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RURAL  
ELEMENTARY TEACHER EDUCATION  
IN IRAN

By

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TEACHER EDUCATION IN IRAN

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## ABSTRACT

Teacher education is a major problem for the Iranian Ministry of Education. The Ministry is in need of 5000 additional teachers every year. Many of the present rural teachers are unqualified and have only a sixth grade education. The great mass of illiterate people, the rapid growth of the birth rate and the consequent increase in the enrollment of elementary schools, the keen interest of the Ministry of Education in the improvement and expansion of rural education, stress the great need for a new teacher education system to cope with the training of large numbers of qualified teachers for rural Iran.]

The present educational system has stressed the education of the elite. The people in cities under the present system have acquired a modern outlook, while the peasants who make up seventy-five percent of the total population have remained relatively static. Thus a wide social gap has developed between the two segments. This problem makes the task of the rural teacher a crucial one. He is expected to develop new attitudes and to provide education in the social, political, and economic aspects of the life of the rural community. He should be a leader and an important agent for social control and social reconstruction. The present teachers in rural Iran are not qualified for their jobs and there is continuing difficulty in persuading qualified teachers to undertake service in rural areas while the attraction of urban life continues to draw them to larger cities.

On the one hand, the present practices in pre-service and in-service education of rural teachers are by no means sufficient for the



preparation and training of qualified teachers. On the other hand, qualified teachers are so essential for producing reforms in the educational system of the country that without a sufficient number of them, any sound project for the improvement of education would be a failure.

In this study an attempt has been made to analyze the rural teacher education system in Iran. In order to understand present practices a discussion of the social and cultural background of rural Iran has been included. In the light of the findings and conclusions from a review of related literature from democratic countries and of personal experiences in the field, suggestions for the improvement of the pre-service program have been made. Recommendations have also been made for a soundly organized in-service program for rural teachers in the hope of raising their academic and professional standards.

The writer has made every attempt to eliminate suggestions which may require unnecessary expenditure on the part of the Iranian Ministry of Education.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### The Problem and its Importance

Because of the increasing demand for new schools all over the country, teacher education is problem number one for the Iranian Ministry of Education. The Ministry is in need of 5000<sup>1</sup> additional teachers every year, effective 1956. (Tehran, the capital of Iran, is not included.) In his report to the Iranian Minister of Education, Mr. Law, the Unesco advisor in agricultural education, emphasizes the intensity of the teacher education problem in rural Iran:

Many rural teachers are ill prepared to teach. Many of them have only a six grade education. These teachers have not had any real training to be teachers. They have not always come up through a good primary school and so they tend to do a poor teaching job..... The need for more and better trained teachers for the village schools is acute.<sup>2</sup>

While it is true that rural Iran has a shortage of about 5000 teachers per year, fortunately there exists a large teaching group whose members might be good teachers if they are given an opportunity to learn. About 8000 of the present rural teachers have only had six years

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<sup>1</sup>Henderson, Hubert, "Compulsory Education in Iran," A Report to the Minister of Education, August 1957, P.18.

<sup>2</sup>Law, Sydney DeCrew, A Report to the Minister of Education, December 1957, P.6.

of education.<sup>3</sup> These statistics emphasize the great need for the professional improvement of rural teachers.

Fortunately the present educational system of Iran is in a stage of modernization. Great emphasis has been laid on rural development. Dr. Abbass Ekrami, who is an experienced educator in Iran, emphasizes this point in the following statement:

The country has turned of her own will toward the West, especially the United States of America for the solution of many of her educational problems, and the educational system is passing through a period of transition from the traditional type to a more effective and humane system of education.<sup>4</sup>

The role of teachers in a period of transition and change is crucial. The teachers should be social leaders in directing new changes towards modernization. It follows that the need for teacher education is very great.

The rapid increase in the birth rate and the consequent increase in the enrollments of elementary schools increases the burden of formal education. Therefore more qualified teachers are needed.

The Iranian Ministry of Education has recently determined to pay special attention to the improvement and expansion of rural education.<sup>5</sup> The increase in the salaries of rural teachers and the rapid increase in the number of rural teacher training schools are evidences of the keen interest of the Ministry in the development of rural education. Hence

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<sup>3</sup>Henderson, Op. Cit., P.18.

<sup>4</sup>A Program for the Improvement of Elementary Education in Iran, 1953, P.2.

<sup>5</sup>Law, Op. Cit., P.3.



the Ministry is badly in need of a new teacher education system to cope with the training of large numbers of rural teachers. So a study of the present system of teacher education seems timely and vital.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this thesis is to analyze the present system of rural elementary teacher education in Iran and suggest methods for its improvement. In regard to pre-service training of rural teachers, the purpose is to suggest ways and means by which the rural school teachers might receive the type of training which enables them to become leaders, concerned with the total development and adjustment of children. To meet this end, the purpose of the writer is to give proposals (a) for solving the problem of selecting the right candidates for the teaching profession in rural areas, (b) for a gradual change in the present prescribed curriculum in order to make it more consonant with the needs of the trainees and those of the community, (c) for adopting a method of instruction which enables the teacher to further the total development of students and to assist them in adjusting both to school and to out of school situations, (d) for a new system of evaluation to replace the present system which ignores individual differences and is an obstacle in the way of promoting equality of educational opportunities, and (e) for developing a new system of budgeting, that enables the teacher training school principal to run the school efficiently within the limits of the present budget.

The increase in the number of schools and school population and the shortage of teachers have created the problem of unqualified teachers; so another purpose of the writer is to make suggestions for

the establishment of in-service training programs for the rural teachers in order to raise their professional standards as rapidly as is possible.

In submitting these suggestions for the improvement of teacher education in rural Iran, the writer hopes to succeed in making them as practical as possible to fit in within the financial resources that are generally available in rural Iran.

### The Method

The approach in this study is based on library research or documentary method and observation. Available literature related to the problem in question has been studied. Related literature in Persian and all first hand materials obtainable from the Iranian Ministries, have also been studied. In using the sources in Persian, the writer has given particular attention to the writings of Dr. Issa Sadiq, who is an authority on education in Iran. Since the sources for the study of rural education in Iran are very limited, and since no research has so far been done in this field, the writer depends heavily on his own observations and experience during a period of about fifteen years with the Iranian Ministry of Education in the following capacities - teacher and principal of elementary schools, teacher and principal of a secondary school, principal of a rural teacher training school, supervisor of rural teacher training schools, and education director of a district and of a province.

### Limitations of the Study

Although rural elementary schools are important factors in the educational system of rural Iran, it is not the purpose of this study to discuss the elementary schools themselves. Some reference, however, has

been made to those aspects that are directly connected with the preparation of teachers.

While teacher training schools have been discussed in general, rural elementary teacher training schools have been stressed. The Higher Teacher Training College is outside the scope of the present study. Assistant teacher training schools, which were established as emergency training centers, are not treated. Their standards are very low, and there is a strong tendency in the Ministry to abolish them gradually. This study, then, is confined to rural elementary teacher education and in-service training for teachers who serve in rural areas.

#### Organization

The subjects covered in this study are organized into three major parts. The first part deals with the social and cultural background of rural Iran. The second part covers the characteristics and qualifications of present teachers as well as a description of the present system of the pre-service training of teachers in rural Iran. In the last part, proposals for the improvement of rural teacher training schools and a program for the improvement of in-service training of the presently unqualified teachers are presented in the hope that they may be used to raise the professional standards of rural teachers in Iran.

## CHAPTER II

### SOCIAL AND CULTURAL BACKGROUND OF RURAL IRAN

It is difficult to consider any country's system of education without reference to the cultural, economic and social forces which have helped to produce it and which continue to affect its nature and growth.

Iranian culture has had five main characteristics: namely, language, diffusion, iron discipline, Islam and the laissez-faire state in education.<sup>1</sup>

The Persian language which is the most important medium of communication and education, has remained the same all during the country's history. An Iranian today is able to read books written ten centuries ago, while it is difficult for a modern Englishman to understand English written four centuries ago.

Diffusion is the second characteristic of the Iranian culture. Although Iranians had many outstanding philosophers and writers, they have always easily borrowed from other countries. In the pre-Islamic period, Iranians borrowed from India, Greece and other countries. In the post-Islamic period, they have benefited by the culture of India, Greece, China and other countries. During the last hundred years a great deal was borrowed from Europe and to some extent from the United

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<sup>1</sup>Sadiq, Issa, History of Iranian Education, 1958, P.20.

States.

Iron discipline is the third characteristic of the Iranian culture. In all the schools during the past, children were taught to practise absolute obedience.

The fifth characteristic of the Iranian culture in the past was the laissez-faire state in education. The government did not assume responsibility in education until a hundred years ago. It did not even have any kind of supervision over the private schools.<sup>2</sup>

These characteristics have affected the Iranian culture and in course of time produced the present culture pattern.

#### SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS AND SOCIAL STRUCTURE

##### Social Structure

There are many different ethnic groups all over the country. Because of this diversity each segment of the society has its particular characteristics and social attitudes differ from place to place. But in general the country is divided into two segments: The elite group which is small but powerful, and the masses who form the majority. The top group is called the one thousand family group. Members of this group are the owners of land, members of parliament and they occupy the key positions in all ministries. At the bottom is the great majority of the people who live in rural areas and are generally in a poor situation. The peasant's income in most cases is totally inadequate to secure a decent living for him and his family.<sup>3</sup> In the village there is no

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<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Lambton, Ann K.S., Land and Peasant in Persia, 1953, P.379.

social class and the peasants are more or less on the same social status. There is a close relationship between men and women in rural areas and both work shoulder to shoulder. The rural community consists of primary groups which are like intimate families. The Iranian peasant has maintained his way of life and attitudes for thousands of years in spite of political changes and foreign domination.

### Family

The family is the center of the Iranian loyalties. It is the core around which the Iranian builds a wall to protect the members of the family from outsiders. From the family, the loyalty extends to the village, tribe, and nation as the interest arises. The Iranian develops his basic attitudes toward authority in the family. The family is patrilineal, paternalistic and authoritarian. A person has no equal within his family so far as the relation of members is concerned. He is either superior or inferior to others. This is one of the reasons why an Iranian tries to find friends in order to deal with them on terms of full equality. For achieving this purpose and getting rid of the daily cares of the world, he spends some of his leisure time in the athletic clubs, the market, the mosque, the teahouse, etc., where there is no hierarchical system.<sup>4</sup>

There are several responsibilities traditionally lying within the structure of the family such as taking care of children or handicapped adults, that in other communities are no longer the responsibility of the family. Due to technological changes and higher standards of living in urban areas, members of the urban families have outside

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<sup>4</sup>Naghibzadeh, Mohammad Ali, Ruling By Hearts, 1956, P.28.

engagements which keep them from accepting some of their home responsibilities, which have been transferred to the state. In rural Iran, however, the family has kept its solidarity.

Children are greatly valued in Iran. In rural areas, the number of children is much greater than in urban areas. It is a great misfortune if a woman cannot bear children. In such cases the husband usually marries a second woman. When a person has more than one wife, the first one is the mistress of the house and is respected and obeyed by other wives.

Peasant families and extended patrilineal groups in villages, usually have few kin ties beyond the village and remain in a certain village over long periods of time. Peasant families are largely self-sufficient with respect to food, fuel, and shelter.

In these days people have started to worry about the disintegration of the family in Iran. The disintegration is due to the infiltration of the new ideas and values which have caused disturbance within the family structure. Dr. Birjandi emphasizes this point in the following statement:

The greatest threat to Iranian society at present time is the disintegration of the traditional family unit in this country. Such has been the by-product of modern civilization in more industrialized countries and there is no reason to believe that Iran will not be infected by it in the absence of preventive measures. What helps Iranians from detrimental effects of social-political upheavals is the basic security they have experienced in childhood in the embrace of the tight Iranian family system.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>5</sup>Birjandi, Parvin, Tehran Journal, January 7, 1959, P.8.

Tribe

A typical Iranian village or nomadic tribe is made up largely of people who seldom visit a city and who do not have access to many of its advantages. Their contact with government and other areas is through the village landlord or tribe khan who is a wealthy and powerful character. Tribes represent about ten percent of the total population.<sup>6</sup>

The tribesmen are pastoral and they are used to hard life on the mountains. They think of one another as kinfolk and have strong loyalties to their leaders. They are well organized and trained for war. In the past they showed courage and bravery on several occasions when the country was invaded by foreigners.<sup>7</sup> They have been powerful political forces.

The tribes move with their herds from place to place on difficult mountains once or twice a year. In this arduous journey, tents and household goods are packed on mule-back. Some women and children may also ride, but men and other women make the difficult journey on foot carrying their infants in wooden cradles on their backs.

One social force which brings these tribesmen together for cooperation and unity is the need to band together to maintain control of their pasture lands. It is difficult for the government agencies to collect taxes and this is often done by local influential people. Reza Shah tried to subdue tribes by killing those tribe leaders who wanted to remain autonomous and did not obey the central government. He collected their arms but at the same time tried not to discourage

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<sup>6</sup>Vreeland, Herbert H., Iran, 1957, P.153.

<sup>7</sup>Naghibzadeh, Op. Cit., P.74.



the spirit of independence in them. From ancient times the tribesmen have fought frequently among themselves but they have never split off from the nation as a whole. They are known as true patriots all over the country.

### Religion

Ninety-one percent of the population are members of the Shi'a sect of Islam.<sup>8</sup> For four and a half centuries Islam has been the state religion and the bulwark of Iranian nationalism.

Iranian Muslims have a broad interpretation of Qur'an, thus opening the way for better adaptation to the change of habits over time.<sup>9</sup> They believe that Islam adjusts itself to the changing world.

Islam in Iran encourages equality of opportunities, dignity of work, freedom and sharing and, therefore, has many elements in common with democracy. According to Islam, "Knowledge is indispensable to all Muslims, men and women." So although Islam has come to be in a sense authoritarian, it could be more conducive to modern education if properly interpreted.

Iranian Muslims are very much concerned about giving alms. Alms are given to the religious leaders to be spent for religious purposes. Five kinds of property are given as alms: cattle, money, grain, fruits and merchandise. The main source of alms giving is the rural area where religious beliefs are highly valued.

Religious leaders in rural areas are called Mullas. A Mulla is a Muslim cleric of limited training in theology. He is distinguished

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<sup>8</sup>Wilber, Donald N., Iran, 1950, P.208.

<sup>9</sup>Vreeland, Op. Cit., P.292.

by the robe and turban.<sup>10</sup> Religious leaders play an important part in the political life of the community, although they do not openly interfere in politics. One shining example of the influence of religious leaders in the society is the "tobacco monopoly." In 1890 a British concern was given a tobacco monopoly, but religious leaders officially forbade the use of tobacco within Iran.<sup>11</sup> Nobody used tobacco until the monopoly was cancelled. In rural areas, peasants blindly follow the religious leaders who can use villagers in any way they desire.

Minority religions are Zoroastrianism, Christianity, and Judaism. The state officially recognizes these religions. Zoroastrianism was established in the sixth century B.C. as the state religion of the Persian Empire. This religion is primarily agricultural. It has grown out of the belief in supernatural power. The Zoroastrian book, *Zend-Avesta*, deals directly with the care of crops and animals. Many present-day Zoroastrians are professional gardeners.<sup>12</sup>

### Education

Iranian culture can be traced to twenty-five centuries ago. The modern era of education in Iran started with the establishment of the constitutional government fifty years ago.<sup>13</sup> The real change took place during the reign of Reza Shah. During this reign a law was passed for the dispatch of Iranian students to European universities for advanced studies in all branches. At present there are about ten thousand students

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<sup>10</sup>Wilber, Op. Cit., P.211.

<sup>11</sup>Wilber, Op. Cit., P.81.

<sup>12</sup>Vreeland, Op. Cit., P.295.

<sup>13</sup>Ministry of Education, Education of Iran, 1958, P.71.

abroad.<sup>14</sup> A National Teachers College was founded, the University of Tehran was established, and a vast program of school construction was carried out. Table one shows the tremendous progress of schools during the last forty years.

Religion was the strongest element in the Iranian education until the beginning of this century. But with the central government taking an active part in education, the emphasis changed. The state became responsible for the education of the youth, and since then, education has always been a tool for indoctrination. Ideological, psychological, and political tension are brought into play in the Iranian educational field.

