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TRAINING TEACHERS FOR RURAL ELEMENTARY
SCHOOLS IN IRAN

(A COMPARATIVE STUDY)

BY

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A THESIS

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ABSTRACT

Iran is passing through various stages of development in an effort to raise the standard of living of its people. The social, economic, and political reforms which are being carried out in the country are mostly aimed at improving rural conditions. It is clear that the rural schools have the lion's share in improving the backward conditions in rural Iran. Undoubtedly the degree to which the rural schools can successfully perform their responsibilities depends on well-prepared and competent teachers who can respond to the expectations of rural people and the country at large. Without a sufficient number of qualified teachers, any sound project for rural reconstruction and educational improvement in rural areas would be a failure. In view of this fact, there are certain things that rural teacher training centers in Iran should do to accomplish the desired end.

In this study an attempt has been made to analyze the rural elementary teacher training system in Iran. In order to understand present practices a discussion of the social, political, economic and cultural background of rural Iran has been included. Theories and practices in the preparation of rural teachers in some other countries have been reviewed

in order to have a sound basis for recommendations. In the light of the findings and conclusions from a review of the literature, the writer has come up with some proposals for the improvement of pre-service and in-service training of rural teachers.

In the first place desirable characteristics of rural training centers have been discussed. It has been argued that in order to perform their functions properly, these institutions should be located in rural areas and become community centers administering to community needs.

Proposals for the improvement of selection of candidates on the basis of certain recognised criteria have been offered, and the minimum qualifications for the candidates to enter the rural teacher training center has been set up at graduation from high school plus one year of intensive professional training.

The core curriculum which may be organized around current problems of rural communities and which is designed to provide the student-teachers with functional knowledge has been recommended as a substitute for the present subject-centered curriculum. New courses have been suggested to meet the needs of the students as well as those of the community. Unit teaching has been suggested as the method of instruction for the implementation of the curriculum.

A series of in-service programs have been suggested for raising the academic and professional standards of untrained teachers who are already in service in rural schools of Iran.

The problem of teacher welfare has also been discussed, and suggestions for offering better salaries and providing residences for them have been made.

As regards to the training of teachers for tribes, the necessity of choosing more mature candidates from among the tribal people themselves, and expanding the number of tribal normal schools have been made clear and recommendations have been offered accordingly.

Lastly, the problem of providing enough women teachers for rural areas has been tackled. The writer has sought the solution to this problem through establishing mixed or co-educational training centers.

The writer hopes that the suggestions offered can be of value and serve the purpose of promoting rural education and rural conditions in Iran.

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INTRODUCTION

A. Background Statement.- One of the principles of the free democratic societies is the equality of the rights of individuals. All citizens should have equal opportunities to benefit from the facilities which are offered by the state. No government should forget a part of its population on the pretext that they live in villages; especially when they constitute the productive power of the country. In accordance with the law of compulsory education the governments are required to provide education for all children up to a certain age. There should be no exception in this respect.

Considering this matter from the point of view of justice we find that providing educational facilities for village children is as urgent as providing education for cities and urban areas. In cities people can make use of private institutions, but in thinly populated areas where people are mostly poor, this is an impossible task to be provided by the people themselves. If education is not provided by the state, their children will remain in ignorance all their lives. The development of education in rural areas has many aspects, but the most vital of which is the training of teachers. The training of a sufficient number of qualified teachers must precede expansion in other

areas of national concern. Immediate steps should be taken towards this goal.

Iran has an area of 1,645,000 square kilometers (628,000 square miles). According to the last census, the population of Iran in 1956 was 18.9 million (9.6 million males, and 9.3 million females) the average annual increase is estimated at 2.5 per cent, which gives a population of 23.4 million for 1965. About 70% of the population of Iran live in some 50,000 villages scattered over the country's vast expanse, the remaining 30% live in urban areas.⁽¹⁾

While in the urban areas about 84% of Iranian children attend school, proportion in rural districts is only 24%. Around 76% of teachers are concentrated in towns, only leaving 24% for the greater needs of rural areas.⁽²⁾

Despite the great emphasis which has recently been laid on rural development in Iran, many an enlightened village reform program has failed mainly because of the inability of the rural public, by reason of inadequate education to understand and profit from the program.

To remedy this deficiency and improve primitive conditions in rural Iran, the Shah on January 26th, 1963, put

¹Ministry of Culture and Arts, Presenting Iran (Tehran, Iran: 1965), pp. 4 - 5.

²Ibid., p.67.

forward a Six Point Revolutionary Program to a national referendum, designed to accelerate social, political and economic efforts. The result was an overwhelming vote of approval. This reform program consisted of the following bills:-

1. Land reform.
2. The sale of shares in government owned factories to underwrite land reform.
3. The nationalization of forests.
4. The participation of workers in the profits of factories.
5. Electoral reform.
6. The Creation of Education Corps. (1)

The Formation of Education Corps was considered to be a major weapon in the struggle against illiteracy in rural Iran.

In general the plan consists of using the energy and the education of young high school graduates to teach rural people, within the period they would normally be doing their military service. (2)

Candidates are sent to one of the 21 training centers situated in various provinces, where they follow an inten-

¹ Ibid., p. 109.

² Amir Birjundi, The Education Corps Project in Iran 3rd. Ed, (Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, 1965), ;. 15.

sive four months course which includes military training, teaching and other subjects which will enable them to contribute towards the welfare of the village life. Then they are appointed to villages where no school exists and teach there for fourteen months. Later each corpsman who proves capable and so desires, may be employed by the Ministry of Education as a regular teacher.

This project, important as it is, needs further improvements and does not solve the problem completely. The rapid increase in the birth rate and the consequent increase in the enrolment of elementary schools involve the development of existing teacher training centers and improving their conditions. Thus, training teachers for rural areas still remains as a problem for the Ministry of Education.

B. The Problem and its Importance.- The major problem in this study is to present a program for the improvement of rural teacher training in Iran. In their reports of rural educational needs, several national and international agencies have stressed the magnitude of the problem. In a lecture given to the Educational Conference for rural areas, Colin D. Evers, Chief of Mission Unesco in Iran stated:

I, and many other advisors and educators in Iran, have consistently emphasized that the development of education in Iran will be dependent on the rate at which it is possible to train teachers. This is particularly true in the development of rural education as it is clearly going to be difficult to persuade young teachers to go into village schools where living conditions may be primitive and where social environment is not always attractive to young people. It is clear, then that especial provision will need to be made for the training of rural school teachers (1)

The government has tried to deal with the shortage of elementary school teachers in several ways, but none of the measures taken has helped furnish enough teachers for the rural and tribal areas, chiefly because of poor planning and the reluctance of teachers to live in outlying districts. Furthermore, since most of these measures have been temporary, teachers have not been adequately prepared for the complex task they should shoulder in rural areas.

Land reform has changed the outlook of Iranian peasants. They have come to realize that their children should be educated in a way that helps them to understand their environment, define their problems and do something about them. The role of the rural teacher in such a period

¹ The Educational Conference for Rural Areas (Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, n.d.), p. 45.

of change is crucial. The prospective teachers should be social leaders in this movement. In some communities the teacher may be the only source of guidance for rural parents who come to him for advice on different problems. It follows that the need for the training of a sufficient number of qualified teachers is very great. In the light of these facts a study of the present system of teacher training and finding ways for its improvement seems timely and vital.

C. The Purpose of the Study.- The purpose of this study is to analyze the present practices in the preparation of teachers for rural areas of Iran and suggest methods for their improvement. In the first place, the aim is to define certain practices in rural teacher training centers, which if adopted in Iran might result in better accomplishment of the objectives of the training centers. In regard to the training of rural teachers, the purpose is to suggest ways and means by which the prospective rural teachers might receive adequate training in line with up-to-date concepts of education. To attain this end, the purpose is to suggest proposals (a) for selecting the candidates for the teaching profession in rural

areas on the basis of a well-recognized criteria, (b) for modification in the present practices regarding the minimum qualifications of candidates and duration of the training period, (c) for a gradual change in the present prescribed curriculum in order to make it more consistent with the needs of the trainees and those of the community, (d) for adopting a method of instruction which enables the instructor to further the total development of trainees and to assist them in adjusting both to school and out of school situations, (e) for suggesting observation, practice teaching, extra-curricular activities and the use of audio-visual aids to promote the professional growth of the student teachers.

The increase in the number of schools and school population and the shortage of teachers have created the problem of unqualified teachers. Thus another purpose of the writer is to suggest some in-service programs for the rural teachers already in service in order to raise their professional standards as rapidly as possible.

One of the problems confronting rural education in Iran is the reluctance of teachers to remain in villages.

In this regard the writer suggests proposals for making rural education more attractive in order to retain teachers in remote areas.

D. Method of the Study.- The approach in this study is mainly based on library research or documentary method and observation. A number of books written on Iran and much of the first hand materials obtainable from the Iranian Ministries have been studied and used. Since the resources for the study of rural education in Iran are very limited, it has been necessary for the writer to lean, in some cases, on his own observation and experiences. Such factual statements as the writer has utilized from his own observation are backed by nineteen years' experience, while working in various capacities, with the system of education in Iran.

Available literature related to the problem in question has been reviewed. Reliance has been placed in the findings and views of a number of writers on the subject. Particular attention has been given to the writings of accepted authorities in the field.

E. Limitation of the Study.- Although rural elementary schools are important factors in the educational system of Iran, it is not the purpose of this thesis to study elemen-

tary education as such. Some references, however, have been made to those aspects that are directly concerned the preparation of teachers. Secondary and higher education are also outside the scope of the present study. But again, some references have been made to a few aspects of these segments of education when the study deals with the training of teachers and the college staff.

While teacher training schools have been discussed in general, rural elementary teacher training have been stressed and the improvement of their conditions have been the main concern of this study. This study, then, is confined only to elementary teacher training in rural Iran.

F. Organization of the Study.- The subjects covered in this study are organized into four major parts. Information serving as a background for this study is discussed in the first chapter. It consists of a general description of the social, political and economic background of rural Iran. This description does not only provide a general background of the problem; but also shows some of the causes of deficiencies existing in rural Iran.

The second chapter deals with the present practices in the preparation of teachers in order to give a picture

of existing conditions. This description is followed by an evaluation of the system.

In the third chapter theories and practices in rural education and the preparation of its teachers are discussed. These accepted precedures serve as the basis for recommendations to be presented in chapter four.

In the last chapter suggestions and recommendations for the improvement of rural teacher training centers in Iran and a program for the improvement of in-service training of the uncertified teachers are presented. Proposals for the improvement of teacher welfare, tribal education, and increase in the number of women teachers for rural areas are also submitted. The writer has attempted to make these recommendations as practical as possible in order to render them compatible with the financial resources that are available for rural education. Nevertheless, it is the conviction of the writer that the government must face the necessity of spending more funds for the improvement and development of rural education.

CHAPTER I

SOCIAL, POLITICAL, ECONOMIC
AND CULTURAL BACKGROUND OR RURAL IRAN

Education, in the words of Sir Michael Sadler, being a Corollary of the social order, is so mingled with the whole life, so directly dependent upon all the elements that make a nation, that it is inconceivable to speak of the one without speaking of the other.(1)

Thus, in studying any aspect of education of a country, the political system, the social structure, the economic condition, and the cultural background of that nation should be studied carefully in order to be able to suggest new ways and methods of doing things.

It is impossible to propose reforms if, besides the actual conditions of education in a country, the composition of its society, the stratification of its classes, the relation between its religious institutions and its government, the size of its urban and rural population, and the like are untold. All these considerations constitute the first chapter of this study.

I. The Land and its People

A. The Land.- Iran today has an area of 628,000 square miles (1,645,000 kilometers) or about one-fifth of the area of the United States. The country lies between

¹ Sir Michael Sadler, quoted in Issa Sadiq, Modern Persia and Her Educational System (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931), P. 1.

25° and 40° degree north latitude and 45° and 63° degrees east longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Soviet Union and the Caspian Sea, on the east by Afghanistan and Pakistan, on the south by the Persian Gulf, and on the west by Iraq and Turkey.⁽¹⁾

The map presented as Figure I shows the physical features of the country.

Because of its geographical position Iran has a key position between the East and the West. One authority has stated that: "Iran is today a meeting ground of ideas, a battleground of opposing political and social forces seeking control, and a market place where goods and sometimes loyalties are exchanged."⁽²⁾

Topographically, Iran is situated on a plateau with an average height of 4,000 feet above sea level between two depressions, the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf.⁽³⁾ It is a land of diversity, with all kinds of climates, valleys, mountains, deserts and lakes.

There are actually few rivers in the country and the total annual rainfall, in most parts, is less than twelve inches. The extensive desert regions and the south-eastern part of the country receives less than five inches of rain a

¹Ministry of Culture and Arts, Op. Cit., p. 1.

²Herbert H. Vreeland, IRAN (New Haven: Human Relations Area Files, 1957), p. 1.

³Aziz Hatami, IRAN (Tehran, Iran: 1963), p.1.

Figure 1 (a)

A Representation of the Main Physical Features of Iran



(a) Source: Iran Today, Vol. II. Serial No. 9.n.d.

year, while the Caspian littoral presents quite a different picture. Here the annual rainfall is from 40 to 60 inches, creating beautiful forests.⁽¹⁾

The unavailability of river water in most parts of the country and the shortage of rainfall, which results in scarcity of water, have a great bearing on the life of peasants. They are bound to seek other ways and means of maintaining water for their cultivation, and also the different environmental setting have profound influences on the pattern of living of the people.

B. People and Their Characteristics.- The Iranian race is descended mainly from the Indo-European (Aryan) stock. The word 'Iran' means 'Land of Aryans'. But in the course of centuries, Iranians have mingled with other peoples who invaded the country and settled in it: the Greeks, Turks, Mongols, Arabs, and Afghans.

The native language is Persian, an Indo-European language, spoken by over half of the population. The people in Azarbayejan speak the Turkish language but read and write Persian. The tribes in the south speak the Turkish dialect and those in Khuzistan speak Arabic.

¹ Donald N. Wilber, IRAN: Past and Present 4th ed; (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1958), p. 6.

The Iranians as individuals are renowned for their traditional hospitality, warm emotions, and steadfast friendship. They are strongly individualistic. There are other characteristics which are quite prevalent and have important bearing on education such as belief in fate and heredity, contempt of physical labor, lack of self-confidence and dependence on others, unconcern about the material aspect of life and a great appetite for knowledge.⁽¹⁾

C. Population and its Composition.- According to the last census, the population of Iran in 1956 was 18.9 million (9.6 million males, 9.3 females). The average annual increase is estimated at 2.5 per cent, which gives a population of 23.4 million for 1965. The average density of population is near 14 per cent square kilometer. The population of Iran is 70% rural and 30% urban, and tribesmen form 15 per cent of the whole. The male working population was 5.3 million in 1956, 51 per cent were engaged in agriculture, 14 per cent in industry and 29 per cent in other occupations. There are 186 towns of 5,000 persons or more, and about 50,000 villages with population under 5,000.⁽²⁾

Mostly because of the Islamic influence, there is no caste system in Iran. An individual can rise to the

¹ Herbart H. Vreeland, Op. Cit., pp. 6 - 8 and 310 - 315.

² Presenting Iran, Op. Cit., pp. 4 - 5

highest level if he himself has the ability, Islam stipulates that all Muslims, regardless of what duties they perform, are equal in the community. However, there are great differences between Iranians in terms of wealth, power, educational opportunity, and prestige. These differences divide the population into roughly three major groups: The élite or upper class, the urban middle class; and the great mass of peasants and unskilled workers as the lower group.

1. The Upper Class.- Most of the wealth, power, prestige, education and leadership in Iran have been concentrated within a small group of large families - the so called "thousand families".⁽¹⁾ Before the implementation of land reform in 1951 most of these families were economically supported by land-ownership, and used peasants as political power to consolidate their position.

It is not easy to become a member of the élite. One must have considerable wealth and close contact with those already in power. A clever opportunist, now as in the past, can occasionally advance to the top. Reza Shah himself came from an ordinary background.⁽²⁾

2. The Middle Class.- Traditionally, the clergy,

¹Herbart H. Vreeland, Op. Cit., pp. 246 - 247.

²A. Reza Arasteh, Man and Society in Iran (Leiden, Netherlands; E.J. Brill, 1964), p. 122.

the bazaar merchants and the craftsmen comprised the bulk of the middle class; but today this class has been augmented by the growing number of intellectuals and government office workers, who are usually the children of traditional merchants and craftsmen.

The traditional members of the middle class, the clergy and bazaar merchants, have lost some of the powers they possessed at the turn of the century, though the clergy still exert their strongest influence in the villages and towns among the peasants and bazaar people. The clergy condemn education especially in the villages. The middle class seeks education for economic security. They try to provide their offsprings with higher education, though it may be very difficult for them to afford it.

3. The Lower Class.- The peasants still constitute the larger group of the lower class, the next group are the unskilled workers who live in towns and cities. Literacy is very low among these people, but urban life has enabled them to appreciate education. However, unable to afford paying for their secondary school, which is not free, they often withdraw their children from schools after the elementary level and send them to learn a craft.

Change in land ownership has not seriously altered the peasant's way of life. However, the government has recently taken drastic measures for improving village life. The village clergy (Mulla) and the school teacher (in communities where there is one) probably belong to the middle class, although their standard of living falls far below that of their urban counterparts.

D. Religion.- The Shi'a sect of Islam is the official religion of Iran.

Ninety-eight per cent of the people are moslems, and ninety-three per cent of this number are Shi'a; seven per cent belong to the Sunni sect which is especially strong among the Kurds. The remaining two per cent is composed of Armenians, Nestorian Christians, Zoroastrians, Jews, etc.(1)

These minorities enjoy complete freedom and political rights. The Christians, Zoroastrians and Jews elect their own deputies to the parliament.

Urban lower class and rural people are the most rigorous adherents to religion. They seem to show great respect and obedience towards religious leaders who, in rural areas, are called Mullas with limited training in theology. In villages the men of religion are more powerful than in cities.

Many people in rural areas do not appreciate education unless it includes religious instruction. No school

¹Donald N. Wilber, Op. Cit., pp. 164 - 165.

can function in the village without showing great respect for religion. Nor can teachers teach if they are not good moslems.

E. The Rural Community.- Most of Iranian villages are small. In many cases the population is not more than a hundred or so, especially if the village does not lie on the great highways. The village generally consists of a cluster of baked mud houses grouped around a square.⁽¹⁾

Within each village is a haphazard network of narrow lanes, sometimes paved with stones, usually with one main road along which runs the water channel. These narrow lanes are bordered by high mud walls, in which double doors lead into the courtyard of each house. The typical courtyard contains a few trees and folwers, and a pool, filled at intervals, from the main channel passing through the village, which provides water for all domestic purposes except drinking.

Each village has a public bath in charge of a man whose duty it is to see that steaming hot water is available for a given number of hours each week. The villages can bathe as often as they wish, and everyone helps to support the bath attendant by contribution of wheat, straw, fuel, and fruit. These baths are not usually clean or hygienic.

¹ L.P. Elwell-Suttan, A Guide to Iranian Area Study (Michigan: J.W. Edward Brothers, Inc., 1952), p. 28

In most cases, they are harmful from the standpoint of health.

Usually each village has a mill in which a water-wheel turns one great millstone against another. The miller grinds wheat and barley for villagers and receives a share of the flour ground. Stores and schools are less common than baths and mills. There may be one very small shop for a number of villages, whose stock in trade is limited to sugar, tea, tobacco, salt, cotton goods, matches, kerosene, and similar items.

Health conditions in the villages are not satisfactory. Due to lack of adequate nutrition the villagers get sick, and medical services are rarely available for them. Malaria and a variety of other diseases are the chief problem. In recent years the joint efforts of the government and US/AID have decreased the incidence of malaria.

