suleim," who overran the country in the seventh century A.D.¹⁴ The nomadic life resulting from desert conditions brought about several fissions in the original tribal structure of the "Beni Hilal" and "Beni Suleim." A study of their social institutions, their physical appearance, habits and tradition, and emotional expressions, as well as their language, reveals a marked similarity with those of Arabia and other parts of the Arab world.¹⁵

Physical conditions have determined a natural division of the population into two main groups, one sedentary and the other nomadic. A subgroup consists of seminomads who partake of some characteristics of each of the major groups. The sedentary portion of the population includes city- and town-dwellers, and those farmers who have settled permanently on

¹³ Ministry of Information and Culture, 1st September Revolution Achievement, p. 4.

¹⁴ Stanford Research Institute, Area Handbook for Libya, p. 49.

¹⁵ Ahmed Al-Fneish, The Libyan Society and Its Problems (Beirut, Lebanon: Dar Lebanon, 1967), p. 14.

the lands they farm. Over time there was a gradual, widespread drift from the Bedouin life to the sedentary urban centers; during the last few decades the sedentary population has increased greatly, especially in the urban areas of Tripoli and Benghazi.

The hardships of desert life, the lack of comfort, with exposure to the climate, dependence on the weather conditions and the naked soil have influenced the temperament of the desert Arab, making him patient, stern and resistant to privation. He is strictly religious and conservative in his customs. Despite all that, he is very hospitable. Mutual concession of hospitality is regarded as a moral duty. The desert Arab is a great lover of freedom and has never hesitated to fight in its cause, and he will fight to defend his personal liberty and dignity. He is very proud of his honor and he is very sensitive.

The earliest presence of man in Libya is revealed by stone weapons and implements similar to those found in other parts of the Mediterranean area. Several hundred graffiti and paintings of exceptional beauty and value have been discovered. They represent people and animals, both domestic and wild. These elements have given rise to the theory that an ancient civilization existed in the area. The origin of Libyan art may be traced to prehistoric ages, when it developed to serve only the clan's purpose, but later became objects of trade.

Modern Libyans produce a wide variety of decorated and practical arts and crafts products, such as leatherworks, brass, silverwork and weaving. In recent years, pottery work has made considerable progress at the arts and crafts school in Tripoli. Carpets are made by hand from local wool. Straw mats carrying fine geometric designs are also produced.

Folklore, music and dances have been revived and revised. A folklore group is working on the resurrection of folk dances depicting the Libyan struggles in dance portraits. Folk-songs often reflect the character, social conditions and the mental attitudes of their singers, as well as their ambitions and hopes. Thus, the music of the desert Arab is an echo of his sufferings and resignation to circumstances felt yet not understood. Often the tune takes the form of heartfelt lamentation. The townsmen's musical taste is more sophisticated, and they enjoy more complicated forms of music.

Although Libyans do not expect the visitor to know and observe the many fine shading characteristics of Arab courtesy, there are a few basic courtesies and customs differing from those of the Western world which it is well to be aware of. These refer to social life in the Arab community. When a newcomer joins a seated social gathering, all the men in the room stand, and remain standing, until he has been introduced. Upon entering a social gathering, one will be introduced to each person in turn. It is customary to shake hands with each person in the group upon entering and leaving. "Peace upon

you" is the salutation between people. Tea, coffee, or soft drink such as lemonade or orangeade is invariably offered the visitor in a home, and it is discourteous not to accept something. When talking to an Arab, raising one's feet on the chair or table is considered a rude gesture.

The Libyans are the descendants of the Libians and Ethiopians, the original people of Libya, and the Arab tribes of "Beni Hilal" and "Beni Suleim" who overran the country after the Islam invasion in the seventh century A.D. The Libyans today are dependent, to a great extent, on the heritage fostered by these people.

CHAPTER III

EDUCATION IN LIBYA

Education and educational programs in Libya did not really make a start until the country gained its independence in 1951. The Libyans had little opportunity for education prior to the end of World War II. During the Turkish rule (1551-1911), many of the religious schools which existed in conjunction with Mosques were declining. As this occurred the Turkish authorities developed some public education facilities to serve their administrative and military needs.¹⁶

In spite of the development of some public schools under the Italian regime (1911-1943), the curriculum which the Italian colonial administrators had prepared for Libya was designed in accordance with what suited the purpose of the Italian government. For example, most citizens were allowed only some primary education; science in any form was not included. The Arabic language was neglected, becoming an optional course in the first stage of schooling.

During the Turkish regime and the Italian colonial rule, no serious efforts were made to raise the educational standards of the Libyan people, to eradicate illiteracy or to give the people the educational tools with which to cope with modern technology and world affairs. Table 1 shows

¹⁶ Education in the Arab States, Arab Information Center, No. 25 (New York: January, 1966), p. 125.

the number of elementary schools, the total number of pupils¹⁷ and staff members during the Italian occupation.

Table 1

Elementary Education during the Italian Occupation
(1912-1943)

Number of Schools	<u>Number of Pupils</u>		Staff
	Boys	Girls	
69	617	484	201

The period of the British Occupation (1944-1951) was characterized by its elasticity as compared with the two previous periods. Those were the years of general awakening from the lethargy of the past, characterized by an ambitious new generation desiring to learn and progress. The national feeling among the Libyan citizens increased. Consequently, the British military authorities responded to the desire of the Libyans to educate their children. Both elementary and¹⁸ secondary schools were established. Table 2 shows the number of elementary and secondary schools, the total number of pupils and staff members during the British occupation.

In 1952 the First Educational Ordinance was issued to provide educational opportunity to all Libyans. Primary

¹⁷ Richard F. Nyrop, Area Handbook for Libya (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1973), p. 115.

¹⁸ Ibid.

Table 2

Elementary and Secondary Education during the British
Occupation (1944-1951)

Time Period	Number of Schools	<u>Number of Pupils</u>		Staff
		Boys	Girls	
<u>Elementary</u>				
1944-1951	193	28,266	3,823	1,024
<u>Secondary</u>				
1947-1950	4	234	-	18
1950-1951	4	628	-	49

education was made compulsory for all Libyan children, boys and girls. Education was free of charge in government schools. With the adoption of this ordinance, the government made an effort to accelerate the expansion of school facilities.¹⁹ The Ministry of Education became the authority to establish educational objectives and policy, to formulate programs, to organize the curriculums and to prepare the budget.

A new Educational Ordinance was issued in September 1965, defining the main trends of educational services. This new ordinance placed greater emphasis on the quality of education,

¹⁹Hassan K. Shibani, The Application of Modern Curriculum and Instruction Theory to Higher Education in Libya, Unpublished Thesis, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, N. C., 1973, p. 11.

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.²⁰

With this new ordinance, the "community" idea was introduced. School community groups and parents associations were encouraged. This idea was extended to include educational and cultural cooperation between Libya and other countries, particularly other Arab and African nations for the mutual benefit of all.

Elementary, preparatory and secondary schools in Libya are not coeducational. Girls' schools are separate from those for boys, except at the Kindergarten and University levels. A woman who graduates from secondary school normally faces strong opposition from her family if she expresses a desire to go on to the university. She may register as an external student and prepare for the yearly examination by studying at home, but she must be very courageous to overcome family bias in order to attend the university as a regular student. In 1966 only 6 women were in attendance at the university, yet this number increased by 1974 to 1376.²¹ That figure does indicate change from the past.

²⁰ Shibani, p. 44.

²¹ Stostic Administration, Analytical Study for the Learning in Libya Between 1970 and 1972 (Tripoli: Ministry of Education, 1972), p. 9.

THE EDUCATION POLICY IN LIBYA

The educational policies in Libya which were established²² by the Ministry of Education are: (1) to make primary and preparatory education compulsory and free for all children; (2) to educate children to become good citizens having belief in their religion, to be proud of their Arab nationality and faithful to their country; (3) to acquaint the students with their natural and human environment, educating them in the faith and preparing them to participate in their progressive society; and (4) to abolish illiteracy among the people through setting up evening courses and training sessions to teach men and women, young and old.

THE EDUCATION SYSTEM IN LIBYA

Education in Libya is divided into four major stages: elementary, preparatory, secondary and higher education.

Elementary Education: The First Six Years

Education at this level is compulsory. Children are eager to go to school and parents strongly encourage them to do so. A comparison of students in elementary schools in 1962 and in 1971 demonstrates the emphasis placed on education and the effect of oil income on the growth of education facilities. In 1962 there were 25,000 girls and 106,000 boys enrolled in elementary school. By 1971 these numbers had

²²Ministry of Education, Annual Statistics Report. (Tripoli, Libya, 1974).

increased to 195,000 girls and 916,000 boys.²³ Completion of the elementary cycle qualifies the student for entry into the preparatory program.

Preparatory Education: Seventh Through Ninth Years

The three year regular preparatory program generally is located with the three year secondary program. At the present time, the preparatory cycle is compulsory. As in the elementary grades, the number of students enrolled and the number of teachers at this level of education is increasing rapidly as shown in the comparison of enrollment for 1968-1969 and 1972-1973.²⁴

Table 3
Number of Students and Teachers
in Preparatory Schools
1968-1973

Year	<u>Number of Students</u>		Total	Number of Teachers
	Male	Female		
1968-1969	25637	3544	29181	2076
1969-1970	30609	5707	36316	2447
1970-1971	30493	6554	37047	2647
1971-1972	34291	9055	43346	2986
1972-1973	42016	12728	54744	3782

²³Unpublished Memorandum, Ministry of Education and National Guidance. (Tripoli, Libya, 1970), p. 2.