In teaching, the emphasis is on theory rather than on practice. Recently the Ministry tried to change the emphasis, but the large number of untrained teachers is an obstacle to such a change.

For a long time education has been for the elite at the expense of the material needs of the masses. While education is free for all regardless of birth, creed, or social status, not all within the lower economic strata would find it possible to avail themselves of the opportunity provided for them by the state.

At present there are 252 nursery schools with 11530 children, 7750 primary schools with 1,020,703 pupils and 963 secondary schools with 190,112 students in Iran. Out of 7750 primary schools, 600 are in rural areas with about 20,000 pupils. Out of 600 ordinary village schools (both rural and urban types), there are only 258 rural schools namely those schools having a curriculum with rural bias. The total

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<sup>14</sup>Massudi, Abbass, Ettela'at, January 1959, No.2768, P.4.

TABLE I

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS  
IN IRAN IN THE LAST THIRTY YEARS\*

1927-1928

Schools			Students			Teachers		
Elem.	Secon.	Total	Elem.	Secon.	Total	Elem.	Secon.	Total
648	60	708	72357	7510	79867	3280	889	4169

1942-1943

Schools			Students			Teachers		
Elem.	Secon.	Total	Elem.	Secon.	Total	Elem.	Secon.	Total
2424	301	2725	253838	24112	277950	9637	3327	11964

1957-1958

Schools			Students			Teachers		
Elem.	Secon.	Total	Elem.	Secon.	Total	Elem.	Secon.	Total
7455	925	8380	998644	190112	1188756	33255	7547	40802

\* Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., P.16.

number of pupils in such rural elementary schools is 8544 pupils.<sup>15</sup>

This shows that while seventy-five percent of the total population lives in rural areas,<sup>16</sup> only about two percent of the entire Iranian elementary school attendance is found in rural schools. If the urban type schools in villages are excluded less than one percent of elementary school children are in rural schools. These statistics show how rural education has so far been ignored in Iran and how great the need is at present.

The aim of modern rural education in Iran is first, to increase the number of rural schools and second, to improve the standards of living by creating a healthy, informed and trained labor force through education.<sup>17</sup> Rural education is very young in Iran. School facilities are crude, teaching methods outmoded and staffs poorly trained.

Recently American advisors have been assigned to the Rural Education Department by Point Four. Better supervision of schools is being carried out and plans for reconstruction of the rural school system are now under consideration.

In Varamin, a rural district east of Tehran, the Near East Foundation has demonstrated new rural schools to meet the needs of the locality. This successful plan is gradually being expanded by the government to cover all rural Iran.

Literacy. Until recently, the rate of illiteracy has been very high, almost nine out of ten persons in rural Iran cannot read and

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<sup>15</sup> Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., P.64.

<sup>16</sup> Amuzegar, Jahangir, School and Society, 1956, P.99.

<sup>17</sup> Rural Education Department, Departmental Report, 1958, P.2.

write.<sup>18</sup> During the last few years, the Ministry of Education started a literacy campaign which should be continued for several more years before it can obtain a high rate of literacy. One of the steps taken by the government in this respect was a decree issued in 1947 providing every employer must set up classes in his factory to teach his workers to read and write.<sup>19</sup> Workers who learned to read and write were to receive an increase of five percent in wages. This was a good incentive for illiterate workers.

Teachers are encouraged to teach adult classes by giving them allowances to teach such classes. During the last academic year about 120,000 classes were held in various parts of the country and about 350,000 adults received primary education.<sup>20</sup>

### Social Values

There are certain values in the Iranian culture that affect all aspects of everyday life of the individuals. The major ones are discussed here.

Nationalism. Nationalism in Iran is traditionally focused around the institution of the Shah. The Iranian literature has been for several centuries encouraging the feeling of nationalism and the support of the monarchy. The Iranian national anthem is for the support of the institution of the Shah. Loyalty to the Shah as an institution is basic element in the Iranian national attitude. Peasants and tribes are very loyal to the Shah, and to them, he is the symbol of the nation.

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<sup>18</sup> Amuzegar, Op. Cit., P.99.

<sup>19</sup> Vreeland, Op. Cit., P.159.

<sup>20</sup> Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., P.66.

Nationalistic feelings of the Iranians manifest themselves in different ways. For example, in 1945 when an autonomous state was announced in Azarbayejan, a province on the Irano-Soviet border, by the so-called democrat party, a kind of nationalistic movement started all over the country and finally the autonomous state collapsed under the peoples' pressure.

Another example of the nationalistic feeling is the recent case of oil-nationalization under the prime minister Mossadegh. He found an excellent opportunity to stir popular emotions which led to the closing down of the Abadan refinery and shutting off the world market.

Authority. Authority is another important value in the Iranian culture. "Iranians are up-oriented in their society. They look upward for direction, control and protection."<sup>21</sup> Traditionally Iranians respect the strong person. Strength, rank and age are accepted as basis for authority. In many cases obedience is stressed. The Zoroastrian religion is a good example. This authoriterianism is found in all aspects of the Iranian life. The relation of the landlord and peasant, teacher and pupil, government and people, father and the son is basically authoriterian. Because of too much authority, little initiative is seen in the government circles, institutions, schools, etc. Responsibilities are fully explained and each individual is expected to stick to his responsibility and abide by rules and regulations.

Hospitality. Hospitality is an important part of the Iranian culture especially in rural areas. Whenever a visitor goes to a village,

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<sup>21</sup>Vreeland, Op. Cit., P.5.

he is warmly entertained by the Kadkhoda (governor of the village) or the farmer to the best of his ability. "Guest is a blessing from God" is the famous rural saying which indicates the traditional hospitality of the peasants in rural Iran.

Sense of honor. Another important value in the Iranian culture is the sense of honor. A rural Iranian will fight to defend his honor if it is publicly assailed. The Iranian peasant thinks he will lose face if he loses in a game or competition. He dare not appear to give in, because giving in means weakness and his self esteem is at stake. He cannot admit failure.

#### ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

Iran is primarily an agricultural country. The farmer is faced with harsh work, inadequate income, primitive tools and practices and poor sanitation. The result is poverty, disease, inadequate diet, and inefficient work.

#### Agriculture

Agriculture is a way of life in Iran, a kind of hard life facing limited natural advantages. There are about forty thousand villages in Iran most of which are small with fifty to a hundred families in each. There are a few big villages with more than five hundred families.<sup>22</sup>

In Iran only ten percent of the land is arable at present.<sup>23</sup>  
The farmers do not plant all the land they have at one time, they leave

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<sup>22</sup>Amuzegar, Op. Cit., P.99.

<sup>23</sup>Vreeland, Op. Cit., P.30.



a piece for the following year or years to restore fertility. If they want to plant a piece of land continuously they have to use additional fertilizer to prepare it for cultivation. In some places farmers use a crop rotation system instead of leaving the land uncultivated. They plant one piece of land with a certain crop and the other piece with another kind depending upon the soil and the kind of local climate.

Agricultural tools. The agricultural equipment is very primitive. Wooden plows are used in many areas. Threshing tools are also primitive. They toss the grain into the air with a wooden pitchfork and the straw is separated by the wind while the grain remains on the other side. Recently, tractors were introduced either by the big landlords or by cooperatives. Young farmers are trained to work with tractors.

Fertilizers. The Iranian farmers seldom use chemical fertilizers, because it is expensive. They compensate for this by rotating the land. Sometimes they use animal manure where it is available while in the suburb of the cities, dirt and household refuse are used instead.

The people of Esfahan, a central province, are famous for their clever use of pigeon manure. They build tall towers with mud bricks. At the top of the towers they design holes for attracting pigeons. There are wooden bars near the ceiling where pigeons live. An Esfahani farmer collects the rich manure whenever needed.

Irrigation. Since the rainfall is very low in many parts of the country, the important source of irrigation is qanat which is underground water coming from the natural springs in the hills. Several access wells are constructed along the qanat line from the spring in the hill

to the farm in the plains. A qanat needs clearing once a year and requires skill and hard work to keep it operating properly. There are skilled workers in the village who do the dangerous jobs at a high cost.

Recently the government has taken steps to improve the irrigation system. Many dams are under construction. Projects are also carried out for proper water conservation.

Livestock. Stock raising is very common among the tribesmen. The animals depend very much upon the crop residues such as straw and plant roots. Sheep are raised more than any other animal in Iran. The meat, the wool and the manure of the livestock are important to livestock raisers.

### Industry

Introduction of industry during the last thirty years has brought about many changes in human thought and orientation. Great numbers of villagers were employed as workers in the new factories. They found themselves influential in political affairs.

The labor law of 1949 was a good means for the protection of all industrial workers whether they are in government factories or private ones.

A basic forty-eight hour a week is prescribed, one rest day per week and five day paid leave for each six months of continuous service. Seven specified national holidays must be observed. Children under twelve years of age must not work except as apprentices. Children thirteen to sixteen years old have a seven hour working day, plus one hour of 'labor education' or apprenticeship; overtime is illegal. Women and children under sixteen may not work at onerous or dangerous jobs or at night. When women bear children, they are entitled to a total of twelve weeks of leave with pay and the employer must provide a nursery for nursing mothers.<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>24</sup>Vreeland, Op. Cit., P.159.

This modern labor law encouraged a lot of men and women to enter factories as workers and gave the workers a better position and status than farmers.

The Oil industry is the most important industry in the country, employing about forty percent of all industrial labor.<sup>25</sup>

The Plan Organization helps to develop industries such as textiles, chemicals, silk, tea and rice.

Fishing is the occupation of rural people in the Caspian region. The Caspian sea is rich in many varieties of fish. Caviar which is one of the Iran's exports is the product of fishing in the north.

### Trade

Trade in the villages is in the form of barter and money is seldom used in rural areas. The peasant in trading with the landlord, the shopkeeper, the bathman uses barter and at the time of the harvest he pays them in kind. The peasant is an unskilled trader. He usually operates on his own, rather than through cooperatives. He is ignorant of market conditions outside his own area.

The transportation between villages and towns is primitive. Farmers either use pack animals or carry the load themselves. Big landlords use trucks for this purpose.

### Landlord and Peasant

The relation between the peasant and the landlord is mostly based on the crop-sharing agreement. The crop is divided on the basis of the ownership of one of the five factors of production: land, water,

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<sup>25</sup>Vreeland, Op. Cit., P.156.

seed, oxen and equipment, and labor.<sup>26</sup> In many cases, the landlord owns the land, water, seed, oxen and equipment. The peasant gives the labor and takes only one-fifth which is not enough to provide the livelihood for himself and his family.

The landlord owns the whole village or several villages. He is usually an absentee landlord and an agent in the village manages his property on his behalf. Since the landlord seeks immediate profits, he shows little interest in long-term investment in land improvement or provision of modern equipment. Land is looked upon by landlords as a sign of prestige. They are not interested in the quality of their land, but they value the quantity which socially adds to their prestige.

The Iranian peasant with his poor income which is just a bare subsistence must feed and support his family, pay his debts for water, seed, land, oxen and field guards. In some areas there are well-to-do peasants who own oxen and plows and get more shares of the crop. A tricky point on the part of the landlord is that the peasant should pay his debts at harvest time when prices are lowest. The landlord or money lender lends him when the farmer is badly in need of it and when the price of the grain is high.

The landlord-peasant relationship is characterized by mutual suspicion and dissatisfaction. But due to the traditional attitude towards higher people, the farmer looks to his landlord for direction and protection.

It has been traditionally a custom for the poor farmer or tribesman to make gifts to the landlord or the tribal chief. The gifts included cattle, lambs, chickens, eggs, marriage dues and fines for quarrelling.

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<sup>26</sup>Lambton, Op. Cit., P.306.

The presents used to be taken to the landlords on the eve of a festival.

Last October, the Shah ordered the government to put a stop to the practice of gift giving to the landlords. This is one of the Shah's decisions against the landlord class and in favor of the peasants. But how effectively provincial governors and gendarmes will be able to put it into practice remains to be seen.

### POLITICAL CONDITIONS

#### The Shah

The kingdom in Iran goes back six thousand years.<sup>27</sup> The Shah is the symbol of unity and power in the country. He is the head of the state and many threads of the Iranian social fabric are tied together in one role in the hand of the powerful king. He is also commander in chief of the army.

From the old times people have had strong faith in the Shah. Religious people believe he derives his powers from God. "The Shah is the shadow of God upon earth." Attitudes are built through constant indoctrination in school, home and society. In no country in the world, is the life of the people so dependent on the king as in Iran.<sup>28</sup> The Shah is the most telling factor in Iranian public affairs.

In the poems of Ferdowsi, the famous Iranian poet who lived ten centuries ago, there are many evidences of the strong beliefs in the institution of the Shah from ancient times. "You know that according

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<sup>27</sup> Shojaeddin, Shafa, Ettela'at Daily Paper, December, 1958, P.4.

<sup>28</sup> Naghibzadeh, Op. Cit., P.29.

to religion and faith, the order of the God and the order of the Shah are the same."<sup>29</sup>

### The Government

Due to the intolerable conditions, there was a mass demonstration in 1906 in Tehran by people from all walks of life. This led to a constitution with provisions for a parliament. Since then there has been a constitutional monarchy in Iran. The whole country was unified under a central authority consisting of the Shah and a parliamentary government. The prime minister is the second personality after the Shah. He divides the executive power among the different ministries. The senate and the lower house form the parliament where representatives of the people discuss the main political issues.

The system of government is traditionally centralized and is based upon the French system. Recently, much authority has been given to local authorities who now operate independently to a large extent. One example of moving towards decentralization is the village administration. In the past there was a lot of red tape. If something happened it had to be reported to the Kadkhoda; from him to the local office of gendarmery and from there to a district officer who in turn sent it to the central gendarmery. But now enough authority has been given to the local agents in order to solve many of their own problems locally without any reference to the central administration.

### Administration of the Village

The administration of the village is in the hand of a man called Kadkhoda who is the headman. The control of the estates and discipline

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<sup>29</sup>Naghibzadeh, Op. Cit., P.30.

of the village is vested in him. He is responsible for all the affairs of the village. He settles disputes, controls the distribution of water, assists gendarmes in their contacts with the people and punishes deviants.

The Kadkhoda is the official representative of the government. He is appointed by the district governor who is his boss. He works closely with the village council and other government agencies connected with the village. He is the important authority in the village since he is representing the landlord, the government and the villagers. He is the contact man between the village and those government and nongovernment agencies which happen to have any relations with the village people. There is a saying in Persian, "See the Kadkhoda and fleece the village."