Elementary schools or Maktabs are to be found in only one out of 25 or 30 villages of Iran. Fundamental difficulties in extending the public school system to the villages are first, that the average village family is small, and the help of the children in cultivating the fields is an economic necessity; and second, that the curriculum common

to the urban schools has little relation to the life of the farming communities.⁽¹⁾

1. Rural Family Life.- "The most stable and fundamental social unit in Iran is the family household. Since the Iranian derives orientation and support from it throughout life, he identifies himself first with his family!"⁽²⁾

The rural family is patrilineal where the husband is the center of authority. Each member of the family has certain obligations toward his family. The father can make any family decisions he sees fit. His word is final. The father's authoritarian method is an accepted way of child rearing, but the mother plays a more permissive role with regard to children. She is more lenient and is a source of love and affection.

Rural life largely revolves around traditional practices which have persisted unchanged for centuries. While peasants are now hesitantly trying out new methods of agriculture under the encouragement of national and foreign aid programs, their family life remains the most stubborn core of resistance to change.

The average peasant family, sometimes including extended kin, lives in a one story house constructed of sundry mud-brick and so poorly built that it is constantly

¹Donald N. Wilber, Op. Cit., p. 172. (Underlining mine).

²Herbert H. Vreeland, Op. Cit., p. 258.

in need of repair. The size and furnishing of the village house depend upon the prosperity of the peasant; some have two or three rooms, others, which are in the majority, have only one room in which the family cooks, eats and sleeps.

Peasants dress in very outworn and inadequate clothing; in many cases they have only the clothes that they wear. Their food is in keeping with their simple life. Except in the rice growing areas of the north, bread is the main food item among the villages. They also eat cheese and yoghurt, if they have flocks.

In busy seasons a villager works in the fields assisted by his wife and children. After the day's work is done, the village family has little time for leisure. There is no organization of leisure activity, and indeed there is no leisure except in winter months. Conversation is the chief form of relaxation.

In fulfilling their obligation to the family, grown up sons take on the responsibility of caring for aged relatives and unmarried or widowed sisters.

Village parents make every effort to find good marriage partners for their children and to provide an adequate dowry. Both village boys and girls tend to marry at an early age, generally from their own village. Many children remain

dependent economically and emotionally upon their families, even when they become adults.

Military service tends to undermine the stability of rural life, for it takes away skilled farm hands, so desperately needed in Iran's rural economy. It also disrupts the family unity by making village youths dissatisfied with rural life; once they have finished their term of service, many of them prefer to remain in towns, even though little or no work is available to them.⁽¹⁾

2. Tribes.- The migratory tribes of Iran are, properly speaking, Semi-nomadic; that is their migrations are seasonal, generally taking place in the spring and the fall. Families, personal belongings and flocks must all be shifted from one site to another. The major tribes that still retain their nomadic way of life, in whole or in part, are the Qashqais, Bakhtiaries, Lurs, Baluchis, Torkamans, Kurds and Arabs.

The tribes are great horse and cattle breeders, and, as such, their function in the economic life of the country has always been important. As a whole, these people possess a strong feeling for color and form, as their costumes and their highly developed carpet weaving proves.

A tribesman is expected to be aggressive and fearless. For centuries the tribes constituted the country's military

¹A. Reza Arasteh, Op. Cit., p. 152.

strength, and today they continue to resist government forces sent to subdue them. The problem with these tribes is that even if the government gives them the opportunity to settle on land, they refuse, and prefer their own way of life.

Official awareness of the tribal problem resulted in the establishment of a Higher Tribal Council, in 1953, under the direction of the Ministry of Court. This organization was to improve tribal health and education, develop tribal agriculture and improve the general economic situation, and introduce administrative reforms in dealing with the tribes.⁽¹⁾

Since then, some schools for tribal children have been built in towns inhabited by the more settled tribal elements. They are near enough to the migration route so that the youths can spend their holidays in the camp. Some mobile school units have also been introduced to the tribal areas, known as 'White Tents', and some teachers are educated tribesmen.

3. Status of Women.- The status of urban women in Iran has undergone important changes since 1936 when Reza Shah took the first step towards their emancipation.

¹ Donald N. Wilber, Op. Cit., p. 169.

He issued a decree concerning the removal of the veil and equal participation of women in national life. Abolishing the veil was the first in a series of measures designed to give women an important role in Iran. Compulsory education law of 1943 brought many young girls out of their sheltered homes for the first time.

Women continued to ask for political freedom. As a result, despite the strong opposition led by some religious leaders, in May 1963, women succeeded, in winning the right of voting and of being elected to Parliament.

One may wonder why the movement for emancipation of women succeeded in Turkey whereas in Iran it met with initial failure. The reasons are not far to seek. In the first place, the element of religion was much stronger in Iran than it was in Turkey. In the second place, Turkey was nearer to Europe and in greater contact with European people and their ways of life. She could not possibly escape from this influence.

Today, in Iran, there are many women in leading positions in the social, economic and political fields. They are active in such fields as nursing, teaching, and office work. However, they can also be found in the professions of medicine, law, engineering, and banking, which have been

traditionally occupied by men. But urban emancipated women constitute only a very small percentage of the total population. The great reservoir of tribal and rural women, is as yet, hardly touched. Tradition still retains a powerful grip on the lives of most Iranian women.

Due to the essential role that rural and tribal women play in the daily life of their communities they enjoy greater freedom than their urban counterparts. They generally move about unveiled at home and outside, and take an active interest in the farm work. In fact, in rural Iran a heavier burden lies on womens' shoulder than those of men, since besides household and care of children women have to cooperate in their husband's work.

In an attempt to give women more responsibilities and enable them to participate, to a greater extent, in social life, some women have recently been appointed as head of villages. "There are now six women deputies in Parliament, two in the Senate, a hundred and fifty women mayors and forty-eight women as heads of villages."⁽¹⁾

II. Present Political Status

Iran is a constitutional Monarchy. The Constitution of December 1906 and the supplementary constitutional law of October, 1907 which underwent modifications in 1923

¹Efforts For A Better Life, (Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Information, 1966. in Persian, translated by the writer), p. 45.

and 1949, have remained the basis of the political system of Iran up to the present day. The Constitution of 1906 is modeled on those of European democracies, but contains special provisions related to the state religion - the Shi'a sect of Islam. The Constitution ensures the personal rights and freedom of each individual and provides for a government composed of three branches - executive, legislative, and judicial.⁽¹⁾

The Shah is the chief of the State. Constitutionally he is the supreme head of all three branches of the government and has wide powers. Without his signature no bill can become law. Executive power is exercised by a cabinet headed by the Prime Minister, who is appointed by the Shah and is responsible to Parliament which is composed of two houses: The lower house (Majlis) which has 200 elected members and the upper house (Senate) which has 60 members.

For administrative purposes the country is divided into thirteen provinces (Ostans) and five Governor Generalcies. Each of the provinces has a Governor General (Ostandar) who is directly responsible to the Minister of the Interior. Each Ostan is divided to many sharestans (Counties) under a Governor (Farmandar). Each shahrestan

¹ Presenting Iran, Op. Cit., p. 104.

is further sub-divided into many Bakhshes under a (Bakhsh-dar). Each Bakhsh has several Dehestan (districts) managed by (Dehdars), and finally the Dhestan are made of (Dehat) villages.(1)

On the village level, each village is administered by a headman or Kadkhada. Formerly, landlords had a hand in his appointment, but since the implementation of land reform laws, the influence of the landlords upon him has decreased.

At present time, Kadkhada is the official representative of the government. He is appointed by the district governor and works closely with the village Council and other governmental agencies connected with the village.(2)

He settles disputes, controls the distribution of water, helps the tax collectors, assists gendarms in their contact with the people and punishes deviants. Although he may delegate some of his duties to others, his word is final ; he is the most powerful authority in the village.

Mainly because of illiteracy and ignorance, Iranian farmers have not developed sufficient political awareness. Until recently they knew nothing about politics and government. The only authorities they knew were the landlords and the Kadkhada. During elections, landlords would gather the farmers and take them to the voting place to have them deposit their votes in favor of themselves. When elected,

¹Aziz Hatami, Op. Cit., p. 39.

²Information Communicated to the writer through Ministry of Education, letter No. 1436/23271, dated May 28, 1966.

landlords would seek their own interests; rarely allowing the passage of a law in favor of the peasants. Only recently, after the implementation of land reform laws, villagers have come to realize their political right. In fact, government propaganda through radio and other mass media has helped greatly in awakening them.

III. Economic Conditions

A. Agriculture.- Iran is still primarily an agricultural country, the great majority of people live by agriculture. This fact has been emphasized by the Shah in his book 'Mission for my Country':

Because of our huge petroleum output people commonly think of Iran as being primarily an oil producing country. But that is a mistake. For thousands of years we have been primarily an agriculture country and we still are.(1)

About three quarters of Iran's population live in the rural areas, and nearly 60 per cent of the labor force is employed in agriculture. Yet agriculture contributes only about 23 per cent to the gross national product. About 11 per cent of the country's total area is cultivated; of this, about one third is planted in any one year (the rest being allowed to lie fallow) and about one seventh is irrigated. The productivity of Iranian agriculture varies con-

¹ H.I.M. Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlavi, Mission for My Country (London: Hutchinson & Co. Ltd., 1961), p. 195.

siderably, but the average is very low. This low productivity is due to a number of factors, of which the chief are:

1. Scarcity of water and widespread reliance on dry farming.
2. Shortage of capital, resulting in part from the land tenure system-now being superseded.
3. Inadequacy of health and education services.
4. Lack of agricultural Machinery and modern methods of cultivation.
5. Lack of accessible roads.
6. Short term dislocations caused by land reform.⁽¹⁾

The agricultural products of Iran vary depending upon the region in which they are obtained. They consist, mainly, of wheat, barley, rice, cotton, tobacco, tea, sugar beet, fruits and vegetable. There are sometimes a surplus of wheat and barley for export. It is important to note that "The national per capita income was estimated at \$221 in 1964 and rural per capita income at \$55."⁽²⁾

1. Irrigation.- Since there are few rivers and little rain in Iran, artificial irrigation is almost always required. Because of scarcity of water the villager spends much time and effort to get an adequate water supply for his crops. At present three methods of irrigation are in use - open channels, wells, and qanats or underground channels:

¹ Presenting Iran, Op. Cit., pp. 70 - 71.

² Ibid.

1. Wherever there are streams or rivers open channels are dug at intervals and are divided and sub-divided amongst the fields.

2. Numerous shallow wells are in use, some of which are worked by manpower and some by animals. Recently many artesian or deep wells have been drilled in various parts of the country.

3. The most popular and typical way of irrigation is by the age-old qanat system. A qanat is an underground channel, sometimes many miles long, which connects a series of wells dug from some high hill to the locality that it is to be watered. One qanat may be sufficient to irrigate up to 80 hectares. To keep the qanats in good working order requires constant cleaning and repair. The water from these channels is apportioned in accord with specific regulations many of which date back several centuries.

Recently three major, as well as a number of smaller modern dams have been built in various parts of the country.⁽¹⁾

2. Equipment.- In spite of great efforts displayed in recent years, the ways and means of cultivation are not scientific. Peasants are equipped with traditional tools. The farmers are out in the fields at dawn, ploughing

¹ Ibid., p. 72.

with oxen, cows and even donkeys and camels. Obviously these traditional methods are slow and require a number of workers on each field.

Agricultural machinery is used only in the vicinity of great cities. In fact, a large part of Iran's irrigated area consists of small plots in which tractors cannot be used effectively. Only in the areas where dry farming is possible, or in regions such as Khuzistan and Gorgan where wide plains exist, is the use of machinery practicable. Thus, peasants themselves are mainly the source of power.

Chemical fertilizer is introduced recently, but farmers use it reluctantly, preferring their own traditional ways of fertilizing lands. Every year a large amount of crops are destroyed by insects and diseases. The fighting of pests has also been done in traditional ways which are harmful to crops. Recently, however, the government has taken serious measures to help peasants wipe out farm pests.

B. Industry and Trade.- The two main industries of Iran are agriculture and oil. After agriculture "The oil industry is the most important industry in the country employing about forty percent of all industrial labor."¹

¹ Herbert H. Vreeland, Op. Cit., p. 156.

Apart from the oil industry there are numerous minor industries such as textiles, chemicals, silk, tea, rice and the like. Fishing is the occupation of rural people in the Caspian Sea area. As yet, no heavy industry is run in the villages of Iran. Peasants and tribesmen engage themselves in carpet weaving and some home-spun clothes. A number of factories for making matches are in operation here and there, but modern industries in cities are drawing peasants away from villages. Many of the peasants who are not satisfied with hard conditions in villages, join the great number of unskilled workers in the cities and complicate the conditions of unemployment in the country.

The peasants are generally unskilled in trade. They are ignorant of market conditions, outside their areas. Being unaccustomed to cooperatives, they trade unskillfully on their own. Communication is not good. Long rough roads keep farmers away from cities. Except in villages adjacent to large cities, trade is in the form of barter and money is seldom used.

C. Live Stock.- Much of the country is suitable for raising sheep and goats which are kept in great numbers. The flocks are moved up to the higher pastures in summer and return to the plains and valleys in winter. Live stock

is a good source of income for the villagers and tribesmen.

The animals depend largely upon the crop residues such as straw and plant roots. Since animals cannot find enough crop residues there is a considerable loss of animals each year. Although progress toward improving the character of live stock is being made through vaccines and serums, produced in the country, a good number of animals are lost as a result of lack of sanitary conditions.⁽¹⁾

D. Land Reform and its Impact.- Until recently conditions in rural Iran were difficult. A majority of peasants had no land of their own. They cultivated land for the landlord; and crops were distributed among peasants on the basis of five factors:- water, seed, labor, oxen, and the land itself.⁽²⁾ Thus, in most cases the poor cultivator had to get only one-fifth of the product. i.e. that of labor.

The land owners who were usually absentees, used to drain the profit away from the villages and spend their money in Tehran or in Europe. The income of the peasants remained low, agriculture production decreased, and the development of rural areas stagnated. Many landowners objected to the establishment of schools, thinking that educa-

¹ Observation of the writer, while working with Point Four specialists, as an interpreter.

² L.P. Elwell-Suttan, Op. Cit., p. 28.

cation would enlighten the people and would be dangerous for them.

Such conditions were very difficult. The farmers were greatly dissatisfied. Consequently they migrated to the cities in search for better conditions of living and an acute problem of unemployment arose. These factors accompanied by the conflict between supporters of feudalism and enlightened people who demanded social reform led to threatening political crisis. To resolve such a crisis land reform laws were passed in stages as follows:

Land reform started in 1951 with the Royal Decree of the Shah for the distribution of Crown Lands. The Shah announced that he would divide his own lands and sell them to landless peasants at low prices, on instalments to be paid over long periods of time.

In 1955, another law was passed extending land distribution to the public domain as well. These measures were initiated with the hope that other big landlords might follow these examples and ultimately bring about a real change in land ownership, which would result in raising the peasants' standard of living. Referring to this the Shah said in a speech:

... In 1951, to set a practical example for reforms, I ordered the distribution of the Crown Estate I had inherited, and ordered the drawing up of a law for the sale of the State Land, but no big landlord followed this example. The landlords obstinately stood against the march of time.(1)

Since the landlords did not follow the example of the Shah:

A land reform bill was sent to Parliament in 1960, seeking to restrict large land holdings. The bill was approved by the Majlis composed mostly of big landlords, in an amended form which could not meet either the desire of the Shah or the need of the people.(2)

In an attempt to remove the difficulties faced by this original law, a Legal Decree was passed on January 9, 1962 by the Council of Ministers which was enforced immediately in spite of the strong opposition of the landlords and some reactionary people.(3)

The new land reforms were carried out in two phases:

Phase one dealt with big landlords who possessed more than one village. The new law permitted such landlords to keep only one entire village and to sell the rest

¹ Ashraf Ahmadi, Twelve Years in Constructing a New Iran, 1953 - 1964. (Tehran, Iran: Central Council, Celebration of the 25th Century of the foundation of the Iranian Empire, 1965), p. 13.

² Ibid., p. 14.

³ Ministry of Agriculture, Land Reform Organization, Implementation of Land Reform Program in Iran (Tehran, Iran: n.d.), p. 2.

of their holdings to the state to be paid for in ten annual instalments. The state then would resell the land to the peasants.

Phase two or the second stage represented a far more radical and difficult step, affecting as it did the 100,000 landlords who then held about 63 percent of the country's farmland. These owners, who possessed one village or less, were obliged to come to an agreement with the peasants on their land in one of three ways: Lease, sale, or distribution. They could grant the peasants a thirty years lease, or sell them the land on terms agreed by both sides, or divide the land between the peasants in the same proportion as that in which the crops had previously been shared. In any case, ownership was restricted to 200 hectares - though this figure was raised, for a certain period, to 500 hectares in cases where mechanical farming had been introduced.⁽¹⁾

Since the farmers lacked the knowledge as well as the capital to work their land by themselves, cooperative societies were formed to discharge the duties of former landlords. The development and Rural Cooperation Bank was established to give financial assistance to such cooperatives founded in the villages where the lands were distributed. These Cooperative societies offer loans and credit facilities to

¹ Presenting Iran, Op. Cit., pp. 110 - 111.

farmers to buy machinery and seeds and to pay for new water channels and wells.⁽¹⁾

One of the basic aims of land reform is to increase agricultural productivity and thereby improve the economic and living standards of the farm families. The new group of small landlords, who have become more independent and active, have more incentive to work hard and produce more, and the profits they make not only go to improve village life but also will increase the national income and thereby contribute to the over-all development of the country.

IV. Education.

The modern era of education in Iran started with the establishment of Constitutional Government in 1906. The original Constitution was supplemented in 1907. There are two articles in the supplement of the Constitution which deal respectively with free education and the responsibilities of the Ministry of Education. They read as follows:

Art. XVIII - The acquisition and the study of all sciences, arts and crafts is free, save in the case of such as may be forbidden by the ecclesiastical law.

Art. XIX - The foundation of schools at the expense of the Government and the Nation, and compulsory instruction, must be regulated by the Ministry of Sciences and Arts, and schools and colleges must be under the supreme control and supervision of that Ministry.⁽²⁾

¹ Ashraf Ahmadi, Op. Cit., pp. 16 - 17.

² Issa Sadiq, Op. Cit., p. 44.

A law concerning the organization of the Ministry of Education was passed in 1910, and the following year Parliament passed a law to organize the new educational system with its three levels: Primary, secondary, and higher.

"This modern system", writes Dr. Issa Sadiq, a prominent Iranian educator, "is a centralized state system. The Ministry of Education owns and controls all schools, supervises, subsidises, and inspects the few private schools, arranges curricula, organizes and carries through the state examinations and pays the teachers in the whole country."⁽¹⁾

According to the third article of the educational law passed in 1911, primary education was made compulsory. In 1932 another law was passed to make primary education free. In 1943 the Parliament passed an important law committing the government to the implementation of compulsory free primary education in ten years. Article II of this law set the duration of compulsory attendance for six years.⁽²⁾

In spite of the fact that the law of 1943 guarantees free compulsory education for all children of Iran, the

¹ Manuchekr Afzal and Issa Sadiq, "Iran", in The Year Book of Education, 1953. (London: Evans Bros. Ltd. Russel Square, 1953), p. 450.

² Mohammad Ali Toussi, Present Educational System of Iran. (Unpublished. Mimeographed). (Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, General Department of Planning and Studies, 1965), p. 8.

government was not able to enforce it. This has been mainly due to lack of schools and shortage of teachers.