²⁴Bureau of Statistics. Ministry of Education, Mimeograph, Tripoli (Libya, 1974), p. 5.

It is significant to note that while the number of boys enrolled increased about two times, the number of girls enrolled increased nearly four times.

Secondary Education

The secondary cycle of education is three years after preparatory education and only those who pass the competitive examinations in preparatory education are permitted to go to the secondary level. There, the same courses are continued with the addition of a number of other subjects, including a second foreign language, physics, chemistry, and biology. For the last two years of secondary school, students choose between a program which emphasizes the sciences and one which focuses on arts. Enrollment in secondary schools has increased considerably since the end of World War II. For example, in 1946 there were neither schools nor students at the secondary level. By 1951, however, there were some 600 students, 15 of whom were girls. Twelve years later there were more than 1900 students in the secondary cycle including 128 girls. By 1972 the number of secondary school students had risen to 9426.²⁵

Vocational Education

To provide the Libyan society with a technical and scientific foundation a number of institutes were established

²⁵Bureau of Statistics. Ministry of Education, Mimeograph, p. 5.

to raise the standards of industrial, agricultural and commercial proficiency at two levels. Lower-level training is available to graduates of the elementary school, while the upper level admits only preparatory school graduates. Both programs are offered in the same location and facility.

There are two technical institutes, three agricultural institutes, three institutes of commerce, one institute of petroleum technology, and one institute of applied engineering. According to the new law issued by the Ministry of Education in September, 1973, every student should have preparatory certificates to attain admission to any vocational education institute.²⁶ The value of this kind of education became increasingly evident after discovery of oil. Table 4 shows the change in number of students during the period between 1969 and 1972 in vocational education in the Libyan Arab Republic.

Table 4
Number of Students in
Vocational Education in Libya
1968-1972

Year	Students in Preparatory Division	Students in Secondary Division	Total
1968-69	688	571	1259
1969-70	744	713	1457
1970-71	1771	1317	3088
1971-72	1824	1378	3202

²⁶ Ministry of Education, Annual Statistics Report, 1974.

Higher Education

Since its founding in 1955, the University of Libya has undergone constant expansion. Enrollment at the university increased from thirty-two students in 1955 to about 8,214 in 1974, an increase of 2500%. At the same time the total population of the country increased about 60 percent from 1,560,000 to 2,096,000. These figures show the importance of education for Libyans.²⁷ When the first classes were held following independence the only department which existed was the Faculty of Art and Education. In 1957 the Faculty of Science and the Faculty of Commerce and Economics were established. These were followed in 1962 by the Faculty of Law and in 1966 by the Faculty of Agriculture. With the help of UNESCO, the Faculty of Education was established in 1965, and the College of Advanced Technology by 1961.²⁸ That college became the Faculty of Engineering. In the fall of 1970, the Faculty of Medicine was established, and by 1972 a new Faculty of Petroleum and Minerals was added.

In 1966, a separate religious institute was also established by a Royal Decree. That center became the Moslem University, which seeks to train students as theologians, judges, teachers, and other functionaries concerned with

²⁷Faukia Abdu El-AAL, "Ministry of Education after the Revolution," Elfager Elgadid. Vol. 310. (Tripoli, Libya, Sept. 1, 1973), p. 4.

²⁸Nyrop, p. 125.

the administration of Islamic law and socio-religious affairs of the country.

Figure 2 shows the structure of the educational system
²⁹in Libya.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

While religious education is not part of the public school system, it is financed by government subsidies. There are approximately 100 Kuttabs (Koranic schools), situated in or near mosques. During the late 1960s there were about 100 Koranic schools offering instruction in religious and basic academic subjects on the primary level; there were also fifteen preparatory religious schools having a five-
³⁰year curriculum for youths twelve years and older. The basis of learning at the religious schools is the memorization of the Koran, even though other subjects are taught as part of the entire educational system. Nevertheless, reading, writing, and other secular subjects are of secondary importance. Libya's principal institute of religious higher learning was the Islamic University, which was merged with the University of Libya in 1970.

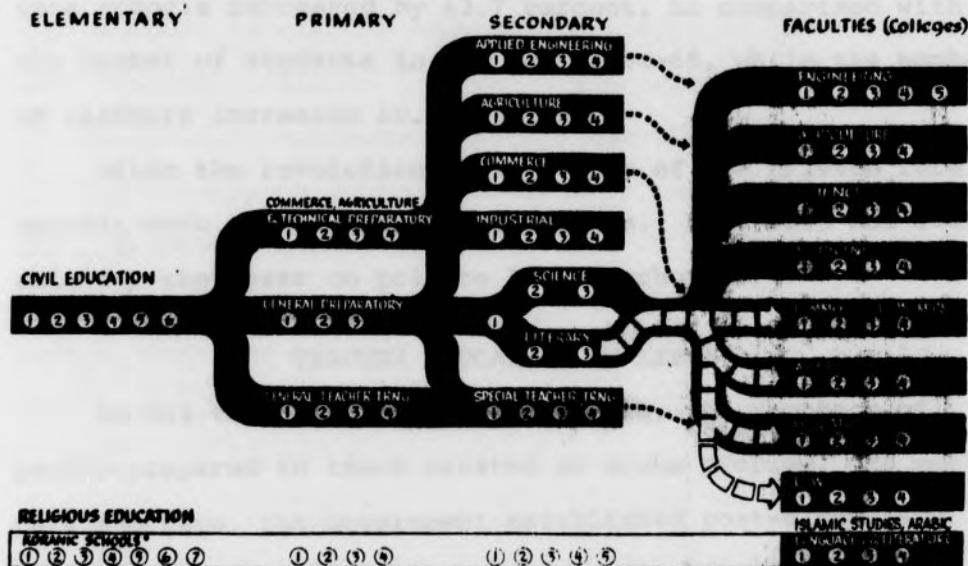
PRIVATE EDUCATION

Private education has increased significantly over the past few years. Private schools, operated by foreign groups,

²⁹Shibani, p. 16.

³⁰Nyrop, p. 124.

Figure 2. The Educational System of the Libyan Arab Republic



* Students must memorize the Quran during this stage

To be admitted to the first year of the college level the graduate of the vocational technical programs must have ranked in the upper 70% of his class.

served the children of resident alien communities. Some Libyan children--usually those of wealthy urban families--attended as well. In 1968-69, the number of students in private schools increased by 13.7 percent, in comparison with the number of students in the year 1964-65, while the number of teachers increased 10.11 percent.

After the revolution of 1969 many of the private foreign schools were closed or reduced in size. Data were not available for that year on private Libyan schools.³¹

TEACHER EDUCATION IN LIBYA

At the time of Libyan independence, the shortage of people prepared to teach created an acute problem. To meet this shortage, the government established post-elementary and post-preparatory teacher training institutes. Primary school teachers were trained in a four-year general teacher training course open to graduates of the six-year primary schools. A general teacher certificate was awarded at the end of the course, composed of two years of general subjects and two years of specialized courses and practice training.³² Graduates of preparatory schools enrolled in a four-year special course that qualified graduates to teach either the primary or the preparatory grades. Secondary school teachers were trained at the University of Libya's Faculty of Teacher Training.

³¹Nyrop, p. 125.

³²Nyrop, p. 122.

Since 1969, moreover, the government began an intensive construction program to increase the number of teacher training institutions and particularly encouraged the training of women teachers. According to official estimates in 1969, teacher training institutions produced about 918 primary and preparatory teachers annually, but the country continued to rely heavily on foreign instructors, especially those on the preparatory and secondary levels.³³

Presently, education in the Libyan Arab Republic is compulsory and free through all stages. Equal opportunities and equal rights are given to all Libyans to secure an education, regardless of their race, sex, color, or social situation. Special support and encouragement is given to students coming from poor families. The emphasis on education is consistent with comprehensive social goals, especially those meeting the needs of youth. Students are provided with different programs designed to develop them physically, culturally, socially, and spiritually. Thus the Libyan Arab Republic is mobilizing its educational resources to process a generation of strong leaders.

³³Nyrop, p. 120.

CHAPTER IV

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORT BEFORE INDEPENDENCE

GENERAL OUTLOOK

Survival, since the dawn of history, has been the constant struggle of man. The acquisition of basic necessities such as food, clothing and shelter have determined man's perpetual quest. Man had to protect himself from the elements as well as from his enemies. To survive, man had to run, jump, throw and hunt. These basic skills of existence have found their way into games and sports today. These inherent actions and games are as old as civilization itself. In Libya, from the obscure past it is difficult to trace the origins of any particular game or sport or of any organized physical activity. Yet those beginnings have affected the development of physical activities today.

LIBYA IN ANCIENT TIMES

During this far-removed period, physical activities and sports were also connected with religious rituals as well as with survival. In the mountains of "Auenat" and "Jerma" the "Forbenius" institute discovered ancient paintings representing runners, dancers, athletes and swimmers. Cave paintings dating from the Paleolithic era located in the "Wadi Sora" depict a series of athletes performing dangerous

jumping feats. Thus, the artistic endeavors of man have preserved for it a record of man's athletic endeavors.³⁴

Acrobatics with the toro was a dangerous jumping action performed by an adolescent. The youth ran toward the bull, grabbed the animal's horns and finished by jumping on the floor behind the bull. This outstanding performance requires perfect timing, agility and physical fitness.