#### The Village Council

Prime Minister Mossadegh in 1953 decreed the abolition of feudal dues and labor charges. Landlords were ordered to turn over twenty percent of their returns to be divided among peasants, rural development, and cooperative organizations.<sup>30</sup> To enforce the reforms, a council of five members, three elected by the peasants, was ordered to be established in each village. The order came as a result of a bill passed six years ago establishing village councils. Since 1953, village councils have been organized in many villages and have been effective in the rapid development of rural areas.<sup>31</sup> The councils are to set up marketing, consumers and credit cooperatives, establish schools and build buildings of public interest.<sup>32</sup>

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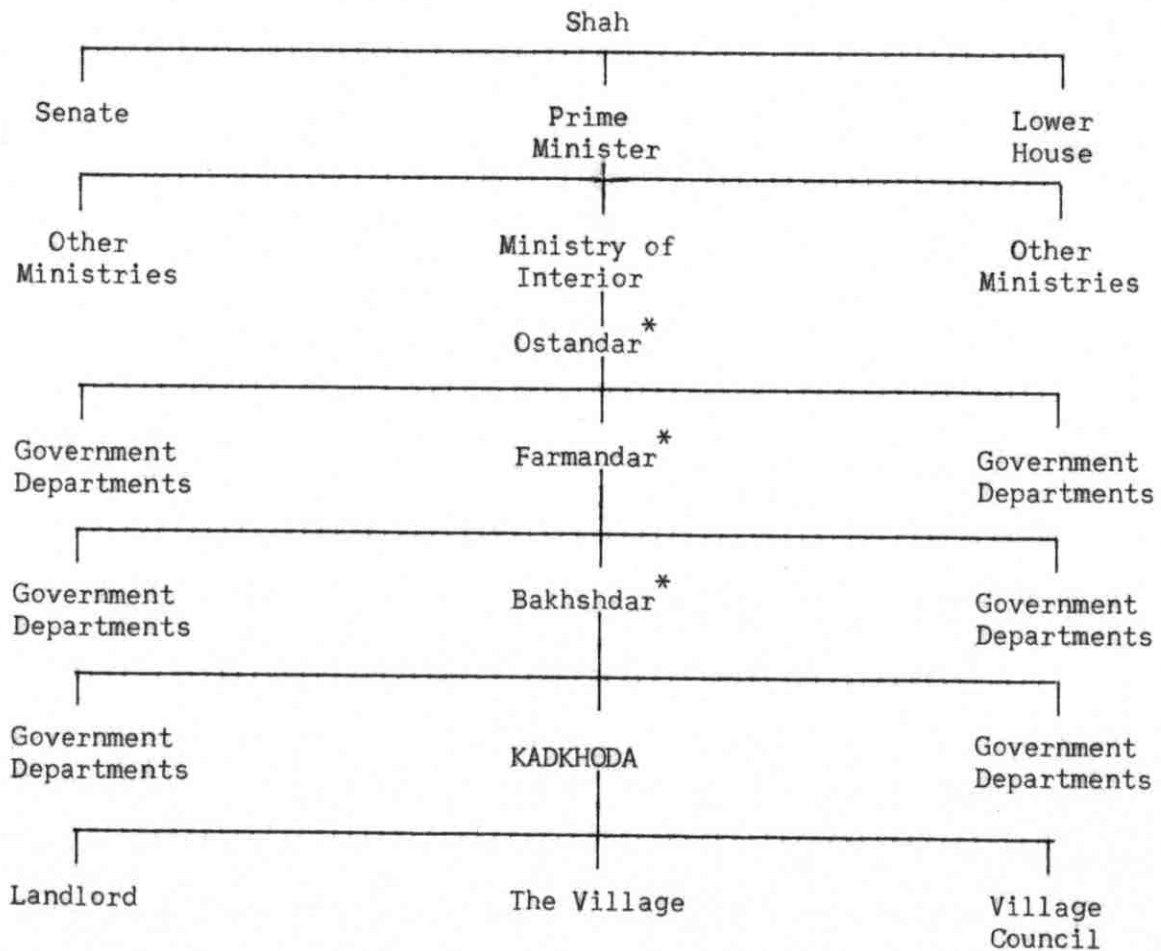
<sup>30</sup>Dudly, Lavinia P., The American Annual, 1953, P.352.

<sup>31</sup>Vreeland, Op. Cit., P.292.

<sup>32</sup>Wilbber, Donald N., Iran, 1950, P.208.

TABLE II

RURAL ADMINISTRATION IN IRAN



\* Ostandar, Farmandar and Bakhshdar are governors of a region, a province and a district respectively.



## HEALTH CONDITIONS -

The belief of the Iranian peasant in supernaturalism and fate keeps him satisfied with the low level of living, inadequate food, poor housing and poor sanitation. If the peasant is in a poor condition, that is his fate. He can do nothing about it. It is beyond his power. When the peasant is inadequately clad, he uses this saying for example, "God gives much cold to the well clad but little to those who lack clothing."<sup>33</sup>

Water supply is a problem in rural Iran. There is more clean water in rural areas than in most urban centers because villagers usually get the water from *quanats* which are underground water canals. The people themselves make the water unclean. While some peasants are bathing their animals in the gutter, others are filling their drinking jars from it somewhere down the road.

Housing is very primitive. Peasants usually live in one-room houses. The house is made of mud bricks and the roof is dome shaped. They have to sit on the mud floors and eat on the table cloth spread on the ground. The one room serves as a living room, guest room and a kitchen. Animals are next door in their pen.

The Iranian peasant is satisfied with the simple and inadequate diet he gets. Usually his food consists of bread and cheese and some vegetable

Common diseases in rural Iran are malaria, trachoma and intestinal diseases. Recently the Near East Foundation, has reduced malaria to

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<sup>33</sup>Vreeland, Op. Cit., P.230.

more manageable proportion by spraying villages with DDT.<sup>34</sup> Trachoma is very common in most parts of rural areas. Schools, mosques, baths and tea-houses act as media of communicating trachoma.

Infant mortality. "Between twenty and fifty percent of all infants born alive in Iran die in their first year; in the United States, fewer than three percent are lost in their first year."<sup>35</sup> This comparison shows how the rate of mortality is high in Iran. In cities the rate is much lower due to the better sanitation and health facilities, but in rural areas it remains a major problem. Thousands of children die every year in rural areas, through ailments which could have been easily cured if they had only been attended to in time. The doctors who should have attended rural children are all in Tehran and refuse to leave the capital.

#### RECENT RURAL DEVELOPMENTS

Land distribution. One of the steps taken towards land reform in Iran is the distribution of villages among the farmers by the Shah. In 1950 His Majesty decided to distribute his vast farm properties about two and a half million acres to the peasants of the royal villages. Royal villages are about 1600 in number with about a million people.<sup>36</sup>

Many villages have so far been distributed and the committee is constantly working on preparing facilities for distributing several villages each year.

Vital to the success of the program is the establishment of credit cooperatives, schools, public projects and training village level workers

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<sup>34</sup>Vreeland, Op. Cit., P.202.

<sup>35</sup>Vreeland, Op. Cit., P.235.

<sup>36</sup>Dudley, Op. Cit., P.352.

and extension agents to aid the newly independent peasant. A development bank lends the new small holders money at low interest.

This project was initiated by the Shah with the hope that other big landlords may follow his example and bring about a real change in land ownership and in raising the peasant's standards of living. Although this hope has not yet been realized, "the movement for the village uplift is a strong movement and is believed that in a few years the land system of the country would undergo a complete change."<sup>37</sup>

Peasant share. The law of the peasant share passed in 1953 is one of the important factors in rural development. According to this law, landlords were ordered to turn over twenty percent of their return for village improvements.<sup>38</sup> Although later on the twenty percent was reduced to five percent, still it is a great help to provide funds for local projects. The peasants supported this project mainly because the funds collected are spent by local people themselves.

Development blocks. Three years ago the government issued a decree to establish development blocks in rural areas. In Iran, the term development blocks refers to a number of villages under a central administration with one or several villages under the control of a village level worker. The number of villages in a block varies in different parts of the country according to the size of the district concerned. For example in Garmsar district, there are ninety-four villages under the block, while in Varamin district the block consists of two hundred and

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<sup>37</sup> Hekmat, Ali Asghar, Unesco Bulletin, 1956, P.7.

<sup>38</sup> Dudley, Op. Cit., P.352.

eighty villages.<sup>39</sup> The agents are expected to supply information to farmers about improved agricultural practices, help them develop confidence in themselves and in public programs for rural development, encourage the peasants to solve group problems for themselves, help them improve their home conditions and raise their standards of living, namely educate peasants in all aspects of life by acting as liaison between the village and contributing agencies. The agents are responsible to the head of the block and receive directions from him.

So far ten blocks have been established in different parts of the country.<sup>40</sup> These blocks have succeeded in stimulating peasants to take part in and support the development projects in their areas and in improving the village condition in general. One of the reasons for their success is the fact that while coordinating the development projects within the block, credit has been given to individual villages and local contributions. In the other words, they have not monopolized all the credits to the central administration of the block.

Fundamental education. In 1956, the Ministry of Education established a department of fundamental education for improving the daily lives of illiterate rural people. It is centered in the school and begins with literacy classes, but the content of all learning materials deals with village problems of education, health and agriculture. Reading and writing skills are considered as tools needed in solving daily problems, mainly by their own effort.<sup>41</sup>

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<sup>39</sup>Rural Development Set Up, Development Report, 1955, P.1.

<sup>40</sup>Ibid.

<sup>41</sup>Fundamental Education Department, Report, 1957, P.2.

Such a broad educational program requires trained agents and technical supervisors. The Ministry started the program by using elementary school teachers to teach adults after their daily work. At the same time, it provided on-the-job courses for teachers to learn necessary skills in fundamental education. So far, the program has been very effective and if properly handled, it would be a sound service for community development.

### CHAPTER III

#### CHARACTERISTICS AND QUALIFICATIONS OF PRESENT RURAL TEACHERS

In the previous chapter the social structure in Iran was discussed. It was explained how the present educational system has stressed the education of the elite. The people in cities under the present system have acquired a modern outlook, while the peasants who make up seventy-five percent of the total population have remained relatively static. Thus a wide social gap has developed between the two segments.<sup>1</sup>

This problem makes the task of the rural teacher a crucial one. He is expected to develop new attitudes and to provide education in the social, political, and economic aspects of the life of the rural community. He should be a leader and an important agent for social control and social reconstruction.

Is the present rural teacher able to perform this task? Is he well qualified for such a job? Is he trained enough to see the problems of the rural community and help the peasants to solve them? Is he willing to live in the village? Does he enjoy the support of the society in which he teaches? The attempt is made to answer such questions in this chapter.

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<sup>1</sup>Sadiq, Issa, Iran, Year Book of Education, 1953, P.465.

### Types of Teachers

Present rural teachers fall into four categories: graduates, assistant teachers, old teachers and contract teachers.

Graduates. The graduate teachers have secondary school education and are trained in the boarding teacher training schools.<sup>2</sup> When they finish their two years training course, they are automatically employed as teachers by the Ministry of Education.

According to article twelve of the compulsory education law, the civil service ladder is divided, in the case of teachers, into ten grades. At the beginning of employment they are given grade one. Later on they are automatically promoted to higher grades regardless of record or professional improvement. The only requirement necessary to obtain a certain grade is time. These periods of time are as follows: one year for grades 1 to 3, two years for grades 4 to 6, and three years for grades 7 to 10 inclusive. The increments are one fifth of the salary of the lower grade for grades 1 to 5, and one eighth of the salary of the preceding grade for grades 6 to 10 inclusive. Each grade has a special salary attached to it.

Graduate teachers enjoy permanent tenure and cannot be dismissed by the Ministry of Education unless they are proved guilty by a court. But the civil service law has empowered the Minister of Education to suspend an employee temporarily and to keep him on the waiting list subject to the discretion of the Minister of Education. This procedure does not afford the teacher the right of defending himself, nor does it compel the Minister of Education to give any reason for his action. Such

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<sup>2</sup>Teacher training schools are discussed in Chapter IV.

employees do not enjoy a full salary while suspended, but they may or may not receive a certain percentage of their regular salaries.

Assistant teachers. Assistant teachers have six years of education and receive a one year course in teaching techniques. They are given assistant teachers' grade and receive half as much as graduate teachers do. Assistant teachers are accorded a lower social status than graduate teachers are, but with respect to promotion and duration of stay in each grade, they are treated exactly like graduate teachers.

Old teachers. Old teachers are not graduates of teacher training schools, but since they have served for more than ten years, they are recognized as certificated teachers. They are granted teachers' grade and therefore benefit from all its privileges.

This has brought forth two important issues. One is the serious objection raised by teacher training school graduates. They claim that it is not fair to recognize a teacher as qualified just because he has had ten years of experience regardless of his education and the quality of his experience.

The association of graduate teachers challenged the Ministry on this issue. Graduates went on strike and suggested that the law should be amended and an examination be given to non-qualified teachers before they are recognized as certified teachers. But this suggestion was turned down by the Ministry for it was felt it would cause trouble on the part of the old teachers whose number is four times the number of graduates.

The second problem of the old teachers is their low level of education. They have six to nine years of schooling only, with no



professional training whatsoever, and show no sign of professional improvement. Unfortunately in a large number of rural schools the principals are selected from among the old teachers. Young graduates have to work under these principals, and the conflict between the old and the new becomes inevitable. This is a real problem that has a direct impact on discipline, teaching method, and teacher-pupil as well as teacher-teacher relationships.

Contract teachers. According to the compulsory education law, as long as graduates of teacher training schools are too few to meet the needs of the elementary schools, the Ministry of Education can employ teachers from among ordinary applicants.<sup>3</sup> The director of education until five years ago, was able to employ anybody as a teacher, and thus many untrained people found their way into the teaching profession especially in rural areas.

In 1959 new regulations were passed by the High Council of Education to the effect that certain minimum requirements were necessary for the employment of teachers. Since then priority has been given to the holders of secondary school certificates. But in rural areas holders of elementary school certificates are still being employed due to the shortage of secondary school graduates.<sup>4</sup>

In January 1959, a bill was passed by the parliament to the effect that contract teachers be given teachers grades. According to article four of this law, contract teachers holding secondary school certificates (sixth secondary grade) are given teachers grade upon

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<sup>3</sup>Sadiq, Op. Cit., P.456.

<sup>4</sup>Sadiq, Op. Cit., P.456.

completion of two years of teaching. Those who have fifth secondary grade certificate are required to complete four years of teaching before they could be awarded teachers' grade.<sup>5</sup>

Contract teachers, by receiving teachers' grade, enjoy permanent tenure. Before they were in a shaky position and with little interest in their profession. Now, they may develop interest in their job because they are promoted to teachers' position and are not easily put out of their jobs as is the case with contract teachers.

Teaching load. The maximum teaching load for elementary school teachers is 28 hours per week. Urban teachers have lighter loads than rural teachers because in cities there are special subjects such as physical training, music, painting, handicrafts, calligraphy, drawing and sewing all of which are taught by specialized teachers, thus cutting the teaching assignment to 20 hours per week.<sup>6</sup>

The size of the class, the grade taught and the length of the school day are not taken into account in assigning the teaching load. The only exception is the first grade teacher who teaches only four periods a day. Each period is forty-five minutes.

#### Selection of Teachers

Departments of education are responsible for the selection of teachers and each department uses a different method in making the selection.

In some places selection is based on school records, diplomas

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<sup>5</sup>Massudi, Abbass, Ettela'at Daily Paper, January 1959, P.1.

<sup>6</sup>Bylaws of Elementary Education, 1946, P.9.

and the like, while in other places it is based on a competitive academic examination followed by an interview by the head of the department. Those who pass are listed in order of their achievement in the examination. Candidates with highest scores are then selected automatically. The selection is thus the result of only one experience with the candidate. No attempt is made to find out something about personality characteristics of prospective teachers, such as interest in the profession, scholarly attitudes, constructive citizenship, professional attitudes and experience in working with children. This examination is academic in nature and therefore does not give necessary information regarding the present status of the candidate, his potentialities and his personal interest.

Graduates of teacher training schools are automatically employed by the Ministry of Education. Information about the graduates is submitted to Education Departments by teacher training schools.

Married teachers are always preferred to single ones. Men must teach in boys' schools and women in girls' schools, otherwise they are assigned to the first four grades of the elementary schools.

Employment procedure. Application sheets published by the Education Department are given to the applicant who fills them out and returns them to the Department together with six photographs, two official copies of his birth certificate, two copies of his academic certificate, a health certificate and a letter of request. The application contains personal data and information regarding previous occupations or experience. The form is signed by the applicant and by a person known to the Education Department who certifies the competency of the candidate for teaching. The Department of Education checks the content of the document for accuracy

and sends them to the personnel division of the Department. The personnel division issues the order after checking the availability of the budget for the employment of the candidate.

### Teachers' Salaries

Educated and intelligent persons who may be good potential teachers are attracted by greater financial rewards in other occupations. On the other hand there is an increasing effort by other organizations to secure the services of the most able teachers. Thus persons of high caliber are attracted to professions other than teaching. A large number of present teachers are temporarily in the teaching profession waiting for better opportunities. As soon as they get a better job, they do not hesitate to leave their teaching job. Usually they carry out their duties in a routine manner with little interest.

The minimum monthly salary of a teacher is Rials 3000<sup>7</sup> which is equivalent to \$38. This amount is hardly enough for bare subsistence. In addition to the basic salaries there are extra allowances paid to the teachers. These are as follows: (1) Those who are married receive an additional one third of the salary of their first grade. (2) Those who are sent from the center of provinces to other areas receive an additional allowance of twenty percent to a hundred and fifty percent of their basic salaries. (3) Those who are sent to areas where the climate is bad are paid an additional allowance of twenty percent of the basic salary. (4) Those who are sent to rural areas receive an additional allowance of about one third of their basic salaries. In spite of all these allowances, the total teachers' salary remains inadequate to provide the teacher with

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<sup>7</sup>This minimum has recently been established.