The primary schools are of two types: four-grade schools usually in villages and rural communities, and a complete six-grade schools in cities and towns. However, in 1943, the High Council of Education approved a program of village schools extending to the fifth and sixth grades of the primary level.⁽¹⁾ But four-grade schools, however, are still in operation in many remote villages.

Prior to 1958, the responsibility for administrating elementary education was shared by a number of departments within the Ministry. In September 1958, a separate department was established for elementary education.⁽²⁾

Compulsary education starts at 7 and the primary stage lasts for six years at the end of which a state examination is given. Successful candidates can proceed to the secondary stage, which lasts for another 6 years and is divided into two cycles of 3 years each. At the end of the first cycle there is a state examination for those who want to terminate their schooling or go to special schools such as primary teacher's colleges, or different branches of sciences, mathematics, literature and commerce according to

¹ Ibid.

² Ministry of Education, Iran. Summer Education Conference-Geneva (1959), I.B.E. UNESCO), p. 1.

their interests and aptitudes. At the end of the second cycle there is also a state examination. Those who pass the examination are awarded a diploma which qualifies them to enter the University provided they also can pass the university entrance examination.

The main objectives of primary education are to teach the basic elements of literacy and impart the knowledge necessary for proper living in society and for harmonious mental, physical, moral and emotional development of children.(1)

These objectives have not been attained. The textbooks prepared by the Ministry of Education, deal mainly with Persian literature and appreciation of its glorious past. Little concern is given to the development of scientific attitude and formation of good habits in the child.

A. Office of Rural Education.- The Ministry of Education, on the advice of some American educators and taking into consideration the recommendations made at the 21st International Conference in Geneva, established an office of Rural Education within the Department of Elementary Education to deal specifically with education in rural areas. A few elementary schools were established with modified courses in the fifth and sixth grades giving the child some agricultural training and knowledge of simple natural facts.(2)

¹ Mohammad Ali Toussi, Op. Cit., p. 11.

² Ministry of Education, Iran. Op. Cit., pp. 2 - 3

But financial possibilities of the Ministry of Education did not permit the expansion of such schools to various parts of the country.

At a Conference held in Tabriz on April, 1959, rural education was defined as "Education for children in the rural areas". At the same conference it was unanimously approved that all children should have equal educational opportunities whether they live in urban or rural areas.⁽¹⁾

Probably, what the conference meant by equal educational opportunities was the provision of an adequate number of primary schools in urban and rural areas. But equality of educational opportunity is not a purely quantitative aspect. It has a qualitative aspect as well and demands that the standards of instruction in urban and rural schools shall be as nearly equal as possible; and that opportunities should be provided in such a way that each pupil would be able to benefit from his education to the fullest possible extent of his aptitudes and ability.

In spite of the objectives set forth in the above mentioned conference, rural education in Iran still lags far behind both quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitatively, prior to the formation of the Education Corps, in 1963, 84% of the school age children of the urban popu-

¹ Ibid.

lation had the privilege of attending school, whereas only 24% of the rural children of school age had a chance of going to school. Around 76% of the teachers were concentrated in towns, leaving only 24% for the greater needs of rural areas.⁽¹⁾ However, since the formation of the Education Corps more rural children have been attracted to schools, but the gap is still wide.

Enrolment at the primary school level increased from 1,621 thousand in 1957 to 1,169 thousands in 1958 to 1,554 and 2,030 thousands in 1961 and 1964 consecutively. However, this growth has been mainly in urban as shown in Table 1.⁽²⁾

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF PUPILS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN CITIES AND
VILLAGES - 1960 - 1965 (in thousands)^(a)

YEAR	IN CITIES	IN VILLAGES	TOTAL
1960	863	573	1,463
1961	950	604	1,554
1962	1,041	678	1,719
1963	1,111	729	1,841
1964 - 65	1,189	841	2,030

¹ Amir Birjandi, Op. Cit., p. 5

² Mohammad Ali Toussi, Op. Cit., p. 34.

^a Ibid.

Qualitatively, school facilities in rural areas are crude, teaching methods outmoded and teachers poorly trained. Teachers' qualifications and training are extremely poor and need considerable improvement. Many of the best teachers are transferred to cities after a short period of teaching in villages. Consequently, with the unqualified teachers remaining in villages, it is extremely difficult for a school to achieve any worthwhile goal.

In the elementary schools of Iran the curricula in all public schools; urban, rural, and tribal are uniform. A rural child studies the same subjects which are set forth for an urban child regardless of the different living conditions. Such a curriculum obviously does not take into account the different needs of individuals. When in addition, such a subject - centered curriculum is put in the hands of untrained teachers, the outcome of school activities are to be guessed at best. Table II shows the curriculum followed in the primary schools of Iran.

TABLE 2
 SUBJECTS TAUGHT AND THEIR RESPECTIVE TIME
 ALLOCATION IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF
 IRAN^(a)

Subjects	Number of hours per week					
	grade I	grade II	grade III	grade IV	grade V	grade VI
Religious and Moral Instruction	3	3	2	2	3	3
Persian Language	12	12	9	9	7	7
Arithmetic and Geometry	2	2	4	4	4	4
Social Studies	2	2	3	3	3	3
Experimental Sciences	2	2	3	3	1	1
Arts and Handicrafts	5	5	5	5	6	6
Physical Exercise, Songs and Music	2	2	2	2	3	3
Caligraphy	-	-	-	-	1	1
T O T A L	28	28	28	28	28	28

^a Ibid., p. 10

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

The social, political and economic forces in rural Iran have significant implications for education. As a result of land reform the Iranian society is in the process of undergoing considerable changes. Landowners have already lost much of their power. Peasants have come to realize their rights. Economic development has created new needs. But rural education has lagged behind in that it failed to meet effectively the needs of rural people.

The village and tribal schools must have an integrated education that includes guidance in diet, clothing, shelter, and hygiene adapted to the possibilities of improvement of their own local conditions. Through the schools the parents and children must be taught to make a living and to cooperate with their neighbours, with the village, and with the community.

The present system of education is a system designed for towns and for the education of élite, but Iran has now reached a stage where this system must change in character. At this stage of development, it is important to develop a program of rural education that will place greater stress upon an understanding of the ways in which the national economy works and the place of agriculture in that economy.

These goals cannot be achieved unless an adequate number of qualified teachers are specially trained for rural areas. These teachers must be responsible not only for education of village pupils but also for leadership in the whole village or tribe.

The task of the teacher in rural areas is not so much that of giving instruction in the classroom but of providing an integrated education in social habits, agriculture techniques and the creation of a new attitude of mind. Teachers reared and educated in cities are usually unable to perform this task adequately.

The low productivity and poor conditions of rural people in Iran have, to a large extent, been due to the inefficiency of education in rural areas. Reconstruction of life in rural areas demands a reconstruction of rural education. This gives a special urgency to measures for improving the quality of rural teachers. The quality of life in Iran will largely depend on the quality of the teacher in the rural school. It is, therefore, necessary that there should be a wider understanding of the teacher's role and function and a greater attention to his preparation if he is expected to improve conditions of rural life. The next chapter will deal with the present practices in Iran for the preparation of teachers in rural areas.

CHAPTER II

PRESENT PRACTICES IN THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS IN IRAN

In the first chapter the social, political, economic and cultural background of rural Iran were discussed. It is the aim of this chapter to present a picture of the present practices in the preparation of teachers in Iran. This will be introduced by a brief description of the history of teachers training in Iran so as to see how these practices were evolved.

I. A Short History of Teacher Training in Iran and its Development

The beginning of the modern educational system in 1907 created new and urgent needs for trained teachers and administrators, textbooks, different teaching methods and more school buildings. The most pressing need was undoubtedly for qualified teachers.(1) Thousands of children crowded the classrooms and securing enough teachers to handle the work was therefore necessary. There were no trained teachers available for the purpose. The main source of supply was the old teachers who used to teach in Maktabas. Upon the establishment of the new

(1) Amin Banani, The Modernization of Iran (1921-1941) (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1961), P.94

system a large number of them closed their Maktabas and joined the Ministry of Education. Their former training was of little value under the new system. Apart from this source whoever could read and write was considered able to teach and was employed as a teacher. This situation was far from satisfactory.

Two ministers of education, Badir and Tadayyun, realised the importance of teacher training for elementary schools. In 1919, Badir founded the Normal School of Tehran, which was turned into the teachers' college for training secondary school teachers. And the second founded in 1928 a number of Normal Schools in the provincial seats of the country. A year afterwards most of these Normal Schools closed their doors because there were very few or no candidates.(1)

In 1921 the High Council of Education was created. This was a policy-making, supervisory, consultative adjunct to the Ministry of Education, with authority to pass on the status of administrators and teachers. Two of its duties, clearly set forth in the charter were 'to give serious consideration to the curricula of schools in Europe' and, even more significant, 'to prepare a curriculum for teacher training colleges for men and

(1) Issa Sadiq, Op.cit., P.103

women' - the first project for the professional training in the country.(1)

Although the Council was empowered to prepare a curriculum for teacher training colleges, it did not take any serious steps towards this end for many years. Teachers were working under very poor conditions, and there were no definite regulations governing the salaries and promotions of teachers. As the enrolment in the public schools increased, the need for teachers also increased. It was realised that the time had come when teacher training should be given more stress. To do away with the inefficient procedures in the employment of teachers and to pay more attention to their professional qualifications The Teacher Training Act of March 1934 was passed.

Article I of this Act required the Ministry of Education to establish 25 Normal Schools in Tehran and the provinces within five years. "A goal that was exceeded in 1939; and in the final year of Reza Shah's regime, 1940, there were thirty-six such colleges throughout the country".(2)

The Act introduced two types of teacher training institutions: one of the same level and standard as the secondary schools, for the training of primary school teachers and another of a university level, for the training of secondary school teachers. Candidates for the primary

(1) Amin Banani, Op.Cit., P.92

(2) Ibid

teachers' colleges were required to have a certificate of the first cycle of secondary schools. The course of study was two years at the end of which a certificate was granted. The teachers who graduated from these schools were taken into service as civil servants with the right to benefit from pension regulations and permanent tenure. The teachers who were already in service before 1934 could, by meeting certain requirements or by serving for a certain period of time, be recognised as qualified teachers and acquire the same status and salary as the graduates from the above schools. (1)

A Compulsory Education Law was passed in 1943 introducing a third category of teachers as an emergency measure to meet the requirements of compulsory education. It required the Ministry to open special classes in places where no normal schools existed. These classes accepted students who had had an elementary school certificate and trained them for one or two years (2) Graduates of these classes were called "assistant teachers", and a separate salary scale was established for them. This practice, however, was discontinued in 1959 because its standards were too low. Figures cannot be secured as to the number of assistant teachers, suffice it to say that a great majority of them are still in service in rural areas.

(1) Manuchehr Afzal and Issa Sadiq, Op.Cit., P.455

(2) Compulsory Education Law of 1943. Art. 9.

Article XIII of the Compulsory Education Law made the situation even worse by stipulating that as long as the number of graduates of teacher training schools was not sufficient to meet the requirements of elementary schools, the Ministry of Education could employ teachers from among the holders of elementary school certificates. Thus, by virtue of the power given by this article, the Directors of Education in the various provinces could employ any elementary school graduate as a teacher, and many untrained people found their way into the teaching profession especially in rural areas. These types of teachers were employed under contract and were called "contract teachers". (1)

Another category of teachers in service are the old teachers who may have had no modern secondary schooling at all or six years of education with no professional training whatsoever. But since they have served for more than ten years, they are recognized as certificated teachers and enjoy tenure privileges. Most of the school principals of rural areas are chosen from among these teachers.

The increase in enrolment became more rapid after 1950. "The statistics of primary school enrolment show that in 1917-8 there were only 24,033 pupils in schools. In 1940-1 this reached 167,682 and by 1960-1 the total enrolment in the primary schools was close to a million

(1) Ibid., Art. 13.

and a half." (1) Under the pressure of great numbers of pupils who enrolled, the government was obliged to adopt temporary measures. High school graduates were employed and assigned to teaching with no pre-service training. New contract teachers and daily-paid teachers with no training at all were called to the job. (2) All these added to the problem of unqualified teachers.

II. Types of Existing Teacher Training Centers

At the present time teacher training in Iran is undertaken by the following schools and programs:

A. Normal Schools.- Normal Schools started in 1934, admitting men and women students, and until 1963, were the main source of producing teachers for primary schools. But since the establishment of Education Corps, in 1963, the policy has been to accept only women students. At present there are certain normal boarding schools for the training of women teachers for rural areas which conduct courses for two years. The applicants are required to have a certificate of first cycle of general secondary education, and should come from a village community. (3)

Normal Schools charge no fees, and the government provides all students with books, stationary, medical

(1) Mohammad Ali Toussi, Op.Cit., P.33.

(2) New contract teachers are those with 10th or 11th grades who are employed on the basis of a contract with a low salary. Daily-paid teachers are those with 7th, 8th or 9th grades education and are paid on the basis of each day they work.

(3) Mohammad Ali Toussi, Op. Cit., P.29

care, and money for trips and excursions; on starting their training the students should promise to serve for five years wherever the Ministry sends them, or repay the expenses. (1)

In 1965 there were 15 normal schools of this type, all of them located in large cities, with 798 students in the whole country, (2) [an average of 53 students per school]. The reason why these normal schools fail to attract many students is that traditionally Iranians are reluctant to send their daughters to boarding schools.

After graduation the graduates are distributed among smaller towns and villages. Although they are trained for rural areas, the curriculum offered to them lacks the necessary courses and activities which are needed in the preparation for rural teaching. The curriculum which is followed in these normal schools is the one originally designed for preparing teachers for cities. No changes or modifications are made to adapt the curriculum to the rural environment. Table 3 shows the curriculum followed in normal schools

(1) Teacher Training Law of 1934. Art,7.

(2) Mohammad Ali Toussi, Op. Cit., P.29

Table 3

SUBJECTS TAUGHT AT NORMAL SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS (a)

Subjects	Class Hours Per Week	
	First Year	Second Year
Psychology and Education	3	2
Persian Language and Literature	4	3
Arabic	2	2
Foreign Language (English)	2	2
Mathematics	4	3
Physics	2	2
Chemistry	1	1
Hygiene and Child Care	1	1
Natural Science	2	2
History and Geography	2	2
Home Economics	2	2
Painting and Handi-work	2	1
Physical Education	2	2
Scouting	1	-
Music and Songs	2	2
Religion	1	1
Method of Teaching Koran	1	1
Practice Teaching	-	1
Total	34	34

a. Source: Information collected from the Ministry of Education. Op.Cit.

B. Rural Teacher Training Centers.- These Centers train teachers for rural primary schools. The course lasts for two years. The conditions of entry are similar to those for normal schools with the additional requirement that candidates must have experience in rural life and some knowledge of farming. With the financial and advisory assistance of Point Four and the Near East Foundation these centers were progressing, but the establishment of the Education Corps put a stop to their expansion. In 1965, there were four institutions of this type in the whole country with a total enrolment of 243 students. (1) The courses of study are the same as those of the normal schools with the exclusion of English, Arabic, and music; and inclusive of social aids, hygiene, and first aids.

C. Tribal Normal Schools.- Tribal education is very recent in Iran. The High Council of Education approved a plan for the establishment of a Normal Tribal Teacher Training School in Shiraz in 1953. (2) From 1953 to 1964 eight schools of this type were opened in various parts of the country, and during this period, 465 teachers attended them. However in 1964 all these

(1) Educational Statistics in Iran (Tehran: Ministry of Education, Bureau of Statistics, 1966.), P.29. Table No. 6.

(2) Tribal Education in Iran (Tehran: Kayhan Press, 1965.), P.7.

schools were abolished except the one in Shiraz. (1)
In 1965 there were 80 boys and 16 girls enrolled at
this school. (2)

Admission to these schools is granted to
candidates who are members of a tribe provided they
have a minimum education of six years elementary
schools. They are trained for one year and then sent
to their tribes.

Upon graduation each is assigned a teaching
position with a fixed salary of 5,000 Rials a month.
They move with the tribes and classes are held in
white tents. These moving schools are designed to
accompany the tribes while on their annual migration.

A major shortcoming of the program
is perhaps the imposition of normal school
curriculum fitted to urban schools without
any adaptation to the tribal schools. The
tribal educationists have focussed atten-
tion upon this deficiency and are examin-
ing the possibility of designing more work
oriented to practical programs with some
vocational training suited to the special
economic conditions of tribal life. (3)

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- (1) Clarence Hendershat, White Tents in the Mountains:
(unpub. mimeo.) A report on the tribal schools of
Fars Province, (Produced by Communication Resources
Branch U.S. Aid/Iran, 1965.) P.14.
- (2) Educational Statistics in Iran, Op. Cit., P.29.
Table No. 6.
- (3) Tribal Education in Iran, Op. Cit., P.12.

D. The "One-Year" Course for Girls.- In 1960 the education branch of the Plan Organization estimated that the Ministry of Education is in need of 4,000 teachers per year and recommended a "one-year" course as an emergency measure. This measure was designed to produce at the outset 2,500 primary school teachers from high school graduates. In the first year 1,849 students registered for this course, but gradually the enrolment increased. (1) In 1965 there were 25 teacher training centers of this kind with a total enrolment of 3,571 students. (2) Under this scheme women teachers for urban primary schools are trained.

Although these institutions are aimed at preparing teachers for urban areas, in practice, graduates with high grades are kept in the cities, while those with lower grades are sent into the smaller towns, and those with the lowest grades are sent to villages. Obviously a city reared girl who has acquired an outlook of city life can hardly adjust to the hard conditions of rural areas. For curriculum see Table 4.

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- (1) Shapour Russek et al, Education: Third Plan Frame (Mimeographed.) Tahran: Division of Economic Affairs, Plan Organization 1961.), P.58.
- (2) Mohammad Ali Toussi, Op. Cit., P.26.

Table 4

SUBJECTS TAUGHT AT ONE-YEAR
TEACHER TRAINING CENTERS FOR GIRLS (a)

Subjects	Class Hours Per Week	
	First Semester	Second Semester
Persian Language	5	5
Child Psychology	2	2
Principles of Education	2	2
Health	2	2
Music	1	1
Religion	2	1
Method of Teaching Persian Language	4	4
Method of Teaching Mathematics	4	4
Method of Teaching Science	2	2
Method of Teaching Social Studies	2	2
Practice Teaching	5	5
Library, Physical education, clubs	6	5
Preparation of teaching aids	2	-
Educational Organization	-	1
Children's Literature	-	1
Painting and Handi-work	-	2
Total	39 hours	39 hours

a. Source. Mohammad Ali Toussi, Present Educational System of Iran (mimeographed), Tehran, Iran: Ministry of Education, General Department of Planning and Studies, 1965), P.27.

E. Education Corps Project.- At present the Education Corpsmen are the main source of supply of teachers for rural areas. Mention was made, in the introduction, that the formation of Education Corps was one of the items of a revolutionary program of six points approved by a public referendum in 1963.

Social reforms cannot be brought about in a country where the majority of people are illiterate. Thus, the Education Corps project was initiated as a nation-wide program against illiteracy. Prior to land reform thousands of high school graduates had to go through compulsory military service each year. The army did not have the capacity to accept all of them, and because of the nature of their training they refrained from manual works and sought white-collar jobs which were not available to most of them. As a result, they often created social and political problems. The Education Corps program was designed to tap this source of manpower and absorb high school graduates into teaching in the rural areas.