The same physical capability necessary for this activity is also represented in hunting on foot. The cave pictures portray the hunter with the bow in his hand. He is shown with opened legs, suggesting the running speed necessary to hunt successfully.³⁵

THE PHOENICIANS

The Phoenicians were interested in physical education mainly in relation to military activities. These creators of commerce were anxious to defend their cities and extend their interests. The Phoenicians occupied the western Libyan coast in 1000 B.C., establishing the cities of Leptis Magna, Oea (Tripoli) and Sabrata. The eastern coast of Libya was occupied by the Greeks. This division of the country led to frequent conflicts and wars between the two powers. Fearing the invasion of other foreign armies, however, the two rival powers agreed to end the dispute in a peaceful, sporting way.

³⁴Ali Y. Al-Mansuri, Introduction to Physical Culture (Alexandria, Egypt: Maahad-don Bosko Publishers, 1971), p. 14.

³⁵Ibid., p. 16.

Two Phoenician athletes started running from Carthage toward the east. At the same time two Greek athletes started running from Cyrene, in the east, toward the west. It was agreed that the border should be established in the spot where the athletes from opposing sides would meet. The two Phoenician athletes were faster than the two Greek athletes and they covered more territory. The Greeks did not accept the result, however, accusing the Phoenicians of having started running before the time which was fixed for both parties. The Greeks, therefore, proposed that they should continue running until they reached a fair spot for the border, and there they could be buried alive if the Phoenicians accepted the proposal, but if the Phoenicians refused the proposal, then they should be buried alive in the spot where they met the two Greek athletes. The Phoenicians refused the proposal, insisted on the spot at which they arrived, and offered to sacrifice their lives to prove their honesty. They allowed themselves to be buried alive at that point.

THE GREEKS

The Greeks invaded the eastern part of Libya, the section closest to Greece in 700 B.C., and established five cities: Cyrene, Barce, Euhesperides (Benghazi), Teuchira and Appollonia. The Greeks introduced gymnastics into Libya as a necessary and integral part of the education of man.

³⁶Al-Mansuri, p. 17.

The Spartans considered it of great importance to honor Apollo, the Olympic divinity of Cyrene, in the celebration of the "Carnee." These feasts were of a military nature, lasting from three to nine days. The "Carnee" feasts proved an excellent training ground for the Olympics, supplying many of the victors in these games. Cyrenians acquired a great reputation as charioteers. The Circus or Hippodrome of Cyrene was the field used for the chariot races.

Cyrene was also the seat of a great school of medicine and philosophy. Physicians, poets and writers of note were born here, among whom were Eratosthenes, father of geography, Aristippos, Kallimachos, Korneads and Simon of Cyrene, who³⁷ carried the cross of Jesus Christ.

The Greeks, therefore, influenced the Libyan people who lived in the eastern part of the country by their philosophy toward living.

THE ROMANS

The Romans invaded Libya in 96 B.C. retaining control until the division of the Empire. As in any other region which they occupied, the Romans left many traces of their advanced civilization in the form of gymnasia, pools and

³⁷ Kurt Vordermaier, Special issue of The Islamic Review. Publication of Woking Moslem Mission and Literary Trust. (Woking, Surrey, England, August-September, 1968), p. viii.

public baths. The baths were used both to exercise and to
 38
 practice spiritual activities.

In Leptis Magna are the ruins of baths and gymnasiums built in the time of the Emperor Hardian (123-127 B.C.). The great pool has the dimensions of 31 yards by 16 yards. This pool was used for aquatic activities and recreation. In Ptolemais (Tolmeita), there was a pool of twenty-five meters in diameter. The theater in Ptolemais was also used for aquatic spectacles.

Roman physical education had two aspects--military and hygienic. Unlike Greek education in which the person was trained in the belief that physical qualities influence moral qualities of man, Romans schooled their populace in the use of sports and physical activities as militaristic training
 39
 procedures.

LIBYA, ISLAM AND ARABISM

The Moslem Arabs occupied Libya during the reign of the Calif Omar Ibn El-Khattab on the hands of Omar Ibn
 40
 El-Ass in the year 642 A.D. To the Arabs, the characteristic of physical activity was of a gymnastic-athletic-military

³⁸ Khalifa El-Bah, L'Educazione Fisica e lo Sport in Libya (Roma, Italia: Istituto Superiore di Educazione Fisica, Foro Italica, 1963), p. 12.

³⁹ Deobold V. Dalen and B. Bennett, A World History of Physical Education (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971), pp. 69-70.

⁴⁰ Ahmed A. Al-Fneish, The Libyan Society and Its Problems (Beirut, Lebanon: Dar Lebanon, 1967), p. 55.

nature. Physical activities were devoted to building a better man and a good fighter. The martial characteristic of physical activities was necessitated by foreign threats to the Moslem Arabs' independence. Another important motivating factor in Moslem Arabs' physical activities was the fervent desire to promote Islamic religion and Arabic culture.

Arabs practiced wrestling, hunting, running, archery and most significantly horseback riding. Ability in these horseback riding activities was, and still is, a distinguishing characteristic of the Arabs. Young Arabs accompanied their parents to war in order to learn in real combat how to wrestle the enemy and to acquire an understanding of fighting. Altogether the dominant physical activities were of a military nature even including such activities as war dances performed with arms.

OTHER OCCUPIERS

The Spaniards occupied Tripoli in 1510 A.D., but lost it in 1530 A.D. to the Knights of St. John in Malta. In 1551 the Turks defeated the Knights of St. John, and Libya thus became part of the Ottoman Empire, remaining under Turkish control for over three hundred years, until 1911. During this period (1510-1911) the physical activities remained much the same as before, with the major exception⁴¹ of the addition of refined archery and hunting with falcon.

⁴¹Mohammed Bazama, Libya in 20 Years of Spanish Rule (Tripoli, Libya: Ferjani Library, 1969), p. 35.

THE ITALIAN OCCUPATION

In 1911 Libya came under Italian domination, and was occupied by the Italians until 1943. During this period there was a notable development of physical education and sport activities in Libya which, however, excluded native Libyans and benefited exclusively the Italian occupiers.

Soccer games in Libya were first played in 1912. This sport fascinated Libyans, who tried to organize an exclusively Libyan team. This attempt failed due to severe racial discrimination, which limited Libyan involvement in sports competitions. The Libyans persisted in their desire for their own soccer team, however, and their dream was realized in 1918 with the establishment of the "School of Arts and Professions" in Tripoli for Libyan students. The first Libyan soccer team was only partially Libyan since it came⁴² into existence under Italian administration and guidance.

Boxing activities started in 1925. The first Libyan boxers were Ali Fathi and Salim Mekhaal, considered the founders of boxing among Libyans. Their long and successful careers have proven an inspiration to Libyan athletes.

Cycling started in Libya in 1928. Libyan pioneers in this sport included Mohammed Krew, Mohammed Salim and Ali bu Agela. Impetus was given to the sport when in 1932 a stadium was built in Tripoli with a track for cycling included in the construction. Another prominent Libyan cyclist during

⁴² Ali Y. Al-Mansuri, The New Dimensions of Physical Culture (Alexandria, Egypt, 1973), p. 55.

this period was Ramadan Farhat, who competed and excelled in Italy. The Italian press referred to him as the "Flying
⁴³
 Negger."

Automobile racing began in Libya with the creation of the Automobile Club of Tripoli, which organized and directed many technically excellent races, proving that there were roads in Libya where auto races could be arranged for the most modern and fastest racing cars. Besides the obvious technical, sporting and organizational aspects of auto racing, another benefit proved to be that of tourism. The auto race from Benghazi to Tripoli (673 miles) attracted many tourists from other parts of the world.

The growth of tourism coincided well with the schemes of the Italian government for the Italianization of Libya. In 1933, the Italian occupiers formed a committee of resident Italian civilians in Libya to organize the sport competitions and activities in the country. They received their instruc-
⁴⁴
 tions directly from the Italian Olympic Committee in Rome.

During the Italian occupation of Libya (1911-1943) and particularly after the rise to power of Italian Fascism in the early 1920's severe racial discrimination against native Libyans was practiced. Libyan athletes were limited in their entrance into sports competition. This illogical practice proved disadvantageous to both Italians and Libyans.

⁴³ Al-Mansuri, p. 38.

⁴⁴ Ministry of Youth and Sport, Journal of Youth and Sport (Tripoli, Libya, 1968), p. 9.

In spite of the lack of professional administration the Libyans managed to excel in cycling, boxing and soccer, and in other sports, including track and field, fencing and swimming. As a result of their unjust policies, the Italians lost many potentially capable athletes who might have competed for them.

One can only speculate upon the extent of the harm done to athletic competition during this epoch of discriminatory practices.