TABLE III

## SALARY SCALE OF TEACHERS IN IRAN\*

Grade	Salary of the Secondary School Teachers in Rials **	Elementary School Graduate Teachers	Elementary School Assistant Teachers
1	3180	2500	2500
2	3800	2500	2500
3	4550	2850	2500
4	5487	3625	2550
5	6425	4562	3300
6	7550	5312	3800
7	8900	6212	4400
8	10512	7287	5112
9	12125	8362	5825
10	13537	9612	6662

\* Iranian Ministry of Education, Year Book of Education, 1949, P.131.

\*\* Rial is the Iranian currency. (\$1.00 = Rials 80).

a decent living; this is due to the high cost of living. A policeman receives the same salary as a newly employed teacher with elementary education. A driver gets twice as much. This discrimination in pay between the teachers and other government employees shows that education has so far failed to keep pace with other occupations in Iran. Teaching cannot be made attractive unless higher salaries are paid to teachers of high caliber.

Leave of absence. According to article eleven of the by-laws on elementary education, a teacher cannot be absent from the school without a legitimate excuse which is always subject to the judgment of the director of Education Department.<sup>8</sup> If the leave of absence is for half a day, a permission can be secured from the principal of the school itself. The teacher can be absent from school up to three days if the Department of Education approves this. Sick leaves for more than three days and up to three months with pay can be secured provided that the sick teacher employs a substitute and arranges for his pay.<sup>9</sup>

Retirement. Every month eight percent of the base salary is deducted by the Ministry of Education as a deposit for retirement. Teachers are entitled to a full salary after thirty years of experience. According to the requirement of article fifteen of the Teachers Training Law, teachers are entitled to retire at the age of fifty regardless of the number of years of service. The government can dispense with their services provided they are fifty years of age and have twenty years of

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<sup>8</sup>Bylaws of Elementary Education, 1956, P.4.

<sup>9</sup>Ibid.

service.<sup>10</sup>

### Status of Teachers

In rural Iran, elementary teachers are not sufficiently appreciated. They have a low social status in the community. According to Sadiq,

Teaching, especially in the lower grades, has little social prestige. Traditionally, teaching was regarded as transference of knowledge and the teacher as the depository of knowledge; therefore, the lower the grade, the less was his knowledge so his prestige.<sup>11</sup>

In order to analyze the factors which help to determine the status of teachers in rural areas, there is a need to distinguish between the two different groups of teachers. First, there are the urban teachers who are exported from towns and are strangers to the local culture. Second, there are those who are of a rural background and belong to the society in which they teach.

The urban teacher. The main reason why the urban teacher is not willing to work in rural areas is that the status accorded to him by the community is generally low. To attract better qualified teachers to rural areas, the Ministry of Education recently increased the salary of rural teachers. An urban teacher who works in a rural area receives an increase of about one-third of his basic salary, and if he is principal of the school, he receives as much as half of his basic salary as allowance. Although the salary is a major status determinant, a large number of teachers do not go to rural areas simply because the community does not accept them as high status people. Urban teachers working in rural areas

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<sup>10</sup>Teachers Training Law, 1934, P.6.

<sup>11</sup>Sadiq, Issa, Iran, Year Book of Education, 1953, P.452.

will find themselves in a community in which housing, school buildings, and school equipment are usually of a rudimentary kind. They have relatively fewer opportunities than teachers working in the cities for social and professional contacts and for promotion within the teaching profession. The position and influence of the urban teacher within the village community depends upon the peasants' attitude towards him. The teacher should first get acquainted with the way of life of the people. The more he is able to teach the way desired by the people, the higher the status accorded to him and the greater his influence will be among the people.

A large portion of the teachers who come to teach in Iranian villages are those who have tried and failed to gain a satisfactory post elsewhere. They enter the teaching profession in order to become civil servants and climb the social ladder.<sup>12</sup>

The local teacher. The local teacher is a member of the community in which he teaches. He has a rural background and this will greatly affect his status as a teacher. It was pointed out, in the first chapter, that in rural Iran peasants associate high status with maturity and old age. Local rural teachers in the early stages are usually young and unmarried and therefore their status and influence in the village are low. The local teacher who has a family and personal ties usually has a relatively high status. Very often because of jealousies he is not well accepted by the people. He may be interested in his job and enthusiastic in working for his community, but he may nevertheless be handicapped in his relation with members of the village community. If

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<sup>12</sup>Sadiq, Op. Cit., P.464.



he belongs to an influential class, he becomes affected by them and cannot be neutral in carrying out his duties. If he belongs to a low social class, he has little or no social standing and therefore he has little influence in the community.

From the previous discussion it may be concluded that the present teachers in rural Iran are unable to apply their training effectively. They consider the teaching profession merely as a source of income. They are not professionally minded, nor do they really like their profession, their pupils and the community in which they teach. Of course there is continuing difficulty in persuading teachers to undertake service in rural areas while the attraction of urban life continues to draw them to larger cities. No improvement of the country is possible unless the teacher's attitude is changed and unless they assume responsibility for building up the future of their country. So a great need is felt for the reorganization of rural teacher education in Iran.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENT PRACTICES IN RURAL TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS IN IRAN

#### Types of Training Institutions

Teacher training schools were established according to the Teacher Training Act of 1934.<sup>1</sup> At present there are twenty three ordinary primary teachers colleges (equivalent to the French Ecole Normale Primaire), twelve rural teacher training schools and eight assistant teacher training schools.<sup>2</sup> Primary teachers colleges train teachers for towns and cities. Rural teachers training schools train teachers to teach in rural areas. Assistant teacher training schools were established in 1943 as an emergency measure to meet the requirements of compulsory education.<sup>3</sup> According to article IV of the Teachers Training Act, all these training institutions are boarding schools. The government provides all students with free board and lodging, tuition, medical care, fare for trips and excursions, a monthly stipend of Rls.80, (\$1), two suits and free hair-cuts. The course of study is two years in teacher training schools and one year in assistant training schools. Each Ostan<sup>4</sup> has one or more such teacher training schools. These

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<sup>1</sup>Sadiq, Op. Cit., P.453.

<sup>2</sup>Law, Sydney DeGraw, A Report to the Ministry of Education, December, 1957, P.8.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Iran is divided into ten regions, each region is called Ostan.

training institutions are under the provincial department of education. The education director is responsible for supplying equipment, paying for the board and lodging as well as teachers salaries. He is also responsible for training teachers, preparing the curricula, prescribing textbooks, controlling examinations, auditing the accounts and awarding certificates.

### Buildings and Equipment

Teacher training schools differ widely from one another in the quality and the quantity of their buildings and equipment. For example, Mamazan teacher training school in Varamin, 37 kilometers east of Tehran, is located in a rural area and is well fitted to the local conditions and rural life. Local materials were used in the building and several additions have been built with the help of the students themselves. The building is very simple but fit for the educational purposes. Classrooms are large enough to meet the needs of the students. The building is so shaped as to take additional rooms. Another example is Esfahan teacher training school which is located in the city and has a fancy building that was used in the past for residential purposes. Classes are housed in rooms far too small for the classes and with very bad ventilation and poor light. Most of the teacher training schools are lacking in equipment and teaching aids such as agricultural tools, tractors, lab equipment, audio-visual aids and books.

### Financing

The Ministry of Education provides the budget for teacher training schools. The estimates of expenditure of each school are prepared by the Rural Education Department and submitted to the Ministry for the approval

of the Minister. The estimates for personal emoluments and other recurrent charges such as teachers salaries, board and lodging expenditure, are submitted to the rural education department by the teacher training schools. But non-recurrent or special expenditure such as construction of school buildings and equipment for new schemes is estimated by the rural education department within the limits of the available funds. The budget of each school is divided into ten items and transfer of provisions from one item to another is allowed with the approval of the principal.<sup>5</sup> There is sentiment in favor of abolishing this article because in some cases the principal or education directors have spent funds for unnecessary items. For example, once an education director bought a car for his department out of the rural teacher training school budget in his jurisdiction.

Once the budget is approved by the Ministry, the principal has full authority to spend it according to the regulations concerned. Any unspent balance cannot be carried over into the new fiscal year.

For attracting better qualified teachers to rural teacher training schools, the government has recently made a considerable raise in the allowance of staff in vocational teacher training schools. Table V shows the position, salary and allowance of the Mamazan rural teacher training school that has an enrolment of two hundred. From the figures in Tables IV and V it is understood that more than thirty percent of the budget goes for staff salaries. This is a high proportion in comparison with salaries of high school teachers. The Near East Foundation has carried out an experiment in the Mamazan teacher training school and has concluded that the best teachers are attracted to rural training institutions if

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<sup>5</sup>See Table IV.

TABLE IV

MAMAZAN RURAL TEACHER TRAINING  
SCHOOL BUDGET 1956\*

Item 1. Total Food - Rials 46.37 for one person per day	1,530,200
Item 2. Bath, laundry, soap, barber, medical expenses and student rial allowances	244,640
Item 3. Fuel	185,270
Item 4. Clothing	133,680
Item 5. Dormitory equipment and supplies	35,820
Item 6. Stationery, books and supplies	66,000
Item 7. Field, poultry and farm shop	149,000
Item 8. Laboratory supplies and equipment	101,400
Item 9. School maintenance and equipment	100,500
Item 10. Miscellaneous expenses	66,400
<hr/>	
Total**	Rials*** 2,612,910
The total cost per student per day	Rials 72.58

\* Near East Foundation, Departmental Report, 1956, P.2.

\*\* This budget covers the entire financial support for 100 students.

\*\*\* Rial is the Iranian currency. (\$1.00 = Rials 80).

TABLE V  
 POSITION AND SALARY OF THE TEACHERS  
 AND SERVANTS OF MAMAZAN TEACHER  
 TRAINING SCHOOL 1956\*

Position	Total Salary Per Month in Rials	Total Subsidy Per Month in Rials	Total Per Month
Principal	8250	9450	17700
Twelve teachers including administration	41841	49350	91191
One purchasing agent	2510	2870	5380
One maintenance man	-	1500	1500
One pump operator	-	1550	1550
Six cooks	6802	5040	11842
Ten servants	8253	3030	11283
Total Per Month	67,656	72,790	140,446
Total Per Year	811,872	873,480	1,685,352

\* Near East Foundation, Departmental Report, 1956, P.3.



they are well paid. The Ministry of Education has adopted the policy of better payment for teachers and gives the following reasons for the high supplemental salaries as follows:<sup>6</sup>

1. It is essential that a rural teacher training school be located in a rural area surrounded by typical villages. This rural location of the school makes it necessary for the teacher to remain at the school all day, everyday. There is no possibility for the teachers to earn extra money from part time employment as other secondary school teachers do who teach in cities.

2. An attempt is made to select the best qualified teachers available and then give them additional training in the special technical and vocational aspect of the various required subjects. These teachers should then teach more than the secondary school teachers do in order to make the most effective use of their training and ability.

3. Most of the teachers of teacher training schools are city reared. It is not easy for such teachers to teach in a rural area away from their families, friends and far from the comforts of the city life. Some compensation must be offered to encourage the kind of teachers needed to teach under these conditions.

4. Since the school is a boarding school, the teachers have extra duties such as supervising study hours, and recreation, advising extra-curricular activities, and weekend duties.

This increase in the allowances of rural teachers training schools has been very effective in attracting more experienced teachers to these institutions. At present, teachers in rural training schools have better

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<sup>6</sup>Rural Education Department, Departmental Report, September 1956, P.11.

qualifications than secondary school teachers. They are selected and well equipped for the preparation of elementary school teachers. In addition to these allowances, teachers in some places are given houses to live in free of charge. The dean of boys gets free meals in addition to other privileges.

It should be noted that success in attracting good teachers is not sufficient for the improvement of teacher training schools unless other phases of the school such as a uniform and fixed curriculum, methods of instruction, and evaluation systems are also modified to give the teacher an opportunity to make his teaching meaningful through student activities, and problem solving and make it possible for him to adapt his methods to individual needs and interests.

#### Curriculum ✓

Education at the rural teacher training schools has the following objectives:

1. To prepare an adequate number of teachers for rural elementary schools.
2. To equip them with the necessary knowledge and skills needed in teaching in rural elementary schools.
3. To enable them to apply in practice, knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired at teacher training institutions.<sup>7</sup>

In practice the program does not provide for adequate development of the professional competencies of the prospective teacher. The three hours of education are devoted to principles of education and to general psychology. The curriculum is rigid and teachers and students cannot

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<sup>7</sup>Rural Education Department, Departmental Report, 1957, P.1.



display their full initiative in academic matters. A gap has been created between school and society and the students often fail to make use of their new knowledge in life situations. Functional knowledge and individual needs and interests are not emphasized.

The course of study in the rural teacher training schools is divided into three parts - academic, vocational and educational courses. ✓

Academic courses consist of traditional subjects such as languages, mathematics, physics, chemistry, sanitation, economics and religion.<sup>8</sup> The assumption is that the rural elementary school teacher needs background in the academic field to be able to explain concepts and answer the questions raised by his students.

Vocational courses such as agriculture, animal husbandry, rural industries, agricultural machinery and field work are taught by agricultural engineers and are supposed to be as practical as possible. ✓

Each school has a farm of about 20 to 40 hectares. The aim of the vocational courses is to teach such improved agricultural methods as may be taught to children in rural schools and to adults in the village. On the farm training is given for example in the use of various crop rotations and in the preparation and application of fertilizers and animal manure. Each student has certain plots of his own to look after and during his two years he raises a variety of crops. He should also take a practical part in the keeping of animals, in the care of fruit trees, and in horticulture.

The educational courses are psychology and practice teaching. The trainees receive very little training in psychology or in how to teach. ✕

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<sup>8</sup> See appendix A.

The emphasis is on agriculture and not on general subjects.<sup>9</sup> In practice most of the graduates of these schools are not teaching agriculture but are teaching general subjects. Even if they are assigned to a school in which agriculture is a part of the curriculum, they must also teach the other subjects of the curriculum. If the boys who are to become village teachers in the rural elementary schools are to teach general subjects then they must know such subjects well. They must also know how to teach them effectively. Since agriculture will not be one of the major subjects, they do not need much specialized agriculture in their training.

In general, the following weaknesses should be mentioned in regard to the present curriculum:

The present curriculum is prescribed and it is required of all the students. There are no elective courses and very little consideration ✓ is given to individual differences and adaptation to environmental conditions.

According to Hopkins, "The subject curriculum is composed of a large number of subjects which are taught in school more or less independently of each other. By more or less independently is meant that reading is not related to social studies, that history and geography are separated, and that physics and chemistry are unrelated units..."<sup>10</sup>

In rural teacher training schools, the curriculum is subject centered and academic; vocational, and educational courses are treated separately. There is no integration among the subjects and they are

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<sup>9</sup>See appendix A.

<sup>10</sup>Hopkins L. Thomas, Interaction, 1941, P.19.

treated as discrete items of the program. They are taught on a theoretical level with no consideration given to their implications for the students or the community.

The curriculum is overcrowded,<sup>11</sup> and the courses to be covered in one year are numerous. Little time is left for out-of-class study or extra-curricular activities. Therefore much emphasis is put on the subject matter and the acquisition of facts and information. The total growth and development of the student is neglected and in practice the curriculum is aimed more at preparing impractical classroom teachers than training effective citizens.

#### Admission

Each rural teacher training school may admit up to one hundred trainees each year. To be eligible for admission to these training schools, candidates must have a certificate of first cycle (first three years of the secondary school). Other factors considered are: medical examination record, a certificate of good conduct, Iranian citizenship, and the attainment of sixteen to twenty five years of age.<sup>12</sup> Each student has to pledge himself, at the time of admission to serve for five years in rural areas as an elementary school teacher after the successful completion of his training. If any graduate does not wish to take up teaching, he has to repay the government the cost of his period of training. Candidates are required to submit their applications to the teacher training school principal who is the final authority in the

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<sup>11</sup>See Table VI.

<sup>12</sup>Bylaws of Teacher Training, Ministry of Education, 1956, P.3.