In general the plan consists of using the energy and the education of young high school graduates to teach rural people within the period they would normally be doing their military service. To accomplish this, high school graduates, 21 years of age, are recruited twice each year for the army. Candidates are sent to

one of the 21 training centers scattered in various parts of the country, where they follow an intensive four months' course which includes military training, teaching, and various subjects, by way of preparing them to contribute towards the welfare of the village life. (1)

Military subjects occupy one-third of the training period which includes: a) Basic Training, b) Weapon Training, and c) Tactical Training. The remaining period is devoted to basic teaching techniques. These include: Classroom Management, Methods of teaching Persian, Arithmetic and Science, Educational Psychology, Health and Sanitation, First Aid, Agricultural Extension, Community Development, Rural Sociology, and village laws.(2) The detailed curriculum is given in Table 5.

After the completion of this four months of training they are assigned to villages which have no schools. There they teach for fourteen months. The village often provides them with accommodation and a furnished classroom. Uniform, books and salary are provided by the State. Each Education Corpsman receive 2,400 Rials (\$32) a month, and expenses are carried by the Development Plan Organization under its education budget.(3)

(1) Amir Birjandi, Op.Cit., pp.15-25

(2) Ibid., P.25

(3) There have been Three Development Plans in Iran. The first (1949-1956), the second (1956-1962), and the third starting from 1962 and will end in 1967, with the objectives of increasing the levels of production; developing agriculture and industry; improving public health; and raising the standard of living and the level of education.

Each Corpsman is normally in charge of 20 to 35 pupils, but if the number exceeds 35 another teacher is sent to the district. Classes are coeducational and open to children of 6 to 12 years of age. Boys are the majority. During the period of 14 months, the pupils study two books and this is supposed to bring them to a level equivalent to the second primary grade. Evening classes are also arranged for adults. In addition to his teaching duties, the Corpsman is required to give first aid if necessary, and elementary instruction in hygiene and medical care. He does everything to improve the living conditions of the villagers.

After completion of 18 months of service, corpsmen who prove efficient, and so desire, may be employed by the Ministry of Education as regular teachers, provided they attend another four months' training course, which is given to them in two summer session periods.

For implementing the program successfully, the Ministry of Education, the Iranian Army, the Ministries of the Interior, Health, Agriculture and Justice, the Gendarmerie, the Plan Organization and the Department of Community Development, all cooperate and participate in the training of corpsmen and the supervision of the work in the villages. (1)

(1) Amir Birjandi, Op. Cit., P.24.

The Education Corps Program has four kinds of objectives: educational, economic, social and political. Educationally, the objective is to give a chance to all children in Iranian villages to attend school. The economic objective of the program is directed towards the provision of a better standard of living and the improvement of agricultural practices. Socially, the program aims at raising the social standards of the rural people; and finally the political objectives revolve around the accomplishment of national unity. (1)

Latest statistics received from Education Corps Organization indicate that until May 1966, five groups composed of 14,362 corpsmen had finished their service, 6,500 of them had been recruited by the Ministry of Education as regular teachers. Groups, six, seven and eight composed of 11,933 corpsmen were on the job. The same source shows that 403,818 boys and 101,061 girls have been taught how to read. 220,361 male and 9,408 female adults have also attained literacy through Education Corps Program. (2)

The Education Corps Program is still in its experimental stage and, as a new program, it has some shortcomings. In the first place, four months of training, two thirds of which is devoted to education, do not

(1) Ibid., pp. 15-22

(2) Information Communicated to the writer by the Ministry of Education, op.cit.

seem to train the Corpsmen adequately. 2) Owing to the lack of communication facilities and rough roads most villages are inaccessible. 3) In most cases the Corpsmen are sent to areas other than their own districts where they are unfamiliar with the manners and dialects of the people. As a result, they face difficulties in implementing the program. 4) The Corpsmen, in most cases, cannot find suitable accommodation for living, while adequate housing for village teachers is especially needed. 5) In some cases lack of understanding and appreciation of the program by the Corpsmen results in lack of enthusiasm for the job they have undertaken.

In spite of these shortcomings, one cannot deny valuable services rendered by this program. Since every attention is now directed towards the promotion of this program in Iran, it is hoped that the deficiencies will be remedied in the near future.

Table 5

TIME TABLE AND NUMBER OF HOURS ALLOTTED TO EACH SUBJECT FOR FOUR MONTHS TRAINING COURSE FOR CORPSMEN. (a)

Subject	Number of Hours per Week	Total Hours in 4 months
Religion	2 hours	28
Method of Teaching Persian	3 "	42
Method of Teaching Arithmetic	2 "	28
Method of Teaching Sciences	2 "	28
Method of Teaching Social Studies	2 "	28
Elementary Education, psychology (growth and learning)	3 "	42
Physical Education and Childrens' Plays	1 "	14
Rural Health and First Aids	2 "	28
Rural Sociology and Economics	2 "	28
Agriculture	2 "	28
Village Laws	1 "	14
Principles of Leadership and Corpsmen's duties	1 "	14
Children's Songs	1 "	14
Total	24 hours	336 hours

This program is designed on the basis of 24 hours a week for 14 weeks, and the total hours for four months is 336 hours

(a) Source: Education Corps Organization, Four Months Curriculum for Corpsmen, (Tehran, Iran: 1965), P.2. [in Persian, translated by the writer].

III. Evaluation of the Present Practices in Training Teachers in Iran

Since the Education Corps Program is administered independently under the Education Corps Organization, it was dealt with, more or less in detail, separately. What comes hereunder is a general statement about the procedures used in selecting and training teachers in other training institutions.

A. Selection of Candidates.- Candidates for teacher training institutions in Iran are not carefully chosen. Article III of the bylaws of the teacher training law of 1934 requires the candidate to hold a certificate of the first cycle of secondary school, a satisfactory medical examination record signed by three physicians known to the Ministry of Education, a certificate of good conduct, and a signed promise indicating his willingness to work for five years. (1)

In case the number of candidates is more than the requirement an entrance examination is held to select the best qualified candidates or their academic records are reviewed and those with the highest averages are chosen. The entrance examination consists of an oral examination and a written test in the following subjects: Persian, a composition, mathematics and general knowledge. But no attempt is made to rate the personality and character of the candidate. The same procedure is carried

(1) Bylaws of Teacher Training Act 1934. Art. III

out in all different institutions with certain modifications as regards their academic background.

The selection of teachers, especially for rural schools, is not a matter which can be based solely on the result of examinations. The rural teacher must be mature and possess a genuine interest in the rural community and its people. He must carry many responsibilities besides his usual teaching. Thus his selection must be made on the basis of well recognized criteria and not only on his scholastic success.

B. Curriculum.- The curriculum in teacher training centers is prescribed from above without due regard to the different needs and interest of the various localities. To quote overseas consultants:

The curricula for both the men's and women's teacher training schools are prescribed by the Ministry of Education... all of the curricula currently in force are rigid, formal, authoritarian, crowded, and in varying degrees unsuited to modern industrial and agricultural society. They make no allowance whatsoever for variations of needs between individuals, regions, individual schools, or between the fluctuating demands of the labour market.(1)

(1) Overseas Consultants, Inc. Report on Seven Year Development Plan for the Plan Organization of the Imperial Government of Iraq, Vol. II, (New York: 1949). pp. 102-103

As shown in the time tables 4 and 5, only three hours are devoted to education. The trainees receive very little training in Psychology or in how to teach. The Curriculum is subject - centered and academic. Theoretical aspects are more emphasized with little consideration given to functional knowledge and implications for teaching. Emphasis is put on intellectual training. Development of personality and character of the prospective teacher are often neglected.

Teacher training institutions must make it their business to provide their trainees with functional knowledge through a sound curriculum. They should provide closer integration of the total school program with Community life and needs. The preparation of rural teachers should take into account the problems which rural teachers have to face. Their education should include studies in rural life and experience with country children under rural conditions. The curriculum of these training centers should, thus, allow for greater flexibility to provide for individual differences and meet the needs and interests of different localities.

C. Methods of Instruction.- Most of the instructors in the training centers are not specialists in education. They are subject-matter teachers in high schools who come to normal schools as part-time teachers. Conse-

quently they do not show much interest in the affairs of the training schools. Instructors who are professionally trained to teach in normal schools are in a better position to guide student-teachers, but the methods used are mostly lecture technique and study - recitation method.

Recently some progress in teaching methods has taken place. Demonstration lessons are prepared by the students of the normal schools and corrected by the teacher before they are given back in the class. These lessons are prepared in line with Herbartian principles. Teachers supervise practice teaching lessons and point out mistakes after the lessons are over.

Aside from this, student-teachers are not encouraged to engage in personal experiences which could enable them to face the problems of rural teaching in a better way. Modern teaching concepts such as unit teaching, project method, problem solving are not known to most of them.

D. Examinations.- Teacher training institutions are subject to governmental regulations in the same manner as other public schools. Thus, their examinations are administered according to the regulations governing other branches of public education.(1)

(1) Bylaws of examination of normal schools, 1936, Art.I.

The office of examinations in the Ministry of Education administers and controls the final examinations of all primary and secondary schools, including teacher training institutions. The questions for final examination are prepared by experts in the examination office, sealed and sent to the provinces through registered mail. The examination papers are, in most cases, corrected by external examiners. Diplomas and certificates are granted on the basis of these examinations without reference to the judgement of the teachers who have taught these students.

The examination for practice teaching is held in the presence of education teachers. The subject to be taught by the student is chosen by lot, and the student is given half-an-hour to prepare for his assignment. A student who fails twice in one class is dropped. (1) Those who complete the requirements satisfactorily are awarded a certificate which entitles them to teach in elementary schools.

The existing system of examination does not yield to the professional growth of student-teachers. As success in examinations depends on memorization of the fact, students rarely get an insight into things. What the examinations ask, and the manner in which they are conducted,

(1) Ibid., Art. VII.

are major teaching devices. Therefore, prospective teachers should not only be examined by modern techniques of evaluation, but also should be familiarized with these techniques during their training period.

E. In-Service Training.- In-service training for teachers in Iran is mostly held for teachers of specialized subjects in the secondary schools. Little attention is paid to in-service growth of elementary teachers. Whenever an in-service program is conducted for elementary teachers, almost all participants are city teachers. Rural teachers who, in fact, need more attention are often neglected in such programs. Contacts between the training institutions and their graduates are usually terminated at the time of graduation. No attempts are made at arranging follow-up programs for former graduates.

In recent years, the Near East Foundation and Point Four conducted some short courses in the centers of Provinces with the aim of acquainting the teachers in service with recent developments in the field of education. These courses were very useful and familiarized the participants with new techniques and methods. These programs were discontinued, but the need for in-service training was recognized.

Mention was made previously that the majority of teachers, especially in rural areas, are "assistant teach-

ers" whose qualifications are not adequate. To give some incentives to these teachers and acquaint them with modern methods of instruction, the school authorities recently organized special classes during the summer months called the 240.- hours classes conducted in two summer sessions. Teachers who attended and passed the necessary examinations were able to shift from the grade of assistant teachers to that of teachers with a resultant increase in their salaries. This incentive worked well and persuaded most of the rural teachers to participate in such refresher courses. This program is still conducted each year and is the only in-service program offered to elementary teachers.

From the above brief description of present practices in the training of elementary school teachers it is possible to draw two important conclusions:-

(1) Many of the present practices are traditional; inadequate to prepare the teachers for the increasingly important role which elementary education is required to play in the development of the nation.

(2) There are attempts, however, to experiment with newer approaches in the field of teacher training; such as the Education Corps Program and special in-service programs for the improvement of teachers in service. But these experimental programs deserve greater attention and further improvement.

IV. Welfare and Security of Teachers

A. Tenure.- In accordance with subdivision I, II, and IV of Article 2 of the Civil Service Law the government is obliged to appoint the graduates of normal schools to a teaching or administrative position in the academic year immediately after their graduation. The first year of teaching in the schools is considered a probationary period. If the Ministry of Education is not satisfied with the services of the teachers on probation, they can be dismissed. (1)

Once the one year probationary period has expired the employee enjoys permanent tenure and cannot be dismissed unless proven guilty in the court. But this privilege is not as real as it appears, since the civil service law empowers the Ministry of Education to suspend any employee and keep him on the waiting list, with or without any cause, subject to the discretion of the Minister. This procedure does not afford the teacher the right of defending himself, nor does it compel the Minister to give any reasons for his action. Suspended employees naturally do not receive full salary. This arbitrary power to suspend has resulted in insecurity in the teaching profession which has been harmful both to the teacher and his work.

(1) Teacher Training Law of 1934, Art. 8.

As might be expected, the privilege of enjoying permanent tenure is only granted to official teachers and assistant teacher. The contract teachers and daily-paid teachers cannot derive any benefit from the law, except their monthly or daily salary. They can be expelled at any time.

B. Teacher's Load.- The maximum teaching load in an Iranian elementary school is 28 hours per week. All classes in the elementary schools are supposed to be in session for the same length of time, namely five hours a day - three periods in the morning and two periods in the afternoon - except Thursday afternoon during which time there is no school. Friday is the official week end holiday in Iran.

In larger cities where specialized teachers in Physical training, music, handicrafts, painting and calligraphy are available, their teaching assignment may be cut shorter due to the fact that they have to spend some time in travelling to and from the various schools. But in villages such specialized teachers are not available, so the village teachers must work 28 hours a week.

C. Health.- At present there is no actual provision for taking care of the health of teachers serving in the cities. Physicians of the Ministry of Education, while visiting the schools, may examine and treat the teachers

who are not seriously ill. But a teacher must provide for the medicine himself. There is a department of welfare in the Ministry of Education which assists teachers in case of serious illness, but its activities are limited and do not reach all teachers who are in need of such assistance. It is worth mentioning that each month 3% of the teacher's base salary is deducted for health insurance.

Until a few years ago teachers used to benefit from a limited insurance which was cancelled recently due to financial limitations. Since then, teachers have been struggling to persuade the Ministry to renew the contract.

But for the corpsmen and other rural teachers a contract was signed, on March 20, 1966, between the Ministry of Education and the Iranian Insurance Company according to which corpsmen and other rural teachers pay a sum of 54,000 Rials (\$7.00) annually and in return they are entitled to the following privileges:-

- a. In case of death as a result of illness, 55,000 Rials will be paid to their heirs.
- b. In case of death as a result of accident 110,000 Rials will be paid to their heirs.
- c. In case of injury as a result of accident 55,000 Rials will be paid to the Patient.

d. In case of illness or an accident which requires surgery or hospitalization a sum of not more than 25,000^{Rials} will be paid to the patient.

This Contract has been in effect since March 21, 1966, (1) and has certainly been a good step towards the welfare of rural teachers.

D. Teachers' Salaries. - According to Article 12 of the Compulsory Education Law the service ladder, in the case of teachers, is divided into ten grades starting from grade one. Promotions and increments are automatic and depend only on the period of time necessary to remain in each grade. Personality, character and in-service training are not taken into account. The period necessary for remaining in each grade is as follows: one year for grades one to three; two years for grades four to six and three years for grades seven to ten inclusive. (2)

The salary schedule is on a twelve month basis, and teachers are paid during the summer vacation. Table 6 shows the salary schedule of teachers and assistant teachers from grade one to ten. In addition to the basic salary, certain allowances are granted to teachers as follows:-

(1) Masudi, Ettellaat, (Tehran: Daily Newspaper), March 28, 1966.

(2) Bylaws of Compulsory Education, 1943. Art. 12.

Married teachers get 320 Rials per month as marriage allowance. For assistant teachers this amounts to 212 Rials. Teachers or assistant teachers who have children receive 100 Rials per child per month. Teachers who serve in areas other than their place of residence receive an allowance not more than one-half of the basic salary of grade 1. Where the climate is bad, teachers are paid a hardship allowance amounting from 20 to 25 percent of their salaries.

All the above mentioned privileges are for those teachers who are under the provision of the civil service law and enjoying permanent tenure. Contract teachers and daily-paid teachers do not benefit from any of these allowances, but receive a fixed salary which varies from 2,000 to 5,000 Rials. Daily-paid teachers are not paid for Fridays and holidays. They are paid only for the days they work.

Although constant efforts have been made to raise the salaries of teachers - in fact their salaries have been raised twice during the last decade - their salary is still not enough, especially in the case of contract and daily paid teachers. This is due to the high cost of living. The Shah being aware of this fact writes:

As an essential preliminary task, we must offer better salaries to our teachers... Working with young people can be one of the most rewarding experiences in life, but less

so if you are worrying about shoes and shelter for your own children.(1)

Apart from the fact that the salary is determined by law, a major shortcoming in the administrative procedure is that the promotions are not given on time. Sometimes teachers remain in the same grade for years before they are promoted. This situation is discouraging. To quote Professor Akrawi:

Nothing kills the spirit and morale of teachers worse than not giving their promotions on time. If you do not show any appreciation to them, they will tend to lose interest.(2)

(1) Mohammad Reza Shah Pahlavi, Op. Cit., P.253

(2) Adopted from class notes taken in Educational Administration, Course 330, class taught by Professor Matta Akrawi, June 8, 1966.

Table 6

SALARY SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS OF ELEMENTARY
SCHOOLS IN IRAN WHO ARE UNDER PERMANENT
TENURE, ON MONTHLY BASIS (a)

Grade	Assistant Teachers (in Rials)	Teachers (in Rials)
1	5,000	5,000
2	5,000	5,600
3	5,000	7,200
4	5,000	8,800
5	5,000	10,000
6	5,600	11,200
7	6,400	12,400
8	7,900	13,200
9	9,500	14,000
10	10,500	14,800 (b)

(a) Information collected through Ministry of Education from The Department of Personnel. Letter No. 1436/23271, dated May 28, 1966. The same letter indicates that the salary for contract teachers and daily-paid teachers ranges from 2,000 to 5,000 Rials.

(b) \$1.00 = Rials 80

E. Retirement.- According to the requirements of Article 15 of the teacher training law of 1934, teachers are entitled to retire at the age of 50 regardless of the number of years of service. The government also can dispense with their services provided they are fifty years of age and have at least twenty years of service.(1) Every month 8% of the basic salary is deducted by the Ministry of Education as a deposit toward retirement. This amount seems high, but teachers are entitled to a full salary if they retire after thirty years of service.

In practice, those who have not attained the age of 50 cannot ask for retirement before they have served for 20 years. Thus, a teacher who is forty and has 20 years of service will receive one thirtieth of his basic salary multiplied by 20. If a teacher has served for 25 years and asks for retirement, he will receive one thirtieth of his salary multiplied by 25. In other words, 25 days of one month of his basic salary.

There is no provision for the retirement of contract and daily-paid teachers.

(1) Teacher Training Law of 1934, Art. 15.

V. Teachers and Rural Education.

The status of elementary school teachers in Iran is not high. As Sadiq points out:

One of the problems facing education in Iran is that of recruiting and keeping teachers in service. This is due to the low social position of teachers, since teaching, especially in lower grades, has little social prestige. This is partly due to the traditional attitude towards primary teaching and partly to other reasons. Traditionally, the lower the grade a teacher taught the less was his knowledge and so his prestige.(1)

Moreover, teachers who are assigned to rural areas either came from urban districts or from rural communities. If they come from urban areas, they usually cannot adjust themselves to conditions in villages. There is a tendency on the part of the peasants to look down upon them. Feeling no sense of belonging or acceptance, they try their best to move out and transfer to the cities.

On the other hand, if they have a rural background, usually they are sent to villages upon graduation when they are still young to assume full responsibility of a

(1) Manuchehr Afzal and Issa Sadiq, Op. Cit., P.452

school. Again, traditionally, villagers do not have a great deal of respect for young people and do not cooperate with them as they should. All these factors discourage the young rural teacher and tend to cause him to leave the village school as soon as he finds another position.

VI. Women Teachers.- One of the crucial problems facing the expansion of education in rural Iran is providing enough women teachers who would be willing to go to remote areas. Teaching is regarded as the most respectable job for women in Iran, if they have to work at all. But they are reluctant to accept teaching positions offered them in localities other than their own home towns or cities.