BRITISH ADMINISTRATION

After World War II with the defeat of Italy and Germany, Libya was taken over by the Allies and came under British administration. During the period of British administration (1944-1951), physical education and sport entered a new phase.⁴⁵

British authorities encouraged Libyans to practice sports. Licenses were issued to Libyans for the establishment of sport and social clubs. Libyan teams were formed. Since soccer was the game which attracted most Libyans, contests began to take place between Libyan teams and British troops. In the late 1940s, contests between schools were started in soccer and track and field only within Tripoli and Behghazi where most schools were located. In this period, the Libyans

⁴⁵ Journal of Youth and Sport, p. 9.

were also given the responsibility to organize the joint⁴⁶
 sport competitions with the British troop teams.

CHAPTER V PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN LIBYA AFTER INDEPENDENCE

In reviewing the history of Libya, one can very well
 realize the situation. In a young country with abundant
 resources, physical education received little attention. The
 country was not at all interested in developing its people
 and to develop agriculture and industry. Some were taken
 into the United Nations, the United States of America and
 other countries to finance these projects. The country
 was very backward in education and sports.

The first step was to develop physical education
 in the country. In 1951, some of the teachers of physical
 education in the country were sent to Egypt for training.
 Professor M. Al-Farra, a graduate of the Higher
 Institute of Physical Education in Cairo, Egypt, was sent to
 the western part of the country, where were some teachers in
 physical education and in the same way, he started
 the organization of physical education for a certain number of
 teachers. Professor Al-Farra was considered the founder of
 physical education in Libya.

⁴⁶Massoud El-Zantuti, Sport in Libya. An interview.
 (Tripoli, Libya, 1976).

CHAPTER V
PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN LIBYA AFTER
INDEPENDENCE

In reviewing the history of Libya, one can very well imagine the situation. In a young country with tremendous problems, physical education received little attention. The country scarcely had sufficient funds to feed its people and to develop agriculture and industry. Loans were taken from the United Nations, the United States of America and other countries to finance these projects.⁴⁷ But no money was ever granted to upgrade the standards of physical education and sports.

The first attention given to physical education came in 1954 when UNESCO sent some Arabic professors of physical education to help organize physical education and sports in schools. Professor M. Al-Farra, a graduate of the Higher Institute of Physical Education in Cairo, Egypt, was sent to the western part of the country, where with other teachers he started to organize tournaments in the schools. He started the organization of summer courses for a certain number of teachers. Professor Al-Farra was considered the founder of gymnastics and organized physical education in Tripoli.

⁴⁷ Stanford Research Institute, Area Handbook for Libya, (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1969), p. 183.

Professor Dea Habib, a graduate of an institute of physical education in London, England, started the organization of physical education and sport tournaments in the eastern part of the country.⁴⁸

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

There is centralized governmental leadership and control of physical education since the responsibility for organization and administration of physical education in the Libyan Arab Republic lies with the department of physical education within the Ministry of Education.⁴⁹

The department of physical education, which is one of the ten departments in the Ministry of Education, is directed by a full-time director, not specialists in physical education. Assisting him are two physical education inspectors who oversee the organization of physical education activities in the country. There are ten physical educators known as inspectors, who direct physical education activities in the ten main regions, under the guidance of this department. According to the directives in 1970, two offices within the department were established--one for the organization of physical education and school activities such as sport and music, and one for directing military education in schools.

⁴⁸ Khalifa El-Bah, L'Educazione Fisica e lo Sport in Libya (Roma, Italia: Istituto Superiore Di Educazione Fisica, Foro Italico, 1963), p. 15.

⁴⁹ Ministry of Education and National Guidance, The Organization of the Ministry (Tripoli, Libya, 1970).

This department lasted only two years. In 1972, a new department was established to direct physical education and school activities only.⁵⁰ A schematic representation of the organization of the department of physical education and school activities in 1975 is shown in Figure 3.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE GENERAL EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

The general aims of the physical education program in the general education system are to develop discipline, friendship, cooperativeness, and social behavior as well as courage, sport skills and endurance. Moreover, physical education teachers are to utilize every opportunity to intensify the moral and polytechnical education of the students.⁵¹ The specific objectives of the program are to develop physical abilities and skills, to increase knowledge and interest in regular physical exercise, to strengthen the health of students and to form the appropriate habits and knowledge of personal and social hygiene.⁵²

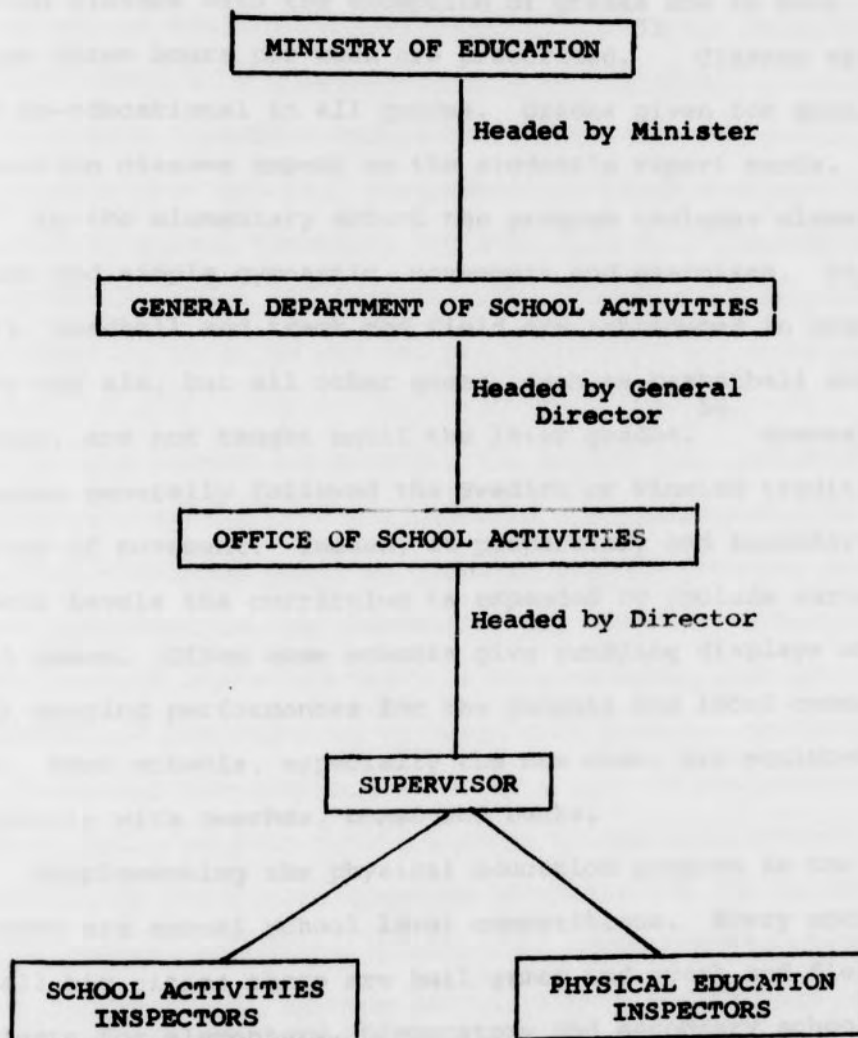
In spite of the fact that physical education is still not a compulsory subject in all grades from one to twelve, students may be excused from participating in a physical

⁵⁰Ministry of Education and National Guidance, The Organization of the Ministry.

⁵¹Ali Y. Almansuri, Introduction to Physical Culture (Alexandria, Egypt: Maahad-don Bosko Publisher, 1971), p. 20.

⁵²Ministry of Education, The School Curriculum (Tripoli, Libya, 1971), p. 68.

Figure 3. A Schematic Representation of the Organization of the Department of School Activities in 1975.



education class period only with the permission of the school physician. Two hours per week are allocated to physical education classes with the exception of grades one to four, where three hours per week are prescribed.⁵³ Classes are not co-educational in all grades. Grades given for physical education classes appear on the student's report cards.

In the elementary school the program includes elementary games and simple gymnastic movements and exercises. Volleyball, handball and track and field are introduced in grades five and six, but all other games, such as basketball and soccer, are not taught until the later grades.⁵⁴ Gymnastic classes generally followed the Swedish or Finnish traditional styles of movement. Indeed, at preparatory and secondary school levels the curriculum is expanded to include various ball games. Often some schools give tumbling displays and folk dancing performances for the parents and local community. Most schools, especially the new ones, are equipped primarily with benches, boxes and bucks.

Supplementing the physical education program in the classes are annual school level competitions. Every spring in all big cities there are ball games and track and field contests for elementary, preparatory and secondary school children which produce considerable interest and enthusiasm.

⁵³Ministry of Education, The School Curriculum, p. 60.

⁵⁴Ibid., p. 73.

Trials are held in the individual school with the best being chosen for the finals, and it is considered a great honor to represent the school at the final competitions. Also, inter-school and inter-class competitions at the preparatory and secondary school level are held in volleyball, basketball, table tennis, handball and soccer. There are no special coaches for the schools' representative teams with most being coached by school teachers. If a teacher were interested in a particular sport and took the responsibility of coaching its players, then, he was obliged to perform any coaching duties.