TABLE VI

CURRICULUM OF THE RURAL TEACHER TRAINING  
SCHOOLS IN IRAN AND NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS PER  
WEEK\*

Courses	Hours per Week
Botany	2
Farming	3
Horticulture	3
Animal Husbandry	2
Machinery	2
Rural Fine Arts	2
Economics	2
Irrigation	1
Physics	1
Chemistry	1
Biology	2
Sanitation	2
Education	2
Mathematics	2
Persian	3
English	2

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\* Curriculum for Rural Teacher Training Schools, 1955, P.2.

selection of the candidates. In some places, the education department selects the candidates and sends a list of their names to the respective institutions. In such cases the staff of the teacher training schools are not required to take part in the selection and therefore find no opportunity to study the candidates and select those best fitted for the teaching profession. There is strong competition for entrance in rural teacher training schools due to the privileges given during the training course. Usually an entrance examination is held for the purpose of selecting the best candidates. The entrance examination consists of a verbal examination and a written test in the following academic subjects:<sup>13</sup>

Persian Language

A Composition in Persian

Mathematics (Arithmetic and Geometry)

General Knowledge in Agriculture.

In some places the written examination is followed by an interview. But in general this examination is inadequate and superficial, and no attempt is made to rate the personality of the candidate. Several important factors such as intelligence, interests, and physical and mental health of the candidates are ignored.

#### Teaching Method

Although teachers of training institutions are better qualified than other teachers, their method of teaching is nevertheless not up-to-date. No prescribed textbooks are followed and the students depend much on lectures and notes dictated by their teachers in the class. Methods of instruction are based mainly on the Herbartian method.

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<sup>13</sup>Ibid.

The training is greatly examination bound. Students attach great importance to such examinations, and therefore they try to memorize facts and information in order to pass them. The final examinations are controlled externally and teachers are not the examiners.

On the practical side, students, in the afternoons, do field work in some of the training school. Field work is scheduled both in the morning and in the afternoons in other schools. For practice teaching students are sent to nearby elementary schools where they are supposed to observe for at least thirty hours and give a minimum of twelve lessons.<sup>14</sup> Demonstration lessons are prepared in line with the Herbartian method and are corrected in advance by the teacher before they are given in the class. Teachers supervise these practice teaching lessons given by the students and point out mistakes after the lessons are over.

In general, the method of instruction in rural teacher training schools is uniform in nature and it does not meet the needs of the students. Individual differences are not taken into consideration because the present practices are based on the assumption that all human beings are alike at all places and all times, thus the method of teaching becomes unified.<sup>15</sup>

#### Examination System

To be promoted from the first grade to the second in a rural teacher training school, a student is required to complete successfully the examinations of that grade. Examinations are administered according to the regulations governing the secondary schools.

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<sup>14</sup>Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., P.7.

<sup>15</sup>Brubacher, John S., Modern Philosophies of Education, P.134, 1950.

Candidates must take a final examination at the end of the second grade of the teacher training school. The Department of Examination in the Ministry of Education controls the final examinations of the teacher training institutions. The final examination is taken before an official board of examiners appointed by the Ministry of Education upon the recommendation of the Examination Department. The members of the board are chosen from among the experienced teachers of the Ministry. The questions for the final examination are prepared secretly by the Examination Department, sealed and sent to provinces through registered mail. The examinations consist of two parts, written and oral. The subjects of the written examinations and the hours assigned to each of them are shown in Table VII. The oral examinations cover practice teaching, physical sciences, language and education. The examination papers are corrected by the external examiners and thus the teachers who teach the students during the whole year are in most cases, not consulted by the external examiners during the assessment of the students.

The examination for practice teaching is held in the presence of education teachers who must appraise the student's ability to teach. The subject for teaching is chosen by lot, and the candidate has half an hour in which to prepare for his assignment. Failure for the second time in the same grade of the teacher training school means expulsion from the institution. The graduates receive an official certificate which entitles them to teach in the elementary schools.<sup>16</sup> The first year of service is theoretically a probationary period.

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<sup>16</sup>Teachers Training Law, 1934, P.37.

TABLE VII

SUBJECTS OF THE FINAL EXAMINATION IN  
RURAL TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS AND  
THE AMOUNT OF TIME ASSIGNED TO EACH\*

Subjects	Time Allotment
Introduction to Iranian Agriculture )	3 hours
Agronomy (field crops and sals) )	
Horticulture	2
Animal Husbandry	2
Machinery	2
Village industries	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Irrigation	2
Sanitation	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Economics	2
Botany	2
Biology	2
Chemistry	2
Physics	2
Mathematics	2
Persian Language	3
English	3
Education	3

\* Bylaws of Final School Examination, 1946, P.23.



In general the present system of examination is inadequate because, on the one hand, it does not leave any scope for free choice by the teachers concerned and on the other hand it imposes one standard for all the students while individual differences are ignored.<sup>17</sup>

### Extra-curricular Activities ✓

Apart from the regular lessons, the students of the rural teacher training schools are required to participate in various social activities such as speech and debate clubs, literacy, dramatics, publications, athletics, and music club.<sup>18</sup> In practice, teachers, who are mostly part time, do not participate in the school activities, with the exception of two or three, thus there is little supervision over the activities of these clubs. In those schools in which full time teachers are assigned as sponsors, they tend to dominate rather than to direct and give guidance. In some institutions, the extra-curricular activities are ignored with the excuse that a certain group of students may gain control of the council and tend to run it according to their purposes.<sup>19</sup> But through proper guidance of the trained sponsor this problem can be overcome.

### In-service Training

In some provinces there is no in-service training for the elementary school teachers and in other places there is some superficial training without any final test or evaluation. Whenever an on-the-job training program is offered, teachers are usually called together and a series of

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<sup>17</sup> Katul, J., Methods of Educational Administration, Unpublished, P.37.

<sup>18</sup> Rural Education Department, Op. Cit., P.12.

<sup>19</sup> Katul, Op. Cit., P.22.

conferences are given by high officials and university professors and some discussions are carried out. It is evident that schools would have a lot to give each other when they are brought together in a common enterprise if the group is properly guided. But if the teachers count only on lectures given by some educators without taking an active part in the discussion, the program would certainly be of little value to the participants. Unfortunately this is the case with most of the in-service programs carried out in Iran at present. It is mostly up to the school inspectors to see that teachers have improved professionally. These inspectors attend classes every once in a while and give some suggestions to the teachers regarding the method of instruction.

During the last ten years short courses have been conducted by the Near East Foundation and Point Four in Tehran teacher training school and Mamazan rural teacher training school for the teachers from various provinces. The purpose of these courses has been to acquaint graduate teachers with recent developments in the field of education. There has been no other follow-up on the part of the training institutions. Usually the relations of the rural teacher training schools with its students do not go beyond the day of termination of their training. The two foregoing teacher training schools have occasionally been used as refresher training centers for the graduates who needed periodical attendance at such courses, but no evaluation was made of the participants at the end of the courses and no reward whatsoever was given to them.

In general, the present teacher education practices in Iran are by no means sufficient for the preparation and training of qualified teachers and the need for a sound in-service program for raising the professional standards of the present unqualified teachers is very great.

This point is effectively emphasized in the following quotation:

The quality of teachers is or should be a matter of deepest social concern. The nation risks its entire future if it entrusts its children to the charge of men and women who are not intelligent, not informed, not skillful, not democratic, not devoted to young people and to their own calling. The nation needs teachers who are superbly fitted to their important task. It needs teachers who respect personality, who are community minded, who act reasonably, who know how to work cooperatively with others. It needs teachers whose native gifts have been highly developed through sound general and professional education, whose knowledge is accurate, extensive and increasing. It needs teachers who like and are liked by children, who understand how children grow and develop, who know how to guide learning and mediate knowledge effectively. It needs teachers who live in the world as well as in the school and in the classroom, who function as good democratic citizens in all these situations. And it needs teachers who love their work, who are skillful in evaluating for themselves how effective they are in discharging their duties, and who are continually increasing their stature as persons, citizens, and professional workers.<sup>20</sup>

It is the task of teacher education in Iran to work towards producing teachers of this caliber, teachers fit for the present dynamic situation, teachers who are eager and able to train effective future citizens of Iran.

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<sup>20</sup>Commission on Teacher Education, The Improvement of Teacher Education, P.247.

## CHAPTER V

### PROPOSALS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF RURAL TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS

In the previous chapters some major issues and problems facing teacher education in rural Iran were discussed. It was noted how pre-service training is inadequate to provide competent teachers for rural elementary schools.

In this chapter an attempt has been made to present proposals for the improvement of pre-service programs in rural areas.

#### Admission

The problem of selecting the right candidates for the teaching profession is crucial. The prospective teacher should possess certain personal traits of character if he is to become a competent teacher. The rural teacher should love the villagers and be willing to live among them. He should have a rural background and a desire to become a teacher. For selecting the right candidate, therefore, it is recommended that the methods and techniques for the selection of applicants be developed and an entrance examination test be prepared according to the following criteria suggested by the Commission on Teacher Education:

1. It is important that persons entering the profession of teaching should be good specimens of our culture, varied in background, talent and interest and capable of enjoying success in the work for which they have prepared.

2. Each institution engaged in teacher education has, therefore the responsibility of selecting from among students who wish to prepare for the profession only those who show reasonable promise of developing into satisfactory teachers.

3. Selective judgments need to be guided by a clear and broad concept of the characteristics of good teachers with due allowance for individual differences and the advantages of variety, by a careful consideration of what the college is capable of contributing to the development of such characteristics, and by a thoughtful weighing of the implications of a wide spread of information regarding each candidate, his history, his present status, and his promise.

4. In judging a candidate various factors need to be taken into account, including physical and mental health, vitality, intelligence, academic accomplishment, other abilities, breadth and character of interests, human quality - especially as it affects relations with children and young people, cooperativeness, integrity, moral character, and the degree to which the individual feels a genuine desire to enter the profession of teaching.

5. All available evidence with respect to such factors should be pooled and considered as a whole: it is the combination of qualities that is significant, and weaknesses in certain respects may be compensated for by strength in others; thus all relevant data, qualitative and otherwise, must be subjected in the end to responsible qualitative judgment.<sup>1</sup>

The staff of the rural teacher training school should play an important part in the procedure of selection. In addition to a written entrance examination, the principal with the help of his teachers should try to gather information about each applicant from every available source including previous secondary and elementary school records, record of medical examinations, home visit etc. Finally each applicant should be interviewed personally. It is desirable that one of the teachers should make a trip to different places and interview applicants in order

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<sup>1</sup>Commission on Teacher Education, The Improvement of Teacher Education, Washington, 1946, P.73.



to obtain first hand information.

In choosing the right candidate, it is almost impossible to find one with all those qualities already mentioned but an attempt should be made to find as qualified individuals as possible. However, the personality of the candidate as a whole should be regarded in the light of qualities necessary for a good teaching profession.

### Curriculum

The curriculum includes all the activities undertaken in the school and the subject matter taught in it.<sup>2</sup> ✓

With this modern definition of the curriculum, all the activities outside the realm of subjects are also included in the curriculum ✓ field work, excursions in the community, extra-curricular activities, school publications and anything which contributes to learning in the school.

As was noted in the previous chapters, the present prescribed curriculum is rigid and does not provide for individual differences and adequate development of the professional competencies of the prospective teachers. It is an obstacle in the way of training qualified teachers and should therefore be changed. [ According to Dr. Habib Kurani a sound curriculum for the rural teacher training schools should include: ✓

General education, designed to broaden the rural teacher's outlook, to deepen his understanding of the world in which he lives, and 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 practice in making community surveys.

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<sup>2</sup>Katul, Op. Cit., P.29.

Practical extension courses, in health, nutrition, housing, arts and crafts, specially designed to give the student enough experience to guide young people and adults in the community where he will later be assigned.<sup>3</sup>

In addition to the foregoing criteria, there is one important point that should be taken into consideration for curriculum change in rural teacher training schools in Iran. A sound curriculum should promote the maximum personal development and meet individual differences. It was mentioned in the previous chapters that Iran is divided into different cultural groups with relatively different backgrounds and each section of the country has its particular characteristics. Therefore any curriculum change should be adapted to meet these differences in order to train citizens fit for the community in which they are going to live.

In the light of these criteria it is recommended that the present curriculum should gradually be changed. But changing the curriculum is not an easy process because it involves change in the personality of the teachers, administrators and in the relations with the community. Before planning any change in the curriculum the following points are to be taken into account:

(a) It was noted in the previous chapters that people in rural Iran are resistant to change. Therefore those interested in changing the rural teacher training curriculum may face resistance on the part of the school staff and perhaps the parents. To decrease this resistance it is recommended to encourage the staff to participate in planning the new changes in the curriculum. This will give them the feeling that the

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<sup>3</sup>Kurani, H.A., "Values Derived from the Commission's Trip Around the World," Education and Rural Development, (unpublished typed manuscript), 1957, P.12.

change is the result of their own proposals and will therefore be interested in carrying it out and the program is more likely to work well in practice. Of course it should be made clear to the teachers that not all their suggestions should necessarily be accepted by the curriculum revision committee. All teachers should be encouraged to have a voice in curriculum planning and opportunities at the local level should be provided in the application of the curriculum changes to their particular environment.

(b) Those who are responsible for changing the curriculum should have professional knowledge and should be well aware of the theory and practice of social change. They should also have a good knowledge of the development of education in Iran and know how to work with present teachers and the administrators that need understanding and skills.

(c) Experts are needed to help local educators in making desirable changes in the curriculum. Since at present Point Four specialists are working in close cooperation with the Iranian Ministry of Education, there is a good opportunity for curriculum revision. It is recommended that a joint committee of American and Iranian curriculum specialists who are expert in teacher education be formed to study the present teacher education program and prepare proposals for curriculum change.

In the light of the foregoing criteria and in view of the facts presented in the previous chapters (the following recommendations are made to serve as guides to curriculum development in rural teacher training schools in Iran:

1. The ideal student for the rural teacher training schools in Iran is a village boy who has received his primary education, then moved into a 5th. and 6th. grade agricultural school and then on into a first



cycle agricultural secondary school before he enters training school. Because such a student is more interested in agricultural training than a student coming from the academic secondary schools and is also better prepared to enter a rural teacher training school. However, at present, there are not enough existing agricultural schools so that the teacher training school can be totally guaranteed of receiving a high percentage of the new students who have graduated from the first cycle agricultural schools. Therefore the curriculum has to be designed to include all the fundamentals of agriculture, sanitation, and social courses. As the percentage of first cycle agricultural graduates increases, more of the fundamentals can be discarded and more emphasis placed upon the advanced instruction and professional training.

2. Each course, as it appears in the curriculum, is to be justified by specific course objectives. These objectives are a guide to the teacher in his presentation of instructional material. The course objectives should point toward practical instruction as well as theoretical instruction.

3. New subjects such as rural sociology and community development should be introduced to meet the needs of the students as well as those of the community. It is desirable to design the curriculum to give instruction for forty weeks per year and a total of one thousand three hundred and twenty hours as has been suggested in table VIII. The present curriculum indicates the number of hours a week a course is to be taught while the suggested curriculum indicates only the number of hours per year. This allows for greater flexibility within the school and gives the principal the opportunity of establishing his own teaching schedules hereby meeting the demands of his own particular school's situation.

TABLE VIII

SUGGESTED CURRICULUM FOR THE RURAL  
TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS IN IRAN AND  
THE NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS PER WEEK

Courses	Hours First Year 1320	Hours Second Year 1320
<u>Courses in Agriculture</u>		
Introduction to Iranian Agriculture	40	-
Agronomy (Field crops and soils)	80	120
Horticulture	120	40
Animal Husbandry	80	80
Workshop (Village mechanics)	80	120
Village Industries	40	40
Irrigation	40	40
<u>Courses in Natural Sciences</u>		
Botany	80	40
Biology	80	80
<u>Courses in Physical Sciences</u>		
Chemistry	80	-
Physics	-	80
Mathematics	80	80
<u>Language</u>		
Persian	80	80
English	120	80
<u>Social Courses</u>		
Rural Sociology	40	40
Rural Economics	80	40
Community Development	-	40
Sanitation	80	120
Education	120	160
Religion	-	40

4. The academic courses should be developed with emphasis on rural conditions. The new chemistry and physics courses should depart from pure science and incorporate principles and practices relating to agriculture. The course in English would better be related to agriculture English namely to put more emphasis on agricultural terms. The courses should be so written that teachers are given considerable latitude in developing course instructional material which better meets the needs of the students.