Rural women are ignorant about health and child care and because of their ignorance infant mortality is great in rural areas. What makes the situation worse is that farmers do not believe in the education of girls. But assuming that they are convinced to send their daughters to school, it would be useless to teach them in schools principles that are contradicted in homes governed by ignorant mothers. Thus, education of the girls and their mothers must go simultaneously. It follows that there is need for a group of well-prepared women teachers who go out to remote areas, and besides teaching the girls,

organize conferences and clubs for rural women; go to the homes of mothers who need help; demonstrate home economic practices in their own houses and show them the elementary rudiments of child care and sanitation.

In 1964-65 the total enrolment in primary schools in rural areas was 841,002 (690,173 boys and 150,872 girls) which shows a proportion of 18% only (1) In the same year out of 21,445 teachers serving in rural areas only 1,777 were women, a proportion of 9% of all rural teachers. (2)

If the country is to make progress, the proportion of girls in primary schools should rise, and this cannot be done unless more women teachers are prepared.

(1) Educational Statistics in Iran, Op. Cit., P.3.

(2) Ibid, P.31. Table No. 7.

Concluding Statement

In this chapter the development of teacher training in Iran and the various schemes for the preparation of teachers were discussed. From what has been written, it may be gathered that conditions for selecting trainees are not adequate; that there is no attempt to develop the candidates professionally. The curriculum is prescribed, rigid, and inflexible. Technical and professional courses do not receive much consideration. The prospective teachers are not taught how to teach. Methods of instruction in these institutions are often outmoded, but recently a sign of progress has appeared. The present system of examinations is inadequate. New methods of evaluation should be introduced.

Although there is some provision for in-service training, such programs need further improvement. As most of the teachers in the rural areas are inadequately trained the need for a sound in-service program for raising their professional standards is felt. Various factors contribute to unwillingness of rural teachers to remain in villages. Rural teaching should be made more attractive if teachers are to be retained in rural areas.

Women teachers present a different problem. There are not enough candidates who are willing to serve in the remote areas. The proportion of women teachers to men teachers is low. A policy must be adopted to attract

more women to rural areas if progress is to be made. Tribal education needs special attention. There is a great need for more mature teachers to be assigned in tribal areas to call forth respect on the part of the tribes. The number of tribal normal schools should be expanded to meet the requirement.

Although the rural population makes up the backbone of Iran's economy, they have been unduly neglected in the past. This deficiency has recently been discovered and steps have been taken for future development. The Education Corps Project is designed to narrow the gap which exists between educational facilities provided in cities and those in rural areas. But the government at the moment is so engaged with the Education Corps Program that it has neglected other institutions which train teachers for rural areas.

Schools in rural areas of Iran should be oriented towards the people's life situation and agricultural activities. i.e. basic education. The school program should help the people get more satisfying results from their work through providing them with appropriate education. To do so, teachers need special training in agriculture and other skills to carry out their role. The teacher in the village should become a community leader who recognises and appreciates rural values. This cannot be done unless teachers are adequately trained for this purpose.

The next chapter will deal with theories and practices concerning rural education and the preparation of its teachers.

CHAPTER III

THEORIES AND PRACTICES IN RURAL TEACHER TRAINING

1. Philosophical, Psychological and Sociological Aspects of the Problem.

Teacher education problems cannot be solved apart from the total educational organization of a country. Projects which focus on teacher education alone, without considering the educational philosophy, the psychological attitudes of the people involved and the societal context in which the people live, are apt to cause an imbalance in the educational development of a nation, or fall short of optimum achievement because of lack of progress in the supporting educational activities. (1)

A. Educational Philosophy.- In the light of the foregoing statement a study of the total educational organization necessarily begins with its foundation, the basic educational philosophy of a country. Thus, the basic educational philosophy of Iran should be examined to see whether it meets the needs of a changing society or not.

When the Overseas Consultants Commission made

(1) Verna A. Carley, Report of Progress in Teacher Education (Washington D.C.: Office of Educational Services, International Cooperation Administration, 1960), P. 91.

its 1949 report on the First Seven Year Development Plan they concluded that:

The principal weakness in the educational structure of Iran is its educational philosophy. The existing school system has been relatively successful in accomplishing the apparent aims of its founders three-quarters of a century ago, which were to produce a distinguished intellectual elite and to furnish an instrument by which the thoughts and the actions of the common people might be efficiently manipulated. The existing system is anachronistic and unsatisfactory because of a changed social philosophy rather than because of technical failure of the schools. There is today general agreement that the nation's educational system has failed to meet the needs of modern Iran to date, and that it is even less equipped to cope with the complex demands of an expanding modern economy and progressively growing society. The French system of education, as adopted in Iran, has been essentially authoritarian, highly centralized, and based upon a theory of the encyclopedia of knowledge. (1)

Thus, the existing educational philosophy of Iran, as was described, does not meet the needs of a modern and changing society. It is based on the premise that the school's responsibility is to teach factual knowledge and the skills essential to their learning. This viewpoint regards education as something that goes on only in schoolrooms and as a process of learning from book. No opportunity is offered to relate what goes on outside and around it. Moreover the standard and

(1) Overseas Consultants, OP. Cit., pp. 82-83

uniform curriculum which must be followed according to this philosophy do not take the individual differences of pupils into account, and do not regard the needs of different localities.

The writer does not intend and is not competent enough to suggest a philosophy of education for Iran. But so far as this study is concerned some guidelines may be given. The writer believes that a new philosophy is necessary to give purpose and direction to the educational activities in Iran which can meet the different needs of different localities. Fundamental in this philosophy should be the idea that urban and rural communities have different needs which must be treated accordingly. A clear-cut point of view that the rural school has a definite responsibility in assisting the people to solve their problems more effectively is essential. Officials in the Ministry of Education must be aware of the responsibilities and opportunities for the improvement of community life through a more functional rural school program, and must act on this awareness. They, as well as the rural people themselves, must accept the idea that the school is an instrument which can be used to assist the people of the community to solve their immediate pressing problems. The following statement well expresses this philosophy:

An important step in the improvement of the community is the development and acceptance of the idea that one of the basic purposes of the rural school is to assist the people of the community to utilize the school itself for the improvement of their general living conditions. The acceptance of this idea makes necessary an educational program for out-of-school youth and adults in connection with the regular school program. This involves cooperative activities carried on by lay leaders, children, and teachers with the general aim of making the community a healthy, wholesome, and satisfactory place in which to live. Of course, the school cannot do this job alone, but it is the logical agency through which some of the efforts of other agencies working toward the same goal may be coordinated.

The revitalized rural school program should cease to be patterned after the urban program. It should possess its own distinctive features. A major part of its materials and activities should be drawn out of the school environment, and efforts should be directed toward the improvement of living within the rural community. The first step, therefore, in the improvement of rural life and education, is the development and wide acceptance of a new concept of the purposes of the school. (1)

B. Psychological Attitudes.— One of the important functions of rural education is rural reconstruction, but the psychological attitudes of the Iranian villagers create a great obstacle to such reconstruction. As was mentioned in the first chapter, Iranian villagers are fatalistic. They have a tendency to depend on others. They have no confidence in them-

(1) The School and the Changing Pattern of Country Life, Report of the Southern Rural Life Conference, 1943, sponsored by George Pealudy College for Teachers, Vanderbilt University, Scarrit College, and Fisk University, 1943, p. 63.

selves and do not believe that they can do anything to alter their environment. They are content with their poor conditions of life and do not attempt or wish for change. They are not to be blamed for such attitudes, since it is partly due to their dependence on their landlords all their lives.

A proper system of rural education implies a constructive approach to the solution of this psychological problem. It will destroy the fatalism, and give the villager the necessary self-confidence and make him feel that, to a large extent, he is the maker of his destiny. In other words, it will so change the outlook of the average villager that he will desire reconstruction on certain lines, know how to bring it about, and feel confident that he can achieve it through his own efforts. (1)

C. Societal Context.— Taking the matter from the sociological point of view, we should first recognize the importance of the societal context. The nature of society has vital bearing upon the procedures and methods of education. For example, practices suit-

(1) The original thought is credited to J.P. Naik, Research and Experiment in Rural Education (Ministry of Education: Government of India, 1953), P. 27. which the writer has adapted with certain modifications regarding to the situation in Iran.

able and adequate for the simple, stable society of generations past cannot meet the requirements of the complex and changing society of today. (1) Likewise, practices suitable for urban communities are not suitable for rural areas, since there are great differences in the environment and outlook of the people. As pointed out by Burton W. Kreitlaw:

Any consideration of education in rural communities would be incomplete and narrow unless it were interpreted against the sociological background from which it stemmed. Rural people and urban people are not alike. They often speak differently, act differently, and even think differently. This is the result of the different environmental influences thrust upon them by the physical, social, and economic characteristics of the communities in which they live.(2)

This statement is pertinent to the case of Iran, where rural and urban environments differ considerably so far as various resources and lacks are concerned. This situation raises many queries as to the nature of educational experiences in rural primary schools of Iran. What should be taught in such schools? Should we teach them the three R's which are not very much

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- (1) Myles W. Rodehaver et al, The Sociology of the School (New York: Crowell Company, 1957), P. 16.
- (2) Burton W. Kreitlaw, Rural Education: Community Background (New York: Harper and Brothers' Publishers, 1954), P. 69.

related to the rural life? Or should we take the rural needs and interests into account and teach the rural people accordingly?

The answer is **not** far to seek. Obviously rural education should be oriented towards rural life conditions. It must meet the needs and interests of rural people and solve their immediate problems. Rural pupils need to know the three R'S, but it is necessary that they learn them in terms of desirable and useful activities and experiences related to the farm, to the home, and to the community. Thus, an attempt should be made to integrate the rural school program with community life and needs.

A study of rural needs and conditions indicates that rural people need a proper and special kind of education to change their conditions, to raise their standards of living, and to help increase the agricultural productivity of the country. Such education must be broad in its concept. "This broad conception of education which is required must cover not only formal types such as the school, but also any process by which rural people are persuaded or shown how to do things better." (1) These processes may be in the form

(1) H. Belshaw, Social Welfare in Rural Communities, reprinted from "Second Social Welfare Seminar for Arab States of the Middle East, 1950, P. 15.

of demonstration, extension services, fundamental education, adult education, sanitation and the like.

II. Importance and Functions of Rural Education:

A. What should rural education do? Of all the factors entering into the development of rural areas and dealing with the betterment of rural living, rural education is most important. To understand rural education, the broad aims of education have to be taken into consideration. The main aim of education according to Professor Jebraill Katul is "To enable the child to adjust to his environment and to reconstruct it".(1) Viewed from this angle, the children, the young, and the adults need education in accordance with the situation they live in plus an ability to adapt it in a better way. Rural education, as such, refers primarily to agricultural communities and is not limited to formal schooling for children and adults. It comprises, in addition, informal educational programs which are carried by various people and voluntary associations and rural populations. (2)

In many countries, there are so-called community schools, basic schools, nuclear schools and other types

(1) Jebraill Katul, Notes on Educational Administration, (unpublished), N.D. P. 1

(2) F.W. Reeves, Education for Rural America (Chicago: The University Press, 1947), P. 12.

which aim both to teach the essentials of subject matter and to improve the living conditions of people.

There are also projects for relating rural education to rural reconstruction, in the belief that a plan of rural education must have two aims in view; (a) it must offer technical and vocational education in rural production so that the economic potentialities of the villages may be increased, and (b) the villagers must be offered a comprehensive and all round educational program so that their vision may be broadened and social progress may ultimately be achieved. (1)

B. The Rural School.— The rural school is frequently the only educational facility to be found in the rural community. It should, therefore, reflect the environment from which the pupils come and in which the majority will remain.

John Dewey has focussed the attention of educators on the importance of the well-rounded development of the child; physically, intellectually and emotionally. Thus, the function of the school is to educate both young and adults for social efficiency, help to improve local conditions through adaptation of curricula subject to community needs and problems, prepare the individual for economic sufficiency, and raise the standards of living among the people. It is the school, in cooperation with other agencies, that will educate

(1) UNESCO Report Vol. VII. Nos 9-10; Rural Education and the Training of Rural School Teachers (Education, Clearing House, Unesco, 1955), P. 4.

for more abundant living in the rural areas. (1)

This viewpoint involves the belief that schools are to contribute to the improvement of rural society. It also assigns the rural schools the role of agencies of community development and commits them to many responsibilities, in addition to actual classroom instruction. This being the case, the task of rural school is to integrate itself into the society and formulate programs designed to help people to help themselves. This objective cannot be achieved unless there are training centers that definitely specialize in the preparation of teachers for work in the village. In countries that are predominantly rural, and even in those that are not, it is entirely logical that certain institutions should concentrate on preparing men and women for this particular task. (2)

The environment of such institutions should be definitely rural and the students should be drawn, as far as possible, from rural communities. The trainees should be taught such subjects as rural sociology,

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- (1) Philippine Association for School Superintendants, Education in Rural Areas for Better Living, 1950 Yearbook (Manila: Bookman, INC., 1950), pp. VII-VIII.
 - (2) H.B. Allen, Rural Education and Welfare in the Middle East, (London: H.M. Stationary Office, 1946), P.7.

elementary agriculture, sanitation and more than the usual amount of natural science. Women trainees as well should be given courses in domestic arts, child care and home management. The courses of study for children should have this same rural flavour. They should be taught, along with their basic subjects, the simplest facts of plant and animal life; elementary rules of personal, home and village sanitation, ways of protecting themselves from certain prevalent diseases in their districts. The girls should be given instruction in some of the home arts based on local conditions. (1)

Above and beyond all this, the rural school can be made to serve the needs of the whole community by out of school activities and becomes a channel through which most of the problems of community can be solved.

The Rural Teacher.- The success or failure of the school depends in a very large measure on the teacher. With an efficient teacher in charge, even a poorly equipped school may do a tremendous job for both the children and the community at large. But with a poor teacher no school can accomplish its purposes in the fullest measure. Since rural education calls for a vast amount of experience, sympathy

(1) Ibid., P.8.

and understanding, only those teachers who are best prepared can help rural education and contribute to its progress.

The rural school teacher's task has been made immeasurably more difficult because it often involves not only the teaching of all the school subjects to all ages and grades in the elementary school, but also because it means providing leadership in home and community activities as well. Rural school teachers are often the only educated persons in the village and the people look to them for guidance in dealing with diverse problems and needs.

Thus, the rural teacher must not be confined to the teaching of the three R's from books. He is expected to be a sanitarian, an agriculturalist, a handy man with tools. He must understand the nutritive value of local foodstuffs and be acquainted with local resources and must have a good bit of the social service worker about him. In Bolivia and Guatemala rural school teachers are trained to meet these needs.(2)

The rural teacher's relation to his pupils should be extraordinarily close and sympathetic. He should be familiar with their environment and back-

(1) UNESCO Report Vol. VII. Nos. 9-10; Op.Cit., P.3.

(2) Ibid., pp. 3, 19-24.

grounds, and become a counsellor to them, as well as to the adults, on all their problems - scholastic, social, recreational, and vocational. Thus he must have a broad cultural background. (1) Surely only the carefully prepared teacher with plenty of initiative and imagination can perform such tasks. To fulfil such responsibilities the modern rural teacher must have exceptional personal qualities and ample preparation for his work. What are some of these qualities:

In his book "The Rural Primary Teacher", E.A. Pires divides the necessary qualities in a rural teacher into two categories. Vis-a-vis personal and professional:

a) Personal qualities, he believes, are:

1. Faith in the worth of teaching.
2. Spirit of service.
3. Leadership.
4. Resourcefulness.
5. Emotional stability.
6. Skill in cooperation.
7. Sense of humour.
8. Character.

b) As for professional qualities, he mentions:

1. Scholarship.
2. Capacity for continuous growth.
3. Courage to experiment.
4. Knowledge of educational aims.
5. Appreciation of rural heritage.
6. Knowledge of children.
7. Right attitude towards

(1) Iman Elsie, Schatzmann, The Country School at Home and Abroad. (Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1942), P. 200.

pupils. 8. Skill in techniques of instruction in small rural schools. 9. Skill in handwork. (1)

Other authorities seek more or less the same qualities in a rural teacher. These qualities are desirable in all teachers, but it is not, of course, expected that every teacher will possess all of them or in full measure. But these qualities do define the direction of personal and professional development.

From the foregoing discussion it may be concluded that the rural teacher should carry many responsibilities such as teaching children, conducting adult education classes, assuming leadership in the community, serving as a social service worker, and helping the people to solve their problems.

To quote Dr. Habib A. Kurani:

The task of the rural teacher is difficult but rewarding ... He is dealing with adults and children, with technical and social problems, with human hopes and fears, with attitudes and deeply entrenched customs... The methods of teaching which are needed require a great deal of skill. The integrated and functional approach requires much more ingenuity and creativity on the part of the teacher than is required in text-book education. To perform such tasks adequately, to become an

(1) E.A. Pires, The Rural Primary Teacher. (Ministry of Education, Government of India, 1955), pp.17-24.

effective rural teacher, requires certain personal traits of character as well as special training. (1)

Just what kind of training rural teachers need is a matter of debate. "Some experts reject the idea of special training facilities and courses for rural school teachers." (2) Their view can be rejected simply because one cannot deny that rural and urban teachers are facing different conditions and must employ different means and methods. Even though the similarities between rural and urban education are numerous and significant, the differences are important too, and are not to be disregarded. Therefore, the orientation of prospective rural teachers to their work is a fundamental responsibility of the teacher education institutions. (3)

III. The Training of Rural School Teachers.

A. Characteristics of the rural training College.-

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- (1) Habib A. Kurani, Values derived from the Commission's trip around the world, (Unpublished, 1957. Chapter on Education and Rural Development), P.11.
 - (2) UNESCO Report, Vol. VII. No. 9-10; Op. Cit., P.5.
 - (3) George A. Work and Somon O. Lesser, Rural America today; its schools and community life, (Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1943), P.148.

The rural training schools should have a set of objectives and certain characteristics if they are to perform their manifold tasks adequately. What are some of these characteristics?

1. The most general opinion is that such institutions should be located in rural communities which are representative of the regions in which their graduates will be assigned later. As far as possible, their students should be drawn from village areas so that the trained output will be willing to return to villages.

2. The rural training institution should serve as a Community Center, both for the students and rural people. This notion is based on the assumption that the school is a public building and should be used for public gatherings. The rural training school, therefore, should be open for all kinds of meetings, which are held for the welfare of the village.

3. The rural training school should act as a center for in-service training of practicing rural teachers and supervisors of rural schools. It should arrange follow up programs for former graduates, and should also serve as a pilot center for experimentation and research in education of teachers for rural areas.

4. The rural training school should supervise

the work of a demonstration rural school which serves as a part of the training program, and assist in developing proper teaching materials for rural schools in the area it serves.

5. The rural training school should have, among other facilities, a good size garden where the students may grow native vegetables and fruit trees for distribution or for sale at low cost to the people, enough space for vegetable raising, poultry, an orchard, and a farm shop. (1)

B. Pre-Service Training of Rural School Teachers

1. The preparation of rural teachers should take into account the problems which rural teachers have to face. Their education should include studies in rural life and experience with country children under rural conditions. Thus, rural training schools should provide a program which will create respect for rural life and a desire on the part of the trainees to serve in rural areas. They should include in their pre-service program:-

- a) A sound general education as a base on which to build the professional studies.

(1) These principles are based on UNESCO Report Vol. VII, Nos. 9-10; Op.Cit., pp.6-8 and supported by The Commission's Trip around the World, Op.Cit., pp.12-15.

b) Practical as well as theoretical work in the arts and sciences underlying the profession of teaching.

c) Intensive study of rural life and rural school problems.

d) A period of observation and practice teaching in rural schools and actual field experience in rural community improvement.(1)

2. The training, particularly in education and vocational skills, should be as practical as possible, with emphasis always on how to teach these skills. The prospective teachers should be given special opportunities to use local materials and facilities.