In the elementary schools, the majority of physical education teachers have not received special training in the subject, and teach other subjects as well as physical education. However, in the preparatory and secondary schools, most physical education teachers have received some specific training and are required to teach only physical education in the school curriculum. There is a lack of evidence of how realistically this statement applies to the rural areas. According to statistics given in 1974, the 370,000 children in the general education schools were taught by 690 physical education teachers, of whom 138 had higher and 370 had intermediate school education.⁵⁵ The normal teaching load is considered to be eighteen hours-per-week for secondary school

⁵⁵ Ministry of Education, "Department of Physical Education and School Activities," Annual Statistics Report (Tripoli, Libya, 1974).

teachers and twenty-four hours-per-week for preparatory and elementary school teachers. Coaching and instructing in the out-of-school hours activities are considered within the school curriculum and no extra pay is received. Since all teachers' salaries are uniform, the physical education teachers receive the same salary as all other teachers in the school, depending on qualification and experience.

The physical education programs in the schools teach the basic skills of physical education. There is no provision for specialization as individual abilities and interests are developed in the sport schools and sport clubs. Participation in the numerous out-of-school activities is encouraged and promoted by educational authorities and teachers. Moreover, in each school there is a propaganda section to popularize sport and physical education participation through such means⁵⁶ as the school radio, school newspapers and bulletin boards.

The out-of-school activity is organized in close cooperation among the schools, the sport federations and the sport clubs. In 1970, the clubs and the Olympic facilities were provided for the school children in most cities. Children attend these clubs after school approximately two to three times a week.

In Libya, participation in sport contests is considered one of the best means of improving health and general fitness

⁵⁶Laila Yousef, Psychology of Play and Physical Education, Second Edition (Cairo, Egypt: Anglo Masria Publisher, 1972), p. 65.

while fostering friendship. Class, inter-class, inter-school and inter-city contests have been made a regular, organized part of the schools' physical education program. In order to encourage participation in these competitions, prizes and diplomas are awarded by the individual schools. As most schools operate on a two-shift basis, the inter-class and inter-school athletic competitions are scheduled on the break period between classes, while inter-city athletic competitions are scheduled on afternoon or week holidays. Competitions are held in such sports as volleyball, handball, basketball and table tennis. Throughout the general educational system the levels of competition are divided into three levels--elementary, preparatory and secondary in which the latter includes the vocational schools and teacher training institutes. Students are permitted to play for their schools and for clubs' teams.

Summer camps are organized for elementary and preparatory school children at the expense of the department of youth and sport within the Ministry of Social Affairs. Each student may attend for no longer than one month and a half. During the summer of 1973, 32,000 children attended the various camps organized all over the Republic by the department of youth and sports. Approximately sixty-four percent of these children were from rural areas. Many of the camps,

⁵⁷ Ministry of Social Affairs, Journal of Sport and Youth (Tripoli, Libya, 1974), p. 16.

however, still lacked proper sport grounds and swimming facilities. The cost of these camps is covered by the Ministry of Social Affairs.

In order to effectively carry out the physical education curriculum, adequate facilities and equipment are essential. According to the regulation established by the Ministry of Education in 1973, all new schools must have area reserved for playgrounds and gardens. Older schools, in general, lack playgrounds. Many city schools used the facilities of neighboring clubs while the rural ones often utilize the halls of the schools. Swimming is not taught in the schools as there is a lack of indoor pools; in fact, there are only two open pools in the country, one being in Tripoli and the other in Benghazi. Owing to this lack of proper equipment and indoor facilities, physical education has not developed to any appreciable extent in the schools in Libya. Ball games are emphasized in the program, primarily because they require little equipment and minimum facilities. In general the situation with respect to physical education facilities and equipment in school is not very favorable, but it should be emphasized that this situation is common in most developing countries at this particular period.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION

There was no opportunity for professional academic preparation in the field of physical education in Libya until the physical education department within the Ministry of

Education was established in 1960. A great shortage of physical education teachers was felt by the Ministry of Education, and an institute of physical education was started. Mr. M. Shareef, a graduate from Al-Azhar College, Egypt, was appointed to direct the teacher training institute. It was due to his efforts that the first physical education institute was started on the campus of the teacher's institute in Tripoli in 1960.⁵⁸ This institute is a residence institution with the building divided into two parts: one for physical education students and one for general teachers students.

In 1961, Mr. Ali Al-Mansur, the director of the physical education department, who was the first Libyan to earn a Bachelor of Science in physical education from Alexandria, Egypt, was appointed as part-time principal of the institute. He is the man who has built the physical education programs in Libya. Due to his efforts and devotion, the physical education program has received great impetus and improvement and an institute was established.

Realizing the need for physical education teachers and the difficulties which are facing the students from all Libya's cities who want to enroll in the physical education institute, the Ministry of Education established another institute in Benghazi in 1971.⁵⁹ That location was more

⁵⁸ Al-Mansuri, p. 50.

⁵⁹ Ministry of Education, Department of Physical Education and School Activities, Annual Report (Tripoli, Libya, 1974).

convenient for the students who live in the eastern part of the country.

The institute's buildings were inadequate for the requirements of physical education. Lack of playgrounds and insufficient accommodations were obstacles for its development. In 1972, the researcher, when he was working with the Ministry of Education as a supervisor and director of physical education programs in Libya, tried to obtain new buildings for the physical education institute. He recommended that the Ministry of Education construct new buildings near the Tripoli Stadium City. His efforts bore fruit in 1973 when the Ministry of Education and the department of youth and sports gave their final approval for construction of the required building. This was the first National Institute of Physical Education in Libya. In 1973, the Ministry of Education established another physical education institute in Tripoli.⁶⁰ This institute was to prepare only girls to teach physical education in the general educational system. The male institutes prepare young men for the following positions in physical education and sports: (1) teachers; (2) assistant coaches; and (3) judges. These institutes are still in the early stages of development. They do not have good buildings, playgrounds or other essential gymnasium facilities. However, the Tripoli institute compares favorably and is a better facility than the one in Benghazi.

⁶⁰ Ministry of Education, Department of Physical Education and School Activities, Annual Report.

The Ministry of Education also conducts refresher courses annually for the physical education teachers who already are working in schools and colleges, as well as for untrained physical education teachers.

Duration of time for graduation from the physical education institute is four years. The minimum requirement for this institute is a preparatory certificate and success in passing an aptitude test given at the time of admission. The graduates from this institute are qualified for the positions of teaching physical education in all the general educational system levels. For this institute, the language of instruction is Arabic.

These institutes are directly under the authority of the Ministry of Education. All financial and management responsibilities are governed by the Ministry of Education.

The institute's course of study is one school year long (September to June) and its completion leads to a diploma in physical education. The following is the curriculum for theory courses for this institute.

Technical and Professional:

1. Methods and administration of physical education.
2. Historical background of physical education.
3. Methods of teaching physical education training.
4. Theory and practice of major games.
5. Human anatomy and physiology.
6. Health education, hygiene and first aid.

Practical

1. Gymnastics.
2. Fundamental skills of major games.
3. Rhythmics and folk dancing (for girls).
4. Remedial and corrective exercises.
5. Referee and umpire training.
6. Elementary massage.

There are 6 classes per day and the length of each class period currently in use at the institute is only 40 minutes which is scarcely sufficient to cover subject matter properly. For the final examination there are internal (staff of the institute) and external examiners, (teachers from other schools and supervisors).

It has been mentioned that these institutes of physical education are residence facilities. Women's facilities are excellent but the men's are not. The male institute of Benghazi has used temporary quarters under the steps of the institute's stadium. This space is insufficient to accommodate students conveniently and is unhygienic as well.

CHAPTER VI

SPORT IN LIBYA AFTER INDEPENDENCE

After the proclamation of independence in 1952, Libyans set about to reorganize their lives and establish organizations on voluntary democratic principles. The formation of sport leagues provided the leadership for all sporting activities within the country. The sport movement gained momentum in the late 1950's as participation and the number of competitions increased. The popularity and enthusiasm for sport was manifested by the Libyan Championship in soccer, held in 1960. The achievements of Libyan athletes on the international level provided an impetus for the Libyan sport movement and brought international recognition to the country.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

In the years from 1952-1954, the country was still in its early stages of development. Sports continued at a low level of activity and contests and the number of spectators at sporting events even declined. Only one sport, soccer, seemed to flourish at this time. Financially, the sport clubs were not solvent and there was no central organization directing such sport activity. Finally, in 1955, a provincial league was established in Tripoli to direct and

organize sport activities in the western part of the country, while for the eastern part of the country another provincial league in Benghazi was established. The purposes of these leagues were to coordinate the activities of all sports and to organize sport competitions on regional scale. All sport in each part of the country was directed and controlled by this central organization which had a part-time director⁶¹ in charge.

The Chairman of the provincial league was nominated by the government, while the members were elected for a one-year term. This resulted in frequent leadership changes and leadership instability. In 1957, another provincial league was established in Sabha to direct and organize sport activities in the southern part of the country. By 1960, a central league was established to control and direct sport activities throughout the country and to be responsible for preparing the Libyan sports teams for international competition. These leagues were reorganized and according to its new constitution all chairmen were elected for three-year terms. This resulted in better leadership and a more efficient functioning of the league, and yet it permitted provincial leadership within the total sport movement. Mr. M. El-Zantuti was elected chairman of this league. Two vice-chairmen, one in Benghazi and the other one in Sabha, assisted the central

⁶¹Ali Al-Mansuri, The New Dimensions of Physical Culture (Alexandria, Egypt, 1973), p. 223.

administrator. Money for these leagues came from government support; yet, it cannot be said that the sport movement was under state control or leadership. This financial aid was not extensive, and it was considered "far inferior to the generous assistance given to sport by the United Kingdom and the United States of America."⁶² However, after 1962, sport and physical education began to receive extensive financial support from the annual national budget.