5. In the realm of professional training, the application of the rules and principles of learning to the classroom procedures should be emphasized. Unit teaching and lesson planning should be included. It would stress how to establish goals and objectives, unit planning of courses, daily lesson plans, how to use resources of reference materials as a guide in lesson planning and the use of visual aids.

6. For the time being it is suggested that in the several areas of study, separate courses be taught.<sup>4</sup> Every effort should be made to coordinate and correlate the content of related courses, for example, agronomy and animal husbandry. It is hoped that such correlation will lead to the development of core or broad field courses which would combine the content of the related courses into a few major areas of study. For example, courses such as chemistry, physics and mathematics will be under physical sciences with a total of 160 hours per year.

7. 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. For example, Iran from the agricultural standpoint is divided

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<sup>4</sup>See table VIII.

into four regions - (1) those areas such as Kashan, Kom, and Varamin with hot, dry summer and cold winter; (2) areas of moderate climate such as Zanjan, Tabriz and Kermanshah; (3) Caspian Sea region with much humidity, in which the common crops are rice, cotton, and citrus; (4) Persian Gulf region with very hot summer, in which tropical crops are raised. Thus the rural teacher training school in Ahwaz should introduce and stress the tropical agriculture, while the students of the teacher training school at Rasht should stress the crops such as rice and tea. In the teacher training school in Varamin, cultivation of wheat, barley and cotton should be emphasized. Authority should be given to the training schools to build upon the general foundation of the curriculum, their local items in terms of the needs of the students and the needs of the local community. This flexibility in applying the curriculum to the local environment will, for example, give the teachers an opportunity to experiment with new crops on their farms as well as traditional crops. In this way the rural teacher training schools will be able to provide their students with the knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary for a better life under such conditions.

8. Since all the teacher training schools are not at present in a position to favor curriculum change due to the lack of professionally trained personnel, it is recommended to try it first as an experiment in Mamazan Teacher Training School which possesses a group of well trained teachers and gradually introduce it into other training schools.

Specific recommendations for curriculum change should be made by teachers and administrators involved and curriculum experts. As an example of what has been meant by the previous discussion a sample has been suggested in appendix B as one approach in developing a subject such as rural sociology in the new curriculum.

### Teaching Method

The task of the teacher today is more than listening to recitation and assigning marks to students on the basis of their performance. He should discover difficulties both in learning and adjustment of his pupils. His task is then, to further the total development of students and to assist them in adjusting both to school and to out of school situations. With this criterion, the modern elementary school teacher faces a number of problems every day, such as how to provide for individual differences, how to identify children who possess physical or sensory defects, how to motivate the study of a certain subject, how to evaluate student progress, what to do about retarded pupils in class. These and similar problems can be solved through a sound teaching method and a meaningful curriculum.

It is recommended that in rural teacher training schools, the implication and application of psychological facts and principles be emphasized, not the memorization of them. Students should be given abundant opportunity to study typical educational problems from a psychological point of view. Rural school classrooms of the area should be visited and the activities evaluated in terms of the principles of educational psychology. Whenever possible, observation and study of individual children should be undertaken by the would-be teachers. Rural teacher training schools, through the effective use of educational psychology, should assist prospective teachers to develop competence in studying children, in using psychological principles, and in evaluating their own teaching methods.

A good teaching method implies that what is learned should be meaningful, have structure and inter-relatedness, so that it may be acquired more rapidly and retained longer. Teaching should then take notice of the basic principles of organization if it is to produce permanent

learning. Using principles of organization in teaching requires that teachers make instructional materials meaningful to students, plan for units of reasonable size and scope, utilize learning activities intelligently and make use of student activity. Organization is best seen in unit-teaching and in problem solving methods where students are helped to think critically and creatively, make better judgments, and choose, study and solve problems through their own discovery. It is recommended that unit teaching be adopted as the starting point towards a more flexible method of teaching.

Unit teaching. The term unit has been interpreted differently by educators, but a definition which is generally accepted is as follows:

A unit consists of purposeful, related activities so developed as to give insight into, and increased control of some significant aspects of the environment; and to provide opportunities for the socialization of the pupils.<sup>5</sup>

Units may be classified on the basis of emphasis into two kinds - the subject matter unit and the experience unit. Burton defines the subject matter and the experience units in the following statements:

A subject matter unit is a selection of subject matter materials, and of educative experiences centering upon subject matter materials, which are arranged around a central core found within the subject matter itself. The core may be a generalization, a topic or a theme. The unit is to be studied by pupils for the purpose of achieving learning outcomes derivable from experiences with subject matter.<sup>6</sup>

An experience unit is a series of educative experiences organized around a pupil purpose, problem, or need, utilizing socially useful subject matter and materials and resulting in the achievement of the purpose and in the achievement of learning outcomes inherent in the process.<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>5</sup> Lee, J. Murray, et al., The Child and his Curriculum, 1940, P.192.

<sup>6</sup> Burton, W.H., The Guidance of Learning Activities, 1952, P.390.

<sup>7</sup> Ibid.



The subject matter unit is more compatible with the present curriculum of the rural teacher training schools. The school should start with the emphasis on the subject matter unit and gradually, as the teachers are trained to use units efficiently, shift to the experience unit. The use of subject matter units would be an improvement over the present lecture method. They integrate subject matter by relating it to a meaningful purpose. Through group work, the subject matter unit provides desirable social experiences such as planning together, expressing views, cooperation, self-responsibility for work, participation in activities, and respect for the right of other individuals. Schorling emphasizes the importance of units as follows:

The division of a subject or area into units enables the teacher to see the relation of a particular subject-matter area to the fundamental purposes of education, and moreover forces the teacher to weigh values carefully when listing the special objectives of the subject. It permits the teacher to plan activities that change the classroom from an isolated social situation into a vital laboratory of life by basing selection and organization of material on human needs and the persistent problems of life.<sup>8</sup>

The major task of the teacher is how to develop a unit which can be an effective teaching technique. The following is a suggested general plan for developing a unit:

1. An overview is presented. The nature and scope of the unit is explained.
2. Teachers objectives are stated as clearly as is possible.
3. An approach or orientation is developed. The purpose of approach is to arouse interest and develop some background. This is usually done through pictures, excursions, or reading and many other ways.

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<sup>8</sup>Schorling, Raleigh, Student Teaching, 1940, P.93.

4. The planning period. After there has been sufficient background developed for the students, to raise intelligent questions, a discussion period should follow. During this time, and through discussion, the plan of work should be developed. In this stage, a fundamental learning situation utilizes experiences, subject matter and other materials when and as they are needed.

5. The working period. It begins when planning has been carried to the point that the group knows how to start doing the things it has planned. In this stage, the materials which contribute to the solution of the problems raised are gathered together and organized. All possible sources, such as excursions, interviews, visual materials, observation and research in books and magazines are utilized.

6. Reporting. Each committee [when the class is divided into committees] needs to have the opportunity to present the final results of their work to the class as a whole. During this time the teacher needs to be careful to see that all of the class receive the benefit of the work of individuals.

7. Culminating activity. In this stage some of the stories may be dramatized or exhibits may be established for the benefit of all the students and if possible for the parents as well.

8. Evaluation. A test may be given to cover the factual information taught in the unit. But this is not sufficient and evaluation should be developed to measure the extent to which the purposes (such as physical, emotional, intellectual, ethical, esthetic and spiritual purposes) have been realized through the activities. The teacher must be continually conscious of the general objectives as well as the special objectives toward which the unit is directed. Time should be allowed during the



unit to discuss progress and to determine what else could be done.<sup>9</sup>

In the light of the foregoing criteria and previous discussions the following recommendations are made for the improvement of method of instruction in rural teacher training schools:

1. Each student preparing to teach in the rural elementary school should be required to develop at least two units each year, during the training course, concerning certain topics that he would later teach in the elementary school. These units should be as practical as possible and should not take more than two or three weeks.

2. Trainees should participate in several units initiated by their teachers, during the training course, in order to learn skills in planning, working in groups, collecting data, reporting, and evaluating the results.

3. All students preparing to teach in the rural elementary schools should be required to teach at least one unit of two or three weeks duration while they are engaged in practice teaching. This may replace demonstration lessons.

4. Trainees may be required to visit elementary schools where a unit is being taught. Students should be required to examine the process of teaching and give a report expressing their personal reaction to it.

5. An expert teacher on unit teaching may be asked to set up a demonstration unit in the teacher training school for the trainees.

6. Books, magazines and printed materials on unit teaching in the elementary schools should be provided by the teacher training school as reference sources for the use of students while working on units.

7. All available sources in the community should be studied by the

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<sup>9</sup>Lee, Op. Cit., P.201 ff.

trainees under the guidance of the teacher to provide rich materials for developing units which are of interest to students.

Practice teaching. It is desirable that the trainees stay at least two weeks in the villages for practice teaching. This is in addition to the weekly observation during their second year of training. During this period, the trainees should be required to get acquainted with the pupils and the school environments, investigating and surveying the locality, and knowing something about the environment in which the students live and taking them into account while teaching. In addition to the two-week stay in the village, trainees should visit other rural schools, attend classes, and observe the method of teaching of other teachers. They should also give demonstration lessons or teach units under the direction of a critic teacher and later, without the aid of the critic teacher.

### Evaluation

The basic theory in Iran underlying the evaluation of a student's progress is the principle of a minimum grade standard, which means that students must attain certain standards before being promoted to the succeeding grade.<sup>10</sup>

This principle stems from the dual system of education, one is to train those few capable for leadership in the community and the other is for the masses. To shift from the present undesirable evaluation system to a system that fits the new objectives of rural teacher training schools and promote the principle of equality of educational opportunities, namely to provide opportunities in such a way that each pupil would be able to benefit from his education to the fullest of his aptitudes and abilities,

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<sup>10</sup>Ekrami, Op. Cit., P.185.

then the minimum grade standard should be discarded and more authority should be given to the teachers to evaluate the students' progress in a continuous process during the course.

The purpose of evaluation is to observe, study, and interpret the changes in the behavior of students and direct them in such a way that the educational objectives are accomplished.<sup>11</sup>

Dr. Frederick Korf, explains the purpose of evaluation in the following statement:

The purpose of evaluation is to attempt to measure the achievement, effort, growth, weaknesses and potential of students as well as the teachers' strength and weaknesses.<sup>12</sup>

In the light of these purposes of evaluation, methods and techniques should be developed for the improvement of the present evaluation system in training schools. There should be a gradual shift from the present essay type to objective type tests.<sup>13</sup> A combination of essay type and objective questions are desirable and such tests can be prepared by the teachers concerned in terms of the subjects covered during the semester. By using a combination of both essay type and objective tests, evaluation of students' achievement can be made more fair than using any one of them and thus reducing their weaknesses to a minimum. In the essay part, the

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<sup>11</sup>Shane, Harold G., Evaluation and the Elementary School Curriculum, 1951, P.61.

<sup>12</sup>"Three Education Professors Comment on Fair Evaluation", Outlook, XIII, January 1959, P.4.

<sup>13</sup>For further information see, Thorndike, Robert L. and others, Measurement and Evaluation in Psychology and Evaluation, 1955, Chapters 3 and 4.

evaluator will appraise the student's ability to recall information, select relevant material, and organize it into an integrated answer. In the objective part of the test, the student is free from the language use, the quality of handwriting, and organization of his information and above all the subjectivity of grading is reduced to a minimum. This new technique should be introduced at the beginning of the academic year and not all of a sudden at the end of the year. The teacher should use the new procedure informally several times during the course and work with the students to make sure that they have understood the method and are well acquainted with the system before being introduced in the form of final examination.

Report cards are effective means for evaluating students' progress. In report cards space should be provided for evaluating behaviors such as, study habits, social adjustment and critical thinking. Such reports are called descriptive reports and should be carefully prepared, by the school authorities, to serve to encourage the student to work better in the future. Individual differences and individual abilities should be taken into account. As a result of stressing descriptive marking and reporting, the emphasis upon the grades per se will be decreased. More over these descriptive reports are records of student progress in course of time and serve as basis for reviewing and evaluating school activities in the past and planning of future activities.<sup>14</sup>

In the light of the previous discussion the following recommendations are offered:

1. Each student in the rural teacher training school should be required to prepare one objective test on a certain subject taught in a grade in the rural elementary schools.

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<sup>14</sup>Blair, G.M., and others, Educational Psychology, 1956, P.499.

2. Arrangements should be made for the observation of the evaluation system in the nearby village schools. Students should be required to report on their observations giving their personal reflections on the system observed and their suggestions for its improvement.

3. Evaluation systems in teacher training schools should serve as an example of practical objective and subjective tests in order to set a pattern for the trainees to be used in future situations. It is desirable to use tests frequently during the course in training schools in order to avoid cramming on the part of students. As it was noted in the previous discussions, the present system provides for only two examinations a year which result in cramming and memorization.

4. Students at the teacher training schools should be required to prepare examples of descriptive report cards and improve them under the guidance of their teachers.

#### Planning the Budget

Another important problem in rural teacher training schools is the administrative problem of planning the budget. The kind of budget and the extent of the school's authority in spending the funds has an important effect on the progress of school affairs in general. Without a sound budgeting plan the school materials cannot be prepared efficiently.

The full authority of the principal of rural teacher training school regarding the school budget is conducive to the sound management of the school affairs, but the transfer of provision from one item to another which is allowed with the approval of the principal, has created a serious problem for the Ministry of Education; in some cases the funds have been spent for unnecessary items. To overcome this problem and at the same time

to prevent red tape in the administration of school, it is recommended that a more detailed budget with consideration of the amount of funds for each item be prepared by the school staff in terms of the needs of the school during the following academic year. For example item five of the present teacher training school budget refers to, dormitory equipment and supplies with the total amount of Rls.35,820.<sup>15</sup> This is vague and should be broken into more specific items according to the needs of the school in each academic year. An improvement over the item might be as follows. This item includes replacement of blankets, sheets, pillow cases, the repair of mattresses, new mirrors, and other miscellaneous equipment. Then an itemized budget for this item may be developed by the school staff as follows: sixty blankets Rls.15000, eighty sheets Rls.6000, hundred mattresses for repair Rls.10000, sixty pillow cases Rls.2100, twenty mirrors Rls.720 and miscellaneous Rls.2000 amounting to the total of Rls.35,820. A detailed budget has been developed for a possible use in determining a more detailed budget for rural teacher training schools.<sup>16</sup> When such an itemized budget be developed by the school staff on the basis of the possible needs of the school, and approved by the Ministry, then the scope of the budget and the responsibilities of the school authorities are clearly defined and there is no need for the transfer of provision from one item to another. The principal knows how to spend the budget accurately and properly and the Ministry is aware of the detailed expenditure on each item.

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<sup>15</sup> See Table IV, P.47.

<sup>16</sup> See Appendices C and D.

## CHAPTER VI

### PROPOSALS FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOR RURAL TEACHERS IN IRAN

In the previous chapters the problem of the present unqualified teachers was discussed. It was explained how unqualified teachers have become an obstacle in the way of improving the present Iranian system of education. Qualified teachers are essential for producing reforms in the educational system of a country. Without a sufficient number of such qualified teachers any project for the improvement of education would be a failure and consequently a waste of funds and effort.

#### The Need for In-service Education

The need for in-service training of teachers has become world-wide; the idea of continuous growth of teachers is commonly accepted in all progressive countries. A recent study of approximately 2000 school districts of all the states in America revealed that ninety-four percent of them were providing their teachers with some sort of opportunities for professional growth on the job.<sup>1</sup>

In rural Iran, the number of present unqualified teachers is great, moreover many are not interested in their work as a professional career. The training and development of the youth of the country is in the hands of these teachers. Even if enough qualified teachers are prepared,

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<sup>1</sup>Spears, Harold, Curriculum Planning Through In-service Programs, 1957, P.316.



the unqualified teachers cannot be easily replaced, because these individuals support families and the personal economic consequences of discharging them would be disastrous. A possible solution to this problem at present is to help them raise their academic and professional standards through training them on the job. This training if properly handled, would help a good deal in correcting their present professional deficiencies. The objective should be mass education of all those younger teachers who are at present deficient in professional preparation.