3. Practice teaching should be performed in different villages in the kinds of schools which the prospective teachers are expected to work eventually. If possible, student teachers should live in the villages during the period of practice.

4. The length of training program may vary from 3-6 years depending upon the needs of the country and conditions prevailing therein. In the opinion of the commission, it is preferable for the candidate for entrance to the rural training college to have completed his secondary education before beginning his normal training.

5. In such a situation the training program should be four years including summer work. If secondary schools are inadequate or unsuitably located, then the teacher training program may extend over six years, with the first two being devoted to general education of a secondary level, but with a rural

(1) The School and Changing Pattern of Country Life, Op.Cit., pp.75-76

bias. We found such a scheme to be working well in Turkey. It is also practiced successfully in Iraq.(1)

C. The Retaining of Rural Teachers.

The improvement and lengthening of the training program do not fulfil the responsibility of administrators in charge. It is equally important to make rural teaching more attractive in order to attract and hold able teachers in rural areas. How can this be done?

1. In the first place, great care should be given to the proper selection of the village teacher. This selection should be made according to well recognized criteria. The many responsibilities which the rural teacher has to bear, make such care in his selection essential. (2)

2. Adequate compensation and other benefits should be offered to the village teacher; such as a

(1) Habib A. Kurani, Op.Cit., Chapter on Education and Rural Development, pp.15-16. These useful suggestions are given for the improvement of rural teacher training colleges in the Arab world. They might be adopted in countries with more or less similar conditions, like Iran, as well.

(2) Adopted from Recommendations of the Seminar on Education and Rural Development Held in Souk-el-Gharb, Lebanon, 1957. P.5. Translated from Arabic by Dr. Habib A. Kurani.

healthy dwelling, opportunity for promotion, etc. This is in order to attract able youth to village teaching and encourage them to remain in rural work. (1)

To ease the isolation and loneliness of rural teachers efforts are made in some countries to recruit these teachers in pairs, preferably a man and his wife both of whom having had the necessary training for the job. With the two members of the household receiving salaries, the financial reward will be greater, and under these circumstances the village tends to lose much of its loneliness for the teacher and the work is likely to be better accomplished. (2)

IV. Successful Practices of Other Countries in the Training of Rural School Teachers

The problems of rural education have been the center of interest and attention in the last two or three decades. It is unanimously believed, however, that the core of the problem lies in the question of preparing qualified teachers to undertake the great

(1) Adopted from Recommendations of the Seminar on Education and Rural Development Held in Souk-el Gharb, Lebanon, 1957. P.5. Translated from Arabic by: Dr. Habib A. Kurani.

(2) Habib A. Kurani, Op. Cit., pp. 18-19.

task and various responsibilities involved in the improvement of rural conditions through the medium of education. Here and there, countries have taken practical steps in improving the professional qualifications of their rural teachers, which deserve consideration.

Space does not permit to discuss all such steps. For the sake of brevity, therefore, the writer will include three such countries, with more or less similar conditions as Iran, on the assumption that experience of others, with certain modifications, might be profitable for Iran. The countries chosen for this purpose are: Brazil, India, and Mexico. In giving recommendations, however, the writer does not confine himself to the practices of these three countries only. Successful practices of other countries, in certain respects, might also serve as the basis for recommendations.

A. Brazil.- Considerable effort has recently been devoted to the training of rural teachers in Brazil.

Of these efforts, two significant experiments, undertaken to prepare rural school teachers, deserve consideration. The first, the Juazeiro Do Norte Rural Teacher Training School, started in 1934. It was established in a city environment and recruited its train-

ees from among urban population. The syllabi were academic in nature and the practical problems which the trainees would meet in their future work were neglected. This experiment failed because of the location of the training college in the city and the selection of its trainees mainly from urban people.(1)

The second experiment on a larger scale has been in progress since 1948. The main center of the experiment is the Fazenda do Rozario, in Betim country. The Fazenda do Rozario is a center in which a variety of activities with the principal object of rehabilitating handicapped children and adolescents are pursued in a rural setting. The atmosphere is what might be called a "rural community service institute". The Fazenda center has some agricultural land for the training of its pupils, and a number of commercial crops are grown separately. The variety of its undertaking with the spontaneous cooperation of the people themselves in carrying out its programs make it a creative social force and a powerful agent of cultural, moral and civic uplift. This experiment has been more successful and the influence of Fazenda institution is felt in neighbouring areas. (2)

(1) M.B.Laurenço Filho, et al, The Training of Rural School Teachers, (Paris: UNESCO, 1953, Problems in Education, VII), pp.26-33

(2) Ibid., pp. 34-35.

A point in the Fazenda do Rosario courses worthy of special emphasis is that besides the regular training courses refresher courses and extension courses are also introduced to deal effectively with both the training of prospective rural teachers, and encouraging rural teachers already in service to raise their cultural level. Each group of students drafts its own time-table and projects with full liberty to select from earlier programs whatever has been proved to give good results. Each course is free to include in its program whatever its members and instructors are agreed is necessary.

It is in this spirit that the trainees carry out their practical agricultural training. They begin with very simple problems such as where to put a school garden, how to prepare the soil, where and how to secure seed, how and when to sow, how to transport and how to irrigate. Hygiene and sick nursing are dealt with on similar lines. The trainees are shown how much can be done through education by the school, how much by the doctor and how much in the shape of general sanitation. The effect of such a course in stimulating the spirit of public service in student-teachers is great and as a whole all courses are aimed at improving the general prosperity of rural people.(1)

(1) Ibid., pp.36-44

As a result of these two experiments certain conclusions were drawn, from which four are pertinent to the situation in Iran:

1. The premises of the two experiments differ. The hypothesis adopted in the first was that it would suffice to add instruction in agricultural practices and techniques to the curriculum of the city teacher's training schools. While in the second experiment there appears to have been a clearer understanding that the problem of the training of rural teaching staff is intimately connected with that of its recruitment. This scheme sought to adapt the prospective teacher to a new educational philosophy and methodology with an explicit 'social service' twist. (1)

2. Concurrent study of the human material led to the conclusion that rural teachers must have a country background and can only be trained in a rural environment where the needs of rural population are exemplified. Such an environment provides an atmosphere favourable to the development of a "rural community service center" which is impossible in a city.

3. Care should be taken in the selection and training of students, but the effects of all this will have no permanence if those graduating from the courses are left to their own fate, if they lose contact with the training centers and have no further supervision and guidance. Surrounded by teachers who have had little training and who use formal bookish methods, the graduates of the best training course will lapse into such methods in due course.

4. The need is shown clearly for improving the training of rural teaching personnel through integrating and orienting rural teacher training to fundamental education in the broad sense in which the term is used by Unesco. (2)

(1) M.B. Laurenço Filho, Op. Cit., P.49.

(2) Ibid., pp.49-52 and UNESCO Report Vol. VII.Nos.9-10; Op. Cit., P.13.

B. India.- Basic education has been a widely popular movement in rural education in India. The central proposition of this system is that all education, especially primary education should be centered around a basic craft. This movement was inspired by India's great leader Mahatma Gandhi. In his words: 'The principal idea is to impart the whole education of the body, the mind, and the soul through the handicraft that is taught to the children. You have to draw out all that is in the child through teaching all the processes of the handicraft, and all your lessons in history, geography, arithmetic will be related to the craft'. The proponents of basic education after Gandhi admit two other important centers of correlation, namely, the physical and the social environment of the child. (1)

Although other systems of education are also prevalent in India today, the impact of basic education is still felt, not only in education, but in several other walks of Indian life. As stated by K.L. Shrimali:

Some of the modern developments in Indian education such as the introduction of activities in school teaching, the correlation of school subjects with the natural and physical environment, the growing appreciation of manual

(1) E.A. Piers, Rural Teacher Training in India, Part III of The Training of Rural School Teachers (Paris: UNESCO), Op. Cit., P. 89.

work and dignity of labour are evidence of the influence of basic education on the traditional system. (1)

This craft centred education revives village economy and has a social value of making the child feel that he is an integral part of a co-operative community to whose wealth he can contribute his share. This economic aspect of the training was stressed by Gandhi who considered it fundamental to the philosophy and the social outlook underlying the basic system of education. 'Given the right kind of teacher' he says, 'our children will be taught the dignity of labour and learn to regard it as an integral part of their training'. (2)

Obviously this type of education required special training on the part of its teachers. Thus, the aims of teacher training for basic education were set forth in the revised Syllabus for the Training of Teachers, as follows:

1. To give the student-teachers practical experience of the life of a community based on cooperative work for the common good.

(1) K.L. Shrimali, Education in Changing India (London: Asia Publishing House 1965), P.255.

(2) E.A. Piers, Op. Cit., P.90

2. To help them to understand and accept the social objectives of the new system, and the implications of a new social order based on truth and non-violence.
3. To encourage the development of all the faculties, physical, intellectual, aesthetic, and spiritual, of each student-teacher towards the achievement of a well-integrated harmoniously balanced personality.
4. To equip the student-teacher professionally for his work, i.e., to enable him to understand and meet the physical, intellectual and emotional needs of children. (1)

(1) Revised Syllabus for the Training of Teachers, Hindustani Talimi Sangh, Sevagram, Wardha, pp. 8 - 9. as quoted in E.A. Piers, Ibid., pp. 90-91.

Each basic training center which as a rule consists of a training institution working with a basic school, is organized on the basis of a democratic society based on cooperative work. Each center or community should produce through its own labour as much as possible of its own food and clothing. It should be situated in a rural area and be in close touch with the surrounding villages; it should develop into a natural center for the life of the locality and for programs of rural reconstruction. (1)

Broadly speaking, the course of studies in a basic training school centers around (a) the activities of the school community, such as the preparation of food, the production of clothing, health and hygiene, and programs of rural and cultural activities, and (b) for the professional aspect of the training, the student teachers are expected to acquire skills in the various activities, including craftwork, during the course of training which, as a rule, extends to two years. (2)

In basic training schools, just as in basic schools, the principle of learning by doing and the principle of correlated teaching are put into practice,

(1) - (2) Ibid., P.91

with the result that a satisfactory balance of work and study is achieved.

One of the objects of basic education is to create a new social order in which the existing gap between the home and the school, between the village and the educational community, is to be bridged by means of a close and healthy village contact. Hence it is necessary that the basic training institution should become the center of all the village activities. Social service is, therefore, regarded as an essential aspect of the work. As an example, social service in the basic training schools in the Punjab comprises the following work in neighbouring villages: (a) improvement of sanitation; (b) adult literacy campaign; (c) distribution of medicines; (d) celebration of festivals; (e) improvement of agriculture and cottage industries; (f) work at fairs; and (g) organization of games and other recreational activities. (1)

In short, the training of rural teachers in India is being made more and more practical and less and less theoretical in the belief that whatever is taught in the training school has to be actually practiced in the basic schools.

(1) Ibid., pp.93-94

Mexico:- Mexico is an agrarian country with conditions nearly similar to conditions prevailing in Iran. Rural problems were recognized by the government and the solution sought was the establishment of more schools in the rural areas. With rural schools being opened at the rate of 1,000 a year, the problem of finding qualified teachers to take charge of them was considered the most urgent one. The few teachers' training colleges established in the capital and other cities were not competent to undertake the task. As Tannenbaum observed: "The teachers trained in the city training colleges were not fitted for this type of task, could not perform it successfully and would have met with great difficulties, even supposing them to have been prepared to tolerate the boredom, isolation and poverty of a country village. Thus, teachers had to be found ad hoc and means devised for firing their enthusiasm and improving their qualifications after their appointment to their respective areas". Accordingly, candidates were chosen for their suitability of character; the qualities demanded were keenness, energy and the spirit of service; preference was given to the people from the same area in which they would have to serve. Aside from these conditions, only modest educational qualifications were required from candidates. It was on the basis of the accepted

view at the time that what was needed for the rural school was not geniuses but workers. Once these ad hoc teachers were at work, the department turned its mind to ways of stimulating them in their efforts and improving their professional qualifications. It was for this purpose that the idea of cultural missions came into being. (1)

The cultural missions were travelling teams of experts - an expert in teachers' training, an agricultural engineer, an expert in small industries, an instructor in physical education and a woman social worker - which went on circuit round the country. In each region, the mission would assemble the local teachers in a selected village, for a month's course, of which the distinctive feature was the use of the selected village and its rural school as experimental centers for the investigation of current problems and for the instruction of teachers in ways of solving their problems on the spot. (2)

The mission procedure was an emergency measure and very famous and successful. But gradually the need was felt for more teachers qualified to meet the requirement of the new system that was taking shape. This suggested the idea of setting up a specialized institution to train them.

(1) Isidro Castillo, Rural Teacher Training in Mexico, Part IV of The Training of Rural School Teachers, (Paris: UNESCO, 1953), Op. Cit., P.137

(2) Ibid., pp. 137-138

The Mexe Rural Teachers' Training College.-

This college is situated in the Mezquital valley not far from Mexico City. It was founded in 1928 as the first static cultural mission, but planned on lines different from those of travelling missions. The basis of the scheme was cooperation between the Department of Education and other government departments, e.g. agriculture, industry, health and others. The idea was to tackle the people's various problems from every angle simultaneously. (1)

The object of the college was prescribed for it at its foundation - improving the professional qualifications of teachers already serving in rural schools and promoting the all-round progress of its region - besides that the college has as its essential purpose the training of new teachers for the country districts. This purpose has been defined in the following terms: 'Teachers training will be directed towards the production of a type of teacher able to grasp and appreciate the degree of culture prevailing in a rural community and to promote that community's economic, social and moral progress. The training received by the teachers must provide him with an understanding of his country's history and culture and of contemporary problems. He must have enough knowledge

(1) Ibid., P. 143

of health and dietetics and must be well informed in agricultural matters and the village industries suitable for the area in which he teaches. (1)

Some notable features of this college are:

(a) The student body is recruited from the area. Men candidates must be between 14 and 18 years of age, and women between 13 and 17. The father of the candidate must be engaged in agriculture, or failing that, artisans engaged in small industries or rural teachers. Candidates must have completed the sixth year of rural primary education.

(b) The length of the course for the rural teachers diploma is six years divided into two cycles - secondary studies and professional studies, each three years in length. (A procedure which is also practiced, with certain modification, in Turkey and Iraq).

(c) The syllabuses are the same as in urban training colleges, but the differentiation is made in the methods used and in the activities of the students. They take a direct part in the productive activities of the college. The trainees are organized in teams, and their work changes so as to enable every student during his period of training to have the fullest experience of the whole range of activities.

(d) The college helps improve the professional qualifications of teachers in service in the surrounding villages. The methods employed are inspection of the work done by the schools, and meetings of the Center for Educational Co-operation. The teachers of the village schools meet every month in one of the communities in the zone, each of these being host in rotation twice a year. The meetings are attended by the staff of the college and the students

(1) Ibid., P.145

taking the cycle of professional studies. The school and the community constitute laboratories for demonstrating the center's work, through the application of methods and programs relating both to school life and to social work.

(e) The professional examination is given by an examining board from among the teaching staff. It comprises three parts - practical, oral and written. The practical test takes the form of three day's work by the candidate in one of the rural schools in the zone of influence. For the written test the candidate may select any research subject or educational problem. The oral test is at once an amplification of the written test and a public affirmation of professional aims.

(f) There are no grounds whatever for regarding the rural teachers as being at a lower professional level than their urban counterparts, since the task of the former should not be thought simpler than that of the latter.

(g) As a rule, the principal of the college is advised to keep in touch with his former pupils with a view to helping them in their work, if only in their early years in the profession, which is when they may most need help. (1)

(1) Ibid., pp. 146-160, and UNESCO Report Vol. VII, Nos. 9-10. Op. Cit., pp. 14-15

Concluding Statement

In this chapter, theories and practices in the training of rural teachers were discussed. It was emphasized that there is a great need for a sound philosophy of education which gives the rural education its distinctive features, takes the needs of different localities into consideration, and changes the psychological attitudes of the rural population.

Rural education was emphasized as a fundamental element in community development and rural reconstruction, with the following main functions: Improving the living conditions of rural people, helping them to increase their productivity and raise their standard of living. It was also shown that, to achieve these goals, rural education should not be limited to formal schooling. Rather it should include out-of-school activities such as: recreational programs, fundamental education, adult education, extension works and the like.

The rural schools are, therefore, to contribute to the improvement of rural society and assume many responsibilities. They should be made the center of various social activities. Schools in rural areas should concern themselves with the pressing problems

and needs of the villagers such as: the need for healthier food, better housing, cleaner living, group cooperation etc. The need is felt for schools which will act as social, cultural and vocational centers to satisfy the needs of adult as well as the young members of the community.

The task of the rural teacher is very difficult, besides his formal teaching he is expected to play various roles such as the roles of a sanitarian, a social service worker, an agriculturist and a handy man with tools. To perform such tasks adequately, the rural teacher must possess exceptional personal qualities as well as special professional training.

Rural teacher training institutions, therefore, should prepare the prospective teachers in a way that they will be able to undertake what is expected of them. Thus, the training colleges should have certain objectives to follow in order to produce the right kind of teachers. They should also provide adequate means and facilities for pre-service and in-service training. General, professional and practical training of the prospective teachers should, therefore, be given their due attention.

Besides the theoretical aspects of the problem, to be more realistic in giving suggestions, successful practices of three countries regarding training teachers

for rural areas have been studied: Brazil, for its valuable experiments and the conclusions which were drawn from them; India, for the characteristics of its Basic Training Colleges; and Mexico, for outstanding features of its cultural missions, and the Mexe Rural Teacher Training College.

The theories and practices, as well as opinions of the experts in the field, as cited in this chapter, can be used as a sound basis for the improvement of rural teacher training in Iran which will be the concern of the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

PROPOSALS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF RURAL TEACHER TRAINING IN IRAN

In chapter two some of the major problems confronting rural teacher training institutions in Iran were discussed. Theories and practices in training rural teachers were also studied in chapter three. In this chapter some recommendations will be offered for the improvement of the training of rural teachers in Iran. Such recommendations will be mainly based on experiences and values derived from the actual practices of other countries as cited in chapter three. However, there will be specific recommendations pertinent to the situation in Iran which is not based on practices of other countries. Every such recommendation will be logically discussed and rationally defended. But before recommendations are offered two points should be made clear:-

a) As was explained in chapter two, the "One year training course for girls" is aimed at preparing teachers mainly for urban areas. Nevertheless many graduates of these institutions are sent to rural areas.

This practice has proved ineffective, for teachers who are reared and educated in cities are usually unable to adjust fully to rural conditions. This conclusion is supported by the experiences of other communities in other countries.

Furthermore, the courses which are offered to trainees of this one year program are not designed to prepare the candidates to deal effectively with the rural problems or administer to rural needs. For these reasons, it is recommended that the practice of assigning the graduates of these institutions to rural areas be gradually discontinued.

b) In spite of its limitations, the Education Corps Program is rendering a valuable service to the country in providing a limited training for the teachers of rural areas. The fact is, however, that this program fills only a temporary rather than a permanent need, and that the line of evolution in future will involve the development of normal schools, tribal normal schools, and rural teacher training centers. Thus, the suggestions offered in this chapter are designed to be pertinent to the improvement of such institutions, although some of these suggestions might be useful for both, the one year course for girls, and the Education Corps Program.