The sport clubs were assembled in the individual sport federations, which in turn formed a part of the provincial league, and their chairmen were automatically part of the Provincial Sports League Board of Directors. Affiliated with these leagues were the various sport clubs which were formed in the towns and regions. Some of these clubs such as ANNAGIM club, was concerned only with one particular sport. The majority, however, embraced sections in a wide variety of sports. AL-ITTIHAD club, which started as a soccer club, was considered the most important and prominent sport club in Libya, and its activities included cycling, boxing, swimming, track and field, tennis, golf, and ball games.⁶³

In the 1960's, as sport became one of the most popular fields of endeavor for the young Libyan generation, the government became more involved. It was necessary to organize

⁶² Tripolitania newspaper, Sport Problems, Vol. 916, July 8, 1960 (Tripoli, Libya).

⁶³ Ibid.

all sports activities on all levels, internal and international. To this end, the Libyan Olympic Committee was⁶⁴ formed and recognized internationally in 1962.

The first step was to form the sports federations for popular sports in the country. Gradually, additional sports federations were formed when they were needed. The Olympic Committee is a separate entity except for the financial support which comes from the government. It occupies a building in the city of Tripoli, while each federation has an office in the same building. The Olympic Committee and the federations are the only authorities administering sports on both the community and international levels.

The Olympic Committee is also responsible for forming the delegations for the international meetings in the various fields of sports. In 1964 the first official delegation was sent to the Olympic Games in Tokyo to study the Games and learn how they were organized. Since the formation of the Olympic Committee in 1962, Libya has attended almost all the meetings on the international level.

At the time of writing this thesis, the Libyan Olympic Committee is headed by Mr. Basheer El-Tarapulsi, a well-known person internationally. Table 5 shows the composition of the Olympic Committee in 1976.

⁶⁴Ali Al-Mansuri, Introduction to Physical Culture (Alexandria, Egypt: Maahad-don Bosko Publisher, 1971), p. 165.

Table 5

Composition of the Libyan Olympic Committee in 1976

Federations	Date founded	Presidents
Soccer	1962	Abdu Arrahman Abu El-Shawashi
Boxing	1962	Basheer Karah
Cycling	1962	Asaad Al-Fakih Hassan
Basketball	1962	Mustafa Abu Rawee
Track and Field	1962	Ali Al-Jazeeri
Swimming	1963	Mohammed Al-Dawee
Weight Lifting	1963	Sadik Al-Musrati
Volleyball	1962	Mohammed Abu Dabrah
Handball	1967	Mohammed Al-Mesillati
Gymnastics	1967	Ali Basheer El-Fandi
Cavalry	1968	Ali Khalifa El-Fituri
Tennis	1967	Abdulmeniem AL-Kaamee
Golf	1967	Almasri Khalifa Hajress
Table Tennis	1964	Ibrahim Al-Mahjub

With the formation of the Libyan Olympic Committee and the various sports federations, Libyan sports took another form, that of organized activities on the national level and on the international level. The principal financial support comes from the government, as the income from sports events is not large. The Olympic Committee was provided with financial aid from the government. Each sport federation has its own budget and is given the authority to encourage the expansion of their activities, and because the community clubs are the main sources of the athletes, besides the schools, therefore, the sports federations focused their attention on these clubs⁶⁵ in order to expand and to popularize their activities.

⁶⁵ Ministry of Youth and Sport, Journal of Youth and Sport (Tripoli, Libya, 1968).

ACTIVITIES OF SPORTS FEDERATIONS

The sports federations took an initial responsibility for organizing sports activities in the country. Each federation has a president, vice-president, secretary and an executive committee to administer the federation programs. The members of the federation represent the various parts of the country. They are qualified individuals in the field, mainly those who have experienced or practiced the activity they represent.

Each federation has a committee in each of the cities of Tripoli, Benghazi and Sabha. This committee is called the "Branch Committee" of the federation and has the right to organize the sport activity of the federation within the rules and with the collaboration of the federation in its respective region. Each federation is provided with a budget, which increases according to its activities.⁶⁶ Table 6 shows the number of coaches, referees and athletes in the varied activities within the sports federations in 1975.

Soccer

The General Federation of soccer was established in 1962.⁶⁷ In Libya, soccer is the most popular game and

⁶⁶ Khalifa El-Bah, L'Educazione Fisica e lo Sport in Libya (Roma, Italia, 1963), p. 26.

⁶⁷ Libyan Olympic Committee, General Information of Sport Federations (Tripoli, Libya, 1975).

Table 6
Number of Coaches, Referees and Athletes in 1975

Federations	Coaches	Athletes	Referees
Basketball	13	508	34
Boxing	22	546	27
Cavalry	3	126	7
Cycling	14	82	9
Golf	4	145	-
Gymnastics	8	98	5
Handball	15	917	27
Soccer	63	4638	111
Swimming	5	257	35
Table Tennis	5	625	95
Tennis	6	83	20
Track and Field	12	949	90
Volleyball	17	781	60
Weight Lifting	13	320	12

attracts many spectators. As mentioned before, soccer is the basic activity of the sports clubs. The General Federation of soccer is the sole authority on soccer activity in Libya. Soccer Championships are organized in the regions of Tripoli, Benghazi and Fezzan, with each region producing its own championship in the different divisions. In 1968, however, one national championship was implemented. Teams from Tripoli,

Benghazi, Sabha and Derna competed against each other. Al-Ittihad club of Tripoli was the first champion on the national level in 1968, while Al-Ahly club of Benghazi was the champion in 1975. The champion represents Libya in the African Soccer Cup tournament, a tournament among club winners of each African country.⁶⁸

Soccer is the only game in Libya which produces a sizeable income. After deduction of all expenses, a portion of the gate receipts is given to the federation and the remainder is divided between the two competing teams. Referees and linesmen are paid by the federation. Soccer game referees have their own committee, which is called the "Committee of Soccer Referees," with its headquarters in the Olympic Committee building in Tripoli.

The federation encourages the clubs to spread their soccer activities and do whatever possible to make them constructive and successful. Since professionalism does not exist in the Libyan Arab Republic, players are not paid. They are encouraged to play by some other kind of assistance. Often the federation helps them find employment. Lately, some financial remuneration has been given. This has created a free market in which clubs compete with one another to have the best players.

⁶⁸Libyan Olympic Committee. General Federation of Soccer (Tripoli, Libya, 1975).

On the national level, Libya has had difficulty establishing a consistent national team because of the inadequate transportation facilities, combined with the long distances between the main cities where most of the sports events are concentrated. For international matches the federation selects, through the coaches, the best players for the national team from the various soccer teams competing in the first division championship. A training camp precedes each international game. Some training camps are held in other countries, as was the case in 1967 in preparation for the Mediterranean Games, when the training camp was in Yugoslavia. Coaches from many countries, including Britain, Yugoslavia and Algeria, have managed the Libyan National Team with the assistance of Libyan coaches.

The Libyan National Soccer Team competed in the Pan Arab Games (the latest competition was held in 1965 in Cairo, Egypt), the Arab Cup in Kuwait in 1968, the African Cup and the Mediterranean Games held in Algeria in 1975. Other friendly games have been played both inside and outside Libya, the most impressive being the visit of the Libyan team to Russia in 1970. This brought the government to the position to accept any other invitations from communist countries, and opened the way for the Olympic Committee to send many Libyan coaches in different sports to study coaching techniques in East Germany.

⁶⁹ Ministry of Youth and Sport. Journal of Youth and Sport. (Tripoli, Libya, 1969).

Soccer, therefore, is the most popular sport in the country, attracting thousands of people to the stadia plus hundreds of others through radios, televisions and newspapers. The Libyan female who becomes interested in soccer must follow the activity only through radio, television, or newspapers because traditions, social life and culture prevent the Libyan female from attending sports, physical education and recreational activities publicly with males. Indeed, according to the religion, women should not face any man who is not related to her. This fact is a significant factor in delaying the progress of sports and physical education in Libya as well as in many other Arab countries.

Boxing

In 1962, the General Federation of Boxing was established,⁷⁰ although boxing activities have been concentrated in the cities of Tripoli and Benghazi. The sport is the second most popular in the country. Almost all the Tripoli clubs have boxing teams, as do most of those in Benghazi. Besides moral support, the General Federation of Boxing offers some finances for some of the clubs who are active in the various boxing contests. Since boxing also attracts large crowds to matches, this provides another source of income for sport in the country. The General Federation of Boxing has branch committees in Tripoli, Benghazi and Sabha.

⁷⁰Libyan Olympic Committee. General Information on Sport Federations (Tripoli, Libya, 1975).

On the international level, Libyan boxers have competed in the Pan Arab Games in 1965 in Cairo, Egypt, and in the Mediterranean Games in Tunisia in 1967, in Turkey in 1970,⁷¹ and in Algeria in 1974. In addition, they participated in other individual matches in friendly competition with other Arab countries, as well as with countries such as Malta and Italy outside the Arab world. Most of the boxers come from the clubs. Some, however, come from the Armed Forces and the Police Force. Since boxers recruited in the Police Force are given the opportunity to secure good daily training, good nutrition, the necessary facilities, and a monthly salary these athletes are ready and well trained for any contests at any time. Club athletes, however, do not have these advantages.