Other reasons for the need of on-the-job training of teachers are - the rapidly changing culture of the country and the implications of this for the curriculum, the methods of instruction, evaluation and administration of the school. The continuing increase in pupil enrollments and number of teachers and the introduction of new techniques based on psychological studies of the child and his development are also reasons for the fact that teachers today need to work continuously to keep abreast of what they must know and must be able to do.<sup>2</sup>

### Planning the Program

For planning, organizing and conducting the activities of in-service education of teachers, Parker suggests the following criteria in the form of twelve guidelines:

1. People work as individuals and as members of groups on problems that are significant to them.
2. The same people who work on problems formulate goals and plan how they will work.
3. Many opportunities are developed for people to relate themselves to each other.
4. Continuous attention is given to individual and to group problem-solving process.

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<sup>2</sup>National Society for the Study of Education, In-service Education, 1957, P.1.



5. Atmosphere is created that is conducive to building mutual respect, support, permissiveness, and creativeness.
6. Multiple and rich resources are made available and are used.
7. The simplest possible means are developed to move through decisions to actions.
8. Constant encouragement is present to test and try ideas and plans in real situations.
9. Appraisal is made an integral part of in-service activities.
10. Continuous attention is given to the interrelationship of different groups.
11. The facts of individual differences among members of each group are accepted and utilized.
12. Activities are related to pertinent aspects of the current educational, cultural, political, and economic scene.<sup>3</sup>

The important implications of these guidelines or criteria will be discussed in the light of previous chapters and recommendations are made accordingly.

The first guideline refers to one's system of values. If the in-service program is significant to an individual, then his interest is aroused and he can see the relationship between the program and his value system. For example, a value important to many teachers in rural Iran, is to be able to teach children how to read and interpret the Qur'an. This is partly because reading the Qur'an is of high value among the rural community. If the in-service program can, among other things, help teachers in improving their method of teaching the Qur'an, then the program has got some significance to the teachers and parents as well. Teaching Qur'an is by pure memorization at present. The teacher may improve his method by using translation, interpretation and application to the daily life. The program should be of significance not only to individuals, but also to the group. Activities by a group results in a

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<sup>3</sup>National Society for the Study of Education, Op. Cit., P.103 ff.

greater outcome. The exchange of ideas among the members of a group can develop a better solution for the problems in question. Each member of the group is superior to others in some respects and "two heads think better than one head." The decisions should be made by the group rather than by individuals and every effort should be made to obtain consensus.

The second guideline is concerned with the formulation of goals and selection of appropriate procedures for the group work. The goals should not be imposed upon the teachers participating in the program. The group should set its goals and plan its own procedures accordingly. This does not mean that the administrator or the group leader should give no suggestions regarding the goals or procedures, it means that the suggestions may come from the leader but should be accepted by the group. When the problems to be discussed in the meetings become their own, the teachers are interested in finding solutions to overcome such problems.

The third guideline refers to the interpersonal relationships among the participants in an in-service group and the importance of such relations in the success of the whole program. The small groups facilitate better interactions among the individuals. So it is suggested to divide the group into smaller ones according to their interest concerning a certain problem. Interaction among teachers in informal contacts is also of importance. Many problems may be solved when teachers meet informally in the dining hall, at recess time, at playgrounds or on a field trip.

The fourth guideline is concerned with the continuous attention to the individual and group problems. A group of teachers in an in-service program are different individuals with different backgrounds, varied abilities and aptitudes and different value systems. The leader of the group should continually pay attention to the proper procedures leading

to the objectives of the program. The means and ends need to be consistent. For example one of the objectives would be to have all the individuals participating in the discussion. If there is a teacher or an administrator among the group who is talkative and tends to monopolize the discussion, then the leader who is always conscious of such problems should step in to make arrangements for others to take part in the discussion as well.

The fifth guideline stresses an atmosphere that is conducive to building mutual respect, support, permissiveness and creativeness. A free and friendly atmosphere should be encouraged at all times. The differences of status between the instructors and trainees should be eliminated by friendly sessions, weekend trips and informal gatherings. Leadership should be based on democratic procedures. Leaders should be elected by the groups and accepted by the majority. Discussion leaders play an important part in teachers meetings. They have the responsibility of creating a permissive atmosphere in which each individual teacher can express himself to the fullest of his abilities and at the same time respect the freedom of other participants. The members of the groups should be encouraged by the leader to discuss their problems in order to bring them out more clearly and to get the group's reaction. Every effort should be made to involve the entire group in each and every problem and the members of the group should be encouraged to work together as much as possible.

The sixth guideline is concerned with the rich resources to be available for the use of trainees. All the sources available whether human or material should be provided by the course administrator and with the help of the teachers participating in the program. For example if

there is a certain picture needed at the course, it is probable that one of the teachers possess the picture. Many resources can be made available by the members of the group themselves.

The seventh guideline refers to the functional aspects of the in-service program. Decisions made at the meetings should be put into action. The proposals reached at the meetings should never be filed away, otherwise teachers will lose interest in participating in similar programs. If the effectiveness of the activities is desired to be continued, the decisions should be followed by actions.

The eighth guideline stresses the effect of encouragement in testing ideas in real situation. The real situation for testing the ideas of a group of in-service teachers is the school environment. Ideas should be tested in action within the school. The teachers should be encouraged and motivated by the administrators to go back to their schools and put into action the outcomes of their meetings and submit a progress report in the following session of the program.

The ninth guideline refers to the appraisal of in-service activities. The activities of an in-service program should be appraised in a continuous process along with the course in order to find out the achievement of the participants in an objective way. In this appraisal, factors such as planning, organization, participation of the individuals and groups, kinds of social interactions, decisions and practicability of the outcomes should be taken into account. In the other words, the evaluator should try to support his value judgments by gathering data in the real situations.

The tenth guideline stresses the significance of the interrelationship of different groups. The relationship between groups is of importance to the success of the whole program. It may promote better understanding

among groups or cause some misunderstanding among them. It is up to the administrator to be always conscious of the kind of relationship among the different groups in a program and see that everything is going on smoothly and properly. For example, the individuals in a certain group may be members of an informal group which is in conflict with some members in other groups and then develop certain attitude which hinders the progress of the program. The administrator then should be continuously aware of the interrelationship among different groups.

The eleventh guideline refers to the individual differences among the members of each group. Although members of each group may gather together because they have many things in common, nevertheless there are certain differences among them in values, attitude toward change, and background that should be taken into consideration by the administrator. For example, some people are resistant to change, while others eagerly welcome new ideas. Therefore some conflicts are expected among the members of a group which should be handled with care by the discussion leader. The leader should accept all of the members as they are, let them express their points of view and only interrupt when the freedom of an individual is violated by the other person.

The twelfth guideline stresses the point that in-service training activities should not be divorced from life and must be related to the cultural, political and economic life of the people. The teachers participating in an in-service program will carry back new ideas and outcomes to their communities where they teach. They have to put them into practice in terms of other things in the surrounding culture. So if for example their outcomes from the course is in conflict with those of the parents or community leaders, the success of their plans seems

doubtful. Since education in general is colored by the social, political, and economic life of the community, thus the activities of the in-service program should be consonant with those forces underlying the education system of the country and the work of all in-service groups should be related to the organization and procedures of a given school system in a given community.<sup>4</sup>

### The Resources

The method used in teaching in-service groups should first, instruct the group in the most efficient and pleasant manner and secondly, should serve as an example to the members of the group and to illustrate some of the varied techniques which they could use in their own classrooms. So the administration of the in-service training program and selection of the right administrators and instructors is of prime importance.

In the light of the preceding criteria, the following methods and techniques are recommended for the improvement of in-service education programs in rural Iran. In planning, organizing and conducting the programs, the administrator should always bear in mind the suggested guidelines and their implications.

Audio-visual aids. It is recommended that the use of audio-visual aids be a part of the in-service programs in rural Iran. The considerable growth of audio-visual materials and equipment in school practices is the evidence of the fact that audio-visual materials are today recognized and accepted as essential means of increasing the effectiveness of teaching and learning specially in elementary schools. Even if there is not enough budget in the rural school system in Iran to afford expensive equipment,

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<sup>4</sup>National Society for the Study of Education, Op. Cit., P.104,ff.



at least with the effective use of audio-visual materials such as black-board, felt-board, maps, globes, display boards, pictures, etc., ways and means can be provided to make learning and teaching richer, more concrete, and more meaningful.

The use of audio-visual aids is important especially in rural Iran, where some essential tools in education such as textbooks and library materials are lacking and therefore they should be compensated for by using audio-visual aids especially radio and movies. Among the programs broadcast by Radio Teheran at present, there are many items which have educational values for pupils as well as teachers and can be used as supplementary materials for making teaching-learning situations interesting and more meaningful. For example there is special program broadcast by Radio Teheran on rural home economics which may supplement the home economics course in girls schools. There is another program for children which may be used by the teacher in language courses. Stories which are broadcast on every Friday can also be used as good resources for composition. The increasing use of radio in rural areas is conducive in making this important communication medium a practical and effective tool in the hands of trained teachers.

Field trips. Field trips should be a part of in-service programs in rural Iran. The group may visit schools, archaeological excavations, farms, factories and other places of interest to be acquainted with these educational facilities in the surrounding culture and use them later on for a better understanding of the subjects by their pupils. In using field trips as a part of the training program the following should be taken into consideration:

The administrator should visit the place beforehand and if he believes that the place will provide valuable learning experiences for the group, then he should proceed with further planning. The next step is to arrange a discussion about the trip. It will assist the teachers to develop definite purposes and will arouse their curiosity and interest in the experiences they will acquire. While the group is studying the place, they should be encouraged to ask questions and take notes. When the teachers are back from the trip, a discussion should be arranged to exchange ideas about their findings. The teachers may have new questions, a new experience leads to curiosity about other factual information and experiences. Sometimes it may lead to participation of the group in projects which benefit the community. Finally the administrator should evaluate the success of the field trip in terms of what was experienced by the group.<sup>5</sup> If the field trip is planned according to the preceding criteria, it will be a carefully planned learning experience for the teachers participating in the field trip. It will also arouse and create interest in them and will give them backgrounds of experience for further studies.

Professional reading. Most of the present rural teachers in Iran do not have the study habits. They do not study enough and are only dependent on their previous knowledge. When they are on the job, they are not expected by administrators to continue to grow professionally. Moreover, they have not been taught how to get materials and books which help them in solving their problems. It is therefore recommended:

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<sup>5</sup>Wittich, Walter Arno, and others, Audio-Visual Materials, 1953  
P.265.



1. The principal should have in his office a shelf or two of pamphlets and books that would be most useful to teachers for their use. He could urge and encourage his teachers to read such materials at their leisure time.

2. The principal with the help of the teachers and cooperative local people, can establish active professional libraries in his school. If this is not possible one such library should be established in a central institution by the joint effort of the principals concerned, which can be used by the neighbouring schools.

3. In faculty meetings, the teachers should be encouraged to discuss and consider new ideas relating to school aspects and current educational practices.

4. Publishers should be encouraged to send a copy of new professional materials to the school library.

5. Qualified teachers should be encouraged to translate books, pamphlets and reference works on modern educational techniques. They can also write teachers manuals in simple language for the less qualified teachers.

As it has been discussed in the previous chapters, teacher's full time is occupied in the school and out of school for earning enough money to live on. Hence it is difficult to be able to stimulate teachers under such conditions to study. Therefore it is recommended that the principals should make provisions in work schedules of teachers so that each week, they can dedicate a part of their official hours for studying new practices in education and improve themselves professionally.

### Training Courses

In the light of the previous discussions, a series of courses

for the in-service training of teachers in rural Iran are recommended in order that educators and administrators interested in the problem may have varieties of choices and can apply any of them which is more consonant with the needs of the teachers in a given district or school. The writer has made every attempt to eliminate suggestions which would need unnecessary expenditure on the part of the Ministry of Education.

Daily training. The principal who is a leader and possesses organizing ability can be a good teacher trainer in his school. For example, he may encourage his teachers to prepare their lesson plans in advance. This is a good start for those teachers who teach their classes without any planning. He can also visit the classes frequently and supervise the teaching methods and later arrange a discussion with the teachers concerned in a friendly atmosphere. In this way the teachers will develop confidence in the principal and realize that his purposes are aimed at helping them improve themselves professionally. If the principal is too busy, he may delegate some of these duties to one of the more experienced teachers in the school. Sometimes educational problems which might be of benefit to all the staff, can be discussed in the faculty meetings. Through such activities, the school itself becomes a training center for its teachers and the training become a continuous day-to-day process by cooperative effort of the school staff.

Periodic meetings. Teachers of the neighbouring schools should be brought together weekly, monthly, or quarterly depending upon the needs of the teachers and availability of the facilities. In these meetings current educational problems may be discussed and teachers will exchange experiences on the problems of teaching or administration

difficulties. For example, in one session they may discuss teaching certain skills such as sentence construction, punctuation and penmanship in composition in the sixth grade. In another session they may discuss how to give practice in simple sentence construction, using one idea in one sentence, in the fourth grade. Such meetings provide good opportunities for demonstration lessons. One of the teachers who already feels secure should be given a chance to give a demonstration lesson on a subject which is of interest to the whole group and then arrange a discussion to analyze the weaknesses and strengths of the demonstration. The administrator should give a chance to all the teachers to express themselves and only step in when more elaboration is needed to clarify a point. Since there is no school on Thursday afternoons, it is the best time for holding such periodic meetings in rural Iran.

Special academic courses. One of the ways by which rural teachers in Iran can be stimulated to improve themselves professionally, is to have evening academic courses for them in each province, so that they can take part in such courses at their leisure time and prepare themselves for the state examination. There are many teachers in rural Iran who are eager to improve their training but do not have access to private academic classes. In these courses the teachers can be given professional training in addition to academic courses. These academic courses vary according to the developmental level of the teachers but they are usually subjects such as history, geography, chemistry, physics, mathematics, algebra etc. Such courses should be taught according to the secondary school curriculum. Professional training may be offered on such subjects as child growth and

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<sup>6</sup>Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., P.65.

development, especially between the ages of six and sixteen. The nature of the learning, favorable and unfavorable conditions for learning, applying the rules and principles of learning to the classroom procedures. The importance of motivation. Characteristics of a good rural teacher. Responsibilities of the teacher to the students, to the parents, to the community, and to his profession. Characteristics of a good rural school. Classroom management, equipment and facilities. Discipline and guidance. Preparation of daily plans. How to make assignments. How to evaluate students' achievements. The use of audio visual aids in teaching. How to make use of field trips, dramatics, collections, exhibitions in providing desirable activities for making the lesson meaningful.

For being accepted as qualified teachers, an examination may be offered to applicants each year. With this project a large number of present rural teachers in Iran will gradually avail themselves of the opportunity for obtaining higher academic standards and at the same time improve their professional training.

Short courses. Short courses are the most important approaches at present, because many of the present rural teachers in Iran have not had any kind of training. These courses exist in great variety according to the local conditions in each area. They vary in length, but a typical duration might be from two weeks to one month. These courses would be a contribution to the personal education of rural teachers, who have not had the same educational opportunities open to them as their fellows in towns and cities. Short courses should also serve to professionalize and supplement the special academic courses. The training may start with courses taught in the elementary schools such as language, agriculture,

mathematics, geometry etc. First general principles in teaching such subjects in elementary schools may be discussed. Then specific subjects in each grade may be dealt with, for example, spelling in the first grade, numbering skills in the second grade, teaching rectangle in the third grade, school sanitation in the fourth grade, plowing and its uses in the fifth grade, and how to choose the good seeds in the sixth grade. Demonstration lessons on such subjects may be given by experienced teachers followed by a group discussion. Visiting the rural schools and the village centers followed by a discussion about their observations is desirable.

It is practical to have short courses either during the summer or winter vacations. The best place for holding such courses is rural teacher training schools which possess boarding equipment as well as educational facilities and thus can create a sound training atmosphere. It will also save the Ministry, expenses of having an independent training center. Fortunately the Ministry of Education is willing to dedicate funds for the training of teachers and short courses are being held increasingly by Educational Departments in different parts of the country.<sup>7</sup>

Additional courses. The graduates of rural teacher training schools in Iran depend very much on their previous training and do not study on the job. The main reason for the lack of the study habit in them is the fact that their past experiences have led them to think that their professional growth ends when they are graduated. So there is a need for occasional courses for these graduates to bring them up-

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<sup>7</sup> Ministry of Education, Op. Cit., P.65.

to-date and provide them with the latest development in educational practices. For example courses may be given on recent techniques of motivating the child in the classroom procedures. The correct way of asking questions, of reciting, and of making assignments. How to make report cards. How to teach extra-curricular activities. How to teach adult classes. Recent developments in audio-visual aids and the method of working with them. How to make cheap audio-visual aids. The administration of the school. The student-teacher and teacher-teacher relationships. The relation of people in the rural areas and the schools. Teacher's leadership within the rural community.