I. Desirable Characteristics of Rural Teacher Training Institutions in Iran.

A. Location.- As has been repeatedly emphasized rural training colleges should be located in rural areas. But of all teacher training institutions in Iran only four are located in rural communities. The enrolment in these four institutions is 243 students, and their facilities are meagre. This is not a healthy situation, for rural teachers are best trained in a rural setting if they are to live and work successfully in a rural community. This viewpoint is capable of practical implementation in Iran.

Up until 1961 thirteen agricultural normal schools had been established by the government. They had proper buildings, equipment and ample grounds for theoretical and practical work. In 1961, by order of the Minister of Education, these schools were turned over to the Ministry of agriculture for training extension workers.

It is the opinion of the writer that it is more helpful for Iran to return these institutions to their original purpose as training colleges for rural teachers and combine with this program, a program of training extension workers; as these two programs are com-

plimentary. Naturally some expansion of the facilities of these institutions will have to be made if they are to serve their dual purpose. To do this would be less expensive than building new facilities.

B. The Rural Teacher Training Institutions as Community Centers.- There is a social responsibility which every rural teacher training institution must assume toward the community in which the college is located. The college should utilize its facilities for community service as well as for the training of prospective rural teachers. This is in line with up to date thinking and practice in education, which advocates closer links between school and community. In line with this policy the college should organize clubs, lectures in health and agriculture, recreational activities, literacy campaigns, workshops and the like for the adults of the community. In these activities the student teachers should participate as an important part of their training.

Such a practice has the added advantage of sensitizing the people of the community to the work of both school and college. In Puerto Rico and the Philippines, for example, it was discovered that the close link between school and community through an effective adult

plimentary. Naturally some expansion of the facilities of these institutions will have to be made if they are to serve their dual purpose. To do this would be less expensive than building new facilities.

B. The Rural Teacher Training Institutions as Community Centers.- There is a social responsibility which every rural teacher training institution must assume toward the community in which the college is located. The college should utilize its facilities for community service as well as for the training of prospective rural teachers. This is in line with up to date thinking and practice in education, which advocates closer links between school and community. In line with this policy the college should organize clubs, lectures in health and agriculture, recreational activities, literacy campaigns, workshops and the like for the adults of the community. In these activities the student teachers should participate as an important part of their training.

Such a practice has the added advantage of sensitizing the people of the community to the work of both school and college. In Puerto Rico and the Philippines, for example, it was discovered that the close link between school and community through an effective adult

education program increased the childrens' attendance at the schools because the parents became more aware and consequently more appreciative of the work of the schools.

In Iran where rural communities tend to be somewhat indifferent to what goes on in the school, the practice of making the rural training college serve as a community center is particularly needed and may become a fundamental step in educational and social reform.

C. The Rural Training Institutions as Centers for experimentation and on-the-job training.- As was stated, in the second chapter, contact between teacher training institutions and their graduates in Iran are usually terminated at the time of graduation. Experience of other countries has shown that young graduates should not lose contact with the training centers. They should be encouraged to learn and grow in their profession. Thus, in addition to their function as centers for community service and uplift, rural training colleges in Iran can perform another function of equal, if not greater, importance. They can function as centers of experimentation and follow-up work with teachers on the job.

To perform this service, the colleges should be

given the freedom to experiment and try new approaches to teacher training. Their staff should be encouraged to visit their graduates on the job with a dual objective in view: (a) to give these young teachers advice about improved methods, (b) to learn from these teachers about the strengths and weaknesses of the training program when applied to practice.

Periodical conferences to which all the graduates of the college who are working in the vicinity participate will assist greatly in furthering this experimental function of the college.

D. Staffing the Rural Training Centers.-

Leadership is of utmost importance in the training colleges. Naturally a great responsibility for leadership rests on the principal. He must lead and inspire his staff members so that all will be dedicated to one idea - the success and professional growth of the trainees. He must impress instructors with the idea that their student's successes in future work are their successes and that when students fail in assuming their responsibilities their teachers have failed. Thus, men of character and strong personality are needed to be appointed as principals of the training colleges.

Probably one of the major shortcomings of the

rural training institutions in Iran is the instability of their staff. At present a great number of instructors in normal schools are teaching in other schools and only come to normal schools as part-time teachers. As a result they do not show much interest in the affairs of the training centers.

Teacher training centers should be provided with competent full-time faculty because normal instruction is technical, and unless it is undertaken by competent instructors there is no hope of producing adequately trained primary teachers. For this purpose the cooperation of universities is essential. Unfortunately, the Universities in Iran are not alive to the importance of the problems of rural education and the training of its teachers.

If the government desires a good system of education suited to rural areas and to extend it to most, if not all villages, it is necessary to examine several intricate problems such as rural sociology, characteristics of rural pattern of life, the training of rural leadership especially suitable for the task of rural reconstruction and the special problems connected with the training of teachers for rural areas.

Naturally the lead in this matter should come from the universities on whom falls the ultimate res-

possibility of investigating problems facing the country and training personnel to solve them. But for reasons unknown, the universities in Iran have not yet taken any step in this respect and have not organized any educational research in rural education. Conditions are now favourable for setting such enquiries and for instituting experiments in rural problems. They should carry on researches and conduct courses in rural problems and rural education.

Teacher training centers should be in close contact with the Universities and seek their help when necessary. They should also draw their staff from among graduates of universities who have been offered courses in the problems of rural education. The staff members of the training centers should be employed on a full-time basis so that their energy and education can be used to the fullest possible measure in the training centers.

II. Selection of Candidates.

As was mentioned in chapter two, the present practice in selecting candidates for training institutions is inadequate. An entrance examination is held which consists of a verbal examination and a written test in Persian, composition, mathematics and general

knowledge. But no attempt is made to rate the personality and character of candidates.

It is needless to say that the problem of selection of proper candidates for rural teacher training is of vital importance. Selection for these institutions is not a matter which can be based on academic grounds only. There are other basic qualifications or criteria which must be kept in mind if the right kind of candidates are to be chosen.

The rural teacher must possess a genuine interest in the rural community and a spirit of service for rural people. "The basis of selection of rural teachers" E.A.Piers mentions, "should be the candidate's personal qualities, his interest in rural teaching, his intellectual ability, his general cultural backgrounds, his verbal facility and his special talents, especially in arts and crafts." (1) These are the criteria which must be kept in mind in selecting proper candidates for rural training colleges.

H.B.Allen of the Near East Foundation, who has worked for many years among rural people of the Near East, has put down certain criteria which he found useful in selecting the right rural teacher. They are:-

(1) E.A.Piers, The Rural Primary Teacher, Op.Cit., P.33.

1. Is he willing to live in a village?
2. Does he have village experience? Has he lived in a village?
3. Is he motivated by a spirit of service?
4. Does he possess a real love for the soil?
5. Is he sympathetic and understanding towards villagers?
6. Does he have a healthy respect for manual work?

If the answer to all these questions is positive, then the candidate has a chance of making good as a village teacher. (1)

In saying all this, it must not be concluded that the prospective rural teacher must be completely insulated and isolated from urban living or from the opportunities of city life. He should be acquainted with a large city and the opportunities which it presents; as, in his teaching rural children, he should be able to convey to them a picture of urban living. Ideally therefore, an effective rural teacher should have had a part of his preliminary education in an urban setting to provide him with a wider vision of the world outside the village.

The responsibility for selecting the candidates should be shared by teacher training centers; as they are, theoretically at least, best qualified to judge the suitability of the candidates.

(1) Habib A. Kurani, Op. Cit., P.11

III. The Training of Rural Teachers.

A. Modification of the Present Practices.- The conditions existing in rural Iran suggest certain specific things the Department of Rural Education and the rural teacher training institutions should do to improve rural life and rural education in Iran.

Based on the recommendations of the Commission's Trip Around the World and practice of Basic Training Schools in India, as cited in Chapter three, the minimum qualifications for entrance to a rural teacher training center should be high school graduation. Thus, the present practice of accepting graduates of the first cycle and training them for a period of two years in general and professional courses should be ultimately abandoned.

As a practical goal for the immediate future, it is recommended that, the minimum preparation of rural elementary teachers be set up at one year of professional training beyond high school graduation. The main reasons for this suggestion are as follows:-

1. In the past, because the demands for teachers almost always exceeded the supply, authorities in the Ministry of Education were not able to attract or hold enough able teachers. Thus emergency measures had to be taken because of the shortage of qualified

candidates. Today it is possible to be more selective, since there are thousands of graduates leaving high school each year. As evidence, "the number of students in the sixth grade of high school in the academic year of 1965 was 3,6060". (1) This number is more than sufficient to meet the demands for all types of post-secondary programs.

2. Nine years of general education as a prerequisite for entering a training institution are not enough. General cultural backgrounds of the teachers should be as broad as possible and receive more emphasis. This cannot be acquired in nine years.

3. The professional training now given is superficial and inadequate. Only three hours per week in the first year and two hours in the second year of training are spent on the professional courses; the rest of the time is spent on special subjects and general education.

4. Students who enter the profession will lose interest when they find that very little work is offered in their field of interest.

5. In the scheme suggested, the graduates of the training institutions would be two years older. This would make them more mature and more capable of handling the various responsibilities they should shoulder.

(1) Educational Statistics in Iran, Op. Cit., P.33.
Table No. 9.

6. The courses offered in the second cycle of secondary schools will provide enough general knowledge to begin work in teacher training.

7. The graduates would be much more competent professionally because of the intensive training they would receive in their profession.

By making the above suggestions, it may seem as if the writer thinks one year of training is enough to prepare competent teachers for rural schools. On the contrary, it is believed that a longer period is necessary to prepare teachers for such a complex, varied and responsible job. But under the existing financial circumstances the above suggestion offers a more realistic solution to the problem than the existing scheme. The government can thus train more teachers with less expenditure.

On the other hand, high school graduates are not willing to undergo more than one year of extensive training for the salary which is offered to them on their appointment. They are eager to secure a teaching post, as early as possible, after completing their secondary education. The writer believes that each teacher should supplement his pre-service training with refresher courses or workshops once every two or three summers.

Another possible measure that can be adopted is what has been successfully practiced in Mexico, Turkey

and Iraq, as was cited in Chapter three.

The government can establish secondary schools in semi-rural communities in which the rural children can enter. The first cycle of the secondary school can be devoted to general education with a rural bias. The second cycle can be concerned mainly with professional study of education including practical work in the village.

If this scheme could be worked out, more secondary schools could then be provided for rural youth. The result would be that village boys and girls would remain on the farm. At the same time the most competent students could be chosen for second cycle which would be the training college. The less competent students would have received the first cycle secondary education at least.

B. The Curriculum and Method for Rural Teacher Training Centers.- With the changing conditions of Iranian peasants as a result of land reform laws and with the demands of an expanding economic development, exemplified in Three Development Plans, new educational ideas and practices are essential. Curriculum and methods must be selected with a view to promoting social aims and purposes which must be determined by the needs of the community. At present, the same courses of study

are prescribed for towns, villages and tribes. This indicates that the curriculum has not been chosen with a view to its social usefulness. At this stage of social progress it is important to develop a program of rural education that will place greater stress upon an understanding of the ways in which the national economy works and the place of rural life in that economy. What kind of curriculum should be developed in rural teacher training centers of Iran to meet these needs?

In attempting to answer this question two fundamental issues must be kept in mind: (a) the need for instilling in the minds of youth an appreciation for and knowledge of the total national culture and way of life. (b) A knowledge of and skill to deal with the demands and problems of the particular environments. This two-fold objective defines the bases of the curriculum which is appropriate for the rural training colleges. Thus, according to Dr. Habib A. Kurani:

The curriculum of the rural training college should not be totally different from that of a training college for city or urban school teachers as to produce a cultural cleavage between rural and urban communities. The foundation of this curriculum should consist of the following:

General Education, designed to broaden the rural school teacher's outlook; to deepen his understanding of the world in which he lives, and to emancipate him from the narrowing effect of rural life.

Professional Training, consisting of courses in psychology, history and philosophy of education, principles and techniques of teaching and administration of rural schools, designed to orient the teacher to the teaching profession and to the purposes, methods and organization of rural schools as educational and community centers.

Background Courses in rural sociology, economics and community civics, including practices in making community surveys.

Practical and extension courses in health, agriculture, nutrition, housing, arts and crafts, especially designed to give the student enough experience to guide young people and adults in the community where he will later be assigned. (1)

With such courses of training, the new rural teacher is prepared to deal with social and educational conditions. The emphasis is placed upon knowing something about the needs and interests of the people, rather than mere practice in teaching the traditional subjects.

It is recommended that the year of professional training be twelve months and divided on a quarterly basis, and emphasis be laid more on professional training than general education, since the trainees have enough general education when they are recruited.

(1) Habib A. Kurani, Op. Cit., P.14

The academic courses should be developed with emphasis on rural conditions. In the realm of professional training, the implication and application of psychological facts and principles should be emphasized, not the memorization of facts. The prospective teachers should receive a comprehensive study of the characteristics of core curriculum and units of work. The professional training should also acquaint the students with problem-solving techniques, the principles of group work as was noted in basic training centres in India, and a systematic approach to the exploration of a learning situation.

The course in agriculture should not be a purely technical course, but rather a course dealing with agriculture in a broader sense which deals with production and distribution of products, as well as with the traditional scientific study of plant crops. "It is not necessary for a rural teacher to know every detail about agriculture, but he should have a clear, general understanding of essential problems involved in the farming life, and an appreciation of farming as a basic industry in society." (1) This function, the training school can perform only if agriculture is given its right place in the curriculum. As was noted in Chapter three, the Basic Training Centers in India have given

(1) Charles D. Lewis, The Rural Community and its Schools, (New York: American Book Company, 1937), P. 259

agriculture and crafts their due regard in the curriculum.

Specifically the following points should be taken into consideration in formulating the curriculum and methods for rural teacher training centers in Iran:-

1. The curriculum should allow the teacher to break away from the present rigidity and provide for individual differences. Different regions of the country should be authorized to adapt the curriculum to their local conditions.

2. The curriculum should allow for greater flexibility within the schools and give the principal the opportunity of establishing his own teaching schedules to meet the demands of his own particular school situation. Thus, it is desirable that instead of prescribing the number of hours which a course should be taught per week, the number of hours per year should be indicated, and each principal left free to arrange the courses according to his own particular situation.

3. Every effort should be made to coordinate and correlate the content of related courses. Such correlation will lead to the development of core or broad fields courses which would combine the content of related courses into a few major areas of study. Unit teaching and lesson planning should be included to serve this purpose.

4. Specific recommendations should be made by administrators, teachers and curriculum specialists as to the details of curriculum. Especially the teachers should have a hand in it.

5. The writer is aware of the fact that a curriculum cannot be formulated until at least a tentative agreement is reached as to the nature of education, and the individual and social objectives which should be attained by it. Thus, it is recommended that the new philosophy of education be introduced gradually, its advantages made known to the public, and the changes in the curriculum be made accordingly.

C. Core Curriculum and Unit Teaching.- Because of the special applicability to the training of rural teachers, a few words about the core curriculum and unit methods of teaching are called for. As Thomas Hopkins states:

The core curriculum refers to a unitary group of activities planned in advance in accordance with some general activities in relation to a particular philosophy and psychology of learning implemented with general organization but with large opportunity for pupils and teachers to select, plan, organize and evaluate in relation to their own purposes.(1)

(1) Thomas Hopkins, Integration: its Meaning and Application, (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937), P. 245.

The chief characteristics of the organization of this kind of curriculum is the integration of learning matter into comprehensive units. Unit assignments, thus, has become a popular practice as teaching method. Morris on, the producer of unit method in teaching defines a unit as follows:

A unit is a comprehensive and significant aspect of the environment, of an organized science, of an art, or of conduct, which being learned results in adaptation of personality. (1)

Stretch claims that:

Tendencies in scientific investigation has resulted in a new psychology of learning and in a more practical philosophy of education. These demands that the teacher shift his emphasis in method of teaching. This shift is to the unit method. (2)

Considering the above definitions and those of other authors, it may be concluded that "The unit method is an attempt to integrate and arrange the curriculum so that the learner can achieve mastery of the desired objectives in education in a meaningful and permanent manner." (3)

(1) J. Minor Gwynn, Curriculum Principles and Social Trends, (The Macmillan Company, 1943), pp. 173.

(2) Ibid., P. 176.

(3) Ibid., P. 173.

It is, therefore, recommended that prospective teachers be thoroughly familiarized with methods and techniques of unit development, especially units based on pupils' needs which offer a practical basis for organization and relates the curriculum to life. It is also desirable that each would-be teacher develops one or two units of work during the year of professional training.

It is also suggested that the techniques and procedures of daily planning and lesson planning be taught to the teacher-students during the training period. Since rural teachers often have to teach different grades, the acquisition of these skills will help them a lot in their works.

The application of the principles of the core curriculum and unit methods of teaching demand that the staff of the rural training colleges be thoroughly familiarized with these approaches to method and curricular organization. Thus, the first essential to the adaptation of these approaches is the establishment of adequate in-service programs and workshops for the faculties and staffs of the college in which they are trained and made skillful in these approaches. It may be necessary to employ foreign specialists for this purpose.

D. Observation and Practice Teaching.- The teacher in training is best fitted for his job when he is placed in situations similar to those which he will face in life. There are three distinctive means by which the teacher gains the teaching efficiency from the training school. They are:-

1. Observing effective teaching as done by a skilled demonstration teacher.
2. Participating in activities, including room supervision, aiding individual pupils, preparing and distributing materials, and instructing small groups of children.
3. Directed teaching where entire responsibility is assumed for the teaching of a class for a part of a day or an entire day.(1)

It is, thus, obvious that for carrying on these activities there should be a demonstration school closely connected with each training center. Many countries have established such schools for the purpose of providing their student teachers with opportunities to have direct experience with children during their training period. In Iran it is best that this practice-demonstration school be the village school or schools. But these village schools which are to serve also as demonstration and

(1) Charles D. Lewis, Op. Cit., P.268.

experimental schools should be staffed by especially well trained teachers who work closely with the staff of the rural training college and may be considered as part of its teaching force. In this way, all the trainees will find the opportunity of having first hand experience with children and experienced teachers. These so-called laboratory experiences should form an integral part of the program of training centers and should extend throughout the year of training.

The laboratory experiences can be organized in four phases as follows:

1. Student-teachers should be assigned to demonstration classes to observe competent teachers in action. They should be instructed in how to observe and what to observe. It is also desirable to assign them to other schools in the vicinity so that they might observe different classrooms and different teachers.

2. Student-teachers, under the guidance of the teacher in charge, should participate in such activities as preparing materials, helping pupils, correcting papers and the like.

3. Student-teachers should undertake the classroom management, first under the guidance of the teacher and gradually alone, without his help.

4. Student-teachers should have periods of discussion with the teacher in charge of practice teaching about the problems they have met and receive his criticism for methods employed.

E. Extracurricular Activities.— Professional training should give consideration to the many and varied activities besides classroom responsibilities which teachers are called upon to perform, such as extracurricular and community activities.

It is not enough to include a few co-curricular activities in the program of a teachers college just to relieve monotony of life in the college; it is necessary to see to it that every student-teacher has an opportunity to participate in such activities and that these activities should be as rich and as varied as possible. For one thing they must cater to the varied interests and aptitudes of the student-teachers; for another, they must introduce the student-teacher to the possible activities that can be conducted in the schools.(1)

It is, therefore, recommended that future teachers be completely familiarized with extracurricular activities and be intensively trained in them. Activities related to village life such as agricultural exhibits, poultry exhibits, fairs and sales of hand work, educational visits and excursions and the like should receive consideration in the new curriculum and be practiced intensively as an integral part of the curriculum.

(1) E.A. Piers, Better Teacher Education. (Delhi 8, University Press, 1959), P.41.