Cycling

The General Federation of Cycling was formed of notable personalities in the field in 1962. Tripoli was, and continues to be, the main location for this activity.⁷² The General Federation has a branch committee in Benghazi, which was formed in the late 1960's. Two kinds of competition take place--the road race and the speed race. The speed race is held in the stadium of Tripoli, where there is a track for cycling. Very few clubs in the country have cycling

⁷¹Libyan Olympic Committee. General Information on Sport Federations (Tripoli, Libya, 1975).

⁷²Ibid.

teams, as this sport does not attract many Libyans. The best cycling athletes are recruited from the Police Force.

On the international level, Libyan cyclists have competed in all the Pan Arab Games and the Mediterranean Games, the World Cycling Race which was held in Canada in 1974,⁷³ and with other cyclists in competitive events inside and outside the country. The General Federation hired Mr. Da Gosta, a famous Italian cyclist, to coach the Libyan National Team with assistance from Libyan veterans in cycling.

Basketball

Basketball is becoming very popular in the country; it is a sport participated in by both students and people in the community. Almost every club has a basketball team with some clubs having more than one team. Championships for the first and second divisions take place and they attract many people. All basketball activity on the club level is under the auspices of the General Federation which was established in 1962,⁷⁴ though most of the athletes are students. Some of the athletes participating in this sport are from resident minority groups in Libya, such as Italians and Jews, who were members of the clubs. American soldiers who were in the service with the American Air Force in Tripoli were at one time

⁷³ Al-Fajer Al-Jadid, Sport and Youth (Tripoli, Libya: 1974).

⁷⁴ Libyan Olympic Committee. General Information on Sport Federations (Tripoli, Libya, 1975).

also included in some of the teams. The General Federation aids the clubs with financial assistance.

At the international level, the Libyan National team participated in the Pan Arab Games in 1965, the African Games in 1975 in Cairo, Egypt, and the Mediterranean Games in 1967, and in competition with other Arab countries inside and outside the country. Coaches from the United States, Egypt and Yugoslavia were hired to coach the Libyan National Team.⁷⁵ Diverse basketball activities on the national and international levels are organized and supervised by the General Federation.

Track and Field

Track and field activities became very well organized with the formation of the General Federation in 1962.⁷⁶ The presidency was given to Mr. Ali Al-Mansuri, a Libyan with a Bachelor's degree in physical education. He organized the federation from notable individuals in the field of physical educators. The Federation focused attention on the schools as the primary source of athletes. The best track and field athletes, however, have come from the Army. Clubs were given all forms of assistance to establish track and field teams. The General Federation helped greatly in the organization of track and field competitions on the scholastic

⁷⁵ Ministry of Youth and Sport. Journal of Youth and Sport (Tripoli, Libya, 1969).

⁷⁶ Libyan Olympic Committee. General Information on Sport Federations (Tripoli, Libya, 1975).

⁷⁷ level. Contests took place almost every month in different places in the country.

In order to attract more interest in this activity, many competitions were held in small cities where track and field were unknown, with the result that this sport is becoming very popular throughout the country. The General Federation also helped organize track and field competitions among the different Army divisions.

On the international level, coaches from Egypt, the United States and Yugoslavia were hired to coach the national team, with assistance by Libyans. The Libyan National Team competed in the Pan Arab Games in Cairo, Egypt, in 1965 and in the Mediterranean Games in Tunisia in 1967, in Turkey in 1971, and in Algeria in 1975. In 1968 in Mexico City, Libya participated for the first time in the Olympic Games with one athlete in the track and field competition. ⁷⁸ In addition, Libya has held meets with other Arab countries. In 1966 the Libyan National Team competed with the American Air Force in Europe and the West German Air Force in the city of Weis-
⁷⁹baden in West Germany.

Swimming

The Swimming Federation which was established in 1963 has not had much success in promoting this activity. Since

⁷⁷ Libyan Olympic Committee. General Federation of Track and Field. Special Report (Tripoli, Libya, 1969).

⁷⁸ Ibid.

⁷⁹ Ibid.

there are no swimming pools in the country such lack of participants is understandable. Prior to the construction of the sport cities in Tripoli and Benghazi, where swimming pools are included in the facilities, swimming competition took place only in the sea water--and then only in summer. Construction of these swimming pools has resulted in considerable progress in swimming activity. For the first time two Libyan swimmers participated in a long distance (twenty miles) swimming competition in the river Nile in 1971. The same two swimmers represented the Libyan Arab Republic in 1971, in the Capri-Napoli swimming competition (a little over twenty miles).⁸⁰ As yet, however, very few clubs have swimming teams.

Volleyball

Volleyball is another sport in the country growing in popularity. Many clubs now have their own teams. In 1962 the General Federation of Volleyball was established with branch committees in Tripoli, Benghazi and Sabha and has representatives in almost every city. The General Federation organizes the championship between the clubs and encourages the creation of a team in each club.

The Libyan debut on the international level was in the Pan Arab Games in 1965 in Cairo, Egypt, followed by

⁸⁰ Libyan Olympic Committee. General Information on Sport Federations (Tripoli, Libya, 1975).

participation in the Mediterranean Games in Tunisia in
⁸¹
 1967.

Handball

Handball has had the most success on the scholastic level. Although it has become a very popular sport on the community level, as yet very few clubs have handball teams. In 1967, the General Federation was formed to introduce the game to larger numbers of people. Occasionally contests occur between schools and clubs.

On the international level, the National team competed in the Mediterranean Games in Algeria in 1975, and with other Arab teams. In 1975 the Libyan National Team competed with Yugoslavia, Tunisia and West Germany in a friendly tourna-
⁸²
 ment held in Tripoli.

Gymnastics

Gymnastics in Libya is not very popular. The first Libyan gymnastics team was established in the school of the House of Care in 1964, while the General Federation was established in 1967. The participants, who were mainly youths trained by unqualified coaches, performed in many places before different audiences. Most of these exhibitions were held during half-time at soccer games where large crowds were in

⁸¹Libyan Olympic Committee. General Federation of Volleyball, Special Report (Tripoli, Libya, 1968).

⁸²Al-Jihad, Sport and Youth.

attendance to introduce the sport to the public. All of these exhibitions were under the auspices of the Federation who has in recent years hired a qualified coach from Egypt to coach the Libyan team. As yet very few clubs have gymnastics teams. There has been no competition on the international level with the exception of one match against a gymnastics⁸³ team from Tunisia in 1970.

Cavalry

Although the Libyans as Arabs have a great reputation for horsemanship, this organized sport has not attracted many people. The Federation was established in 1968, focusing on the selection of young boys who show interest or have some skill for this sport and provides them special training under a qualified instructor. An Egyptian coach was hired by the Federation from Egypt to teach the young people interested⁸⁴ in the sport as well as the rest of the athletes. Most of the athletes participating in this sport are soldiers in the Police Force. Some of the clubs in the country are represented by a very few athletes. Libyans do not participate in any international competition in this sport.

Tennis

Tennis has not emerged as a popular sport and is having difficulty attracting either participants or spectators. Some

⁸³Ministry of Social Affairs. Journal of Youth and Sport (Tripoli, Libya, 1971).

⁸⁴Libyan Olympic Committee. General Federation of Cavalry (Tripoli, Libya, 1973).

clubs are represented by tennis players, but very few matches take place in the country. The General Federation was established in 1967. The first Libyan players represented Libya in the Pan Arab Games in Cairo, Egypt, in 1965.

Golf

Golf was introduced into Libya when some Libyan boys were working with the American Air Force in Tripoli. They watched the American players carefully, learned from them, and competed with them in order to get the knowledge of how to play this sport. The quality of these Libyan golfers encouraged the Olympic Committee to form the Federation in 1967⁸⁵ and to encourage this sport in Libya. It is not very successful as yet, since the clubs do not give this sport a great amount of attention. The Libyan National Golf Team competed in Australia in 1968 and gained satisfactory results in international experience. In 1974, the Libyan team competed in the Police Force World Cup in Athens, Greece, and won the first Gold Medal.

Table Tennis

Almost every club in the country has a table tennis team. Many clubs have been provided with tables and other equipment by the General Federation, which was formed in 1964. Competition exists between the clubs and among the members of the same club. The General Federation has branch

⁸⁵ Al-Fajer Al-Jadid, Golf in Libya (Tripoli, Libya, 1974).

Committees in Tripoli, Benghazi and Sabha and representatives in almost every city in the country. The Libyan National Team participated in the Pan Arab Games in Cairo, Egypt, in 1965 and in the Mediterranean Games in Tunisia in 1967. Other friendly games with national teams from other countries have taken place both inside and outside the country including competition between the Libyan team and a team from the Peoples Republic of China in 1970.⁸⁶

In reviewing the development of sport in Libya after independence, one can notice the increasing number of participants in each sport according to its popularity and the progress which has been achieved in this field by participating in international competition in most of sports activities.