A team of two or three supervising teachers may be sent out to go to rural districts and hold refresher courses for rural teachers on weekends. This is practiced in Mexico and can be applied in rural Iran.<sup>8</sup> Supervising teachers can be chosen from among the teachers in rural teacher training schools and with some subsidy, they may be sent to rural schools to help the teachers improve their knowledge and skills and to discuss their problems with them.

Summer courses. Since teachers in Iran have about three months vacation during the summer, the Ministry can take advantage of this opportunity to arrange all kinds of training courses in accordance with the needs of the teachers in each area. The problem is that it is very hard to have rural teachers attend the training courses during the summer because most of them work on the farms. So it is recommended to either have day classes for only a month or arrange evening courses for them.

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<sup>8</sup>Kurani, Op. Cit., P.17.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Rural Iran, at present, faces a shortage of 5000 additional teachers per year. Because of the rapid increase in the birth rate and the consequent increase in the enrollment of elementary schools the need for teacher education is great. The educational system of Iran is in a stage of modernization and therefore the role of the teacher is crucial because he should be the social leader in directing new changes to meet the needs of the people and the needs of the society. Although a great number of present rural teachers are unqualified but they might be good teachers if they are given an opportunity to learn.

In this study two main problems have been tackled. One is the pre-service education and the other is the in-service education of rural teachers. In regard to pre-service education the writer has come up with some proposals for the improvement of the selection of candidates, the curriculum, the teaching method, the evaluation system and budgeting of the rural teacher training schools which might serve as guides for the improvement of those institutions.

In the case of in-service training of rural teachers a series of training courses have been suggested as guides for raising the academic and professional standards of rural teachers in Iran. But if the program and activities are to be effective, special attention must be given to the following:

The Ministry of Education should adopt a policy for attracting rural teachers to attend training courses. They should be motivated by giving some privileges to those who attend training courses. For example those who pass the course should be entitled to privileges such as



increments, promotion in rank or better positions in the school or administration, depending upon the type of training offered and the qualifications of the trainees. In the light of the previous chapters it is recommended that the training courses must be compulsory for those who have not already had them. Those teachers not taking courses within a prescribed period, the maximum of three years, should be subject to suspension or dismissal.

The writer believes that through a soundly organized in-service program, the great mass of present unqualified rural teachers can gradually be trained to be of better service in teaching future citizens of Iran and be able to meet the needs of an emerging democratic society.

A P P E N D I X E S

## APPENDIX A

### TWO YEAR CURRICULUM FOR THE RURAL TEACHERS TRAINING SCHOOLS

This curriculum is approved by the Ministry of Education for 9th grade Rural Teachers Training Schools. Each section represents a major course, with the subject material that is to be taught in the course. Most of these courses are taught over the two year period and in each case the subject material for each year is described.

The time allotted for each course is based on the number of hours per week for each school week during the entire school year. This means each course should be taught so many hours each week.

#### Botany - 2 hours/week

- 1st year: Introduction to botany; plant morphology; roots leaves and stems; plant processes - how they live, nourishment, transpiration, respiration, storage of plant food.
- 2nd year: Propagation - flowering; fruits and seeds, purpose of seeds; sex of plants; plant classification; study of parasitic plants.

#### Farming - 3 hours/week

- 1st year: The soil - formation, physical and chemical properties, depth of soil; difference and kinds of soil for farming; mechanical properties of soil; effect of water, wind,

temperature and oxygen on soil and plant life; fertilizers; preparing seed bed; seed selection; irrigation; cultivation; harvesting and storage of procedure.

2nd year: Specialized farming - study of cereals, rice, millet, corn and other Iranian forage crops; cash crops - cotton, cucumbers, melons and tobacco; oil crops; spices and legumes.

Horticulture - 3 hours/week

1st year: Vegetables and flowers. Garden planning, garden lay-out, preparing soil and seed bed, manure, how to plant, time of planting; specialized vegetable crops; grouping according to types and season of plants; harvesting, storage and propagation. Floraculture - laying out and preparing seed bed; growing nursery seedlings and transplanting; management and care of potted plants.

2nd year: Study of trees and vines; nursery management, transplanting, pruning, grafting, caring and management of trees and vines.

Animal Husbandry 2 hours/week

1st year: General animal husbandry. Introduction, effect of environment, heredity and its rules, cross breeding, anatomy, breeding, propagation and care during pregnancy, caring for the young, housing, stables and mangers according to sanitary principles.

2nd year: Specialized A.H. cattle, sheep, goats, horses, ox, donkey and poultry - feeding, caring and management.

Machinery - 2 hours/week

- 1st year: Introduction and importance of machinery, power - its use, transmission and movement, soil preparing, plant and harvesting machinery.
- 2nd year: Tractor motors and principles, maintenance and how to drive a tractor.

Rural Fine Arts - 2 hours/week

- 2nd year only: Silk worm - history of silk, kinds and types, feeding, caring and managing, processes of making silk. Bees - production of honey, caring and managing bee hives. Dairy products - milk, butter, cheese, whey and drying whey. Wine - composition of grape varieties, how to make wine, fermentation and processing.

Economics - 2 hours/week

- 2nd year only: Sources of capital, study of labor, demand and supply, taxation, common taxes in Iran, renting farm lands, shares and divisions of crops, rural crops, study of money, legalities in buying land.

Irrigation - 1 hour/week

- 1st year only: Natural water resources, division of water, rainfall, effect of division of water on quality of soil, penetration, floods and flood control, making use of underground water, kanats, wells and springs, river control, dams and canals. Measurement of water according to Iranian system. Relation of water to soil and plants.

Physics - 1 hour/week

- 1st year: Power, levers, scales, weights, liquids and gases; pumps, temperature, light and lenses, units and measurements.
- 2nd year: Magnets, electricity, potential energy, weather and atmospheric conditions.

Chemistry - 1 hour/week

- 1st year: Analyses and compositions of the elements, chemical laws; study of the elements, especially those essential in agriculture.
- 2nd year: Organic chemistry, analyses and study of organic compounds.

Entomology and Biology - 2 hours/week

- 1st year: **Biology:** Study and classification of animals, human anatomy, disease germs, parasites.  
**Entomology:** Study, classification and anatomy of insects, reproduction habits.
- 2nd year: Insect control, insecticides, ways and means of insect control, classification of agronomic insects.

Sanitation - 2 hours/week

- 1st year: Importance, public and social sanitation; study of disease germs, disinfection as a control and disinfectants, individual sanitation, clothes, houses and health; facts about insects, and controls; purification of water. First aid for sun stroke, burns and suffocation; harms of alcohol and nicotine.
- 2nd year: Vaccination and serum, immunity, study of communicable diseases, typhoid, typhus, smallpox, rabies, malaria, T.B.,

measles, diphtheria, venereal diseases, fungus and trachoma.

Psychology - 2 hours/week

- 1st year: Psychology of Education.  
2nd year: Teaching methods and classroom techniques.

Mathematics - 2 hours/week

- 1st year: Mathematics on 9th grade level and algebra.  
2nd year: Mathematics - problem solving and geometry.

Language

- 1st year: Persian - 3 hours/week or 144 hrs. per year.  
Foreign - 2 hours/week or 96 hrs. per year.  
2nd year: Persian - 3 hours/week or 144 hrs. per year.  
Foreign - 1 hour /week or 48 hrs. per year.

Field Work

Field work includes all the practical training outside of classroom lessons. Such field work is divided into five sections:-

1. Farming: Learning to plow, handle and work with hand tools, irrigation methods, fertilizing the soil, planting, cultivating and harvesting.
2. Animal Husbandry: Care of barns and stables; keeping, feeding and managing domestic animals and poultry.
3. Gardens: Raising vegetables and flower gardens.
4. Machinery: Learning how machinery works, carpentry and maintenance, repair and assembly of machinery.



5. Insect Control: Learning how to use, repair and maintain spraying equipment, insecticides, insect and plant collections and identification.

## APPENDIX B

### A SUGGESTED SAMPLE OF A NEW SUBJECT IN THE CURRICULUM OF RURAL TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS

#### RURAL SOCIOLOGY

##### Objective

To familiarize students with the social complexities of rural life. To guide students in becoming aware of how social customs, traditions and relationships between people affect change in the social structure of the village and that planned change is necessary for rural progress.

##### Course Content for the Classroom

I. Community life. The concept and role of the individual within the community. Society in its narrower and wider sense. The responsibility of the individual in village relationships with other individuals, families and the village as a whole. The responsibility of the individual in aiding the village to progress and make favorable changes.

II. Past and present. How the present mode of living is regulated by the past; such as by language, writing, clothes, religion,

utensils, tools and equipment, laws and so forth. How changes and happenings within the village are related to changes and happenings elsewhere. What brings about change and factors influencing slow or rapid change. How change can be simple in the beginning and later brings on complexities.

III. Family relationships. A study of the significance of the family on the social structure of the village. A study of the responsibilities of family members to the family. Factors which cause an unhappy family and a happy family. The place of the woman in the family and society as a mother, nurse, worker and educator. The importance of the woman in the total Iranian society.

IV. The individual and education. The home and its effect on the individual. The school and its effect on the individual. The effect of other environment than the home and school on the individual. The objectives of rural education for rural youth. The importance of adult education.

V. The government. The meaning of a democratic government. A study of the local government in the form of village councils. A study of Ostan government and its constituent parts. A study of the national or central government. A brief study of the Iranian constitution. The meaning of civil law and how it protects the citizen and how the citizen must respect civil law. The meaning and respect of public opinion. The process of democratic election.

VI. Leisure. The importance and need for village recreation. Group recreation and wholesome physical activities for village children, out of school youth, boys and girls, and for adults, men and women. Other individual and group undertakings which benefit the village as a whole.

APPENDIX C

A PROPOSED BUDGET FOR RURAL TEACHER  
TRAINING SCHOOLS COVERING THE FINANCIAL  
SUPPORT FOR 100 STUDENTS IN TWELVE MONTHS

Item 1. Total Food . . . . . 1,530,200 Rls.

The food cost per boy is figured at 46.37 Rials per day or 15,302 Rials per boy per year. This item does not include the cost of transporting the food from its source to school. Whenever possible, the food should be purchased from the local villages.

Item 2. Other Individual Subsistence . . . . . 244,640 Rls.

This item includes such student subsistence as soap, laundry, shoe repair, barber, medical expenses and student allowances. The total cost per day is 6.8 Rials.

Item 3. Other Monthly Subsistence Costs . . . . . 185,270 Rls.

This item includes the total fuel for heating, cooking and bath fuel for twelve months as well as plating the cooking utensils, and servant's rent.

Item 4. Annual Subsistence . . . . . 133,680 Rls.

This item includes clothing for 100 students, and eight cooks and the sanitorial supplies.

Item 5. Dormitory Equipment and Supplies. . . . . 35,820 Rls.

This item includes replacement of blankets, sheets, pillow cases, the repair of mattresses, new mirrors, and other miscellaneous equipment.

Item 6. Individual Students Supplies . . . . . 66,000 Rls.

This item includes the normal amount of supplies which a large school needs for its faculty, office and its students. It includes text books, office supplies and stationery.

Item 7. Field, Garden, Poultry and Farm Shop. . . . . 149,000 Rls.

This item has been separated from item No.8, because this item covers the practical work of the students in the field and in the work shops.

Item 8. Laboratory Supplies and Equipment. . . . . 101,400 Rls.

This item covers the expenditures of supplies, material and equipment for the classroom laboratories of science, biology, entomology, agriculture, visual aids, education and library.

Item 9. School Maintenance and Equipment. . . . . 100,500 Rls.

This item covers all types of building repairs and maintenance as well as the new equipment which should be purchased.

Item 10. Miscellaneous Expenses . . . . . 66,400 Rls.

This item includes the necessary expenditure for the school water system, the cost of transportation of food supplies and materials to school and field trip transportation for students.

The total budget amounts to Rls.2,612,910. The total cost per boy per day is Rls. 72.58, the total cost per boy per month is Rls.217.74

and the total cost per boy per year is Rs. 26,129.

APPENDIX D

AN ITEMIZED BUDGET FOR RURAL TEACHER  
TRAINING SCHOOLS IN IRAN

Item 1. Total Food, food per boy per day:

<u>Food</u>	<u>Grams Per Day</u>	<u>Price Per Kilo</u>	<u>Total Price</u>
Cooking oil	75	100	7.5
Bread	750	6	4.50
Rice	225	20	4.50
Meat	180	60	10.80
Yogurt	150	7.5	1.1
Cheese	40	40	1.60
Eggs	one	2	2
Sugar lump	30	20	.60
Sugar	30	18	.54
Tea	2.75	200	.55
Dried vegetables	120	14	1.68
Fresh vegetables			4
Fruit			5
Miscellaneous items - salt, turmeric etc.			2
Total			<hr/> 46.37



Item 2. Other Individual Subsistence.

	<u>Per Boy Per Month</u>	<u>Per 100 Boys Per Year</u>
Soap	26.37	31,640
Laundry	15	18,000
Shoe repair	7.5	9,000
Barber	15	18,000
Medical care	25	30,000
Student allowance	100	120,000
Miscellaneous	15	18,000
		<hr/>
Total		244,640

Item 3. Other Monthly Subsistence.

		<u>Annual Expenses</u>
Charcoal	3.5 per k.	6,300
Wood	.9 per k.	4,370
Kerosene		
Summer	1.9 per L.	51,300
Winter	1.9 per L.	85,500
Bath oil	1	15,000
Plating		15,000
Servant rent		4,200
Miscellaneous		3,600
		<hr/>
Total		185,270

Item 4. Annual Subsistence.

	<u>Per 100 Boys</u>
Clothing - 2 suits and one pair of shoes	124,000
Cooks uniform	3,200
Janitorial supplies	6,480
	<hr/>
Total	133,680

Item 5. Dormitory Equipment and Supplies.

60 Blankets	15,000
80 Sheets	6,000
100 Mattresses for repair	10,000
60 Pillow cases	2,100
20 Mirrors	720
Miscellaneous	2,000
	<hr/>
Total	35,820

Item 6. School and Office Supplies.

Office supplies and stationery	7,000
Individual student supplies	16,000
Text books	43,000
	<hr/>
Total	66,000

Item 7. Field, Garden, Poultry and Farm Shop.

Tools (field and garden)	17,000
Insecticides and equipment	10,500
Seeds	6,500

Fertilizers	30,000
New plantings for school	11,000
Poultry feed	14,000
Farm Shop	60,000
	<hr/>
Total	149,000

Item 8. Laboratory Equipment and Supplies.

Science laboratory	28,000
Biology and entomology laboratory	19,200
Agriculture laboratory	15,000
Visual aids laboratory	8,400
Education laboratory	6,000
Sports	18,000
Library	6,000
	<hr/>
Total	101,400

Item 9. School Maintenance and Equipment.

Building maintenance	54,000
Kitchen equipment and replacements	18,000
New equipment	
Tables and fixtures for one new lab.	10,500
30 Arm chair replacements	7,000
Material to rebuild dining tables	5,000
10 New stove replacements	6,000
	<hr/>
Total	100,500

Item 10. Miscellaneous Expenses.

Operation of pump	19,400
Transportation of food supplies and materials	32,000
Field trip transportation	15,000
	<hr/>
Total	66,400

## Summary of the total budget for hundred students:

<u>Summary of items</u>	<u>Cost per Boy per day</u>	<u>Cost per Boy per month</u>	<u>Cost per Boy per year</u>	<u>100 Boys per year</u>
Items 1 through 5, total students subsistence	59.16	1,774.66	21,296	2,129,610
Items 6 through 10, total cost of instructional supplies and school maintenance	13.42	402.75	4,833	483,300
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total	72.58	2,177.41	26,129	2,612,910

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