F. Audio-Visual Aids.-- Audio-visual aids are among the most effective methods of teaching in modern education. There is a growing interest in the use of audio-visual aids for teaching adults and youth particularly in rural communities. "In Puerto Rico, in their programs of village improvement and adult literacy, audio-visual aids play an important role. Similarly in Mysore India, audio-visual aids play an important role in their effective programs of social and adult education."(1)

On the basis of this successful practice, it is recommended that special emphasis be placed on proper use of audio-visual aids in training centers, especially the less expensive ones. Student-teachers need to be given a systematic practical training in the preparation of charts and maps, in the construction of models, and in the production of filmstrips and slides.

The presentation of audio-visual materials is not enough. It is equally important that student-teachers take active participation in making, developing, and presenting such materials.

It is also suggested that the existing audio-visual centers attached to the Ministry of Culture and Arts be expanded so that their services reach to all remote areas, not only to the cities and their surroundings.

(1) Habib A. Kurani, Op. Cit. Chapter on Teaching Material, P.1.

IV. The In-Service Training of Teachers.

Today in education as in medicine or law, the pre-service program is not sufficient to train the "finished" or competent teacher. A period of continued in-service training is called for to supplement the pre-service program. Providing this in-service training is the responsibility of the teacher training institutions.

In Iran, as was stated in Chapter II, the majority of rural teachers have not been adequately trained. Some of these teachers are unqualified either by personality or temperament to teach in rural schools. These should be identified and replaced, as soon as possible, others who are promising should receive in-service training in order to improve their qualifications. There are, at least, two reasons for conducting in-service programs:-

1. It is increasingly recognised by the authorities in the field that "The teacher's professional growth and development must be a continuous process. However good his initial preparation may be, to avoid stagnation and improve the quality of his work, the teacher must keep abreast of new findings and developments, both in professional and subject-matter field." (1)

2. In Mexico and Brazil this two-fold problem was recognized: (a) the need for follow-up work with

(1) George A. Works and Simon O. Lesser, Op. Cit., P.157.

the trained teachers; (b) the need for a practical remedial program which is designed to improve the qualifications of untrained but promising teachers. To achieve this dual objective both countries embarked upon an intensive program administered by rural training colleges to help improve the professional qualifications of teachers in service. Such a measure is well suited to Iran where rural teachers, in most cases, do not have any training. To quote the Overseas Consultant:

Iran has a shortage of good teachers but fortunately it possesses a large teaching group who might be good teachers if they had had an opportunity to learn. (1)

The writer believes that, in addition to the 240 hour training program mentioned in chapter two, there are several other ways by which unqualified teachers can be helped and stimulated to raise their general knowledge as well as their professional abilities.

A. Suggested in-service programs:

1. Daily Training:- According to Dr. Matta Akrawi: "The best type of supervision and in-service training are the daily contacts in the school between principal

(1) Overseas Consultants, Op. Cit., P.150

and teachers as they work together."(1) Thus, the principal can visit the classes frequently and supervise the teaching methods and later arrange a discussion with the teachers concerned in a friendly atmosphere. He can also provide the teachers with professional periodicals and stimulate them to study in order to get acquainted with the recent findings in the field.

2. Periodic Meetings.- Periodic meetings might be sponsored by the training college for rural teachers. In these meetings discussions between these teachers and the student teachers might be organized. Common problems or recent educational developments may form the subject of the comments. Incidental or regular lectures can be arranged in which experts and supervisors can talk, or difficulties met in the classroom can be discussed.

Decisions made at these meetings should be implemented as far as possible, otherwise teachers will lose interest in participating in similar programs.

3. Summer Programs.- Schools in Iran have a long summer vacation - June 22 to September 22. This period offers an excellent opportunity for holding refresher

(1) Adopted from class notes taken in Educational Administration, Course 330, class taught by Professor Matta Akrawi, May 25, 1966.

courses and workshops of various types for elementary rural teachers and instructors of rural training colleges. These programs may be of various length and held in different localities to provide opportunity for training to the largest number of teachers possible. At present, as was mentioned in Chapter two, a 240 hours program is conducted in two summer sessions for assistant teachers who, after completing these classes and passing the necessary examinations, can shift from the grade of assistant teachers to that of teachers. This has been a stimulating measure taken by the school authorities in Iran. But it is believed that, in addition to this program, other summer courses could be offered as follows:-

It is recommended that a summer educational course be offered for the instructors of the rural training centers at the beginning of each summer vacation. This course would be held at training institutions at the center of each Ostan. The purpose of such summer courses would be to keep the teachers' knowledge abreast of new educational developments. This period should be around three weeks. Board and room for this period should be provided by the Ministry of Education for those who have left their places of residence in order to participate in such conferences.

It is also recommended that a summer educational course be offered at each of the rural training centers of the locality by the instructors who had participated in the first summer session. The term would be the same as above, with the exception that the duration would be from ten days to two weeks.

Material recognition should be accorded to those candidates who pass the required examinations after attending these summer courses. This should be in the form of salary increment or promotion in rank. If this incentive is not provided, teachers rarely participate in such programs. The teachers should be encouraged and motivated by the administrators to put into action the outcomes of these courses.

4. Scholarships.- Providing scholarships for competent rural teachers has shown wonderful results. As testified by H.B.Allen in his report on rural reconstruction, teachers who were granted scholarships provided the required leadership in rural education in Palestine. (1)

Thus, as a means of in-service training it is recommended that a year of leave for professional

(1) H.B. Allen, Rural Reconstruction in Action: Experience in the Near and Middle East, 2nd ed., (New York: Cornell University Press, 1944).

growth and education be granted to promising graduates of rural training centers after they had served for a period of five years in the field. The purpose of such a leave would be to allow these people to continue their studies in the field of rural education inside the country or in foreign countries with the expectation that they might return to become leaders in rural education.

5. Travelling Missions.- One way of helping teachers in remote villages is by adopting a measure similar to that practiced in Mexico. It was noted, in previous chapter how the "Cultural Mission" in Mexico was successful in raising the standards of teachers on the job. This scheme can well be adopted in Iran. A team of experienced teachers might travel from locality to locality and demonstrate new and different procedures and methods. The duration of each demonstration class would be from three to four days. Each demonstration period should be followed by a period of criticism and evaluation of the procedures used.

Another step that might be suggested is the training of a competent supervisory corps to help train the teachers in service. Thus far there have been school inspectors who more often than not impressed the teachers with their authority, but who rarely help them with any of their technical problems.

6. Audio-Visual aids.- Such items as educational exhibits, supplies, books, collections and the like may be exhibited on weekends or after school periods by training centers or demonstration classes.

The use of sound-motion pictures as a medium of in-service training is rather expensive and cannot be used extensively in Iran. However, travelling units equipped with books, exhibits and motion-pictures are recommended. The existing audio-visual centers which have been recently attached to the Ministry of Culture and Arts should be expanded so that their services could reach to the out-of-the-way localities. The films chosen to be shown should be related to the problem of communities, so that these films can be of value both to teachers and members of the community.

With the cooperation of Radio Stations, a schedule of programs can be set up for the school system, for the training of teachers, and for in-service activities. It is recommended that such a program be initiated and that topics of lectures and discussions be published and distributed among the teachers beforehand. It is desirable that the radio program be followed by periods of discussion, criticism and evaluation.

7. Publications.- Improvement in methods and techniques of teaching requires the efforts of both the teacher and the Ministry of Education. The Ministry

should be responsible for providing each teacher with a constant supply of good professional reading materials such as technical books, handbooks of suggestions, magazines, guides and bulletins. These publications should familiarize teachers with new procedures and successful ideas and practices in the art of teaching. Many countries provide their teachers with such materials. The Hand Book of Suggestions for Teachers in Small Rural Schools issued by the Ministry of Education of India serves a good example.

As a form of in-service training it is necessary for the Ministry of Education to develop a more effective system of communication with teachers. By the use of documentation services, by the distribution of printed materials suited to the interest of rural school teachers, his needs must be met from a central point.

It is, therefore, recommended that such publications be prepared and distributed among rural teachers, preferably free of charge, if it is not possible at cost price. Such publications should mainly deal with the problems of rural education and various tasks of rural teachers, so that they can be an easy medium of informing the rural teachers about the fundamental aspects of rural education.

8. Library Services.- The provision of an adequate

library service is extremely important in rural areas where functional literacy is needed badly. It is not only useful for the growth of children and adults of the community, but it is also a good means of in-service training of teachers, who, because of isolation seldom find the opportunity to find a good selection of books in the village. Unless they are provided with such books, they tend to lose interest in study habit and remain ignorant of the new techniques of teaching.

Many countries have solved this problem. In Palestine for example, the circulating library service initiated by Ahmed Qasem proved to be a remarkably successful scheme. The books were transferred from one village to another, and remaining at one school for a period of a few months only. (1) In the United States, book-mobiles work likewise; the country library books are transferred from one village to another. (2) In India "box-library" system is prevalent. These boxes are periodically exchanged with schools in neighbouring villages. (3)

(1) H.B. Allen, Rural Reconstruction in Action, Op.Cit., P.155.

(2) F.W. Reeves, Op. Cit., P.147

(3) Ministry of Education, Government of India, Hand-book of Suggestions for Teachers in Small Rural Schools. (New Delhi: 1954), P. 21.

It is, therefore, desirable that such services be extended to the villages of Iran as well. This is particularly essential for schools in remote areas whose teachers are not so well trained and there are limited resources to draw upon in teaching.

It is also recommended that an adequate professional library be established in each of the training centers and provisions be made to lend the books to teachers and children in small villages away from such centers.

V. Teacher Welfare

One of the most serious problems in rural education has been the reluctance of able teachers to remain in the village. No sooner is a teacher appointed to teach in a village until he or she begins to dream up ways of migrating to a city. Not only does he feel isolated intellectually and socially, but professionally he is a forgotten man. He is seldom visited by an inspector or supervisor. His physical living conditions often lack the essentials of sanitation and comfort. If the Ministry of Education should pay more attention to the welfare of rural teachers and provide ways and means to make rural teaching more attractive, the teachers would most probably remain in the village.

Herbert G. Espy, Consultant to the Minister of Education has recommended:

A commission should be appointed to evaluate teacher welfare programs in the Ministry of Education and to recommend further policy and programs. . . The Commission should study the welfare needs of teachers. In making these studies, the Commission should particularly take into account not only the needs and services in the nation's larger cities, but also those in remote rural regions.(1)

Thus, the need for teacher welfare is recognized. But what kind of services are of most value to rural teachers. The writer believes that three things must be provided in order to attract and retain teachers in rural areas. These are:- (1) Insuring rural teachers; (2) Paying better salaries; and (3) Providing a teacher's residence.

Fortunately, the first of the three urgent needs has recently been provided for rural teachers in Iran. As was described in Chapter two, the Ministry of Education and the Iranian Insurance Company have reached an agreement regarding the insurance of rural teachers. But this measure alone is not sufficient. The other two measures are necessary if village teaching is to attract candidates of ability and dedication.

A. Better Salaries.-- Reference has been made

(1) Herbert G. Espy, Strengthening the Ministry of Education for Leadership. (Produced by Communications Media US/AID-Iran, 1962), pp. 52-53.

to the low salaries that the rural teachers in Iran receive. The rural teaching force is mostly composed of assistant teachers, contract teachers and daily-paid teachers. Their salaries, specially the latter two categories, are rarely sufficient for bare subsistence, let alone for other essential needs. How can one expect a daily-paid teacher to carry his full responsibility while he receives 60 Rials (75 cents) for each day he works, and nothing for the days during which he does not work?

So far the writer has made every attempt to eliminate suggestions which might require the expenditure of considerable funds on the part of the Ministry of Education. But the Ministry must face up to the necessity of offering better salaries to rural teachers if capable young men and women are to be attracted and retained in rural teaching.

It is, therefore, suggested that after careful consideration of the economic situation of the country, the base salary of rural teachers be increased, and the existing meagre allowances be adjusted so that rural teachers can have the benefit of a decent living, and village schools are not left without competent teachers.

It is further recommended that salary increments and promotions to rural teachers be given when they are due, so that teachers do not lose interest in their

work. The welfare of rural teachers can and should be served by according them the same privileges for promotion, tenure and salary increases as are accorded to urban teachers. Excellent work should be recognized and rewarded. Contract and daily-paid teachers, when demonstrating ability and dedication, should be placed on the regular cadre of the Ministry with all the privileges pertaining to such status.

B. Providing Teacher's Residences.— Every effort should be made to improve the conditions under which teachers live and work. A teacher's success depends to a large degree on how happy he is in his living situation. Thus, providing satisfactory living conditions is another means of attracting and retaining teachers in rural areas. The practice of providing a home for rural teachers is now quite common in many countries. Iman Schatzman gives a detailed description of such a practice in some European countries and claims that, wherever tried, it has given excellent results.(1) Several states in the United States have provided what they call "teacherage" for rural teachers. (2)

(1) Iman I. Schatzman, Op. Cit., pp. 1-130

(2) Ernest Hilton, Rural School Management, (New York: American Book Company, 1949), P.77.

Teaching is hard and tiring, so a teacher must have a simple comfortable house where he can enjoy privacy and where he can both rest and work.(1)

It is, therefore, suggested that provision be made for securing houses for rural teachers in Iran. This can be done in the following ways:-

1. In the overall plan for construction of rural schools, a small section may be added for the teacher's residence.

2. In each village where there is a school a house may be rented by the Ministry of Education in which the teacher or teachers can live. This house can serve as a center for social activities as well.

3. If the teacher is from the locality and he so wishes, he may be assisted by a long-term loan from the Ministry or various banks which offer such loans to build a house for himself. By having a house of his own the teacher acquires a deeper interest in the welfare of both the school and the community.

4. But since teachers do not usually remain in a village for a long time, it is advisable that the house belongs to the school. This need not be a very luxurious building. A healthy, simple and attractive house which can serve as a model to be imitated by villagers is most suitable.

(1) Ibid.,

VI. Training Teachers for the Tribes.

In view of the important productive role that tribal people play in the economy of the country, their education must be carefully planned for. While the writer admits that in the last few years the 'white tents', as mentioned in Chapter two, have rendered a valuable service in educating tribal children, he believes that still much remains to be done. Many children are still illiterate, lacking the rudiments of education. For those in schools, there is need to enrich the present curriculum by including still more materials and activities directly applicable to their tribal needs, such as animal husbandry, agriculture, health and social processes. As Jamali points out:

Any educational program for the tribes must be as close to their daily lives as possible. Any attempt to improve schooling in the manner in which schooling is carried on in towns and cities is certainly doomed... Education for the tribes should become one of demonstration and activity rather than one of verbalism. Nothing impresses the tribal member more than to see something actually proved before his eyes.(1)

(1) Mohammed Fadhel Jamali, The New Iraq: Its Problems of Bedouin Education, (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1934), P. 112.

Tribal pride, beliefs and ideals should be respected and not contradicted. Preferably the teachers to be trained should be chosen from tribal communities. They should be mature enough and possess such a personality as to attract the tribes and their chiefs and win their confidence. (1)

It is therefore recommended that more mature teachers be assigned to teach tribal youth and adults. This necessitates that the present practice of recruiting young and immature boys and girls who hold elementary certificates only, and who follow one year of training be discontinued. Since tribal education started as early as 1953, it is possible to find enough candidates necessary for entrance in the "One Year" course suggested earlier in this chapter.

Because the tribal people constitute 15 per cent of the whole population of Iran and different tribes are scattered in the different regions of the country, the existing one tribal normal school in Shiraz with the enrolment of 96 students, does not seem to be adequate to meet the requirements.

It is, therefore, suggested that the number of tribal normal schools be increased to at least eight (this is the number which was in operation until 1964)

(1) Ibid., pp. 113-115.

and that these centers be located in the different regions of the country so as to meet the needs of different areas. The conditions would be the same as suggested for rural teacher training institutions with a slight difference as to the special needs of the tribes.

VII. Preparing more women teachers for rural areas.

From the social point of view, one of the most important needs of the country is the education of girls and women in rural areas. Iran is in the process of social progress as a result of the implementation of the land reform laws. But this social progress cannot be thoroughly achieved unless the girls and women of the country are enlightened. However, the expansion of education among rural girls and rural women faces a dual problem - one of overcoming local prejudice against the education of girls; another of providing enough women teachers who would be willing to teach in remote areas. How can these problems be tackled? According to Dr. Habib A. Kurani:

In order to overcome the local prejudice against the education of girls, the rural teacher needs the assistance of a woman. If that woman is his wife and they can work as a team, it is an ideal situation. (1)

(1) Habib A. Kurani, Op. Cit., P.20

In his book "Mission for My Country" the Shah offers a proposal along the same line when he writes:

Meanwhile, I should like to see us experiment with mixed teachers' training schools where young men and women study together. One of the advantages might be that they would lead to husband-wife teams who would be especially adapted to living and teaching in remote villages, where the couples could share each other's cultural interests. (1)

It is, therefore, suggested that, in the first place, in appointing teachers to rural areas priority be given to married couples both of whom are teachers. The number of such teachers is not small in the country. Brothers and sisters could also make a team and serve this purpose.

In the second place, it is proposed that teacher training centers be coeducational. This can be done and must be done for the following reasons:-

1. According to the Shah, who is believed to be an authority in diagnosing the current problems in the country, the time is now ripe for such a beginning. If such a movement were not feasible, he would not have recommended it.

2. Higher education in all universities and private institutions in Iran is coeducational. Since

(1) Mohammed Reza Shah Pahlavi, Op. Cit., P.250

the "one year course", proposed earlier in this chapter, is beyond high school level, it is regarded as a post-secondary course and can be coeducational like other similar institutions.

3. At present, graduates of teacher training colleges are assigned to schools where men and women teachers work together under either male or female principals. There is no reason why they should be kept separate during the training period.

In India, some of the measures calculated to increase both the number of girl pupils and that of women teachers have been enacted with the needs of rural areas in particular. In coeducational schools, the part of "school mother" - a woman assistant specially responsible for the girls - has been established; and efforts are made to grant free accommodation and a special supplementary allowance to women teachers working in rural areas. (1)

On the basis of this practice, it is further recommended that the deans of the training colleges be chosen from among the qualified men staff, and their assistants from the women staff of the college so that the students of either sex might be properly attended to.

(1) UNESCO, Access of girls and women to Education in Rural Areas, (Paris: 1964), P.36.

The writer believes that this scheme offers a possible solution to the dual problem mentioned before, and sooner or later it must happen in Iran.

Concluding Statement

In this chapter, proposals for the improvement of rural teacher training in Iran were offered. Desirable characteristics of rural teacher training institutions were discussed. It was shown that these institutions should: (a) be located in rural areas, (b) develop as community centers, and (c) centers for experimentation and research in rural education.

Suggestions regarding the selection of candidates on the basis of certain criteria were made. The minimum qualifications for entering a training center was set up at graduation from high school and as a practicable goal for the future, one year of intensive professional training was suggested.

The curriculum, methods of instruction and other necessary activities and programs were discussed in detail. The integrated and core curriculum was recommended as a substitute for the present subject-centered curriculum. Unit teaching was suggested as the method of instruction for the implementation of the new curriculum. A series of in-service programs was suggested for raising the academic and

professional growth of teachers in service in rural schools.

The question of teacher welfare was brought up, and suggestions for offering better salaries and providing residence were made as means of attracting and retaining competent teachers in rural communities.

As regards to the training teachers for the tribes, the necessity of choosing more mature candidates and expanding the number of tribal normal schools were made clear and recommendations were offered accordingly.

Finally, the problem of providing more women teachers for rural areas was tackled, and the solution was sought in establishing co-educational training centers.

The writer has offered all these recommendations out of sheer love for his country, and hopes that the proposals offered can be of value and serve the purpose of promoting rural education and rural conditions in Iran.

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