The Ministry of Youth and Sport which was established in 1967 and abolished in 1969 had planned to construct two big sports cities in Tripoli and Behghazi. A little work had been completed before the First September Revolution. The new regime has decided to complete the construction of the two sports cities, each covering eighty-four hectares and consisting of the following: stadium for soccer, track and field, a tennis court, an indoor and outdoor basketball court, volleyball and handball court, a boxing hall and indoor and outdoor swimming pools. Included also is a special living quarters for visiting teams and facilities for television and

⁸⁶ Al-Jadid, Sport and Youth.

radio coverage.⁸⁷ A plan has been formed for establishing recreational centers with sports facilities in the other populated cities such as Sabha, Misurata, Zawia and Derna.⁸⁸ One in Derna was completed and opened in 1970.

The first international games organized in Libya were in 1964, when the Libyan Olympic Committee formally organized some sports contests between the countries participating in the Tripoli International Fair. Organized annually, the games are called "Sport Tournament of Tripoli International Fair."⁸⁹ In the 1975 tournament, Libya invited Yugoslavia, Tunisia and West Germany for handball, while in soccer and cycling the teams of Tunisia, Algeria and Malta were invited. Algeria and Tunisia also brought boxing teams. It was planned to have the games organized on the style of the Olympics in all aspects and to involve as many people as possible on the organizational level. The tournament proved to be a success and gave encouragement to the Libyans to continue the development of sports in the country. All the expenses were paid by the Libyan government, and Libya had the right to invite⁹⁰ any of the countries participating in the Fair.

⁸⁷ Ministry of Social Affairs. Journal of Youth and Sport (Tripoli, Libya, 1974).

⁸⁸ Libyan Olympic Committee. Annual Report (Tripoli, Libya, 1971).

⁸⁹ Libyan Olympic Committee. Special Report, The Tripoli International Fair Tournament (Tripoli, Libya, 1975).

⁹⁰ Ibid.

In spite of the financial aid and the encouragement which was provided by the government to the clubs and to the Olympic Committee and its federations, still there are some factors which hinder the progress and the development of physical activities. For example, the long distance between the main cities where most of sport events take place, in combination with the inadequate facilities, limits development. There are also a small number of people in a very vast area. Too, traditional social life, culture, and religion prevent the Libyan female and discourage the Libyan male from participating in sport activities. The changes in the political make-up of the country and the high rate of illiteracy among the people constitute a major hardship relative to the progress of sport and physical education in the Libyan Arab Republic.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the history of physical education and sport in the Libyan Arab Republic. The study dealt particularly with the effects of cultural, political, economic, religious and social factors on the development of physical education and sport. Using the historical method, all available sources were researched to secure the data.

The Libyans' first contact with their Egyptian neighbors occurred during the third dynasty. Many wars were fought between the two countries culminating in the invasion of Egypt.

The first Phoenician settlements on the western coast of Libya were part of the chain of trading centers established along the shores of the Mediterranean by this seafaring nation. They established the three cities of Oea (Tripoli), Sabratha and Leptis Magna, all of a purely commercial character. Meanwhile, Greek traders were also active along the Libyan eastern coast. Cyrene was founded in 631 B.C., followed by Barca, Teuchira, and Appollonia. Next, the Roman troops under the command of Cato occupied Tripoli. The Roman power in the country was subsequently destroyed during the Vandals'

occupation, which occurred in 429 A.D. In 643 A.D., the Arabs crossed into Tripolitania and spread westwards along the coast, carrying with them the faith of Islam, which later was welcomed and absorbed by the Libyans. Subsequently, the country was subjected to various other occupations culminating in the Turkish domination, which was established in 1517. By 1911 Libya had fallen under Italian domination, which was ended only by the end of World War II. This brought the country under the Allies' control, with British administration. In 1951 Libya became an independent state. On September 1, 1969, revolutionary officers of the Army took control of the country and proclaimed the Libyan Arab Republic.

Historically, physical activity in Libya was connected with religious rituals in ancient times, related to military activities during the Phoenician occupation, treated as a necessary and integral part of the education of man with the Greek conquest and as militaristic, hygienic and recreational activity under the Romans. To the Arabs, physical activity was of a gymnastic-athletic-military nature.

During the Italian occupation Libya began to develop sport activities. The subsequent occupation by the Allies fostered more physical activities which were adapted to the interests and needs of the citizens. Physical education and sports made continual progress after Libya's independence in 1952, and became stabilized organizationally after the establishment of the Libyan Olympic Committee in 1962.

The study reveals that great progress was made, especially in regard to the development of the sports Federations, the construction of needed facilities, the extensive support of the many sports clubs, the national recognition of physical education and sports throughout the Republic, and the beginning of participation in international competitions.

The importance of physical education as an essential part of the general educational system was finally realized. Financial aid for the construction of the new schools with physical education facilities and the establishment of physical education institutes in the country will be factors for developing physical education in the coming years.

CONCLUSION

Finally, one can conclude that although Libya is an old country, the emergence of physical education and sports is in an initial stage of development. The lack of adequate finances reflects the government's negative attitude toward physical education and sports. Also, according to the cultural background of Libya, women are not encouraged to use avenues of physical expression such as sport. According to the religious point of view, girls cannot wear shorts or fitted clothes; they have to wear attire which covers all the body except feet and hands. This type of dress is confining for activity on the playground and in the gymnasium. Moreover, girls cannot play in the open field or in the playground without high boundary walls. Boys and girls cannot

play together after the age of nine. Limitations and lack of acceptance of activity for girls hinders the development of physical activity and sport for the entire nation.

Family norms and customs that women are supposed to stay home and do only the housework are very rigid; it is difficult to depart from them and to revolt against authority. Non Arabic influence, however, is now emerging in the big cities and people are becoming more liberated. The traditional bond is now more loose than formerly, allowing sport and physical education some room for growth in this emerging nation.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

PUBLISHED WORKS

- Al-Fneish, Ahmed. The Libyan Society and Its Problems. Beirut, Lebanon: Dar Lebanon, 1967.
- Al-Mansuri, Ali Y. Introduction to Physical Culture. Alexandria, Egypt: Maahad-don Bosko Publisher, 1971.
- _____. The New Dimensions of Physical Culture. Alexandria, Egypt: 1973.
- Andrews, Gladys, Jeannette Saurborn, and Elsa Schneider. Physical Education for Today's Boys and Girls. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1962.
- Bazama, Mohammed. Libya in 20 Years of Spanish Rule. Tripoli, Libya: Al-Ferjani Library, 1965.
- Education in the Arab States, No. 25. New York: Arab Information Center, January, 1966.
- Huizinga, J. Homo Ludens: A Study of the Play Element in Culture. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, Ltd., 1949.
- Lunn, A. A History of Skiing. London: Oxford University Press, 1927.
- Murabet, Mohammed. Facts about Libya. Valletta, Malta: Progress Press Co., Ltd., 1964.
- Nyrop, Richard F. Area Handbook for Libya. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1973.
- Stanford Research Institute. Area Handbook for Libya. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1969.
- Stostic Administration. Analytical Study for the Learning in Libya between 1970 and 1972. Tripoli, Libya: 1972.
- Van Dalen, D., and Bruce Bennett. A World History of Physical Education. Engelwood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971.
- Vordermaier, Kurt. "Special issue," The Islamic Review. Woking, Surrey, England: Publication of Woking Moslem Mission and Literary Trust, August-September, 1968.

Wright, John. Libya. New York: Fredrick A. Praeger, Publisher, 1969.

Yousef, Laila. Psychology of Play and Physical Education. Cairo, Egypt: Anglo-Masria Publisher, 1972.

NEWSPAPERS

Al-Fajer AL-Jadid, "Ministry of Education after the Revolution," Tripoli, Libya, Vol. 310, 1973.

Al-Jihad, "Youth and Sport," Tripoli, Libya, Vol. 503, 1975.

Tripolitania, "Sport Problems," Tripoli, Libya, Vol. 916, 1960.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT AND OTHER MATERIALS

Libyan Olympic Committee, General Federation of Golf. Tripoli, Libya, 1974.

_____. General Federation of Soccer. Tripoli, Libya, 1975.

_____. General Information on the Sport Federations. Tripoli, Libya, 1975.

Ministry of Education. Annual Report. Tripoli, Libya, 1974.

_____. Annual Statistics Report. Tripoli, Libya, 1974.

_____. The Curriculum. Tripoli, Libya, 1971.

_____. "Department of Physical Education and School Activities," Annual Statistics Report. Tripoli, Libya, 1974.

Ministry of Education and National Guidance. Bureau of Statistics. Mimeograph, Tripoli, Libya, 1974.

_____. The Organization of Ministry of Education. Tripoli, Libya, 1970.

Ministry of Information and Culture. The 1st September Revolution Achievement. 5th Anniversary, Tripoli, Libya, 1974.

Ministry of Social Affairs. Journal of Youth and Sport. Tripoli, Libya, 1971.

Ministry of Youth and Sport. Journal of Youth and Sport.
Tripoli, Libya, 1968-1969.

THESES AND UNPUBLISHED PAPERS

El-Bah, Khalifa. L'Educazione Fisica e lo Sport in Libya,
Unpublished Thesis. Roma, Italia, 1963.

Shibani, Hassan. The Application of Modern Curriculum and
Instruction Theory to Higher Education in Libya.
Unpublished Thesis, North Carolina State University,
Raleigh, N. C., 1973.

PERSONAL INTERVIEWS

Al-Tarapulsi, Basheer. Tripoli, Libya, 1976.

El-Zantuti, Massoud. Tripoli, Libya, 1